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The Effects of Paternalistic Leadership on New Generation Employees' Job Satisfaction and Turnover Intention

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Doctor of Management

Supervisors:

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ISCTE University Institute of Lisbon

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University of Electronic Science and Technology of China

March, 2023



**BUSINESS
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Abstract

Based on the social exchange theory, this study explores the influence mechanism and boundary conditions of paternalistic leadership (authoritarian leadership / benevolent leadership / moral leadership) on the relationship between employee job satisfaction and turnover intention. Through a three-wave time-lagged questionnaire data of 345 new-generation employees in eight companies, the results of this study show that: participative safety and communication quality play a mediating role in the relationship between paternalistic leadership and employee job satisfaction, and between paternalistic leadership and employee turnover intention. Perceived organizational support moderates the impacts of benevolent leadership on participative safety and communication quality, and the impact of moral leadership on communication quality. This study enriches the research on paternalistic leadership, and increases our understanding of social exchange theory. The conclusions have important practical implications for organizations to effectively manage the new generation of employees.

Keywords: paternalistic leadership; participative safety; communication quality; job satisfaction; turnover intention; perceived organizational support

JEL: M54; M12

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Resumo

Baseando-se na teoria da troca social, este estudo explora as condições de fronteira e o mecanismo de influência da liderança paternalista na relação entre a satisfação no trabalho dos colaboradores e a intenção de saída. Com base em dados de um questionário recolhido em três-ondas separadas no tempo de 345 colaboradores de nova geração em oito empresas, os resultados deste estudo mostram que a segurança participativa e a qualidade da comunicação desempenham um papel mediador na relação entre a liderança paternalista e a satisfação no trabalho do funcionário, e na relação entre a liderança paternalista e a intenção de saída dos colaboradores. O apoio organizacional modera o impacto da liderança benevolente na segurança participativa e na qualidade da comunicação, bem como o impacto da liderança ética na qualidade da comunicação. Este estudo enriquece a investigação sobre a liderança paternalista e amplia a compreensão e conhecimento da teoria da troca social. As conclusões deste estudo têm um importante significado prático de orientação sobre como as organizações podem gerir com eficácia a nova geração de colaboradores.

Palavras-chave: liderança paternalista; segurança participativa; qualidade da comunicação; satisfação no trabalho; intenção de saída; apoio organizacional

JEL: M54; M12

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摘要

基于社会交换理论，本研究探究了家长式领导对员工工作满意度和离职倾向关系间的影响机制和边界条件。通过 8 家企业 345 名新生代员工的三阶段时滞问卷数据，本研究的结果表明：参与式安全和沟通质量在家长式领导与员工工作满意度关系间、家长式领导与员工离职倾向关系间的起到了中介作用。组织支持感调节了仁慈领导对参与式安全和沟通质量的影响、以及德行领导对沟通质量的影响。本研究丰富了家长式领导的研究，增加了我们对社会交换理论的理解和认识，研究结论对组织如何有效管理新生代员工具有重要的现实指导意义。

关键词：家长式领导；参与式安全；沟通质量；工作满意度；离职倾向；组织支持感
JEL: M54; M12

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After four years of study, and through thesis workshops, thesis proposal, multiple rounds of questionnaire surveys and preparation and collation of huge amounts of data, the thesis has been ultimately completed, bringing me tremendous joy. It was greatly touching to have the scenes of all these years emerge in my mind one after another, together just like a movie! I hereby would like to express my sincere gratitude to all one by one.

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Especially, my deepest gratitude is given to the two supervisors of mine, Professor Nelson Ramalho and Professor CHEN Lu. As a top expert in the research of Human Resource Management and Organizational Behavior, Professor Nelson Ramalho has provided me with meticulous guidance in judging the directions of topic selection, as well as in citation and selection of theories. He was well strict and meticulous in testing the theoretical models and data quality, and continually brought me key guidance in the process of modeling research. During my thesis writing process, he always strictly supervised my writing and checked my progress at the critical time nodes, fed back the key points that I needed to pay more attention to in the process, and, when I was stuck in the process, encouraged me to carry on. Just like Professor Nelson Ramalho, Professor CHEN Lu has given me a lot of guidance and help in the study of research theories and methods. In addition, when I encountered problems in management practice, Professor Chen Lu gave me many cases to support my work with detailed analysis and comments; it was she who inspired me and helped me make qualitative breakthroughs in my leadership of management practice and career development. I believe that human development always contains self-learning and growth with the help of supervisors. Without the guidance of supervisors, it was hard to imagine that I could successfully complete my doctoral thesis in these four years. It was the greatest blessing to have my two supervisors' guidance!

My beloved wife, Mrs. WANG Xue, during my writing thesis process, has also strived to take care of our parents and kid at home in addition to dealing with her own company affairs. I still remember that, at the end of 2018, I came up with the idea of enrolling in a doctoral program, and she gave her full approval at the first time. After that, throughout my doctoral study period, she spared no efforts to support and encourage me, and was fully considerate of me, bring me unlimited confidence. It was with her love and encouragement that I was able to study at ease. She was definitely my spiritual support on my way forward.

At this moment, more touching scenes have just kept coming out of my mind, but words could not express all of them effectively. At the end of this part, I would like to thank most sincerely all the professors, fellows and relatives who have given me care and support but not yet been mentioned! Thank you all for your support, encouragement and companionship, and truly wish you all the best and health in the future!

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Contents

Chapter 1: Introduction.....	1
1.1 Research background.....	1
1.1.1 Realistic background	1
1.1.2 Theoretical background	2
1.2 Research objective and questions	3
1.3 Research methods	4
1.3.1 Literature research	5
1.3.2 Questionnaire surveys.....	5
1.3.3 Statistical analysis.....	5
1.4 Thesis structure	6
1.5 Summary.....	7
Chapter 2: Literature Review.....	9
2.1 Review of paternalistic leadership.....	9
2.1.1 Concept and measurement of paternalistic leadership.....	9
2.1.2 Antecedents of paternalistic leadership	13
2.1.3 Outcomes of paternalistic leadership.....	14
2.1.4 Conclusion	17
2.2 Review of participative safety	19
2.2.1 Concept and measurement of participative safety	19
2.2.2 Empirical studies of participative safety.....	20
2.2.3 Conclusion	21
2.3 Review of communication quality.....	21
2.3.1 Concept and measurement of communication quality.....	21
2.3.2 Empirical studies of communication quality	22
2.3.3 Conclusion	22
2.4 Review of job satisfaction	23
2.4.1 Concept and measurement of job satisfaction	23
2.4.2 Theoretical basis of job satisfaction	25
2.4.3 Antecedents of job satisfaction	27
2.4.4 Outcomes of job satisfaction	29

2.4.5 Conclusion	29
2.5 Review of turnover intention	30
2.5.1 Concept and measurement of turnover intention.....	30
2.5.2 Antecedents of turnover intention.....	32
2.5.3 Outcomes of turnover intention	36
2.5.4 Conclusion	36
2.6 Review of perceived organizational support	38
2.6.1 Concept and measurement of perceived organizational support	38
2.6.2 Antecedents of perceived organizational support	40
2.6.3 Outcomes of perceived organizational support	41
2.6.4 Perceived organizational support as moderators	43
2.6.5 Conclusion	43
2.7 Summary.....	44
Chapter 3: Theory and Hypotheses	45
3.1 Theory.....	45
3.1.1 Social exchange theory	45
3.2 Theoretical model	47
3.3 Hypotheses of the mediation effects.....	49
3.3.1 Authoritarian leadership and job satisfaction and turnover intention.....	50
3.3.2 Benevolent leadership and job satisfaction and turnover intention	53
3.3.3 Moral leadership and job satisfaction and turnover intention	56
3.4 Hypotheses of the moderation effects.....	58
3.4.1 The moderating role of perceived organizational support between authoritarian leadership and participative safety.....	59
3.4.2 The moderating role of perceived organizational support between authoritarian leadership and communication quality	60
3.4.3 The moderating role of perceived organizational support between benevolent leadership and participative safety.....	62
3.4.4 The moderating role of perceived organizational support between benevolent leadership and communication quality	63
3.4.5 The moderating role of perceived organizational support between moral leadership and participative safety.....	65
3.4.6 The moderating role of perceived organizational support between moral leadership and communication quality	66
3.5 Summary.....	67

Chapter 4: Research Design	69
4.1 Sample and procedures	69
4.1.1 Data collection	69
4.1.2 Measures	70
4.2 Reliability	73
4.3 Summary	74
Chapter 5: Data Analysis and Results.....	75
5.1 Data analysis	75
5.2 Construct validity	76
5.3 Assessment of common method variance.....	77
5.4 Descriptive statistics	77
5.5 Hypotheses testing.....	79
5.5.1 Results of authoritarian leadership model	79
5.5.2 Results of benevolent leadership model	84
5.5.3 Results of moral leadership model	90
5.6 Summary.....	95
Chapter 6: Discussion and Conclusion	99
6.1 Authoritarian leadership and job satisfaction and turnover intention.....	99
6.1.1 The mediating role of participative safety	99
6.1.2 The mediating role of communication quality.....	100
6.1.3 The moderating role of perceived organizational support	102
6.2 Benevolent leadership and job satisfaction and turnover intention	103
6.2.1 The mediating role of participative safety	103
6.2.2 The mediating role of communication quality.....	104
6.2.3 The moderating role of perceived organizational support	106
6.3 Moral leadership and job satisfaction and turnover intention	107
6.3.1 The mediating role of participative safety	107
6.3.2 The mediating role of communication quality.....	108
6.3.3 The moderating role of perceived organizational support	109
6.4 Theoretical implications	110
6.5 Practical implications	112
6.6 Limitations and future research	113
6.7 Summary.....	114
Bibliography	117
Annex A	131

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List of Tables

Table 2.1 Scales of paternalistic leadership	12
Table 2.3 Concept of job satisfaction	23
Table 2.4 Antecedents of job satisfaction	27
Table 2.5 Concept of turnover intention	31
Table 2.6 Antecedents of turnover intention.....	33
Table 2.7 Antecedents of perceived organizational support	40
Table 2.8 Outcomes of perceived organizational support.....	42
Table 4.1 List of firms	69
Table 4.2 Measurements	70
Table 4.3 Construct validity of paternalistic leadership	71
Table 4.4 Reliability.....	74
Table 5.1 The results of confirmatory factor analysis	77
Table 5.2 Descriptive statistics and correlations among study variables.....	78
Table 5.3 The path analytics results in the main effects model of authoritarian leadership	79
Table 5.4 The moderating effects of perceived organizational support (authoritarian leadership as the independent variable)	81
Table 5.5 The results of moderated mediation effects (authoritarian leadership as independent variable)	82
Table 5.6 The path analytics results in the main effects model of benevolent leadership.....	85
Table 5.7 The moderating effects of perceived organizational support (benevolent leadership as independent variable)	86
Table 5.8 The results of moderated mediation effects (benevolent leadership as independent variable)	88
Table 5.9 The path analytics results in the main effects model of moral leadership	91
Table 5.10 The moderating effects of perceived organizational support (moral leadership as independent variable)	92
Table 5.11 The results of moderated mediation effects (moral leadership as independent variable)	93
Table 5.12 The results of hypotheses testing	95

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List of Figures

Figure 1.1 Technical roadmap	7
Figure 3.1 Theoretical model.....	49
Figure 5.1 The moderating effect of perceived organizational support on the relationship between benevolent leadership and participative safety.....	87
Figure 5.2 The moderating effect of perceived organizational support on the relationship between benevolent leadership and communication quality	89
Figure 5.3 The moderating effect of perceived organizational support on the relationship between moral leadership and communication quality	94

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Chapter 1: Introduction

This chapter describes the outline of the study. This chapter presents the research background, research objective and question, research methods, thesis structure and ends with a summary of the chapter.

1.1 Research background

1.1.1 Realistic background

With the continuous evolution of the global economy, the competition among enterprises is gradually intensifying. The business environment is in a state of high information and resource sharing, high openness of the international market and high degree of local competition. In such a situation, enterprise managers are facing greater and greater competitive pressure, and employees are also facing great challenges. The key to enhance the core competitiveness of enterprises lies in human capital. High quality human capital can bring high performance and sustainable competitive advantage to enterprises. For a long time, sufficient, stable and high-quality talent reserve has been an important determinant of enterprise development (Takeuchi et al., 2010). Nowadays, in the talent market, the new generation of employees occupy a major position and gradually develop into the main force of the job market. The good knowledge capital and unique innovation ability of the new generation of employees are important sources for enterprises to gain competitive advantage. Therefore, the human resource management of the new generation of employees has become an important research topic on enterprises.

Previous studies have shown that employees' negative emotions and behaviors will be amplified under the environment of high uncertainty and complexity (Takeuchi et al., 2020). In addition, due to salary, working environment, job satisfaction and other reasons, many enterprises face the problems of low job satisfaction and high turnover rate, which restricts the long-term and stable development of enterprises. In an enterprise, the leader is the core of the whole team and the leader of an organization, which has an important impact on the guidance and shaping of employees' work attitude and behavior (Bass, 1985). However, different leadership styles have different impacts on employees.

Compared with the older generation of employees, the new generation has strong learning

ability and desire. They are active, energetic and creative, and dare to try new things (Zhu et al., 2015). However, although the new generation of employees have strong self-awareness, their teamwork is weak. They have an open value, but their stress resistance needs to be improved (Hennings et al., 2021). Paternalistic leadership covers the three characteristics of authority, benevolence, and morality. While maintaining authority and position, paternalistic leaders will also care about the rights and interests of subordinates. Thus, paternalistic leadership has been pointed out as an important factor for the new generation of employees to improve their well-being (Chan, 2013).

Therefore, combined with the characteristics of the new generation of employees, this study further reveals the practical value and significance of paternalistic leadership through the empirical analysis of influence mechanism and boundary condition of paternalistic leadership and employee job satisfaction and turnover intention. The research conclusion has certain reference significance and reference value on how to effectively give play to the leadership effectiveness of enterprise managers, improve the job satisfaction of the new generation of employees and reduce turnover intention.

1.1.2 Theoretical background

In recent years, leadership theory has developed rapidly, and the impact of various leadership styles on employees' behavior and attitude has also been verified. Among them, paternalistic leadership widely exists in Chinese organizations. Paternalistic leadership style has become an important feature of Chinese enterprises.

As a leadership style that escapes the conventional transformational or transactional leadership logic, paternalistic leadership has attracted extensive attention of scholars. Theoretic approaches have been adopted to research paternalistic leadership, and among these, social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) is in our view the one that offers a more comprehensive view within the wider context of employees' perception of support received from the organization (Eisenberger et al., 1986) that considers the complexity of paternalistic leadership (authoritarian leadership, benevolence leadership, and moral leadership) and assuming reciprocity as a fundamental phenomenon (Cropanzano et al., 2017; Gouldner, 1960).

Previous studies have shown that authoritarian leadership in the dimension of paternalistic leadership shows the characteristics of demanding subordinates, strictly controlling information and inhibiting subordinates' ability, which will negatively affect subordinates' psychology, behavior and performance. On the contrary, benevolent leadership and moral leadership support subordinates and set an example, which can guide subordinates to develop in a positive

direction, promote employees' positive attitude, psychology, behavior and performance, and improve team cohesion and organizational performance (Ertureten et al., 2013; C. Song, 2016; Sungur et al., 2019).

However, present studies also have some research gaps. Firstly, few studies explore the relationship between paternalistic leadership and employees' job satisfaction and turnover intention, and its influencing mechanism and boundary conditions are also not clear. In addition, some scholars call for paying attention to the organization's commitment to employees in the process of studying the relationship between employees, leaders and organizations, so as to show the effectiveness of leadership well (Siddiqi & Ahmed, 2016). Therefore, it is necessary and meaningful to introduce appropriate mediating and moderating variables when we explore the influencing mechanism and boundary conditions between leadership behavior, employee job satisfaction and turnover intention.

Among variables that can play this role, participative safety is an interesting choice. It represents the sense of safety perceived by employees in organizational activities. It is an important factor to determine whether employees dare to actively participate in decision-making and voicing (Fairchild & Hunter, 2014). Additionally, communication quality emphasizes the clarity, effectiveness, integrity, fluency and timeliness of communication between leaders and employees (González-Romá & Hernández, 2014). We reason both of them are key factors for enterprise managers to show their leadership effectiveness. In the research on the influencing mechanism of paternalistic leadership on outcome variables, previous studies ignored the role of employees' psychological perception and communication between leaders and subordinates in the leadership process. Therefore, it is necessary to deeply explore the mediating role of participative safety and communication quality between leadership behavior, employee job satisfaction and turnover intention.

In addition, perceived organizational support represents the commitment given by the organization and perceived by employees. It is an important situation affecting the relationship between leadership behavior and employees' psychological variables and behavior (Hameed et al., 2019). Therefore, it is necessary to explore the moderating role of perceived organizational support between paternalistic leadership, participative safety and communication quality.

1.2 Research objective and questions

Focusing on the specific group of new generation employees, this study focuses on the influencing mechanism and boundary conditions of paternalistic leadership on employees' job

satisfaction and turnover intention. The purpose of this study is to clarify the influencing mechanism of leadership behavior affecting employees' job satisfaction and turnover intention through participative safety and communication quality, and reveal perceived organizational support as a moderating variable on the effectiveness of leadership behavior. Therefore, this study focuses on the following three research questions:

(1) The influence mechanism of paternalistic leadership on employee job satisfaction. According to social exchange theory, this study intends to explore the influence mechanism of the three dimensions of paternalistic leadership (authoritarian leadership, benevolent leadership, and moral leadership) on the job satisfaction of the new generation of employees. Specifically, this study intends to explore whether participative safety and communication quality mediate the relationship between paternalistic leadership (authoritarian leadership, benevolent leadership, and moral leadership) and job satisfaction of new generation employees.

(2) The influence mechanism of paternalistic leadership on employee turnover intention. According to social exchange theory, this study intends to explore the influence mechanism of the three dimensions of paternalistic leadership (authoritarian leadership, benevolent leadership and moral leadership) on the turnover intention of the new generation of employees. Specifically, this study intends to explore whether participative safety and communication quality mediate the relationship between paternalistic leadership (authoritarian leadership, benevolent leadership and moral leadership) and turnover intention of new generation employees.

(3) The moderating role of perceived organizational support. According to social exchange theory, this study intends to explore the moderating effect of perceived organizational support on the relationship between paternalistic leadership (authoritarian leadership, benevolent leadership and moral leadership), participative safety and communication quality. In addition, this study also intends to explore whether perceived organizational support moderates the indirect effects of participative safety and communication quality in the relationship between paternalistic leadership (authoritarian leadership, benevolent leadership and moral leadership) and employee job satisfaction, the relationship between paternalistic leadership and turnover intention.

1.3 Research methods

This study mainly adopts the methods of questionnaire survey and statistical analysis. Specifically, based on the literature research method, this study determines the theory and

theoretical model, then collects relevant data through the questionnaire survey method, and uses the data for statistical analysis.

1.3.1 Literature research

Although not a research method, it is useful to explain the literature review process so to ascertain its rigor. The state of the art was built by browsing Web of Science, Google Academic and other scientific databases, where we collected and sorted out the relevant literature on paternalistic leadership, participative safety, communication quality, job satisfaction, turnover intention and perceived organizational support. We focused on conceptual clarification, underlying theories, and empirical studies that connect two or more of these variables. Generally, we reviewed the literature on the concept, measurement, antecedents and outcomes of each variable.

1.3.2 Questionnaire surveys

Based on the literature review, we started by determining which measurement scales exist and gave primacy to those that showed good psychometric properties while considering their parsimony and suitability to the theoretic approach we adopted. With these, we designed the corresponding questionnaire. Due to the many issues pointed out by Podsakoff et al. (2003), the empirical study adopts a data collection in multiple time points to prevent common method variance and thus offer greater quality to the questionnaire data.

1.3.3 Statistical analysis

The use of statistical software packages helps reduce boredom in terms of repetitive work. It also improves consistency and objectivity in assessments. Further, it reduces computational errors and saves time. Statistical packages are normally used in social science research. Considering the advantages inherent in its use, the SPSS version 23 was used to analyze descriptive statistics (frequency distribution, mean, standard deviation) and reliability. Also, Mplus version 8.0, was used for Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA), the assessment of common method variance, the path analytic results and the bootstrapping results (the mediating effects and moderating effects).

1.4 Thesis structure

This study is divided into six chapters, as follows:

(1) The first chapter is the introduction part, which introduces the research background, research objective and questions, research methods and thesis structure.

(2) The second chapter comprehends the literature review. This chapter introduces the concepts, the measurements, the antecedents and the outcomes on paternalistic leadership, participative safety, communication quality, job satisfaction, turnover intention, and perceived organizational support.

(3) The third chapter comprehends the theory and hypothesis part, which introduces the concept of each variable in this study, and proposed hypotheses according to the social exchange theory. Specifically, the hypotheses include: the mediating role of participative safety in the relationship between paternalistic leadership (authoritarian leadership/benevolent leadership/moral leadership), employees job satisfaction and turnover intention. The mediating role of communication quality in the relationship between paternalistic leadership (authoritarian leadership/benevolent leadership/moral leadership), employees job satisfaction and turnover intention. The moderating effect of perceived organizational support in the relationship between paternalistic leadership (authoritarian leadership/benevolent leadership/moral leadership), employees job satisfaction and turnover intention.

(4) The fourth chapter is the research design part, which describes the sample and procedures, measures and data analysis in detail.

(5) The fifth chapter is the results part, which reports the results of hypotheses testing, including the section of descriptive statistics, reliability testing, validity testing, assessment of common method variance, path analytic results and the bootstrapping results (the mediating effects and moderating effects).

(6) The sixth chapter is the conclusion part, which expounds the theoretical implications and practical implications, summarizes the limitations of this study, and proposes the prospect to future research.

The technical roadmap is shown in Figure 1.1.

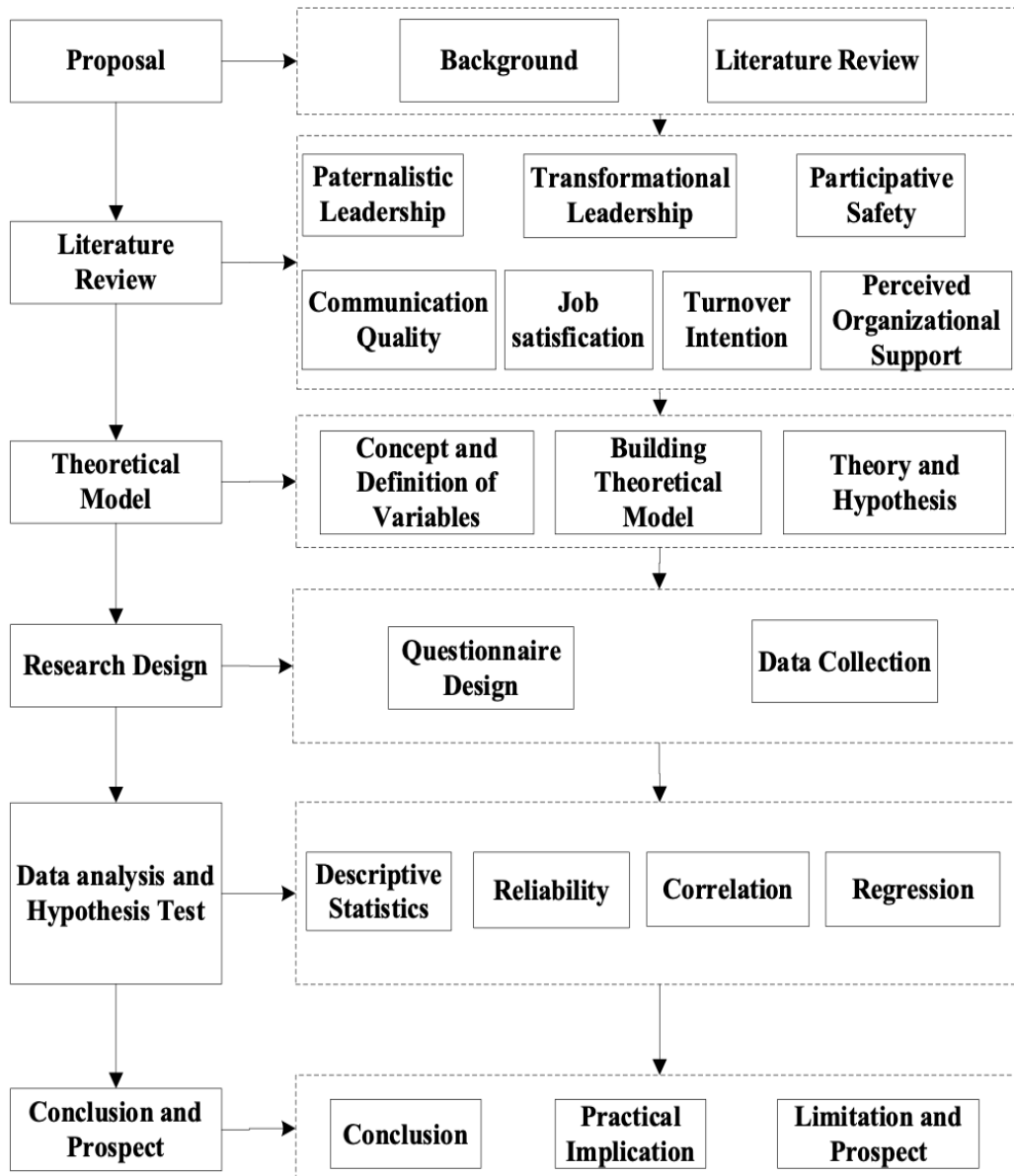


Figure 1.1 Technical roadmap

1.5 Summary

The research background of our study includes realistic background and theoretical background. It expounds the importance of human resource management of the new generation of employees and the important impact of paternalistic leadership on employees' attitude and behavior. Based on the relationship between paternalistic leadership, job satisfaction and turnover intention of the new generation of employees, this study proposes three research questions. In terms of research methods, this study adopts the methods of literature research, questionnaire surveys and statistical analysis. Finally, this study explains the content structure of the thesis.

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Chapter 2: Literature Review

This chapter reviews the literature on paternalistic leadership, participative safety, communication quality, job satisfaction, turnover intention and perceived organizational support. Specifically, this chapter concludes the concept, measurement, antecedents and outcomes on these variables, then posit the research gaps.

2.1 Review of paternalistic leadership

Leadership generally refers to the social impact process of a person influencing others and structuring behaviors, relationships, and motivations within teams or organizations (Takeuchi et al., 2020). In the past decades, some western scholars have gradually formed the leadership theories generally accepted by the academic circles, such as leadership trait theories and contingency theories of leadership (Fiedler, 1967; Kerr & Jermier, 1977). In order to promote the research of leadership globalization, based on the view of cultural universality, some scholars have taken transformational leadership as a kind of global leadership style in different cultural backgrounds.

However, some scholars doubt that the conception and effectiveness of leadership will be the same in different cultural background due to the cultural heterogeneity of leadership (Cheng et al., 2004). The expression of leadership style of leaders is closely related to culture background, not entirely determined by personal will. Therefore, the exploration of leadership effectiveness in different cultural backgrounds has always been an important topic (House et al., 2004).

2.1.1 Concept and measurement of paternalistic leadership

2.1.1.1 History of paternalistic leadership

The nature of paternalistic leadership roots in paternalism (Weber, 1968). Weber conceptualizes the image of paternalistic leadership as a form of authority. In paternalistic situation, the authorities have the obligation to provide help and protection to others they care for, and expect to gain obedience and loyalty from them (Aycaan, 2006).

Silin (1976), a Western scholar, initiated the study of paternalistic leadership for the first

time. By studying a large family-owned businesses in Taiwan of China. Silin (1976) found that the way that leaders manage their employees is similar to the way that parents educate their family members. Furthermore, the role of leaders is more like “parents” in a family, providing protection for employees. Silin’s research lays the foundation for the future study of paternalistic leadership. On the basis of Silin’s research, Redding (1994) studied different types of overseas Chinese enterprises in Taiwan of China, Hong Kong of China and Philippines for 20 years, and proved the existence of paternalistic leadership. Specially, he found that leaders show authoritarianism while they also care and take care of their employees like parents in Chinese enterprises. Therefore, he proposed benevolence leadership style. After that, Westwood (1997) proposed the concept of paternalistic leadership and analyzed the dimensions of paternalistic leadership.

With the development of the research on paternalistic leadership, Cheng (1995) used the case study approach to explore the leadership style of leaders of Taiwanese family-owned businesses, and found the management mode of leaders was similar to the leadership style described by Silin (1976) and Redding (1994). On this basis, Cheng (1995) proposed the indigenous theoretical framework of paternalistic leadership, including two broad categories of behaviors: “Shi-en” (grant favors) and “Li-wei” (inspire awe or fear). “Li-wei” emphasizes the characteristics of leaders’ “personal authority” and “dominance over subordinates”, whereas “Shi-en” emphasizes leader behaviors that demonstrate personal favors and generosity. In the dual theoretical framework of paternalistic leadership, Cheng (1995) ignored the characteristics of leadership in virtue. In practice, scholars have not formed a consensus on what kind of moral character leaders should have.

Through further research, Farh and Cheng (2000) and Cheng et al. (2000) proposed a new framework of paternalistic leadership by adding the conception of moral leadership on the basis of dual theoretical framework of paternalistic leadership (Cheng et al., 2004). They indicated that paternalistic leadership includes three dimensions: authoritarian leadership, benevolent leadership and moral leadership. Authoritarian leadership that assert absolute authority and control over subordinates and demand unquestionable obedience from subordinates, is a kind of controlling, demanding and arbitrary leadership style, which emphasizes the absolute authority and control of the leader over the subordinates. Benevolent leadership refers to the leader’s overall concern for the subordinates’ well-being. Moral leadership refers to the superior moral qualities of leaders, such as selflessness and make oneself an example. Paternalistic leadership will be effective when their behaviors combine authoritarianism, benevolence and morality.

So far, Cheng et al. (2000); Farh and Cheng (2000) explained the generation process of paternalistic leadership from the social and cultural roots. At the same time, they also conducted detailed research on the influence mechanism between paternalistic leadership and subordinates' outcomes. They also developed a more perfect measurement scale based on a large number of empirical research in Taiwan, China.

In the research of western scholars, there is evidence that paternalistic leadership also exists in some non-western countries and regions with the characteristics of collectivism and high-power distance culture (Gelfand et al., 2006). According to the conception of paternalism (Weber, 1968), Aycan (2006) carried out the research on paternalistic leadership. Paternalism can be explained from three levels: individual, organization, and socio-cultural, among which paternalistic leadership is at the individual level. Consistent with Farh and Cheng (2000), Aycan (2006) also believes that paternalistic leadership is not a single-construct, but she also believes that paternalistic leadership is embodied in two common types: exploitative leadership and benevolent leadership. Aycan (2006) further combined authoritarian management style and authoritative management style, and divided paternalistic leadership into four types: exploitative leadership, benevolent leadership, authoritarian leadership, and authoritative leadership. Benevolent leaders pay attention to the welfare of subordinates, and subordinates repay leaders with loyalty and respect; Exploitative leadership attaches importance to the care and cultivation of subordinates, and subordinates repay leaders with loyalty; Authoritative leaders tend to control subordinates, and subordinates can only obey leaders unconditionally to get rewards or avoid punishment; Authoritarian leadership also comes from the leader's control over subordinates, but the purpose of their control over subordinates is to improve the welfare of subordinates, and subordinates repay leaders with respect and obedience.

In recent years, Cheng et al. (2004) and Humphreys et al. (2014) found that paternalistic leadership benevolent and authoritarian are independent of each other. According to the conclusion of Aycan (2006), Scandura (2017) divides paternalistic leadership into three dimensions: authoritative leadership, benevolent leadership and authoritarian leadership, without moral leadership.

Nowadays, paternalistic leadership has been widely applied to the business management practice of mainland, overseas Chinese and Western managers. The scale of paternalistic leadership defined by scholars provides rich practical support for the effectiveness of paternalistic leadership.

2.1.1.2 Measurement of paternalistic leadership

At present, studies on the measurement of paternalistic leadership (authoritarian leadership / benevolent leadership/moral leadership) are mainly based on the scales developed by Cheng et al. (2014), Aycan (2006) and Scandura (2017). As shown in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1 Scales of paternalistic leadership

Authors	PL Dimension Measured	Items
Cheng et al. (2014); Cheng et al. (2000); Cheng et al. (2004)	“Li-wei” “Shi-en” Authoritarian leadership Benevolent leadership Moral Leadership	16-item 33-item/28-item/26-item/15item
Aycan (2006)	Exploitative leadership Authoritarian leadership Benevolent leadership Authoritative leadership	21-item
Scandura (2017)	Authoritarian leadership Benevolent leadership Authoritative leadership	18-item

Cheng et al. (2014) developed a paternalistic leadership scale consisting authoritarian leadership, benevolent leadership and moral leadership under Chinese culture context. At first, Cheng (1995) concluded a 16-item scale of paternalistic leadership from two dimensions of “Li-wei”and “Shi-en” through in-depth interview. On this basis, Cheng et al. (2000) developed the moral leadership scale based on the “C subscale” of the CPM scale, and integrated the previous research results to form the three-dimensional structure scale of paternalistic leadership. The three dimensions included 11 items of benevolent leadership subscale, 9 items of moral leadership subscale, and 13 items of authoritative leadership subscale, with a total of 33 items. Subsequently, the scale was revised several times, with 28-item versions (Cheng et al., 2004), 26-item versions (Cheng et al., 2014) and 15-item versions (Cheng et al., 2014). These scales are widely used in later research.

Aycan (2000) constructed a single-dimension paternalistic leadership scale with five items in a cross-cultural comparative study of 10 countries including the United States, Canada and China. Later, Aycan (2006) explored five factors of paternalistic leadership through factor analysis, which are “creating a family atmosphere in the workplace”, and “establishing close and individualized relationships with subordinates”, and “getting involved in the non-work domain”, and “expecting loyalty”, and “maintaining authority/status”. These factors are consistent with the four types of paternalistic leadership she proposed. Finally, Aycan (2006) extracted 21 items to measure paternalistic leadership.

Based on the scale of paternalistic leadership developed by Cheng et al. (2014), Aycan

(2006), and Scandura (2017) developed a new scale which includes three dimensions: authoritarian leadership, benevolent leadership and authoritarian leadership. Each dimension contains 6 items, a total of 18 items.

However, whether it is benevolent leadership, authoritarian leadership or moral leadership, the current scale has some defects (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2006). For example, In the follow-up study (Cheng et al., 2014), authoritarianism is negatively correlated with the other two dimensions, which indicates that paternalistic leadership is not effective as a whole, and each dimension represents different leadership styles. In addition, these scales are specially developed in the context of China. Few studies have used the scale to test paternalistic leadership in western enterprises, and its effectiveness needs to be further verified. Similarly, the effectiveness of the paternalistic leadership scale developed by Aycan (2006) or Scandura (2017) also needs to be tested in other cultures.

2.1.2 Antecedents of paternalistic leadership

Few scholars have studied how paternalistic leadership formed and what factors influence it. Current research show that some individual level and leadership level factors are is closely related to paternalistic leadership.

At individual level, Martin (1979) interviewed Mexican managers and several factors that may drive paternalistic leadership were determined, such as employees' respect for social hierarchy, family-like organizational climate, frequent interactions with decision makers, high value for personal relationships, and limited employee decision making.

In addition, Pellegrini and Scandura (2006) also confirmed that LMX is closely related to paternalistic leadership due to leaders may prefer to practice paternalistic leadership with employees who have high-quality LMX relationships with them.

Furthermore, Ansari et al. (2004) also found that in Malaysian context, high-quality LMX is more likely to trigger paternalistic leadership behavior.

In terms of leadership factors, it is found that there is a high correlation between paternalistic leadership and servant leadership in Turkish enterprises. Specifically, employees in Turkish believe that the conception of servant leadership reflects a higher degree of "people-oriented", that is, all dimensions of servant leadership's construction are significantly positively related to paternalistic leadership (Oner, 2012). This also shows that the practice of leadership has strong cultural specificity.

2.1.3 Outcomes of paternalistic leadership

Early empirical studies focus on the single-dimensional structure of paternalistic leadership (Aycan et al., 1999; Farh & Cheng, 2000; Uhl-Bien et al., 1990).

Specifically, these studies have shown that paternalistic leadership correlates with many variables, such as LMX, job satisfaction and goals setting (Aycan et al., 1999; Uhl-Bien et al., 1990). After Farh and Cheng (2000) tapped three dimensions of paternalistic leadership, (benevolence, authoritarianism and morality), scholars regarded paternalistic leadership as a multidimensional structure, and studied the different influences of different styles of leadership on outcome variables.

In recent years, according to the multi-dimensional paternalistic leadership scale developed by Scandura (2017), Cheng et al. (2014) and Aycan (2006), scholars have carried out a large number of studies on paternalistic leadership and employees' behavior, attitude, psychological outcomes and team or organizational performance. These empirical studies show that paternalistic leadership widely exists in Chinese enterprises, and also plays a certain role in western enterprises, which has a significant impact on the results at individual level, team level and organizational level, as shown in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2 Outcomes of paternalistic leadership

Level	Category	Outcomes
Individual Level	Attitudes and characteristics	Work-family conflict; Job satisfaction; Work engagement; Turnover; Loyal; Burnout
	Psychological outcomes	Psychological capital; Affective trust; Perceived insider status; Implicit voice belief; Bullying at work; Employees' information security policy; Occupational well-being; Workplace loneliness
	Behavioral outcomes	Innovative behavior; Taking charge; Voice; Creativity
	Performance	Task performance; Innovative performance; Job performance; In-role/Out-role performance; Creative performance
Team Level	-----	Team cohesion; Team conflict; Behavior integration of TMT; TMT decision effectiveness; Team creativity; Team collective efficacy
Organizational Level	-----	Organizational ethical climate; Organizational innovation; Organizational commitment; Organizational justice;

2.1.3.1 Individual level

At individual level, paternalistic leadership is an important factor which has impact on employees' work attitude, work characteristics, psychological outcomes, behavior and performance.

First of all, in the prediction of employees' work attitude and characteristics, the study shows that authoritarian leadership is negatively related to work-family conflict, employees' job satisfaction, job engagement, intention to stay, turnover and job burnout (Chang et al., 2019; Cheng et al., 2014; Cheng et al., 2004; Ertureten et al., 2013; Oge et al., 2018; Sungur et al., 2019). However, benevolent leadership and moral leadership are positively related to employees' work attitudes such as job satisfaction, job engagement (Chang et al., 2019; Cheng et al., 2014; Cheng et al., 2004; Ertureten et al., 2013; Oge et al., 2018; Sungur et al., 2019). For example, when leaders show benevolence, employees will show more job engagement; when leaders have more moral leadership behaviors, employees will show higher job satisfaction; when leaders have more authoritarian leadership behaviors, employees will show more job burnout (Bai et al., 2019; Cheng et al., 2004; Ertureten et al., 2013). Min et al. (2012) also confirmed that benevolent leadership and moral leadership have positive impact on employee loyalty, trust and job satisfaction. However, although paternalistic leadership rarely exists in western culture, Pellegrini and Scandura (2009) explored the relationship between paternalism and employee job satisfaction in Indian and American enterprises, and found that there is a significant and positive relationship between paternalistic leadership and LMX.

Secondly, in terms of employees' psychological outcomes, paternalistic leadership has impact on workplace loneliness, employees' psychological capital, affective trust, and occupational well-being (Feng et al., 2019; Nie & Lamsa, 2018; Oge et al., 2018; Zahide et al., 2019). For example, benevolent leadership improves employees' perceived insider status, enhances psychological capital, reduces employees' workplace loneliness, and improve employees' Occupational well-being and self-efficacy (Oge et al., 2018; Shen et al., 2020). On the contrary, authoritarian leadership shows a series of negative effects, which will not only increases the psychological pressure of employees and weakens their psychological capital, but also reduces their implicit voice belief, and even makes employees feel bullying at work (Luu & Djurkovic, 2019; Nie & Lamsa, 2018; Soyulu, 2011; Zahide et al., 2019).

Next, in terms of employees' behavior, previous studies have confirmed that paternalistic leadership has a significant impact on employees' creativity and proactive behaviors. For

example, authoritarian leadership pay attention to maintaining status and authority and expecting employees' loyalty as return, which will weaken the employees' creativity and reduce their organizational citizenship behavior (Chan, 2013; L. Chen & Appienti, 2020; Cheng et al., 2014; Ersoy et al., 2012; Li et al., 2021; H. C. Ling et al., 2011; C. Song, 2016). On the contrary, benevolent leadership and moral leadership expect to create a family atmosphere in their work, which can cause a high-quality leader-member exchange process, and encourage employees to initiate innovative behavior, voice and organizational citizenship behavior (Cheng et al., 2014; Jia et al., 2020; Khorakian et al., 2021; Nazir et al., 2021; Shen et al., 2020; Tang & Naumann, 2015; Tian & Sanchez, 2017; Y. Zhang et al., 2015).

Finally, in the performance prediction of employees, the previous studies indicate that paternalistic leadership is significantly related to employees' job performance, in-role/out-role performance and creative performance (Cheng et al., 2002; L. F. Chou et al., 2005; A. C. Wang et al., 2018; M. Wu et al., 2012). For example, Zahide et al. (2019) confirmed that authoritarian leadership inhibits employees' creative performance and innovative performance, whereas benevolent leadership has a positive impact on employees' creative performance and innovative performance. A. C. Wang et al. (2018) shows that the single-dimensional paternalistic leadership has positive impact on employee performance.

In all, at individual level, authoritarian leaders show the characteristics of strict demands on employees and belittling employees' ability, which will attack employees' work passion and negatively affect their work attitude, psychological outcomes, behavior and performance. Benevolent leadership and moral leadership support subordinates and care about their work and well-being, which will increase their work passion and positively influence their work attitude, psychological outcomes, behavior and performance.

2.1.3.2 Team level

At team level, paternalistic leadership is significantly related to team cohesion, team conflict, behavior integration of TMT, TMT decision effectiveness, team creativity and team collective efficacy (C. C. Chen, 2013; L. Chen et al., 2015; Y. Chen et al., 2018; Y. R. Chen, 2006; Wan et al., 2020). For example, Wan et al. (2020) found that moral leadership can effectively promote leadership trust and improve the behavior integration of TMT, but authoritarian leadership shows negative effect. L. Chen et al. (2015) studied the influence of paternalistic leadership on TMT decision effectiveness, and found that benevolent leadership and moral leadership are positively related to TMT decision effectiveness, but CEO's authoritarian behavior will weaken TMT decision effectiveness, and cause dissatisfaction among team

members. In addition, Y. R. Chen (2006) proposed the conception of paternalistic organizational control, and discussed the relationship between paternalistic organizational control and team creativity by qualitative research. These studies provide more evidences for the effectiveness of paternalistic leadership at team level.

2.1.3.3 Organizational level

At organizational level, previous studies have confirmed that paternalistic leadership is significantly related to organizational justice, organizational ethical climate, organizational innovation and organizational commitment (Y. Chen et al., 2018; Erben & Gueneser, 2008; Hou et al., 2019; Jie, 2018; Sungur et al., 2019; M. Wu et al., 2012; Y. C. Wu & Tsai, 2012). For example, Hou et al. (2019) took MBA of Chinese universities as samples, and found that benevolent leadership is positively related to organizational innovation, while moral leadership has no significant impact on organizational innovation. However, in dynamic environment, moral leadership has a positive effect on organizational innovation, while authoritarian leadership has a negative impact on organizational innovation. In addition, benevolent leadership has also been proved to promote organizational justice and improve citizenship behavior at the organizational level (Y. Chen et al., 2018; Erben & Gueneser, 2008; Hou et al., 2019; Jie, 2018; Sungur et al., 2019; M. Wu et al., 2012; Y. C. Wu & Tsai, 2012).

2.1.4 Conclusion

Paternalistic leadership is rooted in the Chinese cultural background, with a certain degree of cultural heterogeneity. Since the concept of paternalistic leadership was proposed by, it has attracted the attention of many scholars. However, numerous studies show that paternalistic leadership also exists and plays a positive role in some countries and regions whose cultural backgrounds are similar or even very different to China (Bedi, 2020; Dedahanov et al., 2016; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2006). Chinese psychologists and management scientists have made outstanding contributions to the formation and development of paternalistic leadership theory. At the same time, paternalistic leadership has also aroused great interest of western scholars and become an important topic in cross-cultural research. Based on this, this study reviews the research status of paternalistic leadership.

As a model of local leadership research, paternalistic leadership theory proposed by Cheng et al. (2000) has achieved rich results after 20 years of development, and has made great contributions to the local theoretical construction and research methods. However, in the process of continuous development, the theory also encountered some problems. The

relationship between paternalistic leadership and its three dimensions (authoritarian leadership / benevolent leadership / moral leadership) is not clear, which challenges the theory. At present, the coexistence of single dimension and multi dimension, and the multiple patterns of competition between local theory and foreign theory make this construction more complicated and confusing. It is worth exploring the next direction of localized leadership research. After combing and summarizing the existing research, we believe that the future research of paternalistic leadership can be considered from the following aspects.

Firstly, the internal contradiction of paternalistic leadership. From the previous analysis, we can see that although the negative correlation among authority, benevolence and morality weakens the conceptual integration and cultural fit of the three-dimension model of paternalistic leadership (Cheng et al., 2014), the view of dividing paternalistic leadership into multiple dimensions has largely disintegrated the concept of paternalistic leadership itself. Therefore, the sub dimensional research cannot help paternalistic leadership out of the dilemma.

Secondly, the research level and outcome variables of paternalistic leadership. The single dimension research of paternalistic leadership is growing. According to the existing research, it mainly focuses on the individual level, especially the relationship between managers and their subordinates. However, studies by scholars such as Silin (1976), Redding (1994) and Westwood (1997) mainly focus on the paternalistic management style of CEO and its impact on the whole organization, which has a big difference (Farh et al., 2007). Due to the difference of status and level, and the control of resources, the managers are generally the objects imitated by the subordinate (Antonakis & Atwater, 2002; Bandura, 1986). Compared with other leadership constructs, such as transformational leadership and destructive leadership, there are very few studies on the single-dimensional or multi-dimensional constructs and multi-level of paternalistic leadership. Cross level research is a key direction in future research. In terms of outcome variables, previous studies focused on employees' work attitude (such as organizational commitment, job satisfaction and intension to stay) and behavior (such as organizational citizenship behavior and in-role performance), while other important outcome variables such as creativity and voice were rarely mentioned. In the context of increasingly fierce market competition, these proactive behaviors of employees are very key to the success of enterprises. Paternalistic leadership is a leadership model widely existing in Chinese cultural organizations and teams. It is of great practical significance to study how it promotes or hinders employees' initiative behavior.

Thirdly, there are great differences in connotation of paternalistic leadership between the constructs of Cheng et al. (2000), and Aycan (2006). The concept of paternalistic leadership

proposed by Aycan (2006) originates from the research of paternalism. Does this paternalism correspond or equal to the traditional Chinese parental authority? Future research can compare the effectiveness and the reliability and validity of these two concepts of paternalistic leadership from the perspective of measurement scale, and investigate whether there are differences in the influencing mechanism on outcomes.

In addition, when comparing the differences of paternalistic leadership between China and the Western backgrounds, we also need to pay attention to the equivalence of concept and measurement of paternalistic leadership. Some scholars believe that paternalistic leadership has cross-cultural universality (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2009). We should be cautious about this conclusion. Research on paternalistic leadership in Asia Pacific, Middle East and Latin America used different scales (Ansari et al., 2004; Aycan, 2000; Gelfand et al., 2006; Martin, 1979; S. M. Martinez & Dorfman, 1988; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2006). Cross-cultural comparison involves a problem of equivalence between concept and measurement. If concept and measurement do not have equivalence, the conclusion is also unreliable. Paternalistic leadership is an important achievement of local leadership research, which is of great significance to improve management experience of global enterprises. In view of some problems encountered in the research of paternalistic leadership, future researchers should pay more attention to these problems in order to deepen and enrich people's understanding of paternalistic leadership.

2.2 Review of participative safety

2.2.1 Concept and measurement of participative safety

2.2.1.1 Concept of participative safety

The four-factor theory of innovation proposed by M. A. West (1990) points out that team innovation usually comes from team activities, including organizational vision, support for innovation, task orientation and participative safety. These four elements constitute the Team Climate Inventory (TCI). Participative safety is characterized by employees and leaders interacting in a participative and interpersonally non-threatening climate. Participative safety existed when all members feel that they can propose new ideas and solutions in a non-judgmental climate.

Participative safety has two important related concepts: participativeness and safety. Participativeness in the decision-making process on behalf of team members, including information sharing and communicating. Safety represents the psychological atmosphere that

team members perceived when they take interactions with leaders. In a team with high participative safety, leaders and team members trust and support each other, and there is no threat atmosphere (Anderson & West, 1998; Kivimäki & Elovainio, 1999; Peltokorpi & Hasu, 2014). M. A. West (1990) believes that in a team with a high level of participative safety, more members will share information and participate in decision-making within the team, and the more members are to invest in the results of these decisions and propose more innovative working methods. Thus, when employees perceive high level of participative safety, the communication between employees and leaders will become more efficient, and employees are willing to express their views on work.

2.2.1.2 Measurement of participative safety

Based on the four-factor theory of innovation proposed by M. A. West (1990), Anderson and West (1994) developed a Team Climate Inventory scale. Based on this scale, Anderson and West (1998) divided participative safety into two dimensions. one is team participation, including 15 items; The other is the safety, including 9 items.

Kivimäki and Elovainio (1999) also verified the effectiveness of the four measurement items of participative safety based on the four-factor theory of innovation proposed and developed by M. A. West (1990). The sample item reads: “We are together’ attitude”, and “everyone attempts to share information”, and “People keep each other informed”, and “People feel understood and accepted”. Subsequently, some scholars verified the effectiveness of the participative safety scale based on TCI scale (Burch & Anderson, 2012; Dackert et al., 2002; Tseng et al., 2009).

2.2.2 Empirical studies of participative safety

M. A. West (1990) extracted the concept and measurement scale of team atmosphere from the literature of organizational climate and team innovation. Participative safety is one of the dimensions, but only a few scholars listed participative safety as a variable. Therefore, there are few empirical studies.

Previous studies have shown that participative safety has a positive impact on innovation (Bain et al., 2001; Burningham & West, 1995; M. A. West & Anderson, 1996). For example, Bain found that participative safety is will promote individual innovation according to a sample of 193 scientists and technologists in 20 research teams and 18 development teams. Furthermore, when team conflict exists, participative safety is closely related to team innovation (Fairchild & Hunter, 2014).

Peltokorpi and Hasu (2014) found that among teams with high participative safety, the positive relationship between team size and team innovation is stronger.

N. C. Jin et al. (2014) shows that participative safety weakens the negative impact of performance goal orientation on creativity.

2.2.3 Conclusion

Participative safety is the important factor to measure the quality of leader-employee interaction. Although there are few empirical studies on participative safety, the research on the amount of team climate inventory shows that team climate inventory is related to individual level factors, such as customer satisfaction, learning motivation and task performance (Griffin & Neal, 2000; Mathisen et al., 2004), and team level factors, such as leadership behavior, team innovation and team effectiveness (Strating & Nieboer, 2009; Sun et al., 2012). Future research can explore the antecedents and results of participative safety.

2.3 Review of communication quality

2.3.1 Concept and measurement of communication quality

2.3.1.1 Concept of communication quality

All activities of an organization include the process of interaction and communication between individuals (McGregor, 1967). Team communication process is closely related to team efficiency and is the basis for team members to coordinate with each other and make common progress (Kahai et al., 2006). Whether it is knowledge sharing or performance improvement, team communication is particularly important (Campion et al., 1993; Srivastava et al., 2006). Among them, the quality and intensity of communication are the key factors for the success of communication quality (González-Romá & Hernández, 2014; Yan & Dooley, 2013).

Communication quality refers to the degree of clarity, effectiveness, integrity, fluency and timeliness of communication among team members (González-Romá & Hernández, 2014).

Communication intensity measures the frequency and intensity of communication between individuals (Yan & Dooley, 2013).

2.3.1.2 Measurement of communication quality

González-Romá and Hernández (2014) used a five-item scale to measure communication quality of the team. The scale covers five aspects: clear/effective/complete/fluent/on time.

Based on the measurement of Hoegl and Wagner (2005), Takeishi (2001) and Vickery et al. (2004), Yan and Dooley (2013) summarized a three-item scale to measure communication intensity. Specifically, the scale covers three aspects: communication intensity, communication frequency and media tools used in communication. For example, the sample item of communication intensity reads "Communication was intensive", the sample item of communication frequency reads "Communication was frequent", and the sample items of media tools used in communication read "visual (face-to-face, video-conference) modes of communication were used", and "audio (telephone) modes of communication were used", and "electronic (email, EDI) modes of communication were used".

2.3.2 Empirical studies of communication quality

Previous studies have shown that job autonomy can stimulate high-quality communication among employees, make employees feel safe, and improve safe working and job satisfaction (Frone & Major, 2009; Parker et al., 2001). In addition, the difference of organizational climate will affect the communication quality of the team. The communication quality is also closely related to the dysfunctional effect on strategic manipulation (Appel et al., 2012; González-Romá & Hernández, 2014; Guindon, 1994).

The concept of communication intensity is more common in the field of supply chain, less used in the field of organizational behavior, and less empirical research. Previous studies have confirmed that communication intensity is related to project performance and corporate reputation (S. Lu et al., 2020; Yan & Dooley, 2013).

2.3.3 Conclusion

Complex problems in the organization are solved through mutual communication and cooperation between individuals. Through communication, employees can learn from each other and make common progress. Research on team communication shows that leadership behavior can affect team communication, and team communication is closely related to performance and creativity (Campion et al., 1993; Srivastava et al., 2006). Therefore, future research can focus on the antecedents and outcomes of communication quality.

2.4 Review of job satisfaction

2.4.1 Concept and measurement of job satisfaction

2.4.1.1 Concept of job satisfaction

Job satisfaction originated from Hawthorne experiment, which shows that employees' emotional factors will affect their psychological factors, and then to a certain extent affect the size of employees' job satisfaction and the level of organizational effectiveness. After that, scholars began to explore job satisfaction. Hoppock (1935) first proposed the definition of job satisfaction. He believed that job satisfaction is "employees' psychological and physiology satisfaction with the surrounding work environment variables, which refers to employees' subjective cognition of the work environment". However, the concept proposed by Hoppock (1935) belongs to the category of subjective perception, which is difficult to measure. With the deepening of the research, scholars have analyzed the components of job satisfaction, and considered that job satisfaction is a complex concept including many factors (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Williams & Anderson, 1991). Besides cognition, it also includes disposition component and affective component. However, different scholars rely on different theories and research objects, so there are many explanations. This study selects some representative literatures and summarizes scholars' definition of job satisfaction. As shown in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3 Concept of job satisfaction

Authors	Definition
Hoppock (1935)	The subjective reaction of employees to the working environment which represents employees' psychological and physiological satisfaction with environmental factors.
Vroom (1964)	Individual's feelings or emotional reactions to their current work roles. If they have a positive attitude towards their work, they are satisfied with it. On the contrary, negative attitude means dissatisfaction.
Blum and Naylor (1968)	The result of employees' different attitudes towards their work, the factors related to work and their life.
Locke (1976)	A pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences.
Kalleberg (1977)	A single concept: workers can balance the satisfaction and dissatisfaction of different work dimensions, and form the overall satisfaction of the whole work.
Spector (1997)	The extent to which people like their jobs.
Bussing et al. (1999)	The individual's feeling of working environment based on desire, demand and motivation, that is, the worker's satisfaction or internal dissatisfaction with his own work.
Staw and Cohen-Charash (2004)	A series of information processing steps, noting how individual differences influence the assessment, recall, and reporting of job attitudes.

Hoppock (1935) argued that job satisfaction refers to the subjective reaction of employees to the working environment which represents employees' psychological and physiological satisfaction with environmental factors.

Vroom (1964) argued that job satisfaction refers to individual's feelings or emotional reactions to their current work roles. If they have a positive attitude towards their work, they are satisfied with it; On the contrary, negative attitude means dissatisfaction.

Blum and Naylor (1968) indicated that job satisfaction refers to the result of employees' different attitudes towards their work, the factors related to work and their life.

Locke (1976) indicated that job satisfaction refers to a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences.

Kalleberg (1977) posited that job satisfaction refers to a single concept: workers can balance the satisfaction and dissatisfaction of different work dimensions, and form the overall satisfaction of the whole work.

Spector (1997) posited that job satisfaction is the extent to which people like their jobs.

Bussing et al. (1999) argued that job satisfaction refers to the individual's feeling of working environment based on desire, demand and motivation, that is, the worker's satisfaction or internal dissatisfaction with his own work.

Staw and Cohen-Charash (2005) argued that job satisfaction refers to a series of information processing steps, noting how individual differences influence the assessment, recall, and reporting of job attitudes.

2.4.1.2 Measurement of job satisfaction

There are many measurement scales of job satisfaction. This study summarizes several classic commonly used measurement scales, mainly including job description index scale (Smith et al., 1969), Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (Spector, 1997), and Poner need satisfaction questionnaire (Porter & Lyman, 1961; L. W. Porter & Lawler, 1968).

Among them, the job description index scale (Smith et al., 1969) is clear, and it has strong universality in measuring satisfaction concerning five aspects: compensation, promotion, work, management, and work partners. There are 72 items in the scale.

The Minnesota satisfaction questionnaire (Spector, 1997) is divided into a long scale and a short scale. Among them, the long scale includes 20 subscales with 100 questions, covering the sense of achievement, activities, promotion, authority, company policy and practice, salary, colleagues, creativity, independence, moral orientation, recognition, responsibility, safety, social service, social status, diversity and satisfaction with working conditions. The short scale

includes 20 items, which are divided into internal satisfaction, external satisfaction, and overall satisfaction. The advantage of the scale is that it can measure all aspects of job satisfaction comprehensively, but the disadvantage is that the long scale has too many items.

The Poner Need Satisfaction questionnaire (Porter & Lyman, 1961; L. W. Porter & Lawler, 1968) measures job satisfaction from five aspects, namely security, social, esteem, autonomy, and self-actualization. The characteristic of the scale is that the items of the questionnaire are mostly concentrated in the specific situation of management.

These three classic measures were popular but due to the large number of items in these three scales, scholars have developed or updated many simple and effective measurement scales, such as the 5-item job satisfaction scale (Bacharach et al., 1991; Janssen & Yperen, 2004) or the 4-item affective job satisfaction scale (Thompson & Phua, 2012).

Nevertheless, there are still some arguments on the research gaps about job satisfaction dimensions. The reasons mainly include three aspects as follows.

First of all, whether organizational factors have impacts on job satisfaction. Secondly, most of the above job satisfaction measurement tools regard overall job satisfaction as the sum of the scores of each dimension of job satisfaction, so there is such a problem. Is there a direct relationship between each dimension of job satisfaction and overall job satisfaction? Thirdly, a large number of research have investigated the composition of job satisfaction, but there are few questions about how and when each dimension of job satisfaction affects the overall job satisfaction.

Moorman (1993) once proposed that measuring job satisfaction largely depends on the division of job satisfaction dimensions. L. W. Porter and Lawler (1968) clarified that intrinsic satisfaction is the satisfaction feeling that individuals perceived from the work itself, mainly involving self-esteem, autonomy, sense of achievement, feedback and sense of control. Extrinsic satisfaction is the satisfaction that individuals obtain from outside the job itself. It mainly involves the recognition of superiors, colleague relations, salary and welfare, promotion. Moorman (1993) explained that overall job satisfaction is the satisfaction of individual work on the whole. Overall job satisfaction is composed of internal satisfaction and external satisfaction. The division of this dimension of job satisfaction is of great significance for understanding job satisfaction.

2.4.2 Theoretical basis of job satisfaction

Job satisfaction includes qualitative and emotional factors, and its motivation can be explained from four theories: Maslow's hierarchy of needs, dual-factor theory, social exchange theory and

expectancy theory.

2.4.2.1 Maslow's hierarchy of needs

According to Maslow's hierarchy of needs (Maslow, 1943), individual needs can be divided into five levels: physiological needs, safety needs, love and belonging needs, esteem needs and self-actualization needs.

Physiological needs are instinctive needs. Safety needs refer to not allowing yourself to be hurt by the external environment. Love and belonging needs refer to the needs generated in these processes, such as sense of belonging, family affection, love. Esteem needs refer to self-esteem and self-love, whether to help others obtain respect and meet their social status. Self-actualization needs are the highest needs. On the basis of meeting all the above needs, we can realize our own value. Only when individuals complete the first level of needs will they have the second level or even higher-level needs. The first two kinds of needs are external conditions, and the last three kinds of needs are high-level needs. They need personal psychological drive to have a sense of satisfaction. If all the needs are met, individual job satisfaction will also be improved.

2.4.2.2 Dual-factor theory

According to the dual-factor theory (Herzberg et al., 1959), most of the factors leading to the reduction of employees' job satisfaction are caused by the external environment. Such as whether the salary management level is high or low, the environment and the company's rules and regulations, the coexistence of colleagues and the degree of job stability. In the two factors, "Hygiene factors" refer to that when managers eliminate dissatisfaction factors, they can bring a certain harmonious impact on the working environment, but they have little effect in improving their work enthusiasm. "Motivator factors" refer to factors that can bring work enthusiasm to employees. For example, improve learning opportunities, recognize work achievements, assign responsibilities and promotion opportunities.

2.4.2.3 Social exchange theory

According to the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), employees will compare their input-output ratio with others. In the input-output ratio, input refers to personal education, efforts and their own ability and experience, while output refers to salary, promotion and leadership recognition. After comparison, their own sense of fairness is directly proportional to job satisfaction.

2.4.2.4 Expectancy theory

According to the expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964), when facing a work content activity, employees will predict the results after the work according to their own prediction, and then make a choice of work intensity. Among them, the degree of job satisfaction mainly comes from the organizational reward obtained after completing the work under the individual efforts. Just after the work is completed and the performance is achieved, if the expectation is not different from the reward, the corresponding satisfaction will be higher.

2.4.3 Antecedents of job satisfaction

Previous studies have shown that the antecedents of job satisfaction mainly come from three aspects: individual level, team level and organization level. As shown in Table 2.4.

Table 2.4 Antecedents of job satisfaction

Level	Category	Outcomes
Individual Level	Attitudes and Characteristics	Job pressure; Job autonomy; Job demand Work conditions; Workload; Task diversity; Work-family conflict; Job fit; Career prospective; Job status; Occupational context
	Personality Traits	Individual characteristics; Core self-evaluation; Individualism; The willingness to take risks
	Psychological Factors	Emotion exhaustion; Gratitude; Job security; Job insecurity
	Behavior	Job crafting; Voice; Voluntary workplace green behavior
	Social Relations	Co-worker support; Relations with colleagues and supervisors; Social support; Social-economic context
Team Level	-----	Transformational leadership; Team cohesion; Caring climate; Teamwork; Supervisor support
Organizational Level	-----	Organizational culture; Organizational structure; Organizational context;

2.4.3.1 Individual level

At the individual level, research shows that individual job attitude and job characteristics, personality traits, psychological factors, behavior and social relations are closely related to job satisfaction.

In terms of job attitude and characteristics, job pressure, job autonomy, job demand, work conditions, workload, task diversity, work-family conflict, job fit, career prospective, occupational context and job status can significantly predict individual job satisfaction

(Cornelien, 2009; K. W. Kim & Cho, 2020; Matijaš et al., 2018; Roelen et al., 2008; Tabvuma et al., 2015; W. Wang et al., 2020). For example, Cornelien (2009) analyzed the impact of job characteristics on job satisfaction using the data of German Socio-Economic Panel, and found that the strongest driving factors of job satisfaction are the relationship with colleagues and supervisors, task diversity and job security. K. W. Kim and Cho (2020) analyzed the relationship between job stress and job satisfaction by employment type. The data of 33420 employees from South Korea show that job autonomy and job demand have a positive impact on job satisfaction.

In the aspect of personality traits, individual characteristics, core self-evaluation, individualism and their willingness to take risks are positively related with job satisfaction (Froese & Xiao, 2012; Hsieh & Huang, 2017; J. X. Peng et al., 2016; Santis et al., 2021). In terms of psychological factors, gratitude and job security can effectively improve job satisfaction (Alves & B., 2016; H. Chen et al., 2021; Cornelien, 2009), and job insecurity can reduce individual job satisfaction (Hsieh & Huang, 2017). For example, Froese Froese and Xiao (2012) explored the relationship between work values, job satisfaction and organizational commitment of white-collar employees in foreign-funded enterprises in China. The regression results show that job satisfaction mediates the positive relationship between job values and organizational commitment. Employees' individualism and willingness to take risks can significantly predict employees' job satisfaction. Hsieh and Huang (2017) explored the mediating role of job insecurity between core self-evaluation and job satisfaction, and the mediating role of job insecurity between core self-evaluation and life satisfaction through job satisfaction. The data of 346 full-time employees from Taiwan show that job insecurity mediates the relationship between core self-evaluation and job satisfaction. In addition, job insecurity not only moderates the relationship between core self-evaluation and job satisfaction, but also mediates the relationship between core self-evaluation and life satisfaction through job satisfaction.

In terms of behavior, job crafting, voice and voluntary workplace green behavior can significantly predict job satisfaction (H. Chen et al., 2021; H. H. Chou et al., 2019). For example, H. Chen et al. (2021) explored the relationship between gratitude, social support, job crafting and job satisfaction, and found that job crafting can significantly affect employees' job satisfaction.

In terms of social relations, co-worker support, relations with colleagues and supervisors, social support and social-economic context are also important factors to predict job satisfaction (H. Chen et al., 2021; Cornelien, 2009; Santis et al., 2021). For example, H. Chen et al. (2021) explored the relationship between gratitude, social support, job crafting and job satisfaction,

and found that social support can significantly affect employees' job satisfaction.

2.4.3.2 Team level

At the team level, team cohesion, caring climate, teamwork, supervisor support and transformational leadership are the important factors that affect job satisfaction (Braun et al., 2013; Fu & Deshpande, 2014; Griffin & West, 2001; Walsh et al., 2010).

2.4.3.3 Organizational level

At the organizational level, organizational culture, organizational structure, organizational context and perceived work group efficacy are closely related to job satisfaction (Kline & Boyd, 1991; Y. D. Lee & Chang, 2008; McIntyre et al., 2002).

2.4.4 Outcomes of job satisfaction

As a type of positive job attitude, job satisfaction has a significant impact on the variables of individual level, team level and organization level.

Specifically, at the individual level, job satisfaction can significantly reduce burnout and turnover intention, whereas improve life satisfaction and financial and psychological reward satisfaction, and has a significant correlation with job performance (Froese & Xiao, 2012; Fu & Deshpande, 2014; Hofmans et al., 2013; J. X. Peng et al., 2016; L. W. Porter et al., 1974; X. Song et al., 2020).

At the team level, job satisfaction is significantly and positively related to team performance (Braun et al., 2013; Politis, 2006).

At the organizational level, previous research have demonstrated that job satisfaction can significantly predict organizational performance, organizational policy and organizational objective (Rosenfeld et al., 2004).

2.4.5 Conclusion

Combined with previous studies, we find that job satisfaction is a complex system with multiple dimensions. From the psychological components, it includes cognitive appraisal of work and emotional feedback. From the job characteristics, it includes a series of job-related job satisfaction. Therefore, the definition, construct division and measurement scale of job satisfaction should follow the system principle from the perspective of system theory.

Secondly, previous studies focused on exploring the driving factors of job satisfaction, and the outcomes of job satisfaction need to be further expanded. For example, previous studies

often focused on the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance, but ignored its relationship with organizational harmony, organizational development, employees' wellbeing and their happy experience at work. However, employees' job satisfaction is a minimum requirement for employees' mental, physical health and harmonious organizational development. Therefore, future research should examine job satisfaction from the perspective of positive psychology or mental health.

Thirdly, in terms of research methods, the research of job satisfaction should continue to include new variables, strengthen causal analysis, integrate relevant theories systematically, analyze from the team and organization level, and expand from individual to overall organization theory.

Finally, in practice, future research should consider how to combine the idea of modern human resource management, pay attention to the spiritual needs of employees in actual management, solve management problems, and explore the guiding significance and application value of job satisfaction to organizational management.

2.5 Review of turnover intention

2.5.1 Concept and measurement of turnover intention

2.5.1.1 Concept of turnover intention

An enterprise has a loyal and excellent staff team, which is not only the basis of sustainable development, but also an important premise to stand out in the fierce market competition. It should be noted that since entering the new century, with the in-depth development of China's socialist market economy and the increasingly fierce competition among enterprises, a large number of highly educated, high-quality and thoughtful new generation employees have entered the workplace. The increasing phenomenon of employee turnover has affected the stable development of enterprises, and even led to the bankruptcy of enterprises. Employees' job dissatisfaction will lead to withdrawal behavior and turnover behavior (L. W. Porter et al., 1974). The turnover of employees will generally bring huge losses and adverse effects to the organization. When employees leave the organization, their experience, knowledge and ability will also leave their organization with them, which may lead to bubbles in the organization and are not conducive to the stability and development of the organization.

Therefore, how to reduce the turnover behavior of employees and help enterprises retain talents has become the focus of scholars and enterprise management practice. As shown in Table

2.5.

Table 2.5 Concept of turnover intention

Authors	Definition
Mobley (1977)	After working in an organization for a period of time, the employee's thought or intention of deliberately leaving the organization after consideration is the last step of the actual turnover behavior.
Martin (1979)	The idea that employees want to leave their organizations.
Williams and Hazer (1986)	The intention, desire and plan of employees to leave their jobs.
Price (2001)	A type of withdrawal behavior, it is a stage before an employee leaves the organization, in which the membership of the organization to which he belongs is cancelled.
Sousa-Poza and Henneberger (2004)	The possibility that an individual will change his job in a possible period.
Wynen et al. (2013)	The expectation that one's working condition will change in the near future and the probability of leaving the organization.

Mobley (1977) argued that turnover intention refers to “after working in an organization for a period of time, the employee's thought or intention of deliberately leaving the organization after consideration is the last step of the actual turnover behavior”.

According to Martin (1979), turnover intention refers to “the idea that employees want to leave their organizations”.

Williams and Hazer (1986) proposed that turnover intention refers to “the intention, desire and plan of employees to leave their jobs”.

Price (2001) defined turnover intention as a type of withdrawal behavior, it is a stage before an employee leaves the organization, in which the membership of the organization to which he belongs is cancelled.

Sousa-Poza and Henneberger (2004) posited that turnover intention refers to “the possibility that an individual will change his job in a possible period”.

Wynen et al. (2013) posited that turnover intention refers to “the expectation that one's working condition will change in the near future and the probability of leaving the organization”.

It can be seen that scholars have different definitions of turnover intention, but the main views tend to be consistent. Turnover intention emphasizes that it is an attitude. Before the implementation of the actual turnover behavior, the individual will evaluate the turnover problem. Once the employee's turnover behavior occurs, it will have a serious impact on the organization (Fazio et al., 2017; Miller et al., 1979).

2.5.1.2 Measurement of turnover intention

The measurements of turnover intention are consistent in connotation. Although the statements of each scale are different, they generally include intention, perceived job mobility, the possibility of looking for other jobs and. The turnover intention scale developed by Mobley

(1977), O'Reilly et al. (1991), Irving et al. (1997) and Kelloway et al. (1999) are commonly used scales at present. For example, the four-item scale from Kelloway et al. (1999) includes: "I am thinking about leaving this organization", "I am planning to look for a new job", "I intend to ask people about new job opportunities", and "I do not plan to be in this organization much longer".

2.5.2 Antecedents of turnover intention

In the research on the antecedents of turnover intention, the more representative scholars are March and Simon (1958) and Mobley (1977).

Specifically, March and Simon (1958) established the first model to consider the impact of job satisfaction on turnover intention. The model consists of two parts: the degree of individual turnover intention and the objective ease of turnover. They believe that employees' job satisfaction and the evaluation of the possibility of turning to other enterprises are the decisive factors for turnover intention. Job satisfaction includes the prediction and grasp of work relations, the degree of job satisfaction felt by individuals and the harmony between work and other roles, The possibility of inter firm mobility depends on the number of external enterprises that can be selected by them.

Price (1977) established a causal relationship model of turnover intention. In this model, Price (1977) pointed out that the antecedent variables of job satisfaction are salary, communication and enterprise centralization. Job satisfaction and job opportunities further affect employees' turnover intention.

Mobley (1977) established an intermediary chain model, which believes that whether an employee will have turnover intention mainly depends on his satisfaction with his job, his expectation of future benefits in the current organization, his expectation of possible benefits in external organizations.

In order to clarify the driven factors of turnover intention, this study reviews the relevant literature on the turnover intention published in SSCI journals and summarizes the driving factors of employee turnover intention, mainly at the individual level (e.g., demographic, work characteristics, emotions, psychological factors and behavioral outcomes), team level (e.g., leadership and team climate), and organization level (e.g., organizational climate and culture). As shown in Table 2.6.

Table 2.6 Antecedents of turnover intention

Level	Category	Outcomes
Individual Level	Demographic	Gender; Age; Work tenure; Educational level
	Attitudes and Characteristics	Work stress; Burnout; Job autonomy; Workload; Task diversity
	Emotions	Pride; Anger; Emotional intelligence; Emotion exhaustion; Job insecurity
	Psychological Factors	Psychological contract breach; Psychological need; Well-being; Self-esteem
	Behavior	Innovative work behavior
Team Level	-----	Transformational leadership; Differential leadership; Team climate; Team culture; Team-level relational identification
Organizational Level	-----	Frequent change; Organizational learning climate; Organizational ethical climate; Organizational culture

2.5.2.1 Individual level

At individual level, previous research shows that demographics, job attitude and characteristics, emotions, psychological factors, behavior are closely related to turnover intention.

Specifically, some demographic variables, such as employee's gender, age, work tenure and educational level, are the key factors that affect employee turnover intention (Fu et al., 2020; Park & Choi, 2019; Sbstad et al., 2020). For example, Fu et al. (2020) argued that turnover intention is individual's plan for turnover behavior, which refers to their motivation to perform turnover behavior. They took 496 teachers as a sample and found that turnover intention was affected by gender and work tenure. Teachers with longer work tenure and female teachers were in lower turnover intention. Furthermore, individual's well-being and social support are negatively correlated with turnover intention.

In terms of job attitude and characteristics, work stress, burnout, job autonomy, workload and task diversity are positively correlated with employees' turnover intention (Greenham et al., 2019; Kuo et al., 2012; Li et al., 2021; A. Lu & D., 2013; Shi et al., 2021; Urbanaviciute et al., 2018; W. Wang et al., 2020), whereas the positive variables such as job satisfaction, employee satisfaction with the leader and work engagement can significantly reduce the turnover intention (Craig et al., 2012; Liu et al., 2016; A. Lu & D., 2013; Siu et al., 2014; Wen

et al., 2020). For example, Wen et al. (2020) conducted a sample survey of 829 employees using structural equation model. The results show that job autonomy has no direct relationship with turnover intention, but will indirectly affect turnover intention through job satisfaction. Urbanaviciute et al. (2018) collected the questionnaire data of 358 employees from 108 state-owned enterprises and 178 private enterprises to explore the relationship between job insecurity, psychological needs and turnover intention. The research results show that job insecurity is indirectly related to turnover intention by meeting the basic psychological needs of autonomy, competence and relatedness. Siu et al. (2014) took the Hong Kong police as the research sample and explored the relationship between positive emotion, job satisfaction and turnover intention based on the resource conservation theory. The research results show that the four dimensions of psychological capital, namely self-efficacy, hope, optimism and resiliency are indirectly related to turnover intention through job satisfaction.

In terms of individual emotions, positive emotions (such as pride, emotional intelligence) can effectively reduce turnover intention (Conroy, Becker, & Menges, 2017; Pelaez-Fernandez et al., 2021; Siu et al., 2014) and negative emotions (such as anger, emotional exhaustion, job insecurity) are positively correlated with turnover intention (Conroy, Becker, & Menges, 2017; Molders et al., 2019; Tsouloupas et al., 2010). For example, Conroy, Becker, and Menges (2017) took 135 pilot coaches as the research sample and explored the influence mechanism of three kinds of emotions (anger, guilt and pride) on turnover intention based on the two variables of organizational identity and career identity. Pelaez-Fernandez et al. (2021) invited 685 teaching professionals (including 431 women) to participate in a series of questionnaires, including subjective well-being, emotional intelligence, job satisfaction and turnover intention. The results show that subjective well-being is significantly correlated with higher job satisfaction and lower turnover intention. Emotional intelligence is positively correlated with well-being and job satisfaction, and negatively correlated with turnover intention.

In terms of psychological factors, psychological contract breach, psychological needs, well-being and self-esteem are significantly correlated with turnover intention (Babalola, Stouten, & Euwema, 2014; Moquin et al., 2019; Shi et al., 2021; Urbanaviciute et al., 2018). Babalola, Stouten, and Euwema (2014) took 124 employee-coworker-supervisor triads data as a sample, and found that employees' self-esteem would affect turnover intention. Shi, Gordon, and Tang (2021) explored the dynamic relationship between emotional disorder, job autonomy, subjective well-being and turnover intention by using diary method based on affective event theory and unfolding model of voluntary turnover. Through the observation of 65 hotel employees twice a day for 416 days, it is found that employees' subjective well-being and emotional dissonance

have a significant impact on turnover intention at the daily level. There is a certain relationship between employees' subjective well-being and turnover intention, but this relationship is not robust.

In terms of behavior, there is a positive correlation between individual innovative work behavior and turnover intention (Shih & Susanto, 2011). For example, Shih and Susanto (2011) took 460 employees working in the production and marketing teams of Indonesian manufacturing and pharmaceutical companies as research samples, and explored the impact of innovative work behavior on conflict with colleague and employee turnover intention. The results show that innovative work behavior has a positive and significant relationship with conflict with colleague and employee turnover intention. respectively, perceived distributive justice negatively moderates the relationship between innovative work behavior and c conflict with colleague and employee turnover intention.

2.5.2.2 Team level

At the team level, leadership factors (such as transformational leadership, differential Leadership), team members' empowerment, team climate, team culture, and team-level relational identification. are important factors that affect employee turnover intention (Kivimäki et al., 2007; Li et al., 2015; Majeed & Jamshed, 2021; Prati & Zani, 2016; A. C. Wang et al., 2018; Y. Wang & Hu, 2017).

For Example, Kivimäki et al. (2007) took 6441 hospital employees (including 785 men and 5656 women) under the age of 55 as the research sample to explore the relationship between team climate and employee turnover intention. Prati and Zani (2016) focused their research on the relationship between work-family conflict and turnover intention in the team work environment. They took 730 teams and 4821 members of six health organizations as samples to explore the impact of team member empowerment on turnover intention and its relationship with work-family conflict. The results show that the empowerment of team members will negatively affect employee turnover intention. Employees with low empowerment awareness, the positive relationship between work-family conflict and turnover intention is stronger. A. C. Wang et al. (2018) collected 87 teams and 624 leader employee nesting data from mainland China and Chinese Taiwan, and explored the influence of authoritarian leadership (individual level) and differentiated Leadership (team level) on turnover intention. The results show that at the individual level, authoritarian leadership is positively correlated with employees' turnover intention, and at the team level, there is a negative correlation between differentiated leadership and employees' turnover intention. Y. Wang and Hu (2017) found that coaches with

transformational leadership style can effectively reduce turnover intention.

2.5.2.3 Organizational level

At the organizational level, frequent change, organizational climate (such as learning climate, ethical climate) and organizational culture are closely related to turnover intention (Aarons et al., 2020; Babalola et al., 2014; Joo, 2010; E. Lee & Jang, 2019).

2.5.3 Outcomes of turnover intention

As a negative factor threatening the organization, turnover intention has a significant impact on the variables of individual, team and organization level.

Specifically, at the individual level, turnover intention will reduce employee's work engagement and performance, and directly lead to employee's turnover behavior and counterproductive work behavior (Nuhn et al., 2017; Xiong & Wen, 2020); At the team and organizational levels, turnover intention can significantly reduce team performance and organizational performance (Nuhn et al., 2017).

2.5.4 Conclusion

Turnover intention is a classic topic in the field of organizational behavior and human resources management. Scholars have established a variety of analysis models to explore the influence mechanism of employee turnover based on different perspective and carried out a lot of research on antecedent variables and outcome variables. They have realized that turnover intention is driven by multiple factors. With the era of big data coming, people's understanding of work and life is also changing, employee turnover also presents new characteristics, employee flow becomes more frequent, and the original model is also facing new challenges. In particular, enterprises are facing the problem of rising employee turnover, and employees are facing the plight of layoff since the birth of COVID-19. Thus, future studies should focus on the study of turnover behavior and turnover intention. It can be divided into the following aspects:

2.5.4.1 Incorporate demographic and organizational variables into the research scope

Based on empirical research experience, demographic variables such as employees' age, gender and job type, as well as organizational variables such as enterprise ownership form also have an impact on the effects of values matching, ability matching and turnover intention, but there are few studies in this field. Future research can take these variables as regulatory variables to investigate the relationship between organizational management factors, individual

organization matching and employee turnover intention under different conditions. We believe it will have great practical significance for enterprise human resource management.

2.5.4.2 Establish a comprehensive individual-organization fit model

The connotation of individual-organization fit includes not only value matching and ability matching, but also target fit and demand fit. Future research should try to build a more detailed individual-organization fit model to deeply explore how these different matching affects each other and work together on turnover intention, so as to provide necessary help for enterprises to better recruit talents and predict employee turnover.

2.5.4.3 Emphasis on vertical data collection and research

Various factors affecting turnover intention actually need a process to act on turnover inclination. This process has a certain action time. In principle, these variables should be measured in different time periods. However, most of the current empirical research is based on the cross-sectional research of questionnaire survey. The measurement of variables in the questionnaire is carried out at the same time point. This method can only make causal inference and cannot really establish the causal relationship between variables. Therefore, in future research, it is necessary to use longitudinal design or experimental method to further explore the causal relationship between variables.

2.5.4.4 Strengthen the research on controllable variables

From the existing studies, most researchers choose to study the relationship between psychological factors such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational support and turnover intention. However, if we trace its source, these psychological factors are affected by many antecedent variables, and these psychological factors cannot be directly controlled by enterprises, nor can they be changed through efforts overnight. Therefore, in the management practice of enterprises, there is an urgent need to get suggestions and methods that can directly control employees' turnover intention, which also puts forward a new topic for academic researchers. The research on some real and directly controllable variables (such as tuition compensation and working hours mentioned above) can provide operable and effective methods for enterprise human resource management practice. We hope researchers in the future will pay attention to such factors.

2.6 Review of perceived organizational support

2.6.1 Concept and measurement of perceived organizational support

2.6.1.1 Concept of perceived organizational support

Before the 1980s, when scholars studied the relationship between employees and organizations, they always unilaterally focused on employees' commitment to the organization and ignored the organization's commitment to employees. Eisenberger et al. (1986) proposed organizational support theory to solve this problem. Organizational support theory is based on social exchange theory, the principle of reciprocity and the idea of organizational personification. Its core idea is that employees will give humanized characteristics to the organization, speculate that the organization attaches importance to their value and contribution, and the degree of concern for their interests, including material and non-material interests, and turn this perceived support into their commitment, loyalty and performance to the organization. In short, it is the perceived support from the organization.

According to Eisenberger et al. (1986), the organization's support to employees only represents "the organization's commitment to employees", and if employees do not perceive organizational support, they will not produce "the employee's commitment to the organization". Therefore, the perceived organizational support of employees is the premise for employees to improve and fulfill organizational commitments. Organizational support theory also holds that after employees perceive organizational support, they will mobilize mutually beneficial codes of conduct, evaluate and respect their organization, work harder and perform better in attendance and performance.

At the same time, they also identify with the organization more emotionally and are willing to make more efforts for the interests of the organization. The theory of organizational support overcomes the limitation of one-sided emphasis on employees' commitment to the organization and little attention to employees' commitment in human resource management. Its significance is to emphasize that the concern and attention of the organization to employees is the important reason why employees are willing to stay in the organization and contribute to the organization, that is, there is the commitment of the organization to employees first, and then there is the commitment of employees to the organization.

Eisenberger et al. (1986) first proposed the concept of perceived organizational support, which is defined as "employee perception that the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being". The proposal of perceived organizational support makes up for

the defect that previous studies only focused on “employees’ commitment to the organization” and ignored “organization’s commitment to employees”.

Eisenberger et al. (1986) pointed out that perceived organizational support includes two aspects: first, employees’ feelings about whether the organization attaches importance to their contributions, and employees will regard their personal efforts as their contributions to the organization; Second, whether employees pay attention to their well-being, that is, employees’ social and emotional needs. Perceived organizational support reflects the organization’s attention to the contribution of employees and the interests of employees. It is an important tool to help the organization establish a good relationship with employees and encourage employees to work hard. Therefore, the sense of organizational support has an important impact on consolidating the relationship between enterprises and employees.

2.6.1.2 Measurement of perceived organizational support

There are three aspects of literature on measurement of perceived organizational support (single-dimension, two-dimension and multi-dimension).

(1) Single-dimension

Eisenberger et al. (1986) proposed the concept of perceived organizational support and developed a scale with corresponding measurement. The scale is a one-dimensional structure scale with 36 item statements. The scale has high internal reliability and validity and has been widely used in organizational support measurement. The scale is related to social support and job stress perception, emphasizing that employees can be in the outside world. The scale has been widely used.

However, the scale has too many items, and there may be some deficiencies in practical application. On this basis, Coyle-Shapiro and Conway (2005) selected 7 items and developed a concise and effective scale.

(2) Two-dimension

McMillin (1997) argued that perceived organizational support is not only limited to the organization’s social emotional support for employees at the spiritual level, but also includes instrumental support at the material level. McMillin (1997) proposed the integration model scale of perceived organizational support, including social emotional support and instrumental support.

(3) Multi-structure dimension

Kraimer and Wayne (2004) developed a three-dimension scale of perceived organizational support for expatriates of enterprises, and proposed that perceived organizational support

includes three dimensions: adaptive support, career support and financial support. W. Q. Ling et al. (2006) divided perceived organizational support into three dimensions: value identification, work support and interest in care. They developed a 24-item scale using likert-6 scale to measure these three dimensions, and obtained high reliability and validity.

2.6.2 Antecedents of perceived organizational support

Previous studies have suggested that perceived organizational support is largely determined by individual, team and organizational factors. As shown in Table 2.7.

Table 2.7 Antecedents of perceived organizational support

Level	Antecedents
Individual Level	Emotions; Values; LMX Re-employment experience; Job status; Employee characteristics
Team Level	Supervisor support; Directive leadership; Supportive leadership
Organizational Level	High-performance human resource practices; Organization justice; Organization size; Organization activities; Managerial tolerance; Procedural justice

2.6.2.1 Individual level

At individual level, previous studies showed that individual emotions (positive emotion, negative emotion), values, pre-employment experience, job status, and employee characteristics are positive related to perceived organizational support (Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011; Hui et al., 2011; Siddiqi & Ahmed, 2016). In addition, Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) argued that demographics (such as age, gender.) were not related to perceived organizational support.

For example, Siddiqi and Ahmed (2016) took middle managers, front-line employees, bottom employees and customers in banking, insurance and postal service industries as samples, and found that LMX was positively correlated with the perceived organizational support of employees. Hui et al. (2011) studied 153 employees of a toy company in southern China and found that employees with traditionality and positive emotions have a strong sense of organizational support.

2.6.2.2 Team level

At team level, supervisor support and leadership behavior (such as directive leadership and supportive leadership) are important driven factors affecting perceived organizational support (Dawley et al., 2010; M. H. Jin & McDonald, 2016; Tremblay et al., 2019).

For example, Dawley et al. (2010) took 364 employees of a manufacturing enterprise as a sample and found that leadership support behavior is an important predictor of perceived organizational support, and job matching mediates the impact of leadership support behavior on perceived organizational support. Ahmed and Nawaz (2015) also found that supervisor support and colleague support also affect perceived organizational support. M. H. Jin and McDonald (2016) found that leadership is an important factor affecting subordinates' perception. Specifically, directive leadership requires subordinates to obey absolutely and inform subordinates what to do, how to do, when and where to complete tasks by means of orders and instructions, which will weaken perceived organizational support of employees. On the contrary, supportive leaders respect employees' ideas, encourage and care for employees, which will increase perceived organizational support of employees.

2.6.2.3 Organizational level

At organizational level, high-performance human resource practices, organizational justice, procedural justice, organizational trust, managerial tolerance, organizational scale and organizational activities are closely related to perceived organizational support (Ahmed & Nawaz, 2015; Babic et al., 2015; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011; Hochwarter et al., 2003; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Wayne et al., 2002; Zhong et al., 2016).

For example, Ahmed and Nawaz (2015) found that perceived organizational support is largely affected by organizational justice and organizational growth opportunities. Babic et al. (2015) investigated 509 employees in a hospital in Belgium and found that the four dimensions of Organizational Justice (interpersonal justice, information justice, procedural justice and distribution justice) can significantly predict perceived organizational support. In order to prove the key role of perceived organizational support, Zhong et al. (2016) conducted an empirical study on 605 employees, their direct supervisors and human resources managers in 130 companies based on the social exchange theory. They found that high-performance human resources practice can significantly predict perceived organizational support. When the degree of collectivism is high and the power distance orientation is low, the relationship between human resource practice and perceived organizational support is stronger.

2.6.3 Outcomes of perceived organizational support

Previous studies have shown that perceived organizational support has a significant impact on outcomes at individual, team and organization level. As shown in Table 2.8.

Table 2.8 Outcomes of perceived organizational support

Level	Outcomes
Individual Level	Work engagement; Turnover; Job performance; Emotion exhaustion; Unethical behavior;
Team Level	Psychological empowerment; Creativity; Job satisfaction; Organizational citizen behavior Collective affective commitment;
Organizational Level	Helping behavior; Organizational commitment; Organizational identity

2.6.3.1 Individual level

At individual level, perceived organizational support can improve employees' work engagement, job satisfaction, psychological empowerment, reduce employees' emotional exhaustion, turnover intention and unethical behavior, and has a positive impact on employees' organizational citizenship behavior, performance and creativity (Lamm et al., 2015; Marchand & Vandenberghe, 2016; X. Wang et al., 2021; L. Zhang et al., 2016; Zhong et al., 2016; Zumrah & Boyle, 2015).

For example, a study on sustainability behavior by Lamm et al. (2015) shows that perceived organizational support is positively correlated with organizational citizenship behavior, job satisfaction, organizational identity and psychological empowerment, and negatively correlated with turnover intention. Psychological empowerment mediates the relationship between perceived organizational support and the above variables. Marchand and Vandenberghe (2016) conducted a sample survey of employees in 135 organizations and found that perceived organizational support is not significantly related to emotional exhaustion, but is related to turnover intention.

In addition, X. Wang et al. (2021) explored the psychological mechanism of employees engaging in unethical behavior based on the social exchange theory. The results show that employees with high perceived organizational support and low performance are more likely to engage in unethical behavior.

Furthermore, L. Zhang et al. (2016) analyzed the questionnaire data of 198 employees in six Korean companies by using hierarchical regression method based on the social exchange theory. The results show that when the challenging stress is high or the hindrance stress is low, the impact of perceived organizational support on employees' creativity is positive. When the challenging stress is low or the hindrance stress is high, the impact of perceived organizational support on employees' creativity is not significant.

2.6.3.2 Team level

At team level, perceived organizational support helps to improve collective affective commitment and promote helping behavior (Tremblay et al., 2019). For example, Tremblay et al. (2019) used the data of 115 business units of an international retailer to verify the relationship between group-level perceived organizational support, collective affective commitment, directive leadership, supportive leadership and group-level helping behavior. The results show that group-level perceived organizational support plays a mediating role between leadership behavior and collective affective commitment, and between directive leadership and group-level helping behavior.

2.6.3.3 Organizational level

At organizational level, perceived organizational support can enhance employees' organizational commitment and organizational identity (K. Y. Kim et al., 2016). For example, K. Y. Kim et al. (2016) conducted three studies on employees in the United States and South Korea and found that perceived organizational support can positively predict organizational emotional commitment, and the perceived organizational competence can enhance the positive relationship between them.

2.6.4 Perceived organizational support as moderators

Perceived organizational support represents employees perceived organizational commitment, which is often used as a moderator in research. For example, Hur et al. (2015) revealed the moderating role of perceived organizational support between employee behavior (surface behavior and deep behavior) and job attitude (job satisfaction). Hameed et al. (2019) found that perceived organizational support constitutes an important situational condition between employees' psychological variables and behavior.

2.6.5 Conclusion

Organizational support theory aims to explore the relationship between organization and employees. It breaks through the limitation of one-sided emphasis on employees' commitment to the organization and ignoring the commitment of the organization to employees in the past process of human resource management. Perceived organizational support is a concept with rapid development and rich connotation.

Since the organizational support theory was proposed, it has been defined from the

perspective of employee perception to the perspective of organizational giving (employee acquisition). With the enrichment and improvement of organizational support theory, the measurement dimension of perceived organizational support has also experienced emotional support focusing on spiritual and non-material levels, to a two-dimensional structure including emotional support and instrumental support, and a multi-dimensional structure including emotional support, instrumental support, superior support and colleague support.

With the in-depth study of organizational support theory, the driving factors and mechanism of perceived organizational support have also been deeply studied. Previous studies have shown that the important antecedent variables of perceived organizational support include organizational justice, organizational compensation, working conditions and human resource management measures and practices. The important outcome variables of organizational support include employee job performance, organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior and job satisfaction. Organizational support usually plays a mediating role or moderating role between these variables.

It can be seen that the outcomes of perceived organizational support are often positive, which has a certain positive impact on individuals, teams and organizations. Therefore, how to improve employees perceived organizational support through effective human resource management practice is an issue that enterprises need to focus on. In addition, there are some arguments about the dimension of perceived organizational support. Most studies show that perceived organizational support is a single-dimension variable, but most of the existing research results show that perceived organizational support has a multi-dimensional structure.

2.7 Summary

This chapter introduces the concept, measurement, antecedents, and outcomes of paternalistic leadership, transformational leadership, participative safety, communication quality, job satisfaction, turnover intention and perceived organizational support.

Chapter 3: Theory and Hypotheses

This chapter will combine social exchange theory to explore the influence mechanism and boundary conditions of paternalistic leadership on employees' job satisfaction and turnover intention. Specifically, this chapter firstly introduces the social exchange theory in detail, and builds the theoretical model of the thesis based on the social exchange theory, and puts forward corresponding research hypotheses.

3.1 Theory

3.1.1 Social exchange theory

Social exchange theory is one of the classic theories in sociology, spanning economics, psychology, sociology and other disciplines (Homans, 1958). Compared with the hypothesis of rational economists, social exchange theory believes that individual social exchange behavior is a two-way interaction process of gaining benefits and punishing (Cropanzano et al., 2017). The relationship between individuals is a social relationship based on the exchange of interests. This social exchange relationship is not limited to material exchange, but includes emotional exchange at the spiritual level (Slack et al., 2015). For example, when individuals receive positive support or treatment from others, they tend to return the same positive attitude to others (Cropanzano et al., 2017). When this social exchange norm is projected into the organizational work environment, it shows that when employees feel the care, support and recognition conveyed by the organization, leaders or colleagues, employees will give back more actively in order to achieve high-quality social exchange with others (Y. Chen et al., 2015).

Homans (1958) first put forward the viewpoint of social exchange theory. Specifically, Homans (1958) started from the perspective of individual behavior, comprehensively used concepts such as individual values, expectations, perception, and behavior to observe the exchange behavior between individuals, and created a theoretical research system including multiple emotional and behavioral propositions. Homans (1958) made a general summary of the social exchange theory, he believed that social exchange is the exchange behavior of costs and rewards between two or more actors. However, Homans (1958) only focused on costs and rewards, paid attention to individual psychological factors and needs, and emphasized the micro

analysis of social exchange from a psychological perspective, which has a strong behaviorism features.

Different from Homans (1958), Blau (1964) explored the concept of micro social exchange from the perspective of utilitarianism. According to Blau (1964), individuals' evaluation of social exchange relationship depends on the following three conditions. One is the benefits that individuals get in social exchange relationships. The second is the costs that individuals spend in social exchange relationships. The last is the individual's assessment of the kind of relationship he or she deserves, and the degree to which the individual can form a better relationship with others.

On this basis, Blau (1964) further divided individual exchange behavior into two types: social exchange and economic exchange. Social exchange is defined as dependent exchange. The essence of a social exchange relationship is based on trust and goodwill. The giver mainly does not consider immediate interests, but expects that the other party to return in the future by fulfilling its obligations. This kind of interpersonal relationship will directly affect the future exchange behavior of both parties. Different from social exchange, economic exchange is defined as an independent exchange based on a calculation of gains and losses. In the process of economic exchange, both parties to the exchange have their own clear responsibilities in terms of exchange time, exchange quantity, and will not be affected by previous and subsequent exchange behaviors.

Furthermore, Gouldner (1960) proposed that the most important principle in social exchange is reciprocity. The core idea of the principle of reciprocity is that when individuals obtain benefits from others, they will repay others (Masterson et al., 2000). In the process of social exchange, it is not necessary for both parties to return the same thing, as long as they think the value is the same. Gouldner (1960) believed that the social exchange relationship can be formed because the interests of the exchange parties can be balanced. In other words, the two parties in the social exchange relationship will compare the gap between the final reward and the actual price paid during the exchange process, thus forming their own exchange gain or loss assessment. If the evaluation result is positive, the exchange relationship may continue, if the evaluation result is negative, the exchange relationship may be terminated. This shows that in the process of social exchange within the organization, the organization should not only ask for employees to contribute, but also create good conditions for employees to grow, help employees gain while giving, promote their sense of presence and achievement, thereby maximizing the interests of the organization. And employees cannot just emphasize remuneration, but need to contribute their own knowledge and skills without reservation in the

process of work, so as to achieve mutual benefit and win-win, and achieve common growth with the organization.

Social exchange theory has been favored by researchers since Homans (1958) proposed it. A large number of studies have used social exchange theory to explore the impact of organizational factors and leadership factors on employee behavior and attitudes (Agnieszka & Schramm, 2021; Y. Chen et al., 2015; Hinkin & Schriesheim, 2015; Ji et al., 2021; Slack et al., 2015; Welsh et al., 2021; Xu et al., 2020; Zhao et al., 2020). Among them, most scholars propose that there is a clear social exchange relationship between leaders and employees (Y. Chen et al., 2015; Hinkin & Schriesheim, 2015). According to the principle of social exchange, when employees feel satisfied with the remuneration and care provided by the leader, they will feel satisfied, and then will actively and conscientiously work to repay the leader and the organization, and complete the tasks assigned by the leader on time, thus satisfy the leader (Y. Chen et al., 2015).

Combining the above studies, social exchange theory can be further described as a logical form of providing or obtaining rewards—paying costs—weighing outcomes (Cropanzano et al., 2017). The stability and breakup of the employment relationship between the organization and the employees depends on the positive and negative evaluation of the exchange results by both parties, which also provides a new research perspective for the study and management of workplace relationships (Cropanzano et al., 2017). Therefore, this study argues that the interaction between paternalistic leaders and subordinates can be considered as a typical social exchange process. Through a series of social exchanges, paternalistic leadership will eventually have a significant impact on employees' job satisfaction and turnover intention. In addition, in the process of social exchange, the psychological state of employees and the quality of social exchange with leaders are the key factors affecting the final result.

3.2 Theoretical model

From the perspective of social exchange theory (Blau, 1964; Gouldner, 1960; Homans, 1958), this study constructed a multi-path moderated mediation model, aiming to explore the influence mechanism and boundary conditions between paternalistic leadership and employees' job satisfaction and turnover intention, focusing on the mediating role of participative safety, communication quality, and the moderating role of perceived organizational support.

First of all, social exchange theory proposes that in the process of leader-employee exchange, if the leader shows support, care and other positive behaviors to the employee, the

employee will evaluate this social process as beneficial and bring about positive results; on the contrary, if the leader ignores employees' feelings, employees will evaluate this social process as harmful, which will bring negative results (Y. Chen et al., 2015; Hinkin & Schriesheim, 2015). Paternalistic leadership includes three dimensions of authority, benevolence and morality. Among them, authoritarian leadership emphasizes absolute control over employees and value their own authority. Employees feel oppressed and uncomfortable during social exchanges with authoritarian leaders (Khorakian et al., 2021; Nazir et al., 2021), which will weaken the participative safety of employees and reduce the communication quality between employees and leaders. Different from authoritarian leaders, benevolent leaders treat others with tolerance and care for subordinates (Shen et al., 2020; Wan et al., 2020); moral leaders set an example and are fair and upright (Bedi, 2020; Jia et al., 2020). During the social exchange process, the employee's participative safety and communication quality will be improved accordingly. Furthermore, a high degree of participative safety and communication quality will improve employees' job satisfaction and reduce turnover intention. Therefore, based on social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), this study proposes that participative safety and communication quality mediate the relationship between paternalistic leadership and employee job satisfaction, and the relationship between paternalistic leadership and employee turnover intention.

Secondly, social exchange theory believes that the quality of social exchange between leaders and employees depends on the evaluation of the exchange results by both parties. (Blau, 1964; Gouldner, 1960; Homans, 1958). Perceived organizational support measures the care and support that employees perceive from the organization (Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011). From the perspective of social exchange, this study believes that perceived organizational support provides a strong guarantee for the leader-employee social exchange process (Tremblay et al., 2019; Zhong et al., 2016), and employees with a high perceived organizational support will be more active in the social exchange with paternalistic leaders, bringing higher quality social exchange results. Therefore, based on the theory of social exchange, this study proposes that employees with a high perceived organizational support have more social exchange capital, and thus will be more actively involved in the social exchange with paternalistic leaders (Siddiqi & Ahmed, 2016; L. Zhang et al., 2016). Then, perceived organizational support will strengthen the positive impact of benevolent leadership and moral leadership on employee participative safety and communication quality, and at the same time, the perceived organizational support will weaken the negative impact of authoritarian leadership on employee participative safety and communication quality. On the contrary, for employees with low perceived organizational support, employees may negatively evaluate the process of social

exchange with paternalistic leadership because they cannot obtain support from the organization, which intensifies the negative results of paternalistic leadership and weakens the positive impact of paternalistic leadership. In other words, perceived organizational support will increase the positive impact of benevolent leadership and moral leadership on employee participative safety and communication quality, and increase the negative impact of authoritarian leadership on employee participative safety and communication quality.

Finally, combined with the mediation and moderation hypotheses, this study further proposes that perceived organizational support moderates the mediating role of participative safety in the relationship between paternalistic leadership and job satisfaction, as well as the relationship between paternalistic leadership and turnover intention. Meanwhile, perceived organizational support moderates the mediating role of communication quality in the relationship between paternalistic leadership and job satisfaction, as well as the relationship between paternalistic leadership and turnover intention.

The theoretical model of this study is shown in Figure 3.1.

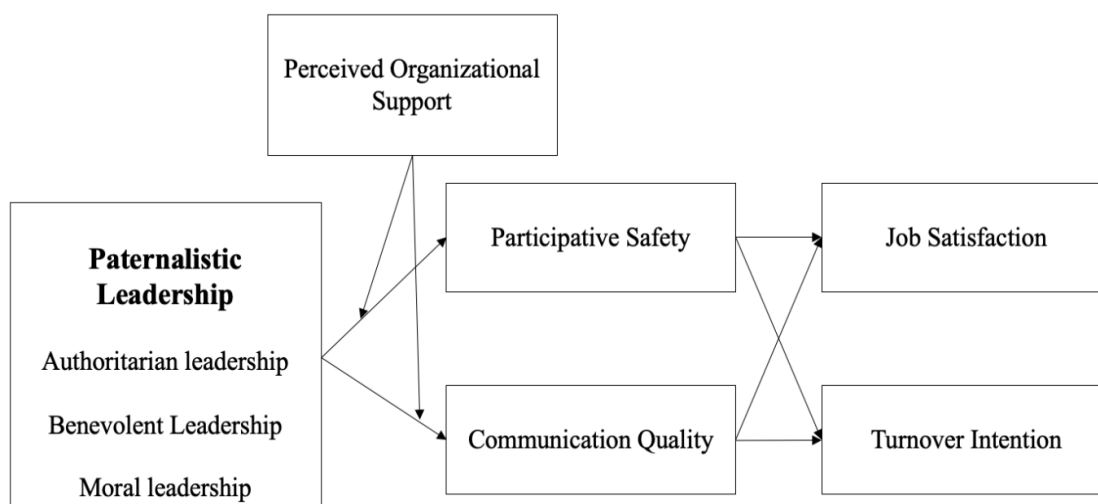


Figure 3.1 Theoretical model

3.3 Hypotheses of the mediation effects

Parental leadership includes three dimensions: authoritarian leadership, benevolent leadership and moral leadership (Cheng et al., 2000; Farh & Cheng, 2000). These three dimensions correspond to three characteristics of paternalistic leadership, which are strict discipline and authority, fatherly kindness and moral integrity (Cheng et al., 2002).

Authoritarianism in paternalistic leadership refers to the behavior that leaders try to declare their authority by controlling, demanding absolute obedience from their subordinates, and

displaying authority (Cheng et al., 2014; Erben & Gueneser, 2008; Oner, 2012). Benevolence in paternalistic leadership behaviors describes the leader's concern for employee well-being and interests in work and non-work areas (Cheng et al., 2014; Erben & Gueneser, 2008; Oner, 2012). The moral integrity in paternalistic leadership refers to that the leader has excellent integrity and moral character (Cheng et al., 2014; Erben & Gueneser, 2008; Oner, 2012). Moral integrity describes a leader's desire to give selflessly and fulfill obligations (L. Chen et al., 2015; Y. Zhang et al., 2015).

These three behavioral dimensions constitute the connotation of paternalistic leadership. Social exchange theory proposed (Y. Chen et al., 2015; Hinkin & Schriesheim, 2015), the quality of leader-employee social exchange depends on the support and care provided by leaders for employees. Therefore, this study believes that the exploitation of employees by authoritarian leaders will bring about low-quality social exchange results. On the contrary, benevolent and moral leaders care about and understand their employees, which leads to high-quality social exchange results. The specific inference is as follows.

3.3.1 Authoritarian leadership and job satisfaction and turnover intention

3.3.1.1 The mediating role of participative safety

Authoritarian leadership advocate authority and require employees to obey themselves unconditionally, so as to achieve absolute control over employees (Khorakian et al., 2021; Nazir et al., 2021). Specific behaviors of authoritarian leadership include control and dominance, underestimating the capabilities of employees, building a lofty image of the leader, and leading employees in a didactic manner (Wan et al., 2020; C. S. Wong et al., 2022). This series of control behaviors of authoritarian leadership means that the leader has a higher position of power over employees, which may increase employees' perception of psychological distance and reduce their willingness to reciprocate in social exchange relationships (J. C. Peng & Chen, 2022; Shen et al., 2020), manifested as low levels of participative safety and communication quality, which in turn reduces job satisfaction and increases employee turnover intention.

Specifically, participative safety emphasizes two key concepts, participation and safety (N. C. Jin et al., 2014). Participation is reflected in the process of social exchange between employees and leaders. Safety refers to the sense of security that employees feel when interacting with leaders (Peltokorpi & Hasu, 2014). Authoritarian leadership advocate controlling employees and asking them to obey their own decisions. Authoritarian leaders will punish employees who resist or make mistakes to consolidate their authority (J. C. Peng &

Chen, 2022; C. S. Wong et al., 2022). In the process of social exchange between authoritarian leaders and employees, leaders take the dominant position, and emphasize their own rights and status. They do not give employees authority, nor share information with employees, and tend to belittle employees' work ability and contribution (L. Chen & Appienti, 2020; Jia et al., 2020). Therefore, the oppression of authoritarian leaders reduces employees' willingness to participate in social exchange, and employees will feel more uneasy and nervous in the process of interaction with authoritarian leaders. Then, under the influence of authoritarian leadership, the employee's participative safety will be significantly reduced.

Furthermore, participative safety represents the sense of security that employees perceive in organizational activities, which is an important factor in determining whether employees dare to actively participate in decision-making and make suggestions (N. C. Jin et al., 2014; Peltokorpi & Hasu, 2014). Low levels of participative safety may have negative consequences, such as low levels of job satisfaction (Fairchild & Hunter, 2014). Job satisfaction refers to employees' positive or negative feelings about their jobs, and the more positive individuals are about their jobs, the higher their job satisfaction (Santis et al., 2021). When participative safety decreases, employees perceive the current environment as unfavorable to work and show less job satisfaction. For example, Li et al. (2021) found that when unsafe signals are released in the work environment, employees will experience negative experiences, reduce enthusiasm for work, and show lower job satisfaction.

In addition, due to the reduced sense of security of participating in decision-making in the organization, employees may regard this as a negative and insecure signal, thinking that their job status and job resources may be threatened, and thus show a tendency to leave (Majeed & Jamshed, 2021; Xiao et al., 2022). Turnover intention describes the psychological tendency of employees to leave the current organization. It is the sum of job dissatisfaction, thoughts of leaving, looking for other job opportunities and the possibility of finding other jobs (Greenham et al., 2019). As a result, employees may choose a more valuable and profitable job due to their inability to participate in work decisions safely (Talluri & Uppal, 2022). For example, Wen et al. (2020) found that for front-line hotel employees, the safety of the workplace determines their work attitude. If the working environment or leadership of the hotel brings them a bad work experience, they will think that work is meaningless, and then consider resigning.

To sum up, this study believes that authoritarian leadership reduces employees' participative security, which in turn leads to low levels of job satisfaction and higher turnover intentions. Therefore, this study proposes the following hypotheses:

H1a: Participative safety mediates the negative impact of authoritarian leadership on job

satisfaction.

H2a: Participative safety mediates the positive impact of authoritarian leadership on turnover intention

3.3.1.2 The mediating role of communication quality

Communication quality measures the quality of the communication process between leaders and employees, such as the degree of clear, effective, complete, smooth and timely communication (Frone & Major, 2009; Holzwarth et al., 2021). As shown above, the absolute control of authoritarian leaders over employees makes the social exchange process unequal, and employees cannot effectively reach an agreement with leaders, which reduces the communication effect between authoritarian leaders and employees. Specifically, authoritarian leadership tries to control employees absolutely and requires employees to obey and maintain their own rights (J. C. Peng & Chen, 2022; C. S. Wong et al., 2022). Under the condition of high authority, employees cannot independently choose their own working methods and behaviors. Therefore, when authoritarian leaders discuss and communicate with employees on work issues, they will ask employees to listen to their suggestions and follow their instructions (Sungur et al., 2019). Then, the communication between leaders and employees will become ineffective, and the quality of communication will be greatly reduced. Moreover, but authoritarian leaders punish employees if they do not comply (Luu & Djurkovic, 2019). When employees receive a series of negative signals such as punishment from the authoritarian leader, they will refuse to communicate with the authoritarian leader, which also has a great negative impact on the quality of communication.

Further, when the quality of communication is reduced, employees cannot be effectively satisfied at work, which reduces their job satisfaction. Specifically, job satisfaction measures an individual's emotional response, emotional experience, and attitude to their job (Santis et al., 2021). However, ineffective communication often amplifies the impact of negative events at work. When the communication quality between leaders and employees is at a low level, employees will treat their work more silently and increase more negative experiences, and their job satisfaction will also decrease accordingly. For example, Matijaš et al. (2018) found that if employees do not receive effective resources (such as effective feedback and communication) at work, their evaluation of work will be significantly reduced, thus showing a low level of job satisfaction.

In addition, chronic low-quality communication leads to employees showing less interest in their jobs, which increases employees' turnover intention. Specifically, if the quality of

communication between leaders and employees has been at a low level, it will be difficult for employees to obtain more work resources or feedback from leaders. Therefore, for employees with low communication quality, they may choose to leave the organization due to lack of support in their work (K. F. E. Wong & Cheng, 2020). For example, Sbstad et al. (2020) found that in the investigation of the antecedents of nurses' turnover intention, the inability to communicate effectively with superior leaders was one of the important reasons for nurses' turnover.

In summary, this study believes that authoritarian leadership reduces the quality of communication with employees, which in turn leads to low levels of job satisfaction and higher turnover intentions. Therefore, this study proposes the following hypotheses:

H3a: Communication quality mediates the negative impact of authoritarian leadership on job satisfaction

H4a: Communication quality mediates the positive impact of authoritarian leadership on turnover intention

3.3.2 Benevolent leadership and job satisfaction and turnover intention

3.3.2.1 The mediating role of participative safety

Different from authoritarian leadership, benevolent leadership emphasizes the leader's comprehensive support for employees' work and life, and pays attention to employees' happiness in work and non-work areas (Bedi, 2020). Confucianism advocates the reciprocal culture of "the kindness of a drop of water is reciprocated by a spring", that is, the relationship between people is mutually beneficial. Benevolent leadership illustrates well the characteristics of reciprocal culture (Zahide et al., 2019). Research on benevolent leadership shows that benevolent leaders will take the initiative to care about employees' problems at home and work, and understand employees' needs in a timely (Sungur et al., 2019). When employees perform poorly at work, they will take the initiative to understand the reasons for poor performance and help employees overcome difficulties (Oge et al., 2018). According to the principle of social exchange, employees will express a strong appreciation for benevolent leadership and hope to return leaders through a high-quality exchange process, which is manifested in a high level of participatory safety. As mentioned earlier, participative safety measures how safe employees feel when they interact with leaders (N. C. Jin et al., 2014; Peltokorpi & Hasu, 2014). Studies have shown that employees with high participative safety can express their opinions comfortably, receiving feedback from leaders (N. C. Jin et al., 2014; Peltokorpi & Hasu, 2014).

When benevolent leaders show concern for employees, employees will be more willing to express their views to benevolent leaders, such as views on work, and are willing to accept the benevolent leader's guidance and suggestions (L. Chen et al., 2015; Y. Zhang et al., 2015), and finally reached a high-quality social exchange with the leader. Thus, benevolent leadership can significantly increase employee participative safety.

Furthermore, high level of participative safety may have more positive consequences. Specifically, employees with high participative safety show higher enthusiasm for work, they dare to actively participate in decision-making, and devote themselves to work (N. C. Jin et al., 2014; Peltokorpi & Hasu, 2014). Therefore, when participative safety is improved, employees will attach importance to the quality of social exchange with benevolent leaders, then work hard to repay the care that leaders bring to them, and show higher job satisfaction. For example, Judge et al. (2000) found that some job characteristics can significantly affect employees' job satisfaction. Specifically, positive, safe work experiences significantly increase job satisfaction.

In addition, Because the increased sense of security of participating in decision-making in the organization, employees may take this as a positive signal that they can express own views and suggestions for work in the organization and receive more positive feedback, which in turn reduces their desire to leave the organization. For example, Wen et al. (2020) found that for front-line hotel employees, if the work environment brings them a good work experience, they will choose to stay in the organization, so a safe work experience will significantly reduce employees' turnover intention.

To sum up, this study believes that benevolent leadership improves employees' participatory security, which leads to a high level of job satisfaction and lower turnover intention. Therefore, this study proposes the following hypotheses:

H1b: Participative safety mediates the positive impact of benevolent leadership on job satisfaction

H2b: Participative safety mediates the negative impact of benevolent leadership on turnover intention

3.3.2.2 The mediating role of communication quality

This study argues that benevolent leadership can also help improve communication quality. First of all, benevolent leaders care about and take care of employees, which helps employees generate positive emotional responses, stimulates employees to develop emotional dependence on leaders, and provides an emotional foundation for the development of good communication quality (J. C. Peng & Chen, 2022; C. S. Wong et al., 2022). Secondly, benevolent leaders

provide subordinates with training and work guidance, give career development suggestions, and help tide over difficulties, so that subordinates feel grateful to the leader and give back to the leader at work (C. Song, 2016). This kind of work reciprocity helps to shorten the psychological distance between each other and form high-quality communication, which will be continuously strengthened and consolidated with the development of "benevolence-return" (Nazir et al., 2021). In addition, benevolent leadership supports employees in both work and non-work fields. Based on the rational principle of social exchange (Homans, 1958), employees will take the initiative to establish effective communication channels with leaders in order to continue to get the care of leaders and get more resources and opportunities.

Further, effective communication can convey positive signals to employees, then reduce uncertainty and perceived threat, which in turn make employees' work valued and increase their positive experience. In other words, when communication quality is high, employees can get more work resources. The increase of work resources may trigger a positive motivation process, which in turn promotes individuals' self-perception of job satisfaction (Zhu et al., 2015). More work resources provide support for individual growth, learning and development, help individuals meet their needs for capacity development, autonomy, and belonging, and naturally promote individuals' perception of positive emotions (A. Lu & D., 2013). Ultimately, employees show more commitment to their work, leading to increased job satisfaction. For example, H. Chen et al. (2021) also showed through an empirical study of 360 female kindergarten teachers in China that positive emotional experience at work can significantly improve teachers' job satisfaction.

Moreover, in the process of high-quality communication, employees can obtain more positive work resources from benevolent leaders. Employees who receive job resources feel more belonging to the organization, prompting them to show higher loyalty and reduce their desire to leave the organization (Nazir et al., 2021). In addition, high-quality communication can meet the needs of employees' career development. Employees will constantly enrich and improve their work content, show high enthusiasm and high investment in work, and greatly reduce their turnover intention. For example, Holzwarth et al. (2021) shows that effective communication will make the relationship between the organization and employees closer, improve the cohesion between the organization and employees, and reduce employees' turnover intention.

To sum up, this study believes that benevolent leadership improves the communication quality with employees, which leads to a high level of job satisfaction and lower turnover intention. Therefore, this study proposes the following hypotheses:

H3b: Communication quality mediates the positive impact of benevolent leadership on job satisfaction.

H4b: Communication quality mediates the negative impact of benevolent leadership on turnover intention.

3.3.3 Moral leadership and job satisfaction and turnover intention

3.3.3.1 The mediating role of participative safety

Similar to benevolent leadership, moral leadership often plays a positive role. Moral leadership refers to leaders who show high personal integrity and moral cultivation, especially benevolent and sincere behavior, treat subordinates equally and care about their growth, so as to win the respect, recognition and imitation of employees (Takeuchi et al., 2020). Research shows that in the social exchange relationship between leaders and employees, leaders with honesty, integrity, and high-level moral standards can build trust and healthy work environment, and promote employees to actively participate in decision-making (Shen et al., 2020). The research on paternalistic leadership emphasizes the positive relationship between moral leadership and positive employees' attitudes and behaviors. (Jia et al., 2020). Therefore, this study believes that moral leadership will improve employees' participative safety. The specific deduction is as follows.

Moral leaders establish a personal image of being upright, responsible, selfless and not greedy for petty gains in their work. In this leadership style, the leader does not abuse his or her leadership position and treats employees with fairness, respect and kindness (Bedi, 2020; Sungur et al., 2019). When moral leaders show great selflessness and integrity, employees will actively participate in the process of social exchange with moral leaders, and improve the quality of social exchange by boldly expressing their ideas and participating in work decisions. Therefore, moral leadership will significantly improve the employee's participative safety. Previous studies have also confirmed this viewpoint. For example, Tian and Sanchez (2017) found that when an employee shows goodwill to a moral leader, his approachable, unassuming leadership, and kind way of doing things will not only generate more interaction with the employee, but also win the trust and respect of the employee, so as to improve the sense of security of employees and motivate employees to devote themselves to work.

Furthermore, a high level of participatory safety can lead to positive outcomes. Participatory safety can be seen as a high-quality psychological perception and work participation experience (Peltokorpi & Hasu, 2014; Shin & Jeong, 2022), which can not only

effectively avoid criticism, punishment, complaints or condemnation or even attacks from leaders and colleagues, but also reduce the time and energy investment in self-protection and encourage employees to devote themselves to their work. Therefore, the higher the participative safety of employees, the more likely they are to perceive a positive work experience and show higher job satisfaction. For example, Shin and Jeong (2022) took truck drivers as a sample and found that drivers' perception of work environment risks was closely related to job satisfaction. The fewer unsafe factors in the environment, the higher the driver's sense of security, and correspondingly, the higher the job satisfaction.

Moreover, employees with high participative safety will show strong confidence when facing work. They dare to speak freely in the organization, take the initiative to find and solve problems, so as to prove their position and role in the organization (N. C. Jin et al., 2014). In the long run, employees will gradually accept the organization's culture and policies, so as to better integrate into the organization group, recognize the organization's behavior and activities, and strengthen the relationship with the organization. Then, high participative safety will eventually reduce their turnover intention.

In summary, this study believes that moral leadership improves employees' participative safety, which in turn leads to high levels of job satisfaction and lower turnover intention. Therefore, this study proposes the following hypotheses:

H1c: Participative safety mediates the positive impact of moral leadership on job satisfaction.

H2c: Participative safety mediates the negative impact of moral leadership on turnover intention.

3.3.3.2 The mediating role of communication quality

This study suggests that moral leadership also helps improve the communication quality. In dealing with subordinates, moral leaders show concern, respect and trust for them. These behaviors help moral leaders establish a higher level of connection with their subordinates (Bedi, 2020; Sungur et al., 2019).

Specifically, the integrity, selflessness, work dedication, role models and responsible attitude towards subordinates and others that the moral leaders values, create a credible and supportive work environment, in which employees perceive trust, information sharing and open communication (Khorakian et al., 2021). Moreover, the full trust, authorization and guidance shown by moral leaders can stimulate employees' self-confidence, sense of responsibility, gratitude and trust, and help employees concentrate on breaking into the process of social

exchange with leaders (Nazir et al., 2021). Therefore, this study proposes that under the influence of moral leadership, employees can gain more feedback in the process of social exchange with leaders, and constantly improve the quality of communication with leaders.

Furthermore, good communication quality will bring positive results. A high level of communication quality can enable employees to obtain work resources, opportunities and success more efficiently (S. Lu et al., 2020; Yan & Dooley, 2013). Based on the principle of social exchange (Homans, 1958), under the influence of high-level communication quality, employees will show higher satisfaction at work, have higher emotional commitment to the organization, and promote the improvement of employees' job satisfaction. For example, the research of Volmer et al. (2011) also confirmed that when the social exchange process between employees and leaders is at a high level, the communication between the two parties will become more efficient, and the job satisfaction of employees will also continue to increase.

Effective communication sends a positive signal to employees that the organization values their work. In other words, when employees and leaders communicate at a high level, employees can get feedback from leaders on their work in a timely manner, get more suggestions for improving their work, and continuously invest in the process of improving their work. (S. Lu et al., 2020; Yan & Dooley, 2013). In this process, employees are more closely connected with the organization, and the degree of fit is constantly improved, thus reducing the idea of employees leaving the organization. Research by S. Lee and Ha-Brookshire (2017) also found that the key factor to determining employees' turnover intention is employees' attitudes towards work, and this attitude is determined by the quality of social exchange between employees and leaders.

In summary, this study believes that moral leadership improves the communication quality with employees, which in turn leads to high levels of job satisfaction and lower turnover intentions. Therefore, this study proposes the following hypotheses:

H3c: Communication quality mediates the positive impact of moral leadership on job satisfaction.

H4c: Communication quality mediates the negative impact of moral leadership on turnover intention

3.4 Hypotheses of the moderation effects

As mentioned above, based on the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), this study discusses in detail how paternalistic leadership influences job satisfaction and turnover intention through

the mediation of participative safety and communication quality. Furthermore, social exchange theory (Homans, 1958) believes that the quality of social exchange between leaders and employees depends on the evaluation of exchange results by both parties. From the perspective of social exchange, some organizational situational factors may affect the whole social exchange process and the evaluation results (Xu et al., 2020).

Therefore, this study introduces the situational factor of perceived organizational support, focusing on exploring the moderating role of perceived organizational support in the relationship between paternalistic leadership and participative safety, and between paternalistic leadership and communication quality.

3.4.1 The moderating role of perceived organizational support between authoritarian leadership and participative safety

Perceived organizational support measures the state of an employee's relationship with their organization (Siddiqi & Ahmed, 2016). Specifically, perceived organizational support can be seen as a resource from the organization, which refers to employees' comprehensive views on whether the organization attaches importance to their contributions and cares about their well-being, conveying the organization's expectations and recognition of their members' values (Marchand & Vandenberghe, 2016). Employees with a high perceived organizational support are more willing to devote themselves to work, and interact with their leaders more frequently and closely (Talluri & Uppal, 2022). Based on social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), when employees have a high perceived organizational support, they will actively participate in the social exchange process with leaders and provide positive feedback.

Therefore, in the face of authoritarian leadership, employees with high perceived organizational support will feel less nervous, assume more responsibilities and obligations, and actively participate in actions to achieve organizational goals (Tremblay et al., 2019), which weakens the negative impact of authoritarian leadership on employees' participative safety. Conversely, when perceived organizational support is low, employees perceive their value and ability recognition is low, and they are less willing to participate in the work (Babic et al., 2015). Therefore, in the face of authoritarian leadership, employees with low perceived organizational support will feel less participative safety.

To sum up, this study proposes the following hypothesis:

H5a: Perceived organizational support moderates the negative impact of authoritarian leadership on participative safety. At the high level of perceived organizational support, the negative impact of authoritarian leadership on participative safety is weaker; conversely, at the

low level of perceived organizational support, the negative impact of authoritarian leadership on participative safety is stronger.

Furthermore, as discussed above, authoritarian leadership has an impact on job satisfaction and turnover intention through the mediation effect of participative safety (Hypothesis 1a and Hypothesis 2a). Meanwhile, perceived organizational support moderates the negative impact of authoritarian leadership on participative safety (Hypothesis 5a). Based on these hypotheses, this study further concluded that perceived organizational support moderated the mediating role of participative safety in the relationship between authoritarian leadership and job satisfaction, and the relationship between authoritarian leadership and turnover intention.

Specifically, the stronger the perceived organizational support, the weaker the negative impact of authoritarian leadership on employee participative safety, thus weakening the negative impact on job satisfaction and the positive impact on turnover intention. Conversely, the weaker the perceived organizational support, the stronger the negative impact of authoritarian leadership on employee participative safety, which further strengthens the negative impact on job satisfaction and the positive impact on turnover intention. Based on the above analysis, this study proposes the following hypotheses:

H6a: Perceived organizational support moderates the mediating effect of participative safety in the relationship between authoritarian leadership and job satisfaction. At the high level of perceived organizational support, the negative impact of authoritarian leadership on job satisfaction through participative safety is weaker; at the low level of perceived organizational support, the negative impact of authoritarian leadership on job satisfaction through participative safety is stronger.

H6b: Perceived organizational support moderates the mediating effect of participative safety in the relationship between authoritarian leadership and turnover intention. At the high level of perceived organizational support, the positive impact of authoritarian leadership on turnover intention through participative safety is weaker; at the low level of perceived organizational support, the positive impact of authoritarian leadership on turnover intention through participative safety is stronger.

3.4.2 The moderating role of perceived organizational support between authoritarian leadership and communication quality

Employees with high perceived organizational support will feel that they have received enough attention in the organization, will be more proactive in taking responsibility, and will have a stronger sense of responsibility and obligation (Zhao et al., 2020). Then, even if the

authoritarian leader will have strict requirements on them, employees with high perceived organizational support will try to communicate with the leader continuously, and actively put forward constructive views and opinions on existing problems or risks of failure. This attenuates the negative impact of authoritarian leadership on communication quality. Conversely, when the perceived organizational support is low, employees feel that they are not valued in the organization and are unwilling to take more social responsibilities (Hameed et al., 2019). Then, in the face of authoritarian leadership, employees with low perceived organizational support are more inclined to avoid and escape the oppression and sanctions of the leader, and are unwilling to communicate with the leader, which intensifies the negative impact of authoritarian leadership on communication quality.

In summary, this study proposes the following hypothesis:

H5b: Perceived organizational support moderates the negative impact of authoritarian leadership on communication quality. At the high level of perceived organizational support, the negative impact of authoritarian leadership on communication quality is weaker; conversely, at the low level of perceived organizational support, the negative impact of authoritarian leadership on communication quality is stronger.

Furthermore, as discussed above, authoritarian leadership has an impact on job satisfaction and turnover intention through the mediation effect of communication quality (Hypothesis 3a and Hypothesis 4a). Meanwhile, perceived organizational support moderates the negative impact of authoritarian leadership on communication quality (Hypothesis 5b). On the basis of these hypotheses, this study further deduces that perceived organizational support moderates the mediating role of communication quality in the relationship between authoritarian leadership and job satisfaction, and the relationship between authoritarian leadership and turnover intention.

Specifically, the stronger the perceived organizational support, the weaker the negative impact of authoritarian leadership on employee communication quality, thus weakening the negative impact on job satisfaction and the positive impact on turnover intention. Conversely, the weaker the perceived organizational support, the stronger the negative impact of authoritarian leadership on employee communication quality, thus strengthening the negative impact on job satisfaction and the positive impact on turnover intention. Based on the above analysis, this study proposes the following hypotheses:

H7a: Perceived organizational support moderates the mediating effect of communication quality in the relationship between authoritarian leadership and job satisfaction. At the high level of perceived organizational support, the negative impact of authoritarian leadership on job

satisfaction through communication quality is weaker; at the low level of perceived organizational support, the negative impact of authoritarian leadership on job satisfaction through communication quality is stronger.

H7b: Perceived organizational support moderates the mediating effect of communication quality in the relationship between authoritarian leadership and turnover intention. At the high level of perceived organizational support, the positive impact of authoritarian leadership on turnover intention through communication quality is weaker; at the low level of perceived organizational support, the positive impact of authoritarian leadership on turnover intention through communication quality is stronger.

3.4.3 The moderating role of perceived organizational support between benevolent leadership and participative safety

Existing studies have shown that the perceived organizational support will stimulate employees' willingness to repay the organization (Marchand & Vandenberghe, 2016). Employees with a higher perceived organizational support will show more organizational citizenship behavior, higher organizational commitment, more voice behavior, higher job performance, higher job satisfaction, and a more harmonious organizational atmosphere (Marchand & Vandenberghe, 2016; Talluri & Uppal, 2022; L. Zhang et al., 2016).

Among employees with high perceived organizational support, employees take the organization's affairs as their own responsibility, care about organizational development, and contribute their own strength, because they firmly believe that organizational resources can help employees actively cope with challenges at work (Talluri & Uppal, 2022). Therefore, they were more likely to show a high degree of participative safety when faced with benevolent leaders. On the contrary, for employees with low perceived organizational support, although benevolent leaders show care and guidance to employees, employees are reluctant to offer suggestions and express their views for the development of the organization, because they believe that the support from the organization is not enough to meet their work requirements (K. Y. Kim et al., 2016). Therefore, employees with low perceived organizational support may show lower levels of participative safety when faced with benevolent leadership.

In summary, this study proposes the following hypothesis:

H8a: Perceived organizational support moderates the positive impact of benevolent leadership on participative safety. At the high level of perceived organizational support, the positive impact of benevolent leadership on participative safety is stronger; conversely, at the low level of perceived organizational support, the positive impact of benevolent leadership on

participative safety is weaker.

Furthermore, as discussed above, benevolent leadership has an impact on job satisfaction and turnover intention through the mediation effect of participative safety (Hypothesis 1b and Hypothesis 2b). At the same time, perceived organizational support moderates the positive impact of benevolent leadership on participative safety (Hypothesis 8a). On the basis of these hypotheses, this study further infers that perceived organizational support moderates the mediating role of participative safety in the relationship between benevolent leadership and job satisfaction, and the relationship between benevolent leadership and turnover intention.

Specifically, the stronger the perceived organizational support, the stronger the positive impact of benevolent leadership on employee participative safety, thus strengthening the positive impact on job satisfaction and the negative impact on turnover intention. On the contrary, the weaker the perceived organizational support, the weaker the positive impact of benevolent leadership on employee participative safety, thus weakening the positive impact on job satisfaction and the negative impact on turnover intention. Based on the above analysis, this study proposes the following hypotheses:

H9a: Perceived organizational support moderates the mediating effect of participative safety in the relationship between benevolent leadership and job satisfaction. At the high level of perceived organizational support, the positive impact of benevolent leadership on job satisfaction through participative safety is stronger; at the low level of perceived organizational support, the positive impact of benevolent leadership on job satisfaction through participative safety is weaker.

H9b: Perceived organizational support moderates the mediating effect of participative safety in the relationship between benevolent leadership and turnover intention. At the high level of perceived organizational support, the negative impact of benevolent leadership on turnover intention through participative safety is stronger; at the low level of perceived organizational support, the negative impact of benevolent leadership on turnover intention through participative safety is weaker.

3.4.4 The moderating role of perceived organizational support between benevolent leadership and communication quality

The perceived organizational support is an important work resource of employees, and it is the degree to which the organization pays attention to the interests of its employees. (Talluri & Uppal, 2022). In the context of high perceived organizational support, employees will think that the organization values their interests and aspirations (Hameed et al., 2019). For benevolent

leaders, employees with a high perceived organizational support will communicate with them more actively, because employees can receive positive emotional support from the organization and benevolent leaders. Thus, perceived organizational support reinforces the positive impact of benevolent leadership on employee communication quality. Conversely, in situations of low perceived organizational support, employees may be more isolated (Zumrah & Boyle, 2015). In this state, employees may be afraid of difficulties and unwilling to communicate with leaders, which reduces the communication quality.

In summary, this study proposes the following hypothesis:

H8b: Perceived organizational support moderates the positive impact of benevolent leadership on communication quality. At the high level of perceived organizational support, the positive impact of benevolent leadership on communication quality is stronger; conversely, at the low level of perceived organizational support, the positive impact of benevolent leadership on communication quality is weaker.

Furthermore, as discussed above, benevolent leadership has an impact on job satisfaction and turnover intention through the mediation effect of communication quality (Hypothesis 3b and Hypothesis 4b). Meanwhile, perceived organizational support moderates the positive impact of benevolent leadership on communication quality (Hypothesis 8b). On the basis of these hypotheses, this study further deduces that perceived organizational support moderates the mediating role of communication quality in the relationship between benevolent leadership and job satisfaction, and the relationship between benevolent leadership and turnover intention. Specifically, the stronger the perceived organizational support, the stronger the positive impact of benevolent leadership on employee communication quality, thus strengthening the positive impact on job satisfaction and the negative impact on turnover intention. Conversely, the weaker the perceived organizational support, the weaker the positive impact of benevolent leadership on employee communication quality, thus weakening the positive impact on job satisfaction and the negative impact on turnover intention. Based on the above analysis, this study proposes the following hypotheses:

H10a: Perceived organizational support moderates the mediating effect of communication quality in the relationship between benevolent leadership and job satisfaction. At the high level of perceived organizational support, the positive impact of benevolent leadership on job satisfaction through communication quality is stronger; at the low level of perceived organizational support, the positive impact of benevolent leadership on job satisfaction through communication quality is weaker.

H10b: Perceived organizational support moderates the mediating effect of communication

quality in the relationship between benevolent leadership and turnover intention. At the high level of perceived organizational support, the negative impact of benevolent leadership on turnover intention through communication quality is stronger; at the low level of perceived organizational support, the negative impact of benevolent leadership on turnover intention through communication quality is weaker.

3.4.5 The moderating role of perceived organizational support between moral leadership and participative safety

Similar to benevolent leadership, this study argues that perceived organizational support will also amplify the positive effects of moral leadership. Specifically, the perceived organizational support is the commitment and care that employees feel from the organization, as well as individual's cognition of the way the organization presents rules. (Talluri & Uppal, 2022). As mentioned above, moral leaders care about, respect and trust employees, and employees can feel security and participation in the social exchange with leaders (C. S. Wong et al., 2022). For employees with high perceived organizational support, they form a positive perception of things in the organization (L. Zhang et al., 2016), and when facing moral leaders, employees' participative safety will also be magnified. On the contrary, employees with low perceived organizational support have a negative perception of things in the organization (Min et al., 2012). Even if moral leaders are kind and sincere, treat subordinates equally, and strive to create an environment for employees to participate in work safely, this security and participation will be weakened due to low perceived organizational support.

In summary, this study proposes the following hypothesis:

H11a: Perceived organizational support moderates the positive impact of moral leadership on participative safety. At the high level of perceived organizational support, the positive impact of moral leadership on participative safety is stronger; conversely, at the low level of perceived organizational support, the positive impact of moral leadership on participative safety is weaker.

Furthermore, as discussed above, moral leadership has an impact on job satisfaction and turnover intention through the mediation effect of participatory security (Hypothesis 1c and Hypothesis 2c). Meanwhile, perceived organizational support moderates the positive impact of moral leadership on participative safety (Hypothesis 11a). On the basis of these hypotheses, this study further deduces that perceived organizational support moderates the mediating role of participative safety in the relationship between moral leadership and job satisfaction, and the relationship between moral leadership and turnover intention.

Specifically, the stronger the perceived organizational support, the stronger the positive

impact of moral leadership on employee participative safety, thus strengthening the positive impact on job satisfaction and the negative impact on turnover intention. Conversely, the weaker the perceived organizational support, the weaker the positive impact of moral leadership on employee participative safety, thus weakening the positive impact on job satisfaction and the negative impact on turnover intention. Based on the above analysis, this study proposes the following hypotheses:

H12a: Perceived organizational support moderates the mediating effect of participative safety in the relationship between moral leadership and job satisfaction. At the high level of perceived organizational support, the positive impact of moral leadership on job satisfaction through participative safety is stronger; at the low level of perceived organizational support, the positive impact of moral leadership on job satisfaction through participative safety is weaker.

H12b: Perceived organizational support moderates the mediating effect of participative safety in the relationship between moral leadership and turnover intention. At the high level of perceived organizational support, the negative impact of moral leadership on turnover intention through participative safety is stronger; at the low level of perceived organizational support, the negative impact of moral leadership on turnover intention through participative safety is weaker.

3.4.6 The moderating role of perceived organizational support between moral leadership and communication quality

As mentioned earlier, perceived organizational support is an important resource that enables employees to have confidence in their ability (Talluri & Uppal, 2022). For employees with high perceived organizational support, in the process of communicating with the moral leaders, employees will continue to rely on the support of the organization, challenge more work tasks, and actively propose innovative ideas and solutions (X. Wang et al., 2021). In this process, the communication between employees and moral leaders will become more efficient. Conversely, employees with low perceived organizational support are reluctant to handle more work (Zhao et al., 2020), even if moral leaders use incentives such as guidance and authorization to stimulate their work enthusiasm, they may avoid communicating with leaders, reducing the effectiveness and communication quality.

In summary, this study proposes the following hypothesis:

H11b: Perceived organizational support moderates the positive impact of moral leadership on communication quality. At the high level of perceived organizational support, the positive impact of moral leadership on communication quality is stronger; conversely, at the low level

of perceived organizational support, the positive impact of moral leadership on communication quality is weaker.

Furthermore, as discussed above, moral leadership has an impact on job satisfaction and turnover intention through the mediation effect of communication quality (Hypothesis 3c and Hypothesis 4c). Meanwhile, perceived organizational support moderates the positive impact of moral leadership on communication quality (Hypothesis 10b). On the basis of these hypotheses, this study further deduces that perceived organizational support moderates the mediating role of communication quality in the relationship between moral leadership and job satisfaction, and the relationship between moral leadership and turnover intention. Specifically, the stronger the perceived organizational support, the stronger the positive impact of moral leadership on employee communication quality, thus strengthening the positive impact on job satisfaction and the negative impact on turnover intention. Conversely, the weaker the perceived organizational support, the weaker the positive impact of moral leadership on employee communication quality, thus weakening the positive impact on job satisfaction and the negative impact on turnover intention. Based on the above analysis, this study proposes the following hypotheses:

H13a: Perceived organizational support moderates the mediating effect of communication quality in the relationship between moral leadership and job satisfaction. At the high level of perceived organizational support, the positive impact of moral leadership on job satisfaction through communication quality is stronger; at the low level of perceived organizational support, the positive impact of moral leadership on job satisfaction through communication quality is weaker.

H13b: Perceived organizational support moderates the mediating effect of communication quality in the relationship between moral leadership and turnover intention. At the high level of perceived organizational support, the negative impact of moral leadership on turnover intention through communication quality is stronger; at the low level of perceived organizational support, the negative impact of moral leadership on turnover intention through communication quality is weaker.

3.5 Summary

Based on social exchange theory (Homans, 1958), this chapter focuses on how paternalistic leadership (authoritarian leadership, benevolent leadership and moral leadership) affects employee job satisfaction and turnover intention through participative safety and communication quality. Next, this chapter also expounds the moderating role of organizational

support as a boundary condition between paternalistic leadership and participative safety, and between paternalistic leadership and communication quality. Finally, this chapter posited the hypotheses that the indirect effect of participative safety and communication quality in the relationship between paternalistic leadership and job satisfaction, and between paternalistic leadership and turnover intention.

Chapter 4: Research Design

This chapter introduces the overall research design, including the section of sample and procedures, and the section of measures.

4.1 Sample and procedures

4.1.1 Data collection

Data were collected from 345 new generation of employees in 8 firms located in China. As shown in Table 4.1, the industries of these 8 firms mainly include Finance, manufacturing, real estate, and Education. To reduce the common method bias, this study conducted a multi-wave survey with an interval of one month. At Time point 1, employees provided demographic information and rated perceived organizational support and their leaders' paternalistic leadership style. At Time point 2, employees rated participative safety and communication quality. At Time point 3, employees provided evaluations on job satisfaction and turnover intention.

Table 4.1 List of firms

ID	Firms	Industry
1	JD Group	Finance
2	XJ Liquor Company	Wine Industry
3	ZR Educational Company	Education
4	ZR Real Estate Company	Real Estate
5	LP Company	Manufacturing
6	HY Company	Environmental Protection Industry
7	HZ Liquor Company	Circulation Industry
8	ZL Group	Food Industry

With the assistance of HR managers, we obtained the roster and email address of employees. We assigned a unique code to each employee for data matching purposes. Next, we generated a separate link address for each employee through the “questionnaire star website”, and sent the questionnaire to each specific employee through e-mail and limit the number of responses to avoid repeated filling. Employees entered the questionnaire filling page by clicking the questionnaire link address in the email, and then can submit it directly after completing the questionnaire. We informed individuals that their participation in this study was voluntary and promised that their responses would be kept confidential and only the research team could

access the datasets.

At Time point 1, we distributed the online survey web link to 860 employees, and 798 responded (a response rate of 92.79%). At Time point 2 (one month later), we distributed the online survey web link to the 798 employees who completed the time 1 survey and 557 responded (a response rate of 69.80%). At Time point 3 (another one month later), we distributed the online survey web link to the 557 employees who completed the time 2 survey and 345 responded (a response rate of 61.94%).

Overall, we obtained 345 valid data of employees from the eight firms. The overall response rate was 40.12%. In the final sample, 45.20% of employees were women; averaging 29.52 years-old ($SD = 5.07$); 60.87% had bachelor's degrees or above. They had average organizational tenures of 3.77 years ($SD = 2.76$).

4.1.2 Measures

As shown in Table 4.2, the main variables involved in this study include: paternalistic leadership (authoritarian leadership, benevolent leadership and moral leadership), perceived organizational support, participative safety, communication quality, job satisfaction and turnover intention. All the measures are mature scales published in mainstream journals. In order to ensure the accuracy of the scales, all scales were translated and back-translated using the technique suggested by Brislin (1980). We encompass a six-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree).

Table 4.2 Measurements

Measures	Items	Assessments	Time Point	Reference
Paternalistic Leadership	15	Self-reported	Time 1	Cheng et al. (2014)
Perceived Organizational support	8	Self-reported	Time 1	Eisenberger et al. (2002)
Participative Safety	4	Self-reported	Time 2	Kivimäki and Elovainio (1999)
Communication Quality	5	Self-reported	Time 2	González-Romá and Hernández (2014)
Job Satisfaction	5	Self-reported	Time 3	Janssen and Yperen (2004)
Turnover Intention	4	Self-reported	Time 3	Kelloway et al. (1999)

4.1.2.1 Paternalistic leadership

Paternalistic leadership was measured with a 15-item scale developed by Cheng et al. (2014). It comprises three dimensions (i.e., authoritarian leadership, benevolent leadership and moral leadership). The sample items of authoritarian leadership include: “My supervisor brings me a lot of pressure when we work together” and “My supervisor scolds me when I fail expected target”. The sample items of benevolent leadership include: “My supervisor understands my

preference enough to accommodate my personal requests” and “My supervisor would try to understand the real cause of my unsatisfied performance”. The sample items of moral leadership include: “My supervisor takes responsibility on job and never shirks his/her duty” and “My supervisor is well self-disciplined before demanding upon others”. The scale questionnaire items ranged from 1 Strongly Disagree to 6 Strongly Agree. The full-scale anchors were: 1. Strongly Disagree 2. Disagree 3. Somewhat Disagree 4. Somewhat Agree 5. Agree 6. Strongly Agree.

We first conducted a confirmatory factor analysis to test the dimensionality of our paternalistic leadership measure. The CFAs results were shown in Table 4.3. the results showed that the three-factor model fits the data well ($M_1, \chi^2_{(87)} = 169.32, CFI = 0.98, TLI = 0.98, RMSEA = 0.05, SRMR = 0.03$), better than a two-factor model, in which authoritarian leadership and benevolent leadership were loaded on one factor ($M_2, \chi^2_{(89)} = 1702.70, CFI = 0.64, TLI = 0.57, RMSEA = 0.23, SRMR = 0.20; \Delta\chi^2_{(2)} = 1533.38, p < 0.05$); and the other two-factor model, in which authoritarian leadership and moral leadership were loaded on one factor ($M_3, \chi^2_{(89)} = 1882.67, CFI = 0.60, TLI = 0.53, RMSEA = 0.24, SRMR = 0.22; \Delta\chi^2_{(2)} = 1713.35, p < 0.05$); and another two-factor model, in which benevolent leadership and moral leadership were loaded on one factor ($M_4, \chi^2_{(89)} = 1898.12, CFI = 0.60, TLI = 0.52, RMSEA = 0.24, SRMR = 0.22; \Delta\chi^2_{(2)} = 1728.80, p < 0.05$); and a single-factor model, in which all the items were loaded on one factor ($M_5, \chi^2_{(90)} = 3415.44, CFI = 0.26, TLI = 0.13, RMSEA = 0.33, SRMR = 0.29; \Delta\chi^2_{(3)} = 3246.12, p < 0.05$).

Therefore, these results confirmed our conceptualization of paternalistic leadership as a three-dimensional measure in this study.

Table 4.3 Construct validity of paternalistic leadership

Models	χ^2	<i>d.f.</i>	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	SRMR
M ₁ : Three-factor model (AL, BL, ML)	169.32	87	0.98	0.98	0.05	0.03
M ₂ : Two-factor model (AL+BL, ML)	1702.70	89	0.64	0.57	0.23	0.20
M ₃ : Two-factor model (AL+ML, BL)	1882.67	89	0.60	0.53	0.24	0.22
M ₄ : Two-factor model (AL, BL+ML)	1898.12	89	0.60	0.52	0.24	0.22
M ₅ : One-factor model (AL+BL+ML)	3415.44	90	0.26	0.13	0.33	0.29

4.1.2.2 Perceived organizational support

We measured perceived organizational support with an 8-item scale developed by Eisenberger et al. (2002). The sample items include: “The organization would forgive an honest mistake on

my part” and “The organization is willing to help me when I need a special favor”. The scale questionnaire items ranged from 1 Strongly Disagree to 6 Strongly Agree. The full-scale anchors were: 1. Strongly Disagree 2. Disagree 3. Somewhat Disagree 4. Somewhat Agree 5. Agree 6. Strongly Agree.

4.1.2.3 Participative safety

We adopted a 4-item scale developed by Kivimäki and Elovainio (1999) to measure participative safety. The sample items include: “I will show real attempts to share information throughout the team” and “I feel understood and accepted by each other”. The scale questionnaire items ranged from 1 Strongly Disagree to 6 Strongly Agree. The full-scale anchors were: 1. Strongly Disagree 2. Disagree 3. Somewhat Disagree 4. Somewhat Agree 5. Agree 6. Strongly Agree.

4.1.2.4 Communication quality

We adopted the communication quality scale developed by González-Romá and Hernández (2014) to measure communication quality. The sample items include: “The communication between supervisor and me is very fluid” and “The communication among members of our team is very effective”. The scale questionnaire items ranged from 1 Strongly Disagree to 6 Strongly Agree. The full-scale anchors were: 1. Strongly Disagree 2. Disagree 3. Somewhat Disagree 4. Somewhat Agree 5. Agree 6. Strongly Agree.

4.1.2.5 Job satisfaction

We adopted a 5-item scale developed by Janssen and Yperen (2004) to measure job satisfaction. The sample items include: “I am strongly satisfied with the progress I am making toward the goals I set for myself in my present position” and “I am strongly satisfied with my present job when I consider the expectations I had when I took the job”. The scale questionnaire items ranged from 1 Strongly Disagree to 6 Strongly Agree. The full-scale anchors were: 1. Strongly Disagree 2. Disagree 3. Somewhat Disagree 4. Somewhat Agree 5. Agree 6. Strongly Agree.

4.1.2.6 Turnover intention

Turnover intention was measured with a 4-item scale developed by Kelloway et al. (1999). The sample items include: “I intend to ask people about new job opportunities” and “I do not plan to be in this organization much longer”. The scale questionnaire items ranged from 1 Strongly Disagree to 6 Strongly Agree. The full-scale anchors were: 1. Strongly Disagree 2. Disagree 3. Somewhat Disagree 4. Somewhat Agree 5. Agree 6. Strongly Agree.

4.1.2.7 Controls

Following previous studies, we controlled for subordinate's age, gender, education level and organizational tenure (Wei et al., 2015). Age and organizational tenure were reported by participants in years. Gender was dummy coded with male coded as "0" and female coded as "1". Education level have four level, with 1 for participants with below college degree, 2 for those with college degree, 3 for those with bachelor's degree, and 4 for those with master's degree or above.

In addition, we also controlled the potential impact of transformational leadership on individual's attitude and behavior. We invited employees to rate their leader's transformational leadership style at Time point 1 with a 14-item scale developed by Kirkman et al. (2009). The sample items include: "My supervisor provides an appropriate model" and "My supervisor facilitates the acceptance of group goals". The scale questionnaire items ranged from 1 Strongly Disagree to 6 Strongly Agree. The full-scale anchors were: 1. Strongly Disagree 2. Disagree 3. Somewhat Disagree 4. Somewhat Agree 5. Agree 6. Strongly Agree.

4.2 Reliability

Reliability denotes the consistency or stability of scale measurement or the degree to which an instrument demonstrates uniformity each time it is measured under the same condition. To ensure reliability, the Cronbach's alpha and the composite reliability are used to measure the degree of internal consistency, that is, the degree to which a set of items measures a single unidimensional latent construct or dimension of a construct. Specifically, it reflects the degree of similarity or coherence of the scale or each subscale (Peterson & Kim, 2013). In general, a Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability of at least 0.7 is the standard principle to establish an acceptable level of internal consistency or reliability (Peterson & Kim, 2013). Table 4.4 demonstrates that all scale measures fall within the acceptable range. Specifically, The Cronbach's α of the three dimensions of paternalistic leadership were 0.91, 0.95, and 0.95, respectively. The Cronbach's α of perceived organizational support was 0.95. The Cronbach's α of participative safety was 0.91. The Cronbach's α of communication quality was 0.93. The Cronbach's α of job satisfaction was 0.96. The Cronbach's α of turnover intention was 0.93. The Cronbach's α of transformational leadership was 0.97.

Table 4.4 Reliability

Scales	Items	Time Points	Reliability (Cronbach's α)
Authoritarian Leadership	5	Time 1	0.91
Benevolent Leadership	5	Time 1	0.95
Moral Leadership	5	Time 1	0.95
Perceived Organizational support	8	Time 1	0.95
Participative Safety	4	Time 2	0.91
Communication Quality	5	Time 2	0.93
Job Satisfaction	5	Time 3	0.96
Turnover Intention	4	Time 3	0.93
Transformational Leadership	14	Time 1	0.97

4.3 Summary

This chapter mainly introduces the sample and procedures, and measurements. The purpose of the sample and procedures section is to introduce the sample information, survey process. The purpose of the measurements section is to explain the measurement scale of the variables.

Chapter 5: Data Analysis and Results

This chapter mainly describes the data analysis process of this study. It includes data analysis strategies, the results of validity, common method variance, descriptive statistics and hypotheses testing.

5.1 Data analysis

First, we performed the confirmatory factor analyses to test the validity of the main variables and common method variance in this study by Mplus 8.0 software. Then, we made descriptive statistics on the mean, standard deviation and correlation of all the variables, laying a foundation for the subsequent empirical analysis. Finally, our theoretical included multiple paths (i.e., there were two mediators and dependent variables in this model). Considering the independence of variables, the general regression method did not adapt to test the model. Therefore, we used Mplus 8.0 software to test the theoretical model.

Specifically, as mentioned above, the three dimensions of paternalistic leadership can be significantly distinguished, we first conducted three main effects model with authoritarian leadership as the independent variable, benevolent leadership as the independent variable and moral leadership as the independent variable to test the mediation effects of participative safety and communication quality. We computed 95% bias-corrected confidence intervals of indirect effects in path analysis with 1000 bootstrap samples (Edwards et al., 2017). If the confidence intervals do not contain 0, the mediation effect is significant.

To test the moderating effect of perceived organizational support, we conducted three new models. Specifically, for the main effects model that authoritarian leadership as independent variable, we additionally included the perceived organizational support and its interactions (authoritarian leadership \times perceived organizational support) into the main effects model. For the main effects model that benevolent leadership as independent variable, we additionally included the perceived organizational support and its interactions (benevolent leadership \times perceived organizational support) into the main effects model. For the main effects model that moral leadership as independent variable, we additionally included the perceived organizational support and its interactions (moral \times perceived organizational support) into the main effects model. We also performed simple slope analysis to further test the moderating

effects.

In addition, to test the moderated mediation effects, we computed 95% bias-corrected confidence intervals of indirect effects under high and low level of perceived organizational support with 1000 bootstrap samples. Similarly, If the confidence intervals of the difference between the high and low level of perceived organizational support do not contain 0, the moderated mediation effect is significant. When testing the moderating models, we grand-mean-centered the independent variable (i.e., authoritarian leadership, benevolent leadership and moral leadership), the moderating variable (i.e., perceived organizational support) and their corresponding interactions (i.e., authoritarian leadership \times perceived organizational support; benevolent leadership \times perceived organizational support and moral leadership \times perceived organizational support).

5.2 Construct validity

We performed several CFAs to test the validity of the main variables. Specifically, we conducted based-line model and some alternative models. The based-line model (M₆) consisted of eight factors: authoritarian leadership, benevolent leadership, moral leadership, perceived organizational support, participative safety, communication quality, job satisfaction and turnover intention.

The first alternative model was a five-factor model (M₇), in which variables in Time 1 were loaded on one factor. The second alternative model was a three-factor model (M₈), in which variables in Time 1 (authoritarian leadership; benevolent leadership; moral leadership and perceived organizational support) and Time 2 (participative safety and communication quality) were loaded on one factor. The third alternative model was a single-factor model (M₉), in which all variables were loaded on one factor.

As shown in Table 5.1, the CFAs results show that the eight-factor model fit the data well (M₆, $\chi^2_{(751)} = 1287.19$, $CFI = 0.96$, $TLI = 0.96$, $RMSEA = 0.05$, $SRMR = 0.03$) than the five-factor model (M₇, $\chi^2_{(769)} = 5621.72$, $CFI = 0.66$, $TLI = 0.64$, $RMSEA = 0.14$, $SRMR = 0.17$; $\Delta\chi^2_{(18)} = 4334.53$, $p < 0.05$), the three-factor model (M₈, $\chi^2_{(776)} = 7816.06$, $CFI = 0.51$, $TLI = 0.48$, $RMSEA = 0.16$, $SRMR = 0.20$; $\Delta\chi^2_{(25)} = 6528.87$, $p < 0.05$) and the single-factor model (M₉, $\chi^2_{(779)} = 11063.51$, $CFI = 0.28$, $TLI = 0.25$, $RMSEA = 0.20$, $SRMR = 0.22$; $\Delta\chi^2_{(28)} = 9776.32$, $p < 0.05$).

Table 5.1 The results of confirmatory factor analysis

Models	χ^2	<i>d.f.</i>	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	SRMR
M ₆ : Eight-factor model (AL, BL, ML, POS, PS, CQ, JS, TI)	1287.19	751	0.96	0.96	0.05	0.03
M ₇ : Five-factor model (AL+BL+ML+POS, PS, CQ, JS, TI)	5621.72	769	0.66	0.64	0.14	0.17
M ₈ : Three-factor model (AL+BL+ML+POS+PS+CQ, JS, TI)	7816.06	776	0.51	0.48	0.28	0.25
M ₉ : One-factor model (AL+BL+ML+POS+PS+CQ+JS+TI)	11063.51	779	0.28	0.25	0.20	0.22

Notes: N = 345; +: combining factors as one factor; AL: Authoritarian leadership; BL: Benevolent leadership; ML: Moral leadership; POS: Perceived organizational support; PS: Participative safety; CQ: Communication quality; JS: Job satisfaction; TI: Turnover intention.

5.3 Assessment of common method variance

Dependence on self-reported measures can be a cause of common method variance issues in this study (Podsakoff et al., 2003). To address this issue, we added the CMV-factor to the confirmatory factor analysis whose measures indicated the theoretical constructs, thus modeling its effect at the measurement level (Podsakoff et al., 2003). The CMV model performed a reasonable fit (M₁₀, $\chi^2_{(771)} = 1561.06$, $CFI = 0.95$, $TLI = 0.94$, $RMSEA = 0.05$, $SRMR = 0.15$), but the model comparison showed that the eight-factor model also fit significantly better than the CMV model ($\Delta\chi^2_{(20)} = 273.87$, $p < 0.05$). Thus, there was no serious concerns on CMV in this study.

5.4 Descriptive statistics

In this study, SPSS 26.0 software was used for descriptive statistics and correlation analysis of all variables. Table 5.2 shows means, standard deviations, reliabilities, and correlations among variables. As shown in Table 5.2, authoritarian leadership is negatively correlated with participative safety ($r = -0.28$, $p < 0.01$), communication quality ($r = -0.26$, $p < 0.01$), and job satisfaction ($r = -0.26$, $p < 0.01$), while it is positively correlated with turnover intention ($r = 0.29$, $p < 0.01$). Benevolent leadership is positively correlated with participatory safety ($r = 0.32$, $p < 0.01$), communication quality ($r = 0.20$, $p < 0.01$), and job satisfaction ($r = 0.24$, $p < 0.01$), but negatively correlated with turnover intention ($r = -0.38$, $p < 0.01$). Ethical leadership is positively correlated with participatory safety ($r = 0.25$, $p < 0.01$), communication quality ($r = 0.24$, $p < 0.01$), and job satisfaction ($r = 0.30$, $p < 0.01$), but negatively correlated with turnover intention ($r = -0.23$, $p < 0.01$). These results lay a good foundation for the hypothesis of this study.

Table 5.2 Descriptive statistics and correlations among study variables

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1.Gender													
2.Age	-0.06												
3.Tenure	-0.05	0.86**											
4.Edu	0.02	-0.06	-0.11*										
5.TL	-0.02	0.22	0.10	0.02									
6.AL	0.05	0.01	-0.05	-0.09	-0.28**								
7.BL	0.05	-0.09	-0.13	0.14**	0.28**	-0.14*							
8.ML	0.12*	0.11*	0.15**	0.02	0.34**	-0.08	0.02						
9.POS	0.07	0.15**	0.19**	-0.09	0.40**	-0.08	0.15**	0.43**					
10.PS	0.03	0.06	0.09	-0.02	0.33**	-0.28**	0.32**	0.25**	0.20**				
11.CQ	0.10	-0.09	-0.10	0.05	0.31**	-0.26**	0.20**	0.24**	0.16**	0.23**			
12.JS	0.05	-0.07	-0.04	0.06	0.27**	-0.26**	0.24**	0.30**	0.16**	0.28**	0.27**		
13.TI	-0.11*	0.30	-0.03	-0.06	-0.36**	0.29**	-0.38**	-0.23**	-0.20**	-0.31**	-0.30**	-0.28**	
Mean	0.45	29.52	3.77	2.59	2.60	4.53	3.92	3.82	2.96	2.56	3.63	3.31	3.95
SD	0.50	5.07	2.76	0.90	1.25	1.20	1.52	1.61	1.59	1.28	1.30	1.70	1.55

Notes: N = 345; * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; Gender: Employees' gender; Age: Employees age; Tenure: Employees organizational tenure; Edu: Employees education level; AL: authoritarian leadership; BL: Benevolent leadership; ML: Moral leadership; POS: Perceived organizational support; PS: Participative safety; CQ: Communication quality; JS: Job satisfaction; TI: Turnover intention.

5.5 Hypotheses testing

5.5.1 Results of authoritarian leadership model

As mentioned above, we first conducted a main effects model with authoritarian leadership as independent variable, participative safety and communication quality as mediators, and job satisfaction and turnover intention as dependent variables. The model fit index results show that the main effects model fit the data well ($\chi^2 = 11.87$, $df = 9$, $p = 0.22$, $CFI = 0.99$, $TLI = 0.96$, $RMSEA = 0.03$, $SRMR = 0.02$). Next, we included the perceived organizational support and its corresponding interaction (authoritarian leadership \times perceived organizational support) into the main effects model to conduct a new model. The model fit index results show that the new model fit the data well ($\chi^2 = 19.19$, $df = 14$, $p = 0.16$, $CFI = 0.98$, $TLI = 0.95$, $RMSEA = 0.03$, $SRMR = 0.02$ ($\Delta\chi^2 = 7.32$, $\Delta df = 5$, $p > 0.05$). We reported the results in the following analyses.

5.5.1.1 Testing the mediation effects of participative safety

The results of main effects model were shown in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3 The path analytics results in the main effects model of authoritarian leadership

Variables	Participative safety		Communication quality		Job satisfaction		Turnover intention	
	<i>b</i>	s.e.	<i>b</i>	s.e.	<i>b</i>	s.e.	<i>b</i>	s.e.
Controls								
Transformational leadership	0.32***	0.06	0.26***	0.05	0.25***	0.07	-0.10	0.07
Employees gender	0.11	0.14	0.27*	0.13	0.10	0.17	-0.27†	0.16
Employees age	0.01	0.03	0.02	0.03	-0.01	0.03	0.05	0.03
Employees tenure	0.01	0.05	-0.10	0.05	-0.02	0.06	-0.09	0.07
Employees education	-0.05	0.07	0.01	0.08	0.06	0.10	-0.09	0.08
Independent Variable								
Authoritarian leadership	-0.23**	0.07	-0.24***	0.05	-0.21**	0.08	0.20**	0.07
Mediators								
Participative safety					0.19**	0.07	-0.22**	0.07
Communication quality					0.17*	0.08	-0.22**	0.06
Testing results of indirect effect								
Paths					Indirect effect	s.e.	95% CI	
1. Authoritarian leadership \rightarrow Participative safety \rightarrow Job satisfaction					-.04	.02	[-.11, -.01]	
2. Authoritarian leadership \rightarrow Participative safety \rightarrow Turnover Intention					.05	.02	[.01, .12]	
3. Authoritarian leadership \rightarrow Communication quality \rightarrow Job satisfaction					-.04	.02	[-.09, -.01]	
4. Authoritarian leadership \rightarrow Communication quality \rightarrow Turnover Intention					.05	.02	[.02, .09]	

Notes: N = 345; 0.05 < †*p* < 0.10; **p* < 0.05; ***p* < 0.01; ****p* < 0.001; Bootstrap = 1000.

Hypothesis 1a proposed that participative safety mediates the negative relationship between

authoritarian leadership and job satisfaction. As shown in Table 5.3, the path analytic results show that authoritarian leadership was negatively and significantly related to participative safety ($b = -0.23$, $s.e. = 0.07$, $p < 0.01$) and that participative safety was positively and significantly related to job satisfaction ($b = 0.19$, $s.e. = 0.07$, $p < 0.01$). Meanwhile, the confidence interval of the indirect effect of participative safety on the relationship between authoritarian leadership and job satisfaction was significant (Indirect effect = -0.04 , $s.e. = 0.02$, $95\% CI = [-0.11, -0.01]$), supporting Hypothesis 1a.

Hypothesis 2a posited that participative safety mediates the positive relationship between authoritarian leadership and turnover intention. As shown in Table 5.3, the path analytic results show that authoritarian leadership was negatively and significantly related to participative safety ($b = -0.23$, $s.e. = 0.07$, $p < 0.01$) and that participative safety was negatively and significantly related to turnover intention ($b = -0.22$, $s.e. = 0.07$, $p < 0.01$). Meanwhile, the confidence interval of the indirect effect of participative safety on the relationship between authoritarian leadership and turnover intention was significant (Indirect effect = 0.05 , $s.e. = 0.02$, $95\% CI = [0.01, 0.12]$), supporting Hypothesis 2a.

5.5.1.2 Testing the mediation effects of communication quality

Hypothesis 3a proposed that communication quality mediates the negative relationship between authoritarian leadership and job satisfaction. As shown in Table 5.3, the path analytic results show that authoritarian leadership was negatively and significantly related to communication quality ($b = -0.24$, $s.e. = 0.05$, $p < 0.00$) and that communication quality was positively and significantly related to job satisfaction ($b = 0.17$, $s.e. = 0.08$, $p < 0.05$). Meanwhile, the confidence interval of the indirect effect of communication quality on the relationship between authoritarian leadership and job satisfaction was significant (Indirect effect = -0.04 , $s.e. = 0.02$, $95\% CI = [-0.09, -0.01]$), supporting Hypothesis 3a.

Hypothesis 4a posited that communication quality mediates the positive relationship between authoritarian leadership and turnover intention. As shown in Table 5.3, the path analytic results show that authoritarian leadership was negatively and significantly related to communication quality ($b = -0.24$, $s.e. = 0.05$, $p < 0.00$) and that communication quality was negatively and significantly related to turnover intention ($b = -0.22$, $s.e. = 0.06$, $p < 0.01$). Meanwhile, the confidence interval of the indirect effect of communication quality on the relationship between authoritarian leadership and turnover intention was significant (Indirect effect = 0.05 , $s.e. = 0.02$, $95\% CI = [0.02, 0.09]$). Therefore, these results demonstrated Hypothesis 4a was supported.

5.5.1.3 Testing the moderating effects of perceived organizational support

The results of moderating effects were shown in Table 5.4.

Table 5.4 The moderating effects of perceived organizational support (authoritarian leadership as the independent variable)

Variables	Participative safety		Communication quality	
	<i>b</i>	s.e.	<i>b</i>	s.e.
Controls				
Transformational leadership	0.30***	0.06	0.23***	0.05
Employees gender	0.07	0.14	0.25*	0.13
Employees age	0.01	0.03	0.02	0.03
Employees tenure	-0.03	0.05	-0.10	0.06
Employees education	-0.04	0.07	0.03	0.07
Independent Variable				
Authoritarian leadership	-0.23**	0.07	-0.23***	0.05
Moderator				
Perceived organizational support	0.09*	0.04	0.11*	0.05
Interaction				
Perceived organizational support × Authoritarian leadership	0.02	0.04	-0.03	0.03

Notes: N = 345; * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$.

Hypothesis 5a proposed that perceived organizational support moderates the negative relationship between authoritarian leadership and participative safety. As shown in Table 5.4, the moderating test results show that the interaction term of authoritarian leadership and perceived organizational support was not significantly related to participative safety ($b = 0.02$, $s.e. = 0.04$, $p > 0.05$, *ns*). Hypothesis 5a was not supported.

To further describe the moderating role of perceived organizational support, we estimated the simple slopes and plotted the significant interactions at 1 SD above and below the mean for moderator (Aiken & West, 1991). However, the negative impact of authoritarian leadership on participative safety shows nonsignificant difference under high level of perceived organizational support (b (high level of perceived organizational support) = -0.19, $s.e. = 0.10$, $p < 0.05$) and low level of perceived organizational support (b (low level of perceived organizational support) = -0.26, $s.e. = 0.10$, $p < 0.05$). The result further demonstrated that Hypothesis 5a was not supported.

Moreover, Hypothesis 6a posited that perceived organizational support moderates the indirect effect of participative safety on the relationship between authoritarian leadership and job satisfaction. As shown in Table 5.5, the bootstrapping results show that the indirect effect of participative safety on the relationship between authoritarian leadership and job satisfaction was significant under low level of perceived organizational support (Indirect effect (Low level of perceived organizational support) = -0.05, $s.e. = 0.02$, 95% CI = [-0.12, -0.01]). However,

the indirect effect of participative safety became nonsignificant under high level of perceived organizational support (Indirect effect (High level of perceived organizational support) = -0.03, s.e. = 0.03, 95% CI = [-0.10, 0.04], *ns*). Overall, the difference between these two estimates for the two indirect relationships was not significant (Difference (High level of perceived organizational support versus low level of perceived organizational support) = -0.01, s.e. = 0.03, 95% CI = [-0.03, 0.08], *ns*). Therefore, these results demonstrated that Hypothesis 6a was not supported.

Table 5.5 The results of moderated mediation effects (authoritarian leadership as independent variable)

<i>Moderator variable</i>	Path 1: Authoritarian leadership → Participative safety → Job satisfaction		
Perceived organizational support	Indirect effect		
	Coeff.	s.e.	95% CI
High Group (+1 <i>s.d.</i>)	-0.03	0.03	[-0.10, 0.04]
Low Group (-1 <i>s.d.</i>)	-0.05	0.02	[-0.12, -0.01]
High-Low Difference	-0.01	0.03	[-0.03, 0.08]
<i>Moderator variable</i>	Path 2: Authoritarian leadership → Participative safety → Turnover Intention		
Perceived organizational support	Indirect effect		
	Coeff.	s.e.	95% CI
High Group (+1 <i>s.d.</i>)	0.04	0.03	[0.00, 0.11]
Low Group (-1 <i>s.d.</i>)	0.05	0.03	[0.01, 0.13]
High-Low Difference	-0.01	0.03	[-0.10, 0.04]
<i>Moderator variable</i>	Path 3: Authoritarian leadership → Communication quality → Job satisfaction		
Perceived organizational support	Indirect effect		
	Coeff.	s.e.	95% CI
High Group (+1 <i>s.d.</i>)	-0.05	0.02	[-0.10, -0.01]
Low Group (-1 <i>s.d.</i>)	-0.03	0.02	[-0.09, -0.00]
High-Low Difference	-0.01	0.02	[-0.07, 0.02]
<i>Moderator variable</i>	Path 4: Authoritarian leadership → Communication quality → Turnover Intention		
Perceived organizational support	Indirect effect		
	Coeff.	s.e.	95% CI
High Group (+1 <i>s.d.</i>)	0.06	0.02	[0.03, 0.11]
Low Group (-1 <i>s.d.</i>)	0.04	0.02	[0.01, 0.10]
High-Low Difference	0.02	0.02	[-0.02, 0.04]

Notes: N = 345; Bootstrap = 1000.

Moreover, Hypothesis 6b posited that perceived organizational support moderates the indirect effect of participative safety on the relationship between authoritarian leadership and turnover intention. As shown in Table 5.5, the bootstrapping results show that the indirect effects of participative safety on the relationship between authoritarian leadership and turnover intention were both significant under low and high level of perceived organizational support (Indirect effect (High level of perceived organizational support) = 0.04, s.e. = 0.03, 95% CI = [0.00, 0.11]; Indirect effect (Low level of perceived organizational support) = 0.05 s.e. = 0.03, 95% CI = [0.01, 0.13]). However, the difference between these two estimates for the two

indirect relationships was not significant (Difference (High level of perceived organizational support versus low level of perceived organizational support) = -0.01, s.e. = 0.03, 95% CI = [-0.10, 0.04], *ns*). Therefore, these results demonstrated that Hypothesis 6b was also not supported.

On the other hand, Hypothesis 5b proposed that perceived organizational support moderates the negative relationship between authoritarian leadership and communication quality. As shown in Table 5.4, the moderating test results show that the interaction term of authoritarian leadership and perceived organizational support was not significantly related to communication quality ($b = -0.03$, s.e. = 0.03, $p > 0.05$, *ns*). Thus, Hypothesis 5b was not supported.

To further describe the moderating role of perceived organizational support, we estimated the simple slopes and plotted the significant interactions at 1 SD above and below the mean for moderator (Aiken & West, 1991). However, the negative impact of authoritarian leadership on communication quality shows nonsignificant difference under high level of perceived organizational support (b (high level of perceived organizational support) = -0.27, s.e. = 0.07, $p < 0.00$) and low level of perceived organizational support (b (low level of perceived organizational support) = -0.19, s.e. = 0.08, $p < 0.05$). The result further demonstrated that Hypothesis 5b was not supported.

Moreover, Hypothesis 7a posited that perceived organizational support moderates the indirect effect of communication quality on the relationship between authoritarian leadership and job satisfaction. As shown in Table 5.5, the bootstrapping results show that the indirect effects of communication quality on the relationship between authoritarian leadership and job satisfaction were both significant under low and high level of perceived organizational support (Indirect effect (High level of perceived organizational support) = -0.05, s.e. = 0.02, 95% CI = [-0.10, -0.01]; Indirect effect (Low level of perceived organizational support) = -0.03 s.e. = 0.02, 95% CI = [-0.09, -0.00]). However, the difference between these two estimates for the two indirect relationships was not significant (Difference (High level of perceived organizational support versus low level of perceived organizational support) = -0.01, s.e. = 0.02, 95% CI = [-0.07, 0.02], *ns*). Therefore, Hypothesis 7a was not supported.

Similarly, Hypothesis 7b posited that perceived organizational support moderates the indirect effect of communication quality on the relationship between authoritarian leadership and turnover intention. As shown in Table 5.5, the bootstrapping results show that the indirect effects of communication quality were both significant under low and high level of perceived organizational support (Indirect effect (High level of perceived organizational support) = 0.06,

s.e. = 0.02, 95% CI = [0.03, 0.11]; Indirect effect (Low level of perceived organizational support) = 0.04, s.e. = 0.02, 95% CI = [0.01, 0.10]). However, the difference between these two estimates for the two indirect relationships was not significant (Difference (High level of perceived organizational support versus low level of perceived organizational support) = 0.02, s.e. = 0.02, 95% CI = [-0.02, 0.04], ns). Hypothesis 7b was not supported.

5.5.2 Results of benevolent leadership model

As mentioned above, we first conducted a main effects model with benevolent leadership as independent variable, participative safety and communication quality as mediators, and job satisfaction and turnover intention as dependent variables. The model fit index results show that the main effects model fit the data well ($\chi^2 = 8.94$, $df = 6$, $p = 0.18$, $CFI = 0.99$, $TLI = 0.94$, $RMSEA = 0.04$, $SRMR = 0.02$).

Next, we included the perceived organizational support and its corresponding interaction (benevolent leadership \times perceived organizational support) into the main effects model to conduct a new model. The model fit index results show that the new model fit the data well ($\chi^2 = 20.48$, $df = 15$, $p = 0.15$, $CFI = 0.98$, $TLI = 0.95$, $RMSEA = 0.03$, $SRMR = 0.03$, $\Delta\chi^2 = 11.54$, $\Delta df = 9$, $p > 0.05$).

We reported the results in the following analyses.

5.5.2.1 Testing the mediation effects of participative safety

The results of main effects model were shown in Table 5.6. Hypothesis 1b proposed that participative safety mediates the positive relationship between benevolent leadership and job satisfaction. As shown in Table 5.6, the path analytics results show that benevolent leadership was positively and significantly related to participative safety ($b = 0.22$, s.e. = 0.04, $p < 0.00$) and that participative safety was positively and significantly related to job satisfaction ($b = 0.20$, s.e. = 0.07, $p < 0.01$). Meanwhile, the confidence interval of the indirect effect of participative safety on the relationship between benevolent leadership and job satisfaction was significant (Indirect effect = 0.04, s.e. = 0.02, 95% CI = [0.01, 0.08]). Therefore, Hypothesis 1b was supported.

Hypothesis 2b posited that participative safety mediates the negative relationship between benevolent leadership and turnover intention. As shown in Table 5.6, the path analytics results show that benevolent leadership was positively and significantly related to participative safety ($b = 0.22$, s.e. = 0.04, $p < 0.00$) and that participative safety was negatively and significantly related to turnover intention ($b = -0.18$, s.e. = 0.07, $p < 0.05$). Meanwhile, the confidence

interval of the indirect effect of participative safety on the relationship between benevolent leadership and turnover intention was significant (Indirect effect = -0.04, s.e. = 0.02, 95% CI = [-0.08, -0.01]). Therefore, Hypothesis 1b was supported.

Table 5.6 The path analytics results in the main effects model of benevolent leadership

Variables	Participative safety		Communication quality		Job satisfaction		Turnover intention	
	<i>b</i>	s.e.	<i>b</i>	s.e.	<i>b</i>	s.e.	<i>b</i>	s.e.
Controls								
Transformational leadership	0.31***	0.06	0.28***	0.05	0.25***	0.07	-0.09	0.07
Employees gender	0.05	0.14	0.23 [†]	0.13	0.05	0.17	-0.22	0.15
Employees age	0.02	0.03	0.02	0.03	-0.01	0.03	0.03	0.03
Employees tenure	0.00	0.06	-0.09	0.05	-0.02	0.06	-0.08	0.07
Employees education	-0.08	0.07	0.02	0.08	0.06	0.10	-0.05	0.08
Independent Variable								
Benevolent leadership	0.22***	0.04	0.12*	0.05	0.12*	0.06	-0.26***	0.07
Mediators								
Participative safety					0.20**	0.07	-0.18*	0.07
Communication quality					0.19**	0.07	-0.22***	0.06
Testing results of indirect effect								
Paths					Indirect effect	s.e.	95% CI	
1. Benevolent leadership → Participative safety → Job satisfaction					0.04	0.02	[0.01, 0.08]	
2. Benevolent leadership → Participative safety → Turnover Intention					-0.04	0.02	[-0.08, -0.01]	
3. Benevolent leadership → Communication quality → Job satisfaction					0.02	0.01	[0.00, 0.06]	
4. Benevolent leadership → Communication quality → Turnover Intention					-0.03	0.01	[-0.06, -0.01]	

Notes: N = 345; 0.05 < [†]*p* < 0.10; **p* < 0.05; ***p* < 0.01; ****p* < 0.001; Bootstrap = 1000.

5.5.2.2 Testing the mediation effects of communication quality

Hypothesis 3b proposed that communication quality mediates the positive relationship between benevolent leadership and job satisfaction. As shown in Table 5.6, the path analytics results show that benevolent leadership was positively and significantly related to communication quality (*b* = 0.12, s.e. = 0.05, *p* < 0.05) and that communication quality was positively and significantly related to job satisfaction (*b* = 0.19, s.e. = 0.07, *p* < 0.01). Meanwhile, the confidence interval of the indirect effect of communication quality on the relationship between benevolent leadership and job satisfaction was significant (Indirect effect = 0.02, s.e. = 0.01, 95% CI = [0.00, 0.06]), supporting Hypothesis 3b.

Hypothesis 4b posited that communication quality mediates the negative relationship between benevolent leadership and turnover intention. As shown in Table 5.6, the path analytics

results show that benevolent leadership was positively and significantly related to communication quality ($b = 0.12$, $s.e. = 0.05$, $p < 0.05$) and that communication quality was negatively and significantly related to turnover intention ($b = -0.22$, $s.e. = 0.06$, $p < 0.00$). Meanwhile, the confidence interval of the indirect effect of communication quality on the relationship between authoritarian leadership and turnover intention was significant (Indirect effect = -0.03 , $s.e. = 0.01$, $95\% CI = [-0.06, -0.01]$), supporting Hypothesis 4b

5.5.2.3 Testing the moderating effects of perceived organizational support

The results of moderating effects were shown in Table 5.7.

Table 5.7 The moderating effects of perceived organizational support (benevolent leadership as independent variable)

Variables	Participative safety		Communication quality	
	<i>b</i>	s.e.	<i>b</i>	s.e.
Controls				
Transformational leadership	0.29***	0.06	0.25***	0.05
Employees gender	0.05	0.13	0.22†	0.13
Employees age	0.02	0.03	0.03	0.03
Employees tenure	-0.02	0.05	-0.11	0.05
Employees education	-0.07	0.07	0.02	0.07
Independent Variable				
Benevolent leadership	0.22***	0.04	0.12*	0.05
Moderator				
Perceived organizational support	0.07	0.04	0.10*	0.05
Interaction				
Perceived organizational support × Benevolent leadership	0.07**	0.02	0.09**	0.03

Notes: N = 345; * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$.

Hypothesis 8a proposed that perceived organizational support moderates the positive relationship between benevolent leadership and participative safety. As shown in Table 5.7, the moderating test results show that the interaction term of benevolent leadership and perceived organizational support was significantly related to participative safety ($b = 0.07$, $s.e. = 0.02$, $p < 0.01$), supporting Hypothesis 8a.

To further describe the moderating role of perceived organizational support, we estimated the simple slopes and plotted the significant interactions at 1 SD above and below the mean for moderator (Aiken & West, 1991) and plotted the Figure 5.1.

As shown in Figure 5.1, comparing the low level of perceived organizational support, the positive impact of benevolent leadership on participative safety was much stronger under high level of perceived organizational support (b (high level of perceived organizational support) = 0.34 , $s.e. = 0.06$, $p < 0.00$) than low level of perceived organizational support (b (low level of perceived organizational support) = 0.10 , $s.e. = 0.05$, $p < 0.05$). Hypothesis 8a was further

supported.

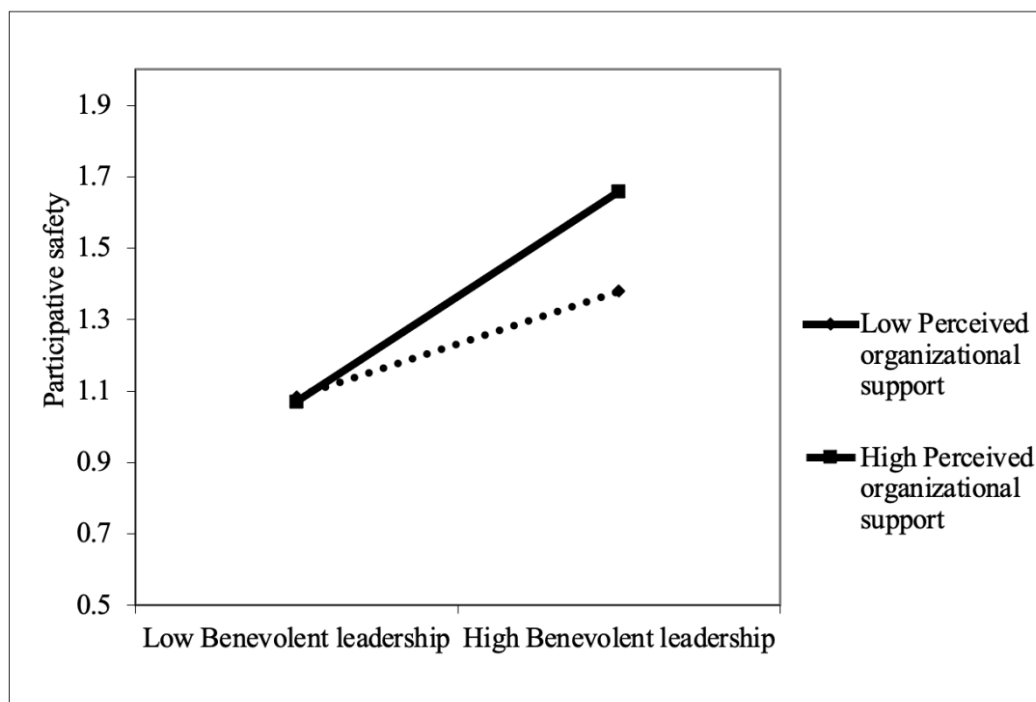


Figure 5.1 The moderating effect of perceived organizational support on the relationship between benevolent leadership and participative safety

In addition, Hypothesis 9a posited that perceived organizational support moderates the indirect effect of participative safety on the relationship between benevolent leadership and job satisfaction. As shown in Table 5.8, the bootstrapping results show that the indirect effects of participative safety on the relationship between benevolent leadership and job satisfaction were both significant under low and high level of perceived organizational support (Indirect effect (High level of perceived organizational support) = 0.06, s.e. = 0.04, 95% CI = [0.02, 0.13]; Indirect effect (Low level of perceived organizational support) = 0.02 s.e. = 0.02, 95% CI = [0.00, 0.05]). Meanwhile, the difference between these two estimates for the two indirect relationships was significant (Difference (High level of perceived organizational support versus low level of perceived organizational support) = 0.04, s.e. = 0.03, 95% CI = [0.01, 0.11]). Hypothesis 9a was supported.

Similarly, Hypothesis 9b posited that perceived organizational support moderates the indirect effect of participative safety on the relationship between benevolent leadership and turnover intention. As shown in Table 5.8, the bootstrapping results show that the indirect effects of participative safety were both significant under low and high level of perceived organizational support (Indirect effect (High level of perceived organizational support) = -0.06,

s.e. = 0.02, 95% CI = [-0.12, -0.02]; Indirect effect (Low level of perceived organizational support) = -0.02, s.e. = 0.02, 95% CI = [-0.05, -0.00]). Meanwhile, the difference between these two estimates for the two indirect relationships was significant (Difference (High level of perceived organizational support versus low level of perceived organizational support) = -0.04, s.e. = 0.03, 95% CI = [-0.11, -0.01]). Hypothesis 9b was supported.

Table 5.8 The results of moderated mediation effects (benevolent leadership as independent variable)

Moderator variable		Path 1: Benevolent leadership → Participative safety → Job satisfaction		
Perceived support	organizational	Indirect effect		
		Coeff.	s.e.	95% CI
	High Group (+1 <i>s.d.</i>)	0.06	0.04	[0.02, 0.13]
	Low Group (-1 <i>s.d.</i>)	0.02	0.02	[0.00, 0.05]
	High-Low Difference	0.04	0.03	[0.01, 0.11]
Moderator variable		Path 2: Benevolent leadership → Participative safety → Turnover Intention		
Perceived support	organizational	Indirect effect		
		Coeff.	s.e.	95% CI
	High Group (+1 <i>s.d.</i>)	-0.06	0.02	[-0.12, -0.02]
	Low Group (-1 <i>s.d.</i>)	-0.02	0.02	[-0.05, -0.00]
	High-Low Difference	-0.04	0.03	[-0.11, -0.01]
Moderator variable		Path 3: Benevolent leadership → Communication quality → Job satisfaction		
Perceived support	organizational	Indirect effect		
		Coeff.	s.e.	95% CI
	High Group (+1 <i>s.d.</i>)	0.05	0.04	[0.01, 0.11]
	Low Group (-1 <i>s.d.</i>)	-0.01	0.02	[-0.04, 0.01]
	High-Low Difference	0.06	0.03	[0.01, 0.12]
Moderator variable		Path 4: Benevolent leadership → Communication quality → Turnover Intention		
Perceived support	organizational	Indirect effect		
		Coeff.	s.e.	95% CI
	High Group (+1 <i>s.d.</i>)	-0.06	0.02	[-0.12, -0.02]
	Low Group (-1 <i>s.d.</i>)	0.01	0.02	[-0.02, 0.04]
	High-Low Difference	-0.07	0.03	[-0.14, -0.02]

Notes: N = 345; Bootstrap = 1000.

On the other hand, Hypothesis 8b proposed that perceived organizational support moderates the positive relationship between benevolent leadership and communication quality. As shown in Table 5.7, the moderating test results show that the interaction term of benevolent leadership and perceived organizational support was significantly related to communication quality ($b = 0.09$, $s.e. = 0.03$, $p < 0.05$). Hypothesis 8b was supported.

To further describe the moderating role of perceived organizational support, we estimated the simple slopes and plotted the significant interactions at 1 SD above and below the mean for moderator (Aiken & West, 1991).

As shown in Figure 5.2, a significant simple slope for communication quality occurred under high level of perceived organizational support ($b = 0.26$, $s.e. = 0.08$, $p < 0.00$). Under low

level of perceived organizational support, the simple slope became nonsignificant ($b = -0.03$, $s.e. = 0.06$, $p > 0.05$, ns). Thus, Hypothesis 8b was further supported.

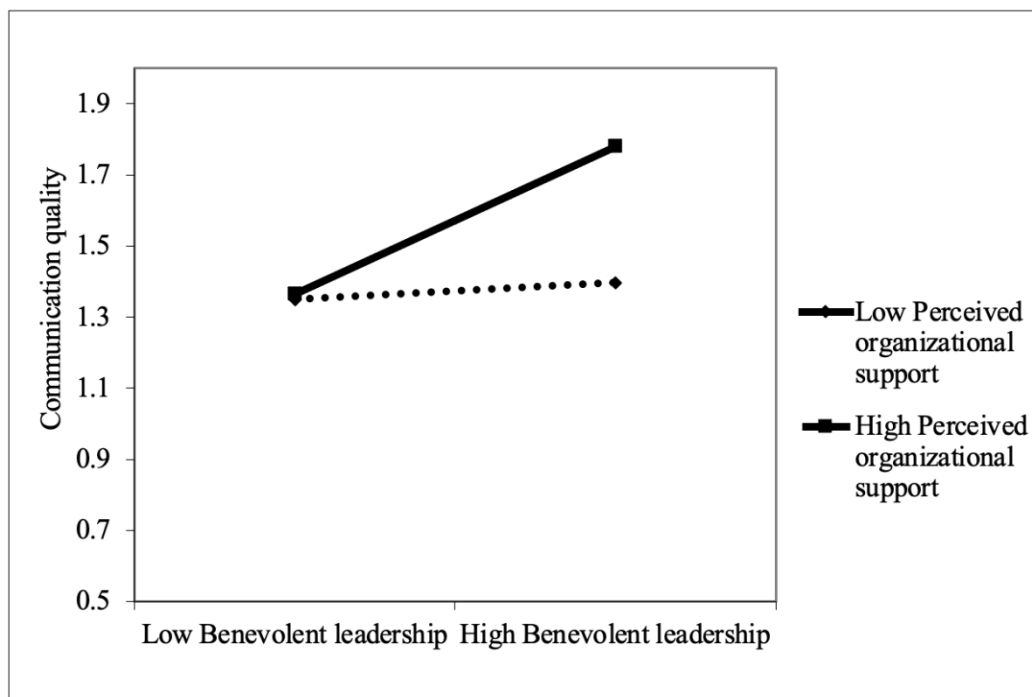


Figure 5.2 The moderating effect of perceived organizational support on the relationship between benevolent leadership and communication quality

Moreover, Hypothesis 10a posited that perceived organizational support moderates the indirect effect of communication quality on the relationship between benevolent leadership and job satisfaction. As shown in Table 5.8, the bootstrapping results show that the indirect effect of communication quality was significant under high level of perceived organizational support (Indirect effect (High level of perceived organizational support) = 0.05, $s.e. = 0.04$, 95% CI = [0.01, 0.11]), but not under low level of perceived organizational support (Indirect effect (Low level of perceived organizational support) = -0.01, $s.e. = 0.02$, 95% CI = [-0.04, 0.01], ns). However, the difference between these two estimates for the two indirect relationships was significant (Difference (High level of perceived organizational support versus low level of perceived organizational support) = 0.06, $s.e. = 0.03$, 95% CI = [0.01, 0.12]). Hypothesis 10a was supported.

Similarly, Hypothesis 10b posited that perceived organizational support moderates the indirect effect of communication quality on the relationship between benevolent leadership and turnover intention. As shown in Table 5.8, the bootstrapping results show that the indirect effect of communication quality was significant under high level of perceived organizational support (Indirect effect (High level of perceived organizational support) = -0.06, $s.e. = 0.02$, 95% CI = [-0.12, -0.02]), but not under low level of perceived organizational support (Indirect effect (Low

level of perceived organizational support) = 0.01, s.e. = 0.02, 95% CI = [-0.02, 0.04], *ns*). However, the difference between these two estimates for the two indirect relationships was significant (Difference (High level of perceived organizational support versus low level of perceived organizational support) = -0.07, s.e. = 0.03, 95% CI = [-0.14, -0.02]). Hypothesis 10b was supported.

5.5.3 Results of moral leadership model

As mentioned above, we first conducted a main effects model with moral leadership as independent variable, participative safety and communication quality as mediators, and job satisfaction and turnover intention as dependent variables. The model fit index results show that the main effects model fit the data well ($\chi^2 = 2.66$, $df = 6$, $p = 0.85$, $CFI = 1.00$, $TLI = 1.07$, $RMSEA = 0.00$, $SRMR = 0.02$).

Next, we included the perceived organizational support and its corresponding interaction (moral leadership \times perceived organizational support) into the main effects model to conduct a new model. The model fit index results show that the new model fit the data well ($\chi^2 = 5.22$, $df = 7$, $p = 0.53$, $CFI = 1.00$, $TLI = 1.04$, $RMSEA = 0.00$, $SRMR = 0.02$, $\Delta\chi^2 = 2.56$, $\Delta df = 1$, $p > 0.05$).

We reported the results in the following analyses.

5.5.3.1 Testing the mediation effects of participative safety

The results of main effects model were shown in Table 5.9. Hypothesis 1c proposed that participative safety mediates the positive relationship between moral leadership and job satisfaction. As shown in Table 5.9, the path analytics results show that moral leadership was positively and significantly related to participative safety ($b = 0.11$, s.e. = 0.04, $p < 0.01$) and that participative safety was positively and significantly related to job satisfaction ($b = 0.20$, s.e. = 0.07, $p < 0.01$). Meanwhile, the confidence interval of the indirect effect of participative safety on the relationship between moral leadership and job satisfaction was significant (Indirect effect = 0.02, s.e. = 0.01, 95% CI = [0.01, 0.05]), supporting Hypothesis 1c.

Hypothesis 2c posited that participative safety mediates the negative relationship between moral leadership and turnover intention. As shown in Table 5.9, the path analytics results show that moral leadership was positively and significantly related to participative safety ($b = 0.11$, s.e. = 0.04, $p < 0.01$) and that participative safety was negatively and significantly related to turnover intention ($b = -0.25$, s.e. = 0.07, $p < 0.01$). Meanwhile, the confidence interval of the indirect effect of participative safety on the relationship between moral leadership and turnover

intention was significant (Indirect effect = -0.03, s.e. = 0.01, 95% CI = [-0.06, -0.01]), supporting Hypothesis 2c.

Table 5.9 The path analytics results in the main effects model of moral leadership

Variables	Participative safety		Communication quality		Job satisfaction		Turnover intention	
	<i>b</i>	s.e.	<i>b</i>	s.e.	<i>b</i>	s.e.	<i>b</i>	s.e.
Controls								
Transformational leadership	0.32***	0.06	0.25***	0.05	0.21**	0.07	-0.09	0.07
Employees gender	0.04	0.14	0.19	0.13	-0.01	0.16	-0.20	0.16
Employees age	0.00	0.03	0.01	0.03	-0.02	0.03	0.05	0.03
Employees tenure	0.02	0.05	-0.09	0.05	-0.02	0.07	-0.10	0.07
Employees education	-0.03	0.07	0.04	0.08	0.08	0.09	-0.11	0.08
Independent Variable								
Moral leadership	0.11**	0.04	0.14**	0.05	0.19**	0.06	-0.09 [†]	0.05
Mediators								
Participative safety					0.20**	0.07	-0.25**	0.07
Communication quality					0.17*	0.08	-0.24***	0.06
Testing results of indirect effect								
Paths					Indirect effect	s.e.	95% CI	
1. Moral leadership → Participative safety → Job satisfaction					0.02	0.01	[0.01, 0.05]	
2. Moral leadership → Participative safety → Turnover Intention					-0.03	0.01	[-0.06, -0.01]	
3. Moral leadership → Communication quality → Job satisfaction					0.02	0.01	[0.01, 0.06]	
4. Moral leadership → Communication quality → Turnover Intention					-0.03	0.01	[-0.07, -0.01]	

Notes: N = 345; 0.05 < [†] *p* < 0.10; **p* < 0.05; ***p* < 0.01; ****p* < 0.001; Bootstrap = 1000.

5.5.3.2 Testing the mediation effects of communication quality

Hypothesis 3c proposed that communication quality mediates the positive relationship between moral leadership and job satisfaction. As shown in Table 5.9, the path analytics results show that moral leadership was positively and significantly related to communication quality ($b = 0.14$, s.e. = 0.05, $p < 0.05$) and that communication quality was positively and significantly related to job satisfaction ($b = 0.17$, s.e. = 0.08, $p < 0.05$). Meanwhile, the confidence interval of the indirect effect of communication quality on the relationship between moral leadership and job satisfaction was significant (Indirect effect = 0.02, s.e. = 0.01, 95% CI = [0.01, 0.06]), supporting Hypothesis 3c.

Hypothesis 4c posited that communication quality mediates the negative relationship between moral leadership and turnover intention. As shown in Table 5.9, the path analytics results show that moral leadership was positively and significantly related to communication

quality ($b = 0.14$, $s.e. = 0.05$, $p < 0.05$) and that communication quality was negatively and significantly related to turnover intention ($b = -0.24$, $s.e. = 0.06$, $p < 0.00$). Meanwhile, the confidence interval of the indirect effect of communication quality on the relationship between moral leadership and turnover intention was significant (Indirect effect = -0.03 , $s.e. = 0.01$, 95% CI = $[-0.07, -0.01]$), supporting Hypothesis 4c.

5.5.3.3 Testing the moderating effects of perceived organizational support

The results of moderating effects were shown in Table 5.10.

Hypothesis 11a proposed that perceived organizational support moderates the positive relationship between moral leadership and participative safety. As shown in Table 5.10, the moderating test results show that interaction term of moral leadership and perceived organizational support was not significantly related to participative safety ($b = -0.01$, $s.e. = 0.03$, $p > 0.05$, *ns*). Hypothesis 11a was not supported.

Table 5.10 The moderating effects of perceived organizational support (moral leadership as independent variable)

Variables	Participative safety		Communication quality	
	<i>b</i>	s.e.	<i>b</i>	s.e.
Controls				
Transformational leadership	0.32***	0.06	0.24***	0.05
Employees gender	0.03	0.14	0.19	0.13
Employees age	0.00	0.03	0.01	0.03
Employees tenure	0.01	0.05	-0.09†	0.05
Employees education	-0.02	0.07	0.05	0.07
Independent Variable				
Moral leadership	0.07	0.05	0.17**	0.06
Moderator				
Perceived organizational support	0.07	0.05	0.01	0.06
Interaction				
Perceived organizational support × Moral leadership	-0.01	0.03	0.08*	0.04

Notes: N = 345; $0.10 < † p < 0.05$; * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$.

To further describe the moderating role of perceived organizational support, we estimated the simple slopes and plotted the significant interactions at 1 SD above and below the mean for moderator (Aiken & West, 1991). However, the negative impact of moral leadership on participative safety shows nonsignificant difference under high level of perceived organizational support (b (high level of perceived organizational support) = 0.05 , $s.e. = 0.09$, $p > 0.05$) and low level of perceived organizational support (b (low level of perceived organizational support) = 0.10 , $s.e. = 0.05$, $p > 0.05$). These results further demonstrated that Hypothesis 12a was not supported.

Moreover, Hypothesis 12a posited that perceived organizational support moderates the

indirect effect of participative safety on the relationship between moral leadership and job satisfaction. As shown in Table 5.11, the bootstrapping results show that the indirect effects of participative safety was significant under low level of perceived organizational support (Indirect effect (Low level of perceived organizational support) = 0.02, s.e. = 0.01, 95% CI = [0.00, 0.06]), but not under high level of perceived organizational support (Indirect effect (High level of perceived organizational support) = 0.01, s.e. = 0.02, 95% CI = [-0.03, 0.05], *ns*). Meanwhile, the difference between these two estimates for the two indirect relationships was not significant (Difference (High level of perceived organizational support versus low level of perceived organizational support) = -0.01, s.e. = 0.02, 95% CI = [-0.08, 0.02], *ns*). Hypothesis 12a was not supported.

Table 5.11 The results of moderated mediation effects (moral leadership as independent variable)

Moderator variable		Path 1: Moral leadership → Participative safety → Job satisfaction		
Perceived support	organizational	Indirect effect		
		Coeff.	s.e.	95% CI
High Group (+1 <i>s.d.</i>)		0.01	0.02	[-0.03, 0.05]
Low Group (-1 <i>s.d.</i>)		0.02	0.01	[0.00, 0.06]
High-Low Difference		-0.01	0.02	[-0.08, 0.02]
Moderator variable		Path 2: Moral leadership → Participative safety → Turnover Intention		
Perceived support	organizational	Indirect effect		
		Coeff.	s.e.	95% CI
High Group (+1 <i>s.d.</i>)		-0.01	0.02	[-0.06, 0.03]
Low Group (-1 <i>s.d.</i>)		-0.03	0.02	[-0.07, 0.00]
High-Low Difference		0.01	0.03	[-0.03, 0.09]
Moderator variable		Path 3: Moral leadership → Communication quality → Job satisfaction		
Perceived support	organizational	Indirect effect		
		Coeff.	s.e.	95% CI
High Group (+1 <i>s.d.</i>)		0.05	0.03	[0.01, 0.12]
Low Group (-1 <i>s.d.</i>)		0.01	0.01	[-0.01, 0.04]
High-Low Difference		0.05	0.03	[0.00, 0.13]
Moderator variable		Path 4: Moral leadership → Communication quality → Turnover Intention		
Perceived support	organizational	Indirect effect		
		Coeff.	s.e.	95% CI
High Group (+1 <i>s.d.</i>)		-0.07	0.03	[-0.14, -0.02]
Low Group (-1 <i>s.d.</i>)		-0.01	0.01	[-0.04, 0.02]
High-Low Difference		-0.06	0.03	[-0.14, -0.01]

Notes: N = 345; Bootstrap = 1000.

Similarly, Hypothesis 12b posited that perceived organizational support moderates the indirect effect of participative safety on the relationship between moral leadership and turnover intention. As shown in Table 5.11, the indirect effects of participative safety were both nonsignificant under low and high level of perceived organizational support (Indirect effect (High level of perceived organizational support) = -0.01, s.e. = 0.02, 95% CI = [-0.06, 0.03];

Indirect effect (low) = -0.03, s.e. = 0.02, 95% CI = [-0.07, 0.00]). Meanwhile, the difference between these two estimates for the two indirect relationships was not significant (Difference (High level of perceived organizational support versus low level of perceived organizational support) = 0.01, s.e. = 0.03, 95% CI = [-0.03, 0.09], *ns*). Therefore, Hypothesis 12b was not supported.

Hypothesis 11b proposed that perceived organizational support moderates the positive relationship between moral leadership and communication quality. As shown in Table 5.10, the moderating test results show that the interaction term of moral leadership and perceived organizational support was significantly related to communication quality ($b = 0.08$, s.e. = 0.04, $p < 0.05$). Hypothesis 11b was supported.

To further describe the moderating role of perceived organizational support, we estimated the simple slopes and plotted the significant interactions at 1 SD above and below the mean for moderator (Aiken & West, 1991).

As shown in Figure 5.3, a significant simple slope for communication quality occurred under high level of perceived organizational support (b (High level of perceived organizational support) = 0.30, s.e. = 0.10, $p < 0.01$). Under low level of perceived organizational support, the simple slope became nonsignificant (b (Low level of perceived organizational support) = 0.04, s.e. = 0.06, $p > 0.05$, *ns*). Therefore, these results further demonstrated that Hypothesis 11b was supported.

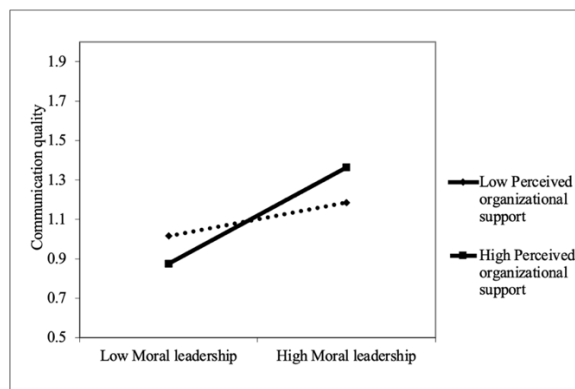


Figure 5.3 The moderating effect of perceived organizational support on the relationship between moral leadership and communication quality

Moreover, Hypothesis 13a posited that perceived organizational support moderates the indirect effect of communication quality on the relationship between moral leadership and job satisfaction. As shown in Table 5.11, the bootstrapping results show that the indirect effect of communication quality was significant under high level of perceived organizational support Indirect effect (High level of perceived organizational support) = 0.05, s.e. = 0.03, 95% CI =

[0.01, 0.12]). However, the indirect effect of communication quality became nonsignificant under low level of perceived organizational support under low level of perceived organizational support (Indirect effect (Low level of perceived organizational support) = 0.01, s.e. = 0.01, 95% CI = [-0.01, 0.04], *ns*). However, the difference between these two estimates for the two indirect relationships was significant (Difference (High level of perceived organizational support versus low level of perceived organizational support) = 0.05, s.e. = 0.03, 95% CI = [0.00, 0.13]). Hypothesis 13a was supported.

Similarly, Hypothesis 13b posited that perceived organizational support moderates the indirect effect of communication quality on the relationship between moral leadership and turnover intention. As shown in Table 5.11, the bootstrapping results show that the indirect effect of communication quality was significant under high level of perceived organizational support (Indirect effect (High level of perceived organizational support) = -0.07, s.e. = 0.03, 95% CI = [-0.14, -0.02]). However, the indirect effect of communication quality became nonsignificant under low level of perceived organizational support (Indirect effect (Low level of perceived organizational support) = -0.01, s.e. = 0.01, 95% CI = [-0.04, 0.02], *ns*). Overall, the difference between these two estimates for the two indirect relationships was significant (Difference (High level of perceived organizational support versus low level of perceived organizational support) = -0.06, s.e. = 0.03, 95% CI = [-0.14, -0.01]). Hypothesis 13b was supported.

5.6 Summary

This chapter mainly conducted an empirical examination of the theoretical model. The results of hypothesis testing are shown in Table 5.12.

Table 5.12 The results of hypotheses testing

Hypotheses	Results
The Mediation Effects	
H1: Participative safety mediates the relationship between paternalistic leadership and job satisfaction	—
➤ H1a: Participative safety mediates the negative impact of authoritarian leadership on job satisfaction	Supported
➤ H1b: Participative safety mediates the positive impact of benevolent leadership on job satisfaction	Supported
➤ H1c: Participative safety mediates the positive impact of moral leadership on job satisfaction.	Supported
H2: Participative safety mediates the relationship between paternalistic leadership and turnover intention	—
➤ H2a: Participative safety mediates the positive impact of authoritarian leadership on turnover intention	Supported

➤ H2b: Participative safety mediates the negative impact of benevolent leadership on turnover intention	Supported
➤ H2c: Participative safety mediates the negative impact of moral leadership on turnover intention.	Supported
H3: Communication quality mediates the relationship between paternalistic leadership and job satisfaction	—
➤ H3a: Communication quality mediates the negative impact of authoritarian leadership on job satisfaction	Supported
➤ H3b: Communication quality mediates the positive impact of benevolent leadership on job satisfaction	Supported
➤ H3c: Communication quality mediates the positive impact of moral leadership on job satisfaction	Supported
H4: Communication quality mediates the relationship between paternalistic leadership and turnover intention	—
➤ H4a: Communication quality mediates the positive impact of authoritarian leadership on turnover intention	Supported
➤ H4b: Communication quality mediates the negative impact of benevolent leadership on turnover intention	Supported
➤ H4c: Communication quality mediates the negative impact of moral leadership on turnover intention	Supported
The Moderating Effects	
H5a: Perceived organizational support moderates the negative impact of authoritarian leadership on participative safety. At the high level of perceived organizational support, the negative impact of authoritarian leadership on participative safety is weaker; conversely, at the low level of perceived organizational support, the negative impact of authoritarian leadership on participative safety is stronger	Not Supported
H5b: Perceived organizational support moderates the negative impact of authoritarian leadership on communication quality. At the high level of perceived organizational support, the negative impact of authoritarian leadership on communication quality is weaker; conversely, at the low level of perceived organizational support, the negative impact of authoritarian leadership on communication quality is stronger	Not Supported
H6a: Perceived organizational support moderates the mediating effect of participative safety in the relationship between authoritarian leadership and job satisfaction. At the high level of perceived organizational support, the negative impact of authoritarian leadership on job satisfaction through participative safety is weaker; at the low level of perceived organizational support, the negative impact of authoritarian leadership on job satisfaction through participative safety is stronger	Not Supported
H6b: Perceived organizational support moderates the mediating effect of participative safety in the relationship between authoritarian leadership and turnover intention. At the high level of perceived organizational support, the positive impact of authoritarian leadership on turnover intention through participative safety is weaker; at the low level of perceived organizational support, the positive impact of authoritarian leadership on turnover intention through participative safety is stronger	Not Supported
H7a: Perceived organizational support moderates the mediating effect of communication quality in the relationship between authoritarian leadership and job satisfaction. At the high level of perceived organizational support, the negative impact of authoritarian leadership on job satisfaction through communication quality is weaker; at the low level of perceived organizational support, the negative impact of authoritarian leadership on job satisfaction through communication quality is stronger	Not Supported
H7b: Perceived organizational support moderates the mediating effect of	Not

<p>communication quality in the relationship between authoritarian leadership and turnover intention. At the high level of perceived organizational support, the positive impact of authoritarian leadership on turnover intention through communication quality is weaker; at the low level of perceived organizational support, the positive impact of authoritarian leadership on turnover intention through communication quality is stronger</p>	Supported
<p>H8a: Perceived organizational support moderates the positive impact of benevolent leadership on participative safety. At the high level of perceived organizational support, the positive impact of benevolent leadership on participative safety is stronger; conversely, at the low level of perceived organizational support, the positive impact of benevolent leadership on participative safety is weaker</p>	Supported
<p>H8b: Perceived organizational support moderates the positive impact of benevolent leadership on communication quality. At the high level of perceived organizational support, the positive impact of benevolent leadership on communication quality is stronger; conversely, at the low level of perceived organizational support, the positive impact of benevolent leadership on communication quality is weaker</p>	Supported
<p>H9a: Perceived organizational support moderates the mediating effect of participative safety in the relationship between benevolent leadership and job satisfaction. At the high level of perceived organizational support, the positive impact of benevolent leadership on job satisfaction through participative safety is stronger; at the low level of perceived organizational support, the positive impact of benevolent leadership on job satisfaction through participative safety is weaker</p>	Supported
<p>H9b: Perceived organizational support moderates the mediating effect of participative safety in the relationship between benevolent leadership and turnover intention. At the high level of perceived organizational support, the negative impact of benevolent leadership on turnover intention through participative safety is stronger; at the low level of perceived organizational support, the negative impact of benevolent leadership on turnover intention through participative safety is weaker</p>	Supported
<p>H10a: Perceived organizational support moderates the mediating effect of communication quality in the relationship between benevolent leadership and job satisfaction. At the high level of perceived organizational support, the positive impact of benevolent leadership on job satisfaction through communication quality is stronger; at the low level of perceived organizational support, the positive impact of benevolent leadership on job satisfaction through communication quality is weaker</p>	Supported
<p>H10b: Perceived organizational support moderates the mediating effect of communication quality in the relationship between benevolent leadership and turnover intention. At the high level of perceived organizational support, the negative impact of benevolent leadership on turnover intention through communication quality is stronger; at the low level of perceived organizational support, the negative impact of benevolent leadership on turnover intention through communication quality is weaker</p>	Supported
<p>H11a: Perceived organizational support moderates the positive impact of moral leadership on participative safety. At the high level of perceived organizational support, the positive impact of moral leadership on participative safety is stronger; conversely, at the low level of perceived organizational support, the positive impact of moral leadership on participative safety is weaker</p>	Not Supported
<p>H11b: Perceived organizational support moderates the positive impact of moral leadership on communication quality. At the high level of perceived organizational support, the positive impact of moral leadership on communication quality is stronger; conversely, at the low level of perceived</p>	Supported

The Effects of Paternalistic Leadership on New Generation Employees' Job Satisfaction and Turnover Intention

organizational support, the positive impact of moral leadership on communication quality is weaker	
H12a: Perceived organizational support moderates the mediating effect of participative safety in the relationship between moral leadership and job satisfaction. At the high level of perceived organizational support, the positive impact of moral leadership on job satisfaction through participative safety is stronger; at the low level of perceived organizational support, the positive impact of moral leadership on job satisfaction through participative safety is weaker	Not Supported
H12b: Perceived organizational support moderates the mediating effect of participative safety in the relationship between moral leadership and turnover intention. At the high level of perceived organizational support, the negative impact of moral leadership on turnover intention through participative safety is stronger; at the low level of perceived organizational support, the negative impact of moral leadership on turnover intention through participative safety is weaker	Not Supported
H13a: Perceived organizational support moderates the mediating effect of communication quality in the relationship between moral leadership and job satisfaction. At the high level of perceived organizational support, the positive impact of moral leadership on job satisfaction through communication quality is stronger; at the low level of perceived organizational support, the positive impact of moral leadership on job satisfaction through communication quality is weaker	Supported
H13b: Perceived organizational support moderates the mediating effect of communication quality in the relationship between moral leadership and turnover intention. At the high level of perceived organizational support, the negative impact of moral leadership on turnover intention through communication quality is stronger; at the low level of perceived organizational support, the negative impact of moral leadership on turnover intention through communication quality is weaker	Supported

Chapter 6: Discussion and Conclusion

This chapter discusses the findings, theoretical contributions, and practical implications of this study based on the results of the previous empirical research.

In addition, this chapter also provides a detailed discussion of the research limitations of this study and the future directions. Based on social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), this study explores the influence mechanisms and boundary conditions of paternalistic leadership on employee job satisfaction, and paternalistic leadership on turnover intention. This study conducted a path analysis on three-wave time-lagged questionnaire data from 345 new generation employees in eight companies, testing a conceptual model that comprehends the mediating roles of participative safety and communication quality in the relationship between paternalistic leadership and employee job satisfaction, and the relationship between paternalistic leadership and turnover intention, and the moderating role of perceived organizational support. The empirical results are summarized and discussed in this study.

6.1 Authoritarian leadership and job satisfaction and turnover intention

This study examines the mediating role of participative safety in the relationship between authoritarian leadership and job satisfaction, and the relationship between authoritarian leadership and turnover intention. At the same time, this study examines the moderating role of perceived organizational support in the process of authoritarian leadership affecting employees job satisfaction and turnover intention.

6.1.1 The mediating role of participative safety

First of all, the empirical results show that after controlling for the potential effects of transformational leadership, employees' gender, age, education and tenure, authoritarian leadership is negatively and significantly related to employees' participative safety ($b = -0.23$, $s.e. = 0.07$, $p < 0.01$), participative safety is positively and significantly related to employees' job satisfaction ($b = 0.19$, $s.e. = 0.07$, $p < 0.01$). In addition, participative safety has a significant mediation effect in the relationship between authoritarian leadership and job satisfaction (mediation effect coefficient = -0.04 , $s.e. = 0.02$, $95\% CI = [-0.11, -0.01]$). Therefore, this study

supports Hypothesis 1a.

Consistent with the views of social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), the results show that in the process of social exchange with employees, authoritarian leaders control and oppress employees, such a series of destructive behaviors make the social exchange between leaders and employees unequal, and employees are unwilling to carry out equivalent social exchange with authoritarian leaders, and they are afraid to express their opinions on work issues and show low levels of participative safety (Khorakian et al., 2021; Nazir et al., 2021). As Cropanzano et al. (2017) argued, equality and reciprocity are the basis of social exchange between leaders and employees. When one party is in a strong position, the quality of social exchange will be significantly reduced. Consistent with the findings of Y. Zhang et al. (2015), authoritarian leadership buffers the willingness of employees to conduct social exchange with leaders, and employees are unwilling to boldly express their views and opinions in the organization. Thus, the participative safety is also decreasing. Furthermore, low level of participative safety will reduce employees' commitment and enthusiasm for work, and ultimately affect employees' job satisfaction.

Second, the empirical results show that after controlling for the potential effects of transformational leadership, employees' gender, age, education and tenure, participative safety is negatively and significantly related to employee turnover intention ($b = -0.22$, $s.e. = 0.07$, $p < 0.01$). In addition, participative safety has a significant mediation effect in the relationship between authoritarian leadership and turnover intention (mediation effect coefficient = 0.05, $s.e. = 0.02$, 95% CI = [0.01, 0.12]). Therefore, this study supports Hypothesis 2a.

Likewise, consistent with social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), the results of this study show that authoritarian leaders despise employees' ability and contribution in their work. This high-pressure management mode has a serious impact on the friendly and collaborative relationship between leaders and employees (J. C. Peng & Chen, 2022). In order to avoid their own interests being harmed by authoritarian leaders, employees may refuse to engage in effective social exchange with leaders, which reduces employees' participative safety. Further, due to the decline of participative safety, employees' work motivation may continue to decrease (Peltokorpi & Hasu, 2014), showing a higher level of turnover intention.

In summary, this study draws the following conclusion: authoritarian leadership will reduce employees' participative safety, and thus affect job satisfaction and turnover intention.

6.1.2 The mediating role of communication quality

This study also examines the mediating role of communication quality in the relationship

between authoritarian leadership and job satisfaction, and the relationship between authoritarian leadership and turnover intention.

First, the empirical results show that after controlling for the potential effects of transformational leadership, employees' gender, age, education and tenure, authoritarian leadership is negatively and significantly related to communication quality ($b = -0.24$, $s.e. = 0.05$, $p < 0.00$), communication quality is significantly and positively related to job satisfaction ($b = 0.17$, $s.e. = 0.08$, $p < 0.05$). In addition, communication quality has a significant mediation effect in the relationship between authoritarian leadership and job satisfaction (mediation effect coefficient = -0.04 , $s.e. = 0.02$, $95\% \text{ CI} = [-0.09, -0.01]$). Therefore, this study supports Hypothesis 3a.

According to the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), the communication between leaders and employees is the exchange of resources. In the process of social exchange between leaders and employees, resources are exchanged through the process of reciprocity. One party tends to repay the other party's good deeds. The communication quality is affected by the exchange parties and the exchange objectives (Cropanzano et al., 2017). Therefore, this study further provides the evidence to support social exchange theory through the influence of authoritarian leadership on communication quality. Specifically, the results of this study show that authoritarian leaders adopt oppressive management over their subordinates, and this powerful command and control makes employees feel dissatisfied and resistant (J. C. Peng & Chen, 2022; C. S. Wong et al., 2022). Thus, in the process of social exchange between authoritarian leaders and employees, employees may refuse to communicate effectively with the leaders, and transform the oppression of leaders into work pressure and occupational anxiety, thereby reducing job satisfaction.

Second, the empirical results show that after controlling for the potential effects of transformational leadership, employees' gender, age, education and tenure, communication quality is negatively and significantly related to turnover intention ($b = -0.22$, $s.e. = 0.06$, $p < 0.01$). In addition, communication quality has a significant mediation effect in the relationship between authoritarian leadership and turnover intention (mediation effect coefficient = 0.05 , $s.e. = 0.02$, $95\% \text{ CI} = [0.02, 0.09]$). Therefore, this study supports Hypothesis 4a.

Consistent with social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), the results of this study show that authoritarian leaders will strictly control their subordinates, the overall work style is relatively authoritarian, they will not authorize their subordinates and will not share information with subordinates (Luu & Djurkovic, 2019). In the process of social exchange with employees, authoritarian leaders tend to underestimate the work ability and contribution of their

subordinates, so as to maintain their own authority and image (Santis et al., 2021). Moreover, authoritarian leaders often instruct their subordinates, give them strong instructions and guide their behaviors. They want to force subordinates to form awe of them, requiring subordinates to unconditionally comply with their instructions and opinions (Bedi, 2020). Therefore, this kind of management style of authoritarian leadership can only establish a friendly and cooperative relationship when both leaders and subordinates agree. Otherwise, subordinates can only be forced to obey, instead of playing a positive role, specifically manifested as low communication quality, which will further improve employees' turnover intention.

In summary, this study draws the following conclusions: authoritarian leadership will reduce employees' communication quality, and thus affect job satisfaction and turnover intention.

6.1.3 The moderating role of perceived organizational support

In Hypothesis 5a, this study proposes that perceived organizational support moderates the negative impact of authoritarian leadership on participative safety. However, the empirical results of this study show that the interaction of perceived organizational support and authoritarian leadership is not significantly related to participative safety ($b = 0.02$, $s.e. = 0.04$, $p > 0.05$). Hypothesis 5a is not supported. Moreover, this study proposes in Hypothesis 6a and Hypothesis 6b that perceived organizational support moderates the mediating role of participative safety in the relationship between authoritarian leadership and job satisfaction, and the relationship between authoritarian leadership and turnover intention. However, the empirical results of this study did not support Hypothesis 6a and Hypothesis 6b.

In Hypothesis 5b, this study proposes that perceived organizational support moderates the negative impact of authoritarian leadership on communication quality. However, the empirical results of this study show that the interaction of organizational support and authoritarian leadership is not significantly related to communication quality ($b = -0.03$, $s.e. = 0.03$, $p > 0.05$). Hypothesis 5b is not supported. Moreover, in Hypothesis 7a and 7b, this study proposes that perceived organizational support moderates the mediating role of communication quality in the relationship between authoritarian leadership and job satisfaction, and the relationship between authoritarian leadership and turnover intention. However, the empirical results of this study did not support hypothesis 7a and hypothesis 7b.

This study believes that perceived organizational support represents the employees' comprehensive perception of how the organization evaluates its contributions and whether the organization pays attention to its welfare. According to the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964),

when employees have a high level of perceived organizational support, they will repay the organization through their own efforts, and perform better in their work. Therefore, the perceived organizational support requires that the organization must give adequate support to the contributions of employees, pay attention to the well-being of employees, and care about the employees in an all-round way. However, authoritarian leaders emphasize that their authority is absolute and unchallengeable, and require their subordinates to obey without reservation, which may cause their subordinates to be rebellious, passive and slack, and undermine their social exchange with employees. In addition, the new generation of employees have distinctive personality characteristics, they will never compromise, and will not allow others to deny or disapprove of themselves without foundation. These characteristics make them show a higher power distance under the authoritarian leadership, and hold negative expectations for the results of voice, resulting in their reluctance to fully express their different views. In other words, the destructive role of authoritarian leaders may make the new generation of employees refuse to participate in social exchange with authoritarian leaders. Thus, even if employees feel strong organizational support, they cannot mitigate the destructive effect of authoritarian leadership. Therefore, the empirical results of this study do not support the moderating role of organizational support in the relationship between authoritarian leadership and participative safety, and between authoritarian leadership and communication quality.

6.2 Benevolent leadership and job satisfaction and turnover intention

This study examines the mediating role of participative safety in the relationship between benevolent leadership and job satisfaction, and the relationship between benevolent leadership and turnover intention. At the same time, this study examines the moderating role of perceived organizational support in the process of benevolent leadership affecting employees job satisfaction and turnover intention.

6.2.1 The mediating role of participative safety

First of all, the empirical results show that after controlling for the potential effects of transformational leadership, employees' gender, age, education and tenure, benevolent leadership is positively and significantly related to employees' participative safety ($b = 0.22$, $s.e. = 0.04$, $p < 0.00$), participative safety is positively and significantly related to employees' job satisfaction ($b = 0.20$, $s.e. = 0.07$, $p < 0.01$). In addition, participative safety has a significant mediation effect in the relationship between benevolent leadership and job satisfaction

(mediation effect coefficient = 0.04, s.e. = 0.02, 95% CI = [0.01, 0.08]). Therefore, this study supports Hypothesis 1b.

The results of this study show that benevolent leaders care for their subordinates and provide help for employees in work and life (Zahide et al., 2019). Social exchange theory suggests that (Blau, 1964), when one party favors another, the beneficiary will feel obliged to return the favor to the benefactor in the future, no matter how it is manifested. It is precisely because of this reciprocal psychology that employees are more willing to use proactive work behaviors to reward leaders, such as actively proposing ideas that benefit the organization (Cropanzano et al., 2017). As Pellegrini and Scandura (2009) argued, the benefits of benevolent leadership on employees go beyond the work domain, showing concern for employees and their families. Therefore, employees will be grateful and work harder to repay leaders. Then, in the whole process of social exchange, the employee's participative safety will bring a higher level of job satisfaction due to the continuous improvement of benevolent leadership.

Second, the empirical results show that after controlling for the potential effects of transformational leadership, employees' gender, age, education and tenure, participative safety is negatively and significantly related to employee turnover intention ($b = -0.18$, s.e. = 0.07, $p < 0.05$). In addition, participative safety has a significant mediation effect in the relationship between authoritarian leadership and job satisfaction (mediation effect coefficient = -0.04, s.e. = 0.02, 95% CI = [-0.08, -0.01]). Therefore, this study supports Hypothesis 2b.

Similarly, consistent with the views of social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), the results of this study show that benevolent leaders tend to use their limited resources to exchange more resources for subordinates, thus establishing closer ties with employees (Zahide et al., 2019). Then, employees will also take the initiative to repay the leadership's care with enthusiastic work attitude and diligent work methods. Moreover, when employees make mistakes, benevolent leaders will express stronger empathy and tolerate employees' faults (Zahide et al., 2019). Therefore, employees will feel a higher level of participative safety in the process of social exchange with benevolent leaders, thus reducing the tendency to leave the organization.

In summary, this study draws the following conclusions: benevolent leadership will improve employees' participative safety, and thus affect job satisfaction and turnover intention.

6.2.2 The mediating role of communication quality

This study also examines the mediating role of communication quality in the relationship between benevolent leadership and job satisfaction, and the relationship between benevolent leadership and turnover intention.

First, the empirical results show that after controlling for the potential effects of transformational leadership, employees' gender, age, education and tenure, benevolent leadership is positively and significantly related to communication quality ($b = 0.12$, $s.e. = 0.05$, $p < 0.05$), communication quality is significantly and positively related to job satisfaction ($b = 0.19$, $s.e. = 0.07$, $p < 0.01$). In addition, communication quality has a significant mediation effect in the relationship between benevolent leadership and job satisfaction (mediation effect coefficient = 0.02, $s.e. = 0.01$, 95% CI = [0.00, 0.06]). Therefore, this study supports Hypothesis 3b.

Consistent with social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), the results of this study show that benevolent leadership is regarded by employees as a positive, plastic, highly respected leadership (Nazir et al., 2021). As J. C. Peng and Chen (2022) argued, benevolent leaders not only help employees solve their work difficulties, but also help them in personal emergencies. Employees are willing to discuss the difficulties in work with leaders and seek their help. Then, the communication quality between employees and leaders will continue to improve. Therefore, this study reveals that in the process of social exchange between benevolent leaders and employees, employees will be willing to communicate effectively with benevolent leaders and actively discuss work related issues (J. C. Peng & Chen, 2022; C. S. Wong et al., 2022). At the same time, employees will perceive more work resources, and thus showing higher job satisfaction.

Second, the empirical results show that after controlling for the potential effects of transformational leadership, employees' gender, age, education and tenure, communication quality is negatively and significantly related to turnover intention ($b = -0.22$, $s.e. = 0.06$, $p < 0.00$). In addition, communication quality has a significant mediation effect in the relationship between benevolent leadership and turnover intention (mediation effect coefficient = -0.03, $s.e. = 0.01$, 95% CI = [-0.06, -0.01]). Therefore, this study supports Hypothesis 4b.

Consistent with the views of social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), the results of this study show that benevolent leaders regard caring for employees as the leader's internal obligation. They are committed to creating a "big family" atmosphere in the company, thinking about the well-being of employees, and even caring for their families (J. C. Peng & Chen, 2022; C. S. Wong et al., 2022). Therefore, under the influence of benevolent leaders, the communication between employees and leaders becomes efficient and smooth. In order to repay the benevolent leaders, employees will give up the idea of leaving the organization.

In summary, this study draws the following conclusions: benevolent leadership will improve employees' communication quality, and thus affect job satisfaction and turnover

intention.

6.2.3 The moderating role of perceived organizational support

In hypothesis 8a, this study proposes that perceived organizational support moderates the positive impact of benevolent leadership on participative safety. The empirical results of this study show that the interaction of perceived organizational support and benevolent leadership is significantly and positively related to participative safety ($b = 0.07$, $s.e. = 0.02$, $p < 0.01$). Hypothesis 8a is supported. Moreover, in Hypothesis 9a and 9b, this study propose that perceived organizational support moderates the mediating role of participative safety in the relationship between benevolent leadership and job satisfaction, and between benevolent leadership and turnover intention. The empirical results show that both hypothesis 9a and hypothesis 9b are supported.

Consistent with the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), the results of this study show that when employees feel the concern, respect and recognition from the organization, their internal incentive mechanism will be triggered, thus being encouraged and motivated, and further strengthen the understanding of organizational goals (Siddiqi & Ahmed, 2016). Specifically, benevolent leaders pay attention to employees' needs and provide them with adequate support, including working environment, salary, and daily life (J. C. Peng & Chen, 2022; C. S. Wong et al., 2022). For employees with a high level of perceived organizational support, they have received dual care from leaders and organizations, and they will show higher participative safety, such as actively expressing work opinions (Marchand & Vandenberghe, 2016). Furthermore, employees with a high level of perceived organizational support will show higher levels of job satisfaction and lower levels of turnover intention.

In hypothesis 8b, this study proposes that perceived organizational support moderates the positive impact of benevolent leadership on communication quality. The empirical results of this study show that the interaction of perceived organizational support and benevolent leadership is significantly and positively related to communication quality ($b = 0.09$, $s.e. = 0.03$, $p < 0.05$). Hypothesis 8b is supported. Moreover, in Hypothesis 10a and 10b, this study propose that perceived organizational support moderates the mediating role of communication quality in the relationship between benevolent leadership and job satisfaction, and between benevolent leadership and turnover intention. The empirical results show that both hypothesis 10a and hypothesis 10b are supported.

Consistent with the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), the results of this study show that perceived organizational support can strengthen the emotional connection between employees

and organizations, help benevolent leaders establish emotional ties with employees, and thus enhance the positive impact of benevolent leaders on employees (X. Wang et al., 2021). Specifically, employees who perceive higher organizational support tend to have a sense of responsibility for the organization, which increases their participation in organizational activities (Marchand & Vandenberghe, 2016). Then, employees with a high level of perceived organizational support will take the initiative to communicate with benevolent leaders on work issues. Employees are willing to pursue organizational goals and expect to stay in the organization.

In summary, this study draws the following conclusions: perceived organizational support magnifies the positive impact of benevolent leadership on participative safety and communication quality. Moreover, perceived organizational support also moderates the mediating role of participative safety and communication quality in the relationship between benevolent leadership and job satisfaction, and between benevolent leadership and turnover intention.

6.3 Moral leadership and job satisfaction and turnover intention

This study examines the mediating role of participative safety in the relationship between moral leadership and job satisfaction, and the relationship between benevolent leadership and turnover intention. At the same time, this study examines the moderating role of perceived organizational support in the process of moral leadership affecting employees job satisfaction and turnover intention.

6.3.1 The mediating role of participative safety

First of all, the empirical results show that after controlling for the potential effects of transformational leadership, employees' gender, age, education and tenure, moral leadership is positively and significantly related to employees' participative safety ($b = 0.11$, $s.e. = 0.04$, $p < 0.01$), participative safety is positively and significantly related to employees' job satisfaction ($b = 0.20$, $s.e. = 0.07$, $p < 0.01$). In addition, participative safety has a significant mediation effect in the relationship between moral leadership and job satisfaction (mediation effect coefficient = 0.02, $s.e. = 0.01$, 95% CI = [0.01, 0.05]). CI = [0.01, 0.08]). Therefore, this study supports Hypothesis 1c.

Consistent with the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), the results of this study show that moral leaders have a high moral quality, set a moral example for employees, and affect

employees' attitudes and behaviors in terms of language and psychology. For employees, in the face of moral leaders, they will think that even if they make mistakes in the process of making suggestions, leaders will treat them fairly and will not punish them (J. C. Peng & Chen, 2022; C. S. Wong et al., 2022). Furthermore, unlike benevolent leadership, moral leadership manages subordinates with ethical standard and establishes its own authority with moral behaviors. With the impacts of moral leadership, employees will more respect with leaders and be willing to discuss work issues with leaders, and boldly express their views (J. C. Peng & Chen, 2022; C. S. Wong et al., 2022). Therefore, moral leaders will significantly improve employees' participative safety, thus having a positive impact on job satisfaction.

Second, the empirical results show that after controlling for the potential effects of transformational leadership, employees' gender, age, education and tenure, participative safety is negatively and significantly related to employee turnover intention ($b = -0.25$, $s.e. = 0.07$, $p < 0.01$). In addition, participative safety has a significant mediation effect in the relationship between moral leadership and job satisfaction (mediation effect coefficient = -0.03 , $s.e. = 0.01$, $95\% CI = [-0.06, -0.01]$). Therefore, this study supports Hypothesis 2c.

Similarly, consistent with the view of social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), moral leaders attach importance to fairness, timely fulfill the commitments agreed with employees, and negotiate with employees impartially and openly (J. C. Peng & Chen, 2022; C. S. Wong et al., 2022). For employees, social exchange with moral leaders is safe, thus weakening employees' turnover intention.

In summary, this study draws the following conclusions: moral leadership will improve employees' participative safety, and thus affect job satisfaction and turnover intention.

6.3.2 The mediating role of communication quality

This study also examines the mediating role of communication quality in the relationship between moral leadership and job satisfaction, and the relationship between moral leadership and turnover intention.

First, the empirical results show that after controlling for the potential effects of transformational leadership, employees' gender, age, education and tenure, moral leadership is positively and significantly related to communication quality ($b = 0.14$, $s.e. = 0.05$, $p < 0.05$), communication quality is significantly and positively related to job satisfaction ($b = 0.17$, $s.e. = 0.08$, $p < 0.05$). In addition, communication quality has a significant mediation effect in the relationship between moral leadership and job satisfaction (mediation effect coefficient = 0.02 , $s.e. = 0.01$, $95\% CI = [0.01, 0.06]$). Therefore, this study supports Hypothesis 3c.

Consistent with social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), the results of this study show that moral leaders attach importance to morality, fairness and justice. In the process of social exchange with employees, moral leaders will guide employees to have positive cognition and attitude (J. C. Peng & Chen, 2022; C. S. Wong et al., 2022). Specifically, moral leadership makes employees feel trust and recognition, and employees will take the initiative to communicate effectively with leaders. Furthermore, employees will also increase their job satisfaction due to high-quality communication.

Second, the empirical results show that after controlling for the potential effects of transformational leadership, employees' gender, age, education and tenure, communication quality is negatively and significantly related to turnover intention ($b = -0.24$, $s.e. = 0.06$, $p < 0.0$). In addition, communication quality has a significant mediation effect in the relationship between moral leadership and turnover intention (mediation effect coefficient = -0.03 , $s.e. = 0.01$, $95\% CI = [-0.07, -0.01]$). Therefore, this study supports Hypothesis 4c.

Consistent with the views of social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), the results of this study show that moral leaders have a high moral pursuit, and shape their subordinates' attitudes and behaviors through example and norms (J. C. Peng & Chen, 2022; C. S. Wong et al., 2022). In the opinion of employees, the moral leadership is fair and trustworthy (Zhao et al., 2020), and they are willing to have high-quality communication with the moral leaders, thus strengthening their idea of staying in the organization.

In summary, this study draws the following conclusions: moral leadership will improve employees' communication quality, and thus affect job satisfaction and turnover intention.

6.3.3 The moderating role of perceived organizational support

In hypothesis 11a, this study proposes that perceived organizational support moderates the positive impact of moral leadership on participative safety. However, the empirical results of this study show that the interaction of perceived organizational support and moral leadership is not significantly related to participative safety ($b = -0.01$, $s.e. = 0.03$, $p > 0.05$). Hypothesis 11a is not supported. Moreover, this study proposes in Hypothesis 12a and Hypothesis 12b that perceived organizational support moderates the mediating role of participative safety in the relationship between moral leadership and job satisfaction, and the relationship between moral leadership and turnover intention. However, the empirical results show that Hypothesis 12a and Hypothesis 12b are not supported. This study believes that the positive role of moral leadership is reflected in the following aspect: moral leaders can set an example for employees. In addition, moral leaders are fair and treat subordinates equally. Therefore, no matter how high or low the

employees' perceived organizational support is, moral leaders can treat them equally (Zhao et al., 2020), which shows that there is no difference in the positive impact of moral leadership on employees. Therefore, perceived organizational support does not play a moderating role between moral leadership and participative safety.

In Hypothesis 11b, this study proposes that perceived organizational support moderates the positive impact of moral leadership on communication quality. The empirical results of this study show that the interaction of perceived organizational support and moral leadership is significantly and positively related to communication quality ($b = 0.08$, $s.e. = 0.04$, $p < 0.05$). Hypothesis 11b is supported. Moreover, in Hypothesis 13a and 13b, this study proposes that perceived organizational support moderates the mediating role of communication quality in the relationship between moral leadership and job satisfaction, and the relationship between moral leadership and turnover intention. The empirical results of this study show that both Hypothesis 13a and Hypothesis 13b are supported.

Consistent with the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), the results show that employees with a high level of perceived organizational support have established a good communication mechanism with the moral leaders, and they can effectively communicate with moral leaders, which help them to better understand the decision-making and development planning of the organization (Zhao et al., 2020). Therefore, perceived organizational support strengthens the positive impact of moral leadership on communication quality, and also moderates the mediating role of communication quality in the relationship between moral leadership and job satisfaction, and the relationship between moral leadership and turnover intention.

6.4 Theoretical implications

This study provides theoretical contributions to research on social exchange theory, paternalistic leadership, participative safety, communication quality, job satisfaction, turnover propensity, and perceived organizational support. The theoretical implications are reflected in four aspects as follows.

First of all, based on the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), this study reveals the influence mechanism of paternalistic leadership on employee job satisfaction from the perspectives of employee participative safety and communication quality. As a traditional leadership style, paternalistic leadership has always been highly concerned by Chinese scholars (Khorakian et al., 2021; Nazir et al., 2021), however, previous studies mainly explored the impact of paternalistic leadership on employees' work attitude and characteristics (such as work

family conflict, work engagement and job burnout), psychological outcomes (such as psychological capital and loneliness), behavior (such as voice and innovative behavior) and performance (Chang et al., 2019; Cheng et al., 2014; Cheng et al., 2004; Ertureten et al., 2013; Oge et al., 2018; Sungur et al., 2019), lacking of attention to employee job satisfaction. This study not only makes up for the lack of empirical research in this field, but further deepens the theoretical understanding of the relationship between the two. Specifically, previous studies have shown that paternalistic leadership affects employee job satisfaction through organizational commitment (Shi et al., 2020; Walumbwa et al., 2005). From the perspective of social exchange theory, this study corroborates the proposal that participative safety and communication quality are important factors affecting the social exchange between paternalistic leadership and employees (Appel et al., 2012; N. C. Jin et al., 2014; Peltokorpi & Hasu, 2014). This conclusion not only enriches the research on the mechanism of paternalistic leadership on employee job satisfaction, but expands the research on the antecedents of job satisfaction, further deepening our understanding of the theory of social exchange.

Second, based on the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), this study reveals the influence mechanism of paternalistic leadership on employee turnover intention from the perspectives of employee participative safety and communication quality. Because of the multi-dimensional characteristics of paternalistic leadership (Zhao et al., 2020), few studies have explored the relationship between paternalistic leadership and turnover intention. Moreover, existing research have limited understanding of the influence mechanism of paternalistic leadership on employee turnover intention. Based on the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), this study links paternalistic leadership and turnover intention from the perspective of leader-employee interaction, through the two important mediating variables of participative safety and communication quality (Appel et al., 2012; N. C. Jin et al., 2014; Peltokorpi & Hasu, 2014). The research conclusion not only enriches the research on the mechanism of paternalistic leadership on employee turnover intention, but expands the research on the antecedents of turnover intention, and further deepens our understanding of social exchange theory.

Third, based on the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), this study explores the moderating role of perceived organizational support in the process of social exchange between paternalistic leadership and employees. Previous studies have shown that the leadership effectiveness of paternalistic leadership is affected by human resource management practices (Jia et al., 2020) and power distance (L. Chen & Appienti, 2020). This study introduces perceived organizational support (Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011) as a situational variable, and proposes that perceived organizational support can strengthen the positive role of paternalistic leadership and

weaken its negative role. This conclusion not only has a positive theoretical contribution to deepening the research on paternalistic leadership effectiveness based on contingency thinking, but expands the boundary conditions that paternalistic leadership affects employees' work results, and further enriches the connotation of social exchange theory.

Finally, the research sample of this study has a certain degree of innovation. In the Internet era, the new generation of employees has entered the workplace. Therefore, in order to exert higher leadership effectiveness, leaders need to fully understand the characteristics of the new generation of knowledge workers, and thus accurately predict the work attitude and behavior of this group (Wei & Tao, 2018). This study takes the new-generation employees as the research sample, and supports the influence mechanism and boundary conditions of paternalistic leadership on the job satisfaction and turnover intention of them. The conclusions have important reference value and significance for enterprises to manage the new generation of employees, improve their work enthusiasm and reduce the turnover rate.

6.5 Practical implications

This research has four practical implications as follows:

First of all, this study proves that authoritarian leadership can reduce employees' job satisfaction and improve their turnover intention. On the contrary, benevolent leadership and moral leadership can improve job satisfaction and reduce turnover intention. Therefore, for organizations, they should pay attention to the training and education for leaders, pay attention to the management of the three dimensions of paternalistic leadership, and guide leaders to show more benevolent and moral leadership, and less authoritarian leadership (Shen et al., 2020; Wan et al., 2020). As far as leaders are concerned, they should improve their personal moral qualities while offering kindness, set an example, recognize the role of their own moral qualities in driving employees, and consciously strengthen their own image in the minds of subordinates (Bedi, 2020; Jia et al., 2020).

Second, this study demonstrates the mediating role of participative safety and communication quality in the relationship between paternalistic leadership and employee job satisfaction, and the relationship between paternalistic leadership and turnover intention. Therefore, on the one hand, organizations should consciously improve employee participative safety in order to maximize employee motivation and reduce turnover (N. C. Jin et al., 2014; Peltokorpi & Hasu, 2014). Specifically, the organization needs to make every employee feel that they have a high professional status within the organization, thus improve the employee's

participative safety from the level of personal factors; moreover, the organization should also establish an interpersonal relationship based on trust and support atmosphere, thus increase their sense of belonging and trust in the organization, and then enhances the participative safety of employees. On the other hand, organizations should pay attention to the important role of communication quality in the process of leader-employee social exchange (Frone & Major, 2009; Holzwarth et al., 2021). Specifically, the organization can develop a communication feedback strategy, establish a communication mechanism for leaders and employees with mutual respect and trust, strengthen the interaction and communication between leaders and employees, enhance mutual trust and understanding, and then improve the quality of communication.

Finally, this study proves that the perceived organizational support can enhance the positive role of benevolent leadership and moral leadership. Therefore, organizations should pay attention to improving employees' perceived organizational support. Specifically, organizations can improve employees' perceived organizational support through the following three measures. First, when designing and implementing various human resources measures, the organization should actively show its positive evaluation of employees' contributions and concern for employees' welfare, and provide all-round work support from the material and spiritual aspects (Tremblay et al., 2019). Second, the organization should pay attention to procedural fairness in the organization, formulate open and fair performance appraisal, salary increase, and promotion systems, and give employees more support by giving performance rewards and expanding authorization (Zumrah & Boyle, 2015). Finally, the organization should give employees a high degree of autonomy in their work, strengthen employee training and give employees more room for development, so as to reflect the organization's trust and affirmation of employees (K. Y. Kim et al., 2016).

6.6 Limitations and future research

Since the paternalistic leadership was proposed, scholars have conducted a lot of academic research and achieved fruitful results (Khorakian et al., 2021; Nazir et al., 2021; J. C. Peng & Chen, 2022; Wan et al., 2020; C. S. Wong et al., 2022). This study is a beneficial supplement to the research on localized leadership behavior theory, and has important guiding significance for enterprise management practice. However, due to the limitation of research energy and time, there are inevitably some limitations. The following will point out the shortcomings of this research and the direction of further improvement.

First, although this study explores the mediating role of participative safety and communication quality from the perspective of social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), future research should attempt to explore the internal mechanism between paternalistic leadership and employee job satisfaction, paternalistic leadership and employee turnover intention from multiple perspectives. In recent years, social identity theory has gradually attracted attention in the research of explaining employees' job satisfaction and turnover intention (Cassar et al., 2017). Therefore, future research can try to explore the relationship between paternalistic leadership and employee job satisfaction and turnover intention from the perspective of individual/organizational identity (Roeck et al., 2016), so as to further enrich the research on the consequences and mechanism of paternalistic leadership.

Second, based on the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), this study explores the moderating role of organizational support. However, leadership effectiveness will also change with other individual characteristics and team characteristics (Scandura, 2017). Future research can try to explore the moderating role of individual characteristics, such as self-efficacy (Hartog & Belschak, 2015), team characteristics, such as team goal orientation (Hirst et al., 2009) in the relationship between paternalistic leadership and employee work results.

Third, the questionnaires in this study are all completed by employees, which brings about the problem of common method variance (Podsakoff et al., 2003). During the design and investigation of the questionnaire, this study took some measures to control endogeneity error, and tested the significance of the impact of the common method variance. However, future research may consider using multiple data sources, or design follow-up studies to collect longitudinal data to conduct a more rigorous test of the causal relationship of the research questions, so as to improve the validity of the research.

Finally, the current research mainly focuses on the effectiveness of paternalistic leadership in the context of Chinese enterprises, and there are relatively few cross-cultural studies. In future research, it is necessary to strengthen cross-cultural comparative research and explore the effectiveness of paternalistic leadership on employees' work outcomes in Western corporate settings, so as to compare with the research conclusions of this research and understand the impact of cultural differences on leadership effectiveness.

6.7 Summary

This chapter mainly summarizes and discusses the results of the study, and discusses the theoretical contributions, providing some practical inspiration for paternalistic leadership on

how to manage the new generation of employees. Finally, it introduces the limitations of this study and the prospects for future research.

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Annex A

Your basic information (Please this is only for statistical purposes.)	
● Gender	Please tick Male (0) or Female (1):
● Age	Please write your age in years and months in the boxes: _____ Years _____ Month
● Education Level	Please tick your educational level: _____ 1. Below college degree 2. College degree 3. bachelor's degree 4. master's degree or above
● Organizational Tenure	Please write how many years have you worked in this organization: _____ Years _____ Month

Measurement: Paternalistic Leadership (Time 1)							
Please tick (√) the most appropriate that best describe your supervisor.							
1. Strongly Disagree 2. Disagree 3. Somewhat Disagree 4. Somewhat Agree 5. Agree 6. Strongly Agree							
● Authoritarianism		-	-	-	-	-	-
My supervisor...		-	-	-	-	-	-
1	appears to be intimidating in front of his/her subordinates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	brings me a lot of pressure when we work together.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	very strict with his/her subordinates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	scolds me when I fail expected target.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	disciplines me for violation of his/her principles.	1	2	3	4	5	6
● Benevolence		-	-	-	-	-	-
My supervisor...		-	-	-	-	-	-
6	often shows his/her concern about me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	understands my preference enough to accommodate my personal requests.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	encourages me when I encounter difficulties in work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	would try to understand the real cause of my unsatisfied performance.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	trains and coaches me when I lack required abilities at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
● Moral Character		-	-	-	-	-	-
My supervisor...		-	-	-	-	-	-
11	is responsible on the job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	takes responsibility on job and never shirks his/her duty.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	sets an example to me in all aspects.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	is well self-disciplined before demanding upon others.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	leads, rather than follows, subordinates to deal with difficult tasks.	1	2	3	4	5	6

The Effects of Paternalistic Leadership on New Generation Employees' Job Satisfaction and Turnover Intention

Measurement: Transformational Leadership (Time 1)							
Please tick (✓) the most appropriate that best describe your supervisor.							
1. Strongly Disagree 2. Disagree 3. Somewhat Disagree 4. Somewhat Agree 5. Agree 6. Strongly Agree							
● Core Transformational Leadership Behavior							
My supervisor...							
1	articulates a vision.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	provides an appropriate model.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	facilitates the acceptance of group goals.	1	2	3	4	5	6
● Performance Expectations							
My supervisor...							
4	makes it clear that he/she expects a lot from us all of the time.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	insists on only the best performance.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	will not settle for second best.	1	2	3	4	5	6
● Individual Consideration							
My supervisor...							
7	acts with considering my feelings.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	shows respect for my personal feelings.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	treats me with considering my personal feelings.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	considers my personal feelings before acting.	1	2	3	4	5	6
● Intellectual Stimulation							
My supervisor...							
11	challenges me to think about old problems in new ways.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	asks questions that prompt me to think about the way I do things.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	has stimulated me to rethink the way I do things.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	has ideas that have challenged me to reexamine some of my basic assumptions about my work.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Measurement: Perceived Organizational Support (Time 1)							
Please tick (✓) the most appropriate that best describe the organization you work for.							
1. Strongly Disagree 2. Disagree 3. Somewhat Disagree 4. Somewhat Agree 5. Agree 6. Strongly Agree							
1	The organization strongly considers my goals and values.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	Help is available from the organization when I have a problem.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	The organization really cares about my well-being.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	The organization would forgive an honest mistake on my part.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	The organization is willing to help me when I need a special favor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	If given the opportunity, the organization would take advantage of me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	The organization shows very little concern for me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	The organization cares about my opinions.	1	2	3	4	5	6

The Effects of Paternalistic Leadership on New Generation Employees' Job Satisfaction and Turnover Intention

Measurement: Participative Safety (Time 2) Please tick (√) the most appropriate that best describe you. 1. Strongly Disagree 2. Disagree 3. Somewhat Disagree 4. Somewhat Agree 5. Agree 6. Strongly Agree							
1	I have a 'we are together' attitude in the company.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	I keep each other informed about work-related issues.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	I feel understood and accepted by each other	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	I will show real attempts to share information throughout the team.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Measurement: Communication Quality (Time 2) Please tick (√) the most appropriate that best describe you. 1. Strongly Disagree 2. Disagree 3. Somewhat Disagree 4. Somewhat Agree 5. Agree 6. Strongly Agree							
1	The communication between supervisor and me is clear.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	The communication between supervisor and me is effective.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	The communication between supervisor and me is complete.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	The communication between supervisor and me is fluent.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	The communication between supervisor and me is always on time.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Measurement: Job Satisfaction (Time 3) Please tick (√) the most appropriate that best describe you. 1. Strongly Disagree 2. Disagree 3. Somewhat Disagree 4. Somewhat Agree 5. Agree 6. Strongly Agree							
1	I am strongly satisfied with the progress I am making toward the goals I set for myself in my present position.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	I am strongly satisfied with my present job in light of my career expectations.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	I am strongly satisfied with my present job when I compare it to jobs in other organizations.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	I am strongly satisfied with the chance my job gives I to do what I am best at.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	I am strongly satisfied with my present job when I consider the expectations I had when I took the job.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Measurement: Turnover Intention (Time 3) Please tick (√) the most appropriate that best describe you. 1. Strongly Disagree 2. Disagree 3. Somewhat Disagree 4. Somewhat Agree 5. Agree 6. Strongly Agree							
1	I am thinking about leaving this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	I am planning to look for a new job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	I intend to ask people about new job opportunities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	I do not plan to be in this organization much longer.	1	2	3	4	5	6