

©Copyright [2012]
[Ting-Ju Chiang]

Two Faces of a Control Freak:
Decomposing Authoritarian Leadership and its Effects on Work Unit Effectiveness

Ting-Ju Chiang

A Dissertation

Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

University Of Washington

2012

Reading Committee:

Xiao-Ping Chen, Chair

Bruce J. Avolio

Terence Mitchell

Program Authorized to Offer Degree:

Business Administration

ABSTRACT

Two Faces of a Control Freak:

Decomposing Authoritarian Leadership and its Effects on Work Unit Effectiveness

Ting-Ju Chiang

Chair of the Supervisory Committee:
Professor Xiao-Ping Chen
Department of Management and Organization
Michael G. Foster School of Business

Decomposing authoritarian leadership into two essential elements – authoritarian decision making and authoritarian decision implementation, this dissertation focuses on disentangling the relationship between authoritarian leadership and work unit effectiveness, the relationship that has confused leadership researchers for decades. Surveys from 376 employees of 114 work units in a Chinese Fast Moving Consumer Goods company show four important findings. First, authoritarian decision making and authoritarian decision implementation are theoretically and empirically two distinct constructs. Second, leader authoritarian decision making interacts with both leader authoritarian decision implementation and leader competence to affect work unit decision quality. Moreover, leader authoritarian decision implementation partially moderates the relationship between work unit decision quality and work unit effectiveness. Finally, leader authoritarian decision making has an indirect effect on work unit effectiveness through its impact on work unit decision quality only when leader authoritarian decision implementation is low. The theoretical and empirical implications of these findings are discussed in the organizational context.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES	ii
LIST OF TABLES	iii
CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION.....	1
CHAPTER II: THEORIES AND HYPOTHESES	4
Literature Review on Authoritarian Leadership	4
Defining Authoritarian Leadership	7
Authoritarian Leaders and Work Unit Decision Quality.....	11
The Direct Effects of Work Unit Decision Quality on Work Unit Effectiveness	17
The Moderating Effect of Leader Authoritarian Decision Implementation on the Relationship between Work Unit Decision Quality and Work Unit Effectiveness	21
Authoritarian Leader, Work Unit Decision Quality, and Work Unit Effectiveness	24
CHAPTER III: METHODS	28
Sample and Procedure.....	28
Measures	30
Aggregation Check	33
Data Analyses Strategies.....	36
CHAPTER IV: RESULTS	39
Descriptive Statistics.....	39
Confirmatory Factor Analysis.....	41
The Interactive Effects among Leader Authoritarian Decision Making, Leader Authoritarian Decision Implementation, and Leader Competence on Work Unit Decision Quality	41
The Direct Effects of Work Unit Decision Quality on Work Unit Effectiveness	43
Results from Edwards and Lambert’s General Analytical Framework	48
CHAPTER V: DISCUSSION	62
Theoretical Contribution.....	64
Four Types of Leaders Based on the Different Authoritarianism Levels.....	66
Limitations and Future Directions	70
Conclusion	72
REFERENCES	74

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURE 1. Research Model of Authoritarian Leadership and its Impact on Work Unit Effectiveness	27
FIGURE 2. Plots of the Two-Way Interactive Effects on Work Unit Decision Quality.	45
FIGURE 3. Plots of the Three-Way Interaction Effect of Leader Authoritarian Decision Making, Authoritarian Decision Implementation, Leader Competence on Work Unit Decision Quality... ..	46
FIGURE 4. Plots of Interactive Effects with Work Unit Performance as the Outcome.	53
FIGURE 5. Plots of Interactive Effects with Work Unit Citizenship Behavior as the Outcome..	57
FIGURE 6. Plots of Interactive Effects with Work Unit Voluntary Turnover as the Outcome. ...	60
FIGURE 7. Four Types of Leaders Based on the Authoritarian Level in Decision Making and Decision Implementation	68

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE 1. Exploratory Factor Analysis for Authoritarian Decision Making and Authoritarian Decision Implementation	34
TABLE 2. Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Authoritarian Decision Making and Authoritarian Decision Implementation	35
TABLE 3. Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations of All Involved Variables	40
TABLE 4. Results of Interactive Effects among Leader Authoritarian Decision Making, Leader Authoritarian Decision Implementation, and Leader Competence on Work Unit Decision Quality	44
TABLE 5. Results of the Direct Effects of Work Unit Decision Quality on Work Unit Effectiveness	47
TABLE 6. Unstandardized Coefficient Estimates from Equation 1 and 2 as Leader Authoritarian Decision Implementation as the Moderator	51
TABLE 7. Analysis of Simple Effects	52
TABLE 8. Overall Result Summary	61

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The author wishes to express sincere appreciation to all faculty members and colleagues at the University of Washington for their long-term support and especially to Professor Xiao-Ping Chen, Professor Bruce Avolio, and Professor Terence Mitchell for their tremendous time and effort spent on the author. This dissertation would also never have been completed without the encouragement and support of families and friends.

CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

For more than two thousand years, authoritarian leadership has been labeled as an unethical leadership style (Likert, 1961, 1967) that violates the core spirit of the democratic system of liberty (Aristotle, 384–322 BC). In contrast, early laboratory studies have shown an opposite, positive relationship between authoritarian leadership and performance (Ivancevich, 1974; Katzell, Millier, Rotter, & Venet, 1970; McCurdy & Lambert, 1952). These studies found that supervisors who adopt an authoritarian style create higher productivity in their groups. On the other hand, leadership researchers advocating the contingent leadership framework (e.g., Vroom and Yetton, 1973) suggest that authoritarian leadership can be effective especially when leaders are capable of making high-quality decisions and when subordinates are committed to the decisions. Even though the positive view toward authoritarian leadership has been supported by previous research, the problematic image of authoritarian leadership has been further strengthened by the recent studies (e.g., Cheng, Huang, & Chou, 2002; Wu, Hsu, & Cheng, 2002) in which a negative relationship between authoritarian leadership and performance has been found. These inconsistent findings have motivated prior researchers to work on disentangling the relationship between authoritarian leadership and performance.

Previous research has made an effort to dig deeper into understanding the relationship between authoritarian leadership and performance, with its focus on either exploring the mediating mechanisms that link authoritarian leadership to performance or exploring the conditions or contingencies under which authoritarian leadership positively or negatively predicts performance. For example, Farh, Cheng, Chou, and Chu (2006) suggested that a subordinate's level of fear could be a mechanism that links authoritarian leadership and subordinate's performance. While identifying possible mediating mechanisms may help to

explain how authoritarian leadership affects work-related outcomes, it is not helpful to explain the inconsistent findings on the relationship between authoritarian leadership and performance. On the other hand, identifying possible moderators may help explain the relationship between authoritarian leadership and performance, but very little empirical work has been done to address this issue.

My dissertation focuses on examining the inconsistent findings between authoritarian leadership and performance. My dissertation work is different from previous research on authoritarian leadership in several ways. First, I define authoritarian leadership as consisting of two distinct elements – authoritarian decision making and authoritarian decision implementation instead of a general, sole construct that previous researchers define. I postulate that the inconsistent findings are due to the fact that previous work did not decompose authoritarian leadership into its component parts, and did not consider the distinct effects of different elements of authoritarian leadership on performance. I propose that considering leader authoritarian decision implementation is helpful to clarify the relationship between authoritarian leadership and performance because leader authoritarian decision making affects work unit effectiveness only when leader authoritarian decision implementation is low. More specifically, I postulate that leader authoritarian decision implementation interacts with leader authoritarian decision making to affect work unit decision quality. It also moderates the relationship between work unit decision quality and work unit effectiveness, while also moderating the indirect effect of leader authoritarian decision making on work unit effectiveness through its impact on work unit decision quality.

Second, I discuss work-related outcomes at the work unit level rather than at the individual level, which has been the unit of analysis for most of the existing studies.

Authoritarian leadership is often used to portray a leader who impacts the overall effectiveness of an organization or a unit, but very few studies focus on its impact on group-level outcomes. In addition to including work unit performance and work unit citizenship behavior in the scope of discussing work unit effectiveness, I also consider work unit voluntary turnover as a meaningful outcome of authoritarian leadership.

Finally, I not only incorporate leadership literature to explain the relationship between authoritarian leadership and work unit effectiveness, but also incorporate the strategic management literature into my theoretical basis to offer a more integrated perspective on what constitutes the relationship between. More specifically, I incorporate both strategic decision making (Child, 1972; Hambrick & Mason, 1984) and trust research (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995) to help understand why work unit decision quality links authoritarian leadership to work unit effectiveness and why leader authoritarian decision implementation affects the relationship between authoritarian leadership and work unit effectiveness. The integrative perspective responds to leadership scholars' calls that an interdisciplinary, meso perspective for leadership research should be more stressed in future research (Avolio, 2007; House, Rousseau, & Thomas-Hunt, 1995).

CHAPTER II: THEORIES AND HYPOTHESES

Literature Review on Authoritarian Leadership

The word “authoritarian” is characterized as absolute obedience to authority in contrast with individual freedom (American Heritage Dictionary, 2009). Bass and Bass (2008) define authoritarian leadership as being arbitrary, controlling, power-oriented, coercive, punitive, and close-minded. Contrary to the proponents of democracy who tend to believe that authoritarianism is extinct, research has found that authoritarian leadership still prevails in contemporary organizations, especially in non-Western contexts (Aycan, 2006; Farh & Cheng, 2000; Farh, Liang, Chou, & Cheng, 2008; Smither, 1991, 1993). As Smither (1991) argues, authoritarianism is probably one of the most reviled concepts in modern organizations. Authoritarian leadership has long been adopted to describe a person’s controlling, dominant, coercive leading behavior. For example, in 1933, the term “authoritarianism” in Marxist and Freudian was first used by Wilhelm Reich to depict Hitler (Samuelson, 1986; Bass & Bass, 2008). Authoritarian leadership was first introduced into the scientific literature by Lewin, Lippitt, and White (1939). They identified three major styles of leadership, including authoritarian, democratic, and laissez-faire, and examined the impact of these three leadership styles on children’s aggressive behavior. Their results indicated that the boys in the authoritarian groups exhibited more spontaneous aggression and hostile behaviors than did boys in the other two groups.

From the early 1900s, authoritarianism has been treated as totalitarianism or an evil ideology, because it is considered connected to human rights violation or free will deprivation. After the World War II, the Western society was filled with aversive feelings toward authoritarianism. Academic research, for certain, was not an exception under the anti-

authoritarianism wave. As Smither (1993) said, “one of the dangers inherent in all social science research is losing sight of the ways in which forces in society impact scientific inquiry and reporting” (Smither, 1993; p. 23), authoritarianism was also treated as an unethical ideology by academic researchers.

However, even under this anti-authoritarianism wave, Adorno, Frenkel-Brunswik, Levinson, and Sanford’s work (1950) held a different, more objective view toward examining what constituted authoritarianism. These researchers focused on exploring and understanding the psychological syndrome of authoritarianism in human beings. They characterized the authoritarian type of personality to be politically and religiously conservative, emotionally cold, power seeking, hostile toward minority groups, resistant to change, and opposed to humanitarian values. Although these researchers detailed the qualities and behaviors associated with authoritarianism, they were criticized by subsequent researchers such as Sanford (1986), who viewed their study as just an attempt to capture the undesirable aspects of authoritarianism, rather than a solid study that exactly disentangles what authoritarian leadership is and what’s its impact may be on others.

In the 1960s and 1970s when the anti-authoritarianism wave was more prevalent, leadership research started to advocate democratic leadership such as participative decision making and delegation (Kanter, 1977, 1993; Locke & Scheweiger, 1979). In addition to exploring the direct benefits of democratic leadership on employees’ job performance and work attitudes, a few researchers also adopted a contingent view of leadership (Fiedler, 1967; Hersey & Blanchard, 1969; House, 1971; Vroom & Tetton, 1973), and suggested that the effectiveness of a leadership style depends on a few specific contextual factors. In particular, Vroom and Yetton (1973) proposed that an authoritarian style of leadership might be desirable under certain

circumstances. They postulated seven situational variables (i.e. the importance of decision quality, the information that the leader possesses, the structure of the problem, the importance of subordinates' acceptance, the probability of subordinates' acceptance, goal congruence among subordinates, and conflicts among subordinates in preferred solutions) that will influence the effectiveness of the different leadership styles, ranging from highly autocratic through consultative to highly participative. However, Vroom and Yetton's (1993) decision model has been criticized that their model only eliminates some of the styles from the feasible set rather than suggests which style should be best adopted (Yukl, 2009). Yukl (1990), therefore, proposed a revised, simplified model. In his version of the decision model, he suggested that the autocratic leadership style should be adopted when (1) decision quality is not important and subordinates' acceptance of the decision is not important/or subordinates' acceptance is assured; (2) decision quality is important, but the leader has sufficient information. Also, subordinates' acceptance of the decision is not important or it is assured.

Moving to the 21st century, although authoritarian leadership is still ideologically described by many authors as being undesirable, we have witnessed some successful business leaders, such as Steve Jobs – the former CEO of Apple Computer, and Michael Eisner – the former CEO of Walt Disney, whose leadership styles resembled aspects of authoritarianism. On the other hand, we also have noticed that the features of authoritarian leadership are changing in the 21st century. Today, authoritarian business leaders still make decisions in an autocratic manner; but their behaviors are affected by regulations and government policies, and are also monitored by the press, shareholders, customers/clients and boards of directors.

The benefits of authoritarian leadership such as fast decision making and effective execution are also raised as important aspects of remaining competitive for companies to face the

challenges in today's dynamic business environment (Baum & Wally, 2003; Bossidy, Charan, & Burck, 2002). Meanwhile, similar changes also occur in many authoritarian governments located in the Middle East, South America and Asia. Today, these authoritarian governments are displaying features of democracy such as elections and parliaments (Brownlee, 2007), dramatically changing from the original dictating style. The emergence of the "new authoritarianism" in political science literature is also synonymous with the emergence of authoritarian leadership in business organizations. To sum up, the revival of authoritarianism in social systems and business organizations starts to refute the criticism from the earlier democratic advocates. Now the authoritarianism can exist in rational-legal power structures, which Weber sixty years ago could not have predicted (Weber, 1947). However, the benefits of authoritarian leadership have seldom been discussed and tested in recent leadership research. My dissertation addresses this research gap by focusing on how authoritarian leaders drive implementation that I conceive of a benefit of authoritarian leadership.

Defining Authoritarian Leadership

Although researchers have generated a wealth of insights about authoritarian leadership, its definition in academic literature is often inconsistent and oversimplified. Specifically, studies in 1950s and 1960s, as well as more recent studies define authoritarian leadership as a one-dimensional construct (e.g., Morse and Reimer, 1956; Cheng, Chou, Wu, Huang, & Farh, 2004; Farh & Cheng, 2000). For example, Farh and Cheng (2000) define authoritarian leadership as a leader's directive, dictatorial behavior of asserting authority and control over subordinates. Morse and Reimer (1956) define authoritarian supervisors as those who assert control and direct supervision in the decision making process. Aycan (2006) define authoritarian leadership as control and exploitation on the part of the superior, where the subordinate shows conformity and

dependence on the superior in order to receive rewards or avoid punishment. These definitions suggest that the leader's control orientation is the key ingredient of authoritarian leadership.

However, although all researchers have included the same control ingredient in their definitions of authoritarian leadership, they have diverse opinions towards the target of leader's control. While some researchers take a broader view on authoritarian leadership and define it as an overall control over subordinates (Aycaan, 2006; Cheng, et al., 2004; Farh & Cheng, 2000; Farh, et al., 2008), other researchers focus on how authoritarian leadership impacts the decision making process. For example, Vroom and Yetten (1973) defined it as leader's sole control and supervision in decision making (Leppitt 1940; Morse & Reimer, 1956; Vroom and Yetton, 1973; Smither, 1991); whereas Smither (1991) and Blau and Scott (1962) have described authoritarian leadership style in decision implementation. They argue that authoritarian leaders stress strict adherence to roles and pay attention to how decisions are carried out.

In this dissertation, I focus on distinguishing between the decision making and decision implementation components of authoritarian leadership. I conceptualize authoritarian leadership to include both the *authoritarian decision making* and *authoritarian decision implementation* processes. I define authoritarian decision making as a leadership style by which leaders take sole responsibility for making decisions (Smither, 1991; Vroom & Yetten, 1973), and define authoritarian decision implementation as a leadership style by which a leader asserts authority and control in order to ensure that decisions are carried out (Smither, 1991).

Research from the strategic management literature supports to simultaneously include decision making and decision implementation into the scope of studying authoritarian leadership. Strategic management is defined as the set of decisions and actions resulting in formulation and implementation of strategies designed to achieve the objectives of an organization (Pearce &

Robinson, 1985). Two fundamental processes are involved in strategic decision making, namely the strategy formulation process and the strategy implementation process (Andrews, 1971; Mintzberg, 1978; Thompson & Strickland, 1986). Strategy formulation concerns the development and choice of a particular course of action; whereas strategy implementation comprises the subsequent communication, interpretation, adoption, and enactment of the plan (Mintzberg & Waters, 1985; Noble, 1999).

In addition to academic research, decision implementation was also found to be a critical process for company success in business practices. For example, Nutt (1999) found that about half of the strategic decisions in organizations fail due to reasons associated with implementation. Johnson (2004) reported that 66% of corporate strategies are never implemented. Another survey from Booz-Allen & Hamilton Inc. (1990) also showed that only 25% of the Fortune 500 executives consider that the strategy implementation in their companies is consistent with strategy formulation.

The strategy management literature suggests that decision making and decision implementation are two distinct processes. Paralleling this work in a different discipline, there is research in child and adolescence psychology that also distinguishes authoritarian decision making and authoritarian decision implementation. According to Maccoby and Martin (1983), four general parenting styles (i.e. authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent, and neglectful) are widely used by parents. In their work, authoritarian parenting is different from authoritative parenting in that authoritarian parenting is characterized as setting high expectations of conformity and compliance to parental rules and directions, whereas authoritative parenting is characterized as “exerting firm control but does not hem the child in with restrictions” (Baumrind, 1978: 245).

Prior research has shown that authoritative parents are democratic, controlling, and warm. Authoritative parents contribute to healthy psychological development and school success of their children in adolescence (Steinberg, Lamborn, Dornbusch, & Darling, 1992) and develop their children to leaders in adulthood (Avolio, Rotundo, & Walumbwa, 2009). They strictly supervise their children's behavior, while at the same time granting psychological autonomy (Steinberg, Elmen, & Mounts, 1989; Steinberg, Mounts, Lamborn, & Dornbusch, 1991). Authoritative parents use a sort of 'loose vs. tight' approach to parenting where certain standards are clearly set and adhered to, while allow some discretion as long as standards are met by children.

To sum up, the authoritarian style and authoritative style can be distinguished by the level of discretion on decision making. The authoritarian style is characterized by both high authoritarian decision making and high authoritarian decision implementation, whereas the authoritative style is characterized by low authoritarian decision making and high authoritarian decision implementation. In leadership research, the authoritarian style means taking full and sole responsibility for decisions and controlling subordinates' performance (Bass & Bass, 2008; Farh & Cheng, 2000). Authoritarian leaders are also praised for their ability to develop devoted followers and to establish and maintain orders. In contrast, authoritative leaders encourage subordinates to speak in the decision-making process, but they also demand implementation. Jack Welch is a good example of the authoritative leader. He is a tough person, has a high standard on implementation, but he encourages subordinates to speak their minds (Cosier & Schwenk, 1990; Krames, 2005; Welch & Welch, 2005). Therefore, I propose that authoritarian decision making and authoritarian decision implementation are two distinct constructs.

Hypothesis 1: Authoritarian decision making and authoritarian decision implementation

have discriminant validity.

Authoritarian Leaders and Work Unit Decision Quality

Decision quality is a critical area in the strategic management and decision science literatures. It is defined as “the objective aspects of the decision that affect group performance aside from any effects mediated by decision acceptance. The quality of a decision is high when the best alternative is selected” (Yukl, 2009: 96). Researchers and practitioners have worked hard to identify the factors that can boost decision quality (Amason, 1996; Bantel & Jackson, 1989; Janis, 1972; Schweiger, Sandberg, & Rechner, 1989). Two principal factors that contribute to decision quality have been identified as being the cognitive capabilities of the team and the interaction process through which the team produces its decisions (Amason, 1996).

Leaders who adopt an authoritarian style in decision making take sole and full responsibility for the decision-making process (Smither, 1991); they also expect their subordinates to fully comply with their decisions (Cheng, et. al., 2004). In the extreme, they do not encourage or allow other voices in their organizations to contribute to the decision-making process. However, we also know that organizational members should possess different sources of information due to their access to different organizational functions, as well as their different interpretation to the information (Raes, Heijltjes, Glunk, & Roe, 2011; Wooldridge, Schmid, & Floyd, 2008). In addition, evidence from strategic management research also supports that cognitive conflicts such as debates in different opinions or positions during group discussion contribute to enhanced decision quality (Priem, 1990; Schweiger, et al., 1989). Two structured decision processes, dialectical inquiry and devil’s advocacy are often used as decision aids for generating the best ideas and the best solutions in the strategic process. Some earlier and highly prominent industrial leaders, such as Alfred Sloan at General Motors, Scott McNealy at Sun

Microsystems, and Jack Welch at General Electric also recognized the benefits of promoting “conflict” as part of the strategic decision-making process (Cosier & Schwenk, 1990).

To sum up, when different perspectives and information are not successfully incorporated into the decision-making process, work unit decision quality is expected to be lower with authoritarian leaders. However, the negative relationship between leader authoritarian decision making and work unit decision quality is highly contingent upon certain circumstances. In my dissertation, I propose that the negative relationship will exist when leader competence is low or when leader authoritarian decision implementation is low, which are covered in more detail below.

The interactive effect of leader authoritarian decision making and leader competence.

Leader competence is defined as a group of skills, aptitudes, or knowledge that a leader possesses which is relevant to meet the requirements for successful performance as a leader (Boyatzis, 1982; Mayer, et al., 1995). The meaning of competence described here is also equivalent to ability and capability in the broader leadership literature (Boyatzis, 1982; Butler, 1991; Butler & Cantrell, 1984; Cook & Wall, 1980; Deutsch, 1960; Jones, James, & Bruni, 1975; Kee & Knox, 1970; Lieberman, 1981; Mayer et al., 1995; Rosen & Jerdee, 1977; Sitkin & Roth, 1993).

Leader competence is important to determining the relationship between leader authoritarian decision making and work unit decision quality because when the authoritarian leaders are competent, the negative effects from adopting authoritarian decision making, such as lack of cognitive conflicts or lack of other members’ inputs into the decision-making process are diminished. In these situations, a competent leader may be able to make a high-quality decision with little if any input from others. In contrast, when the authoritarian leaders are not competent,

the cognitive capabilities of the entire work unit will be low, which will have a negative effect on work unit decision quality. Therefore, I propose

Hypothesis 2: Leader authoritarian decision making and leader competence interact to affect work unit decision quality, such that the relationship between leader authoritarian decision making and work unit decision quality is negative for low leader competence, whereas the relationship is positive or non-significant for high leader competence.

The interactive effect of leader authoritarian decision making and authoritarian decision implementation. I propose that leader authoritarian decision making and authoritarian decision implementation interact to affect work unit decision quality. More specifically, leader authoritarian decision making may have a negative effect on work unit decision quality when leader authoritarian decision implementation is low. Decision making and decision implementation are the two determinants to organization success (Andrews, 1971; Mintzberg, 1978; Thompson & Strickland, 1986). Without effective implementation processes in place, high-quality decisions cannot simply bring success to organizations (Booz-Allen & Hamilton Inc., 1990; Johnson, 2004; Nutt, 1999).

I suggest based on prior writings in the strategic management literature that there may be a critical sequencing of time that the implementation process starts working after strategic decisions are planned and made. Mintzberg (1987), however, argues that successful strategy does not simply come from “planning” processes where a senior manager or a group of them sit in an office using some systematic analysis of competitors, markets, company strengths and weaknesses to formulate courses of action that everyone else will implement on schedule. Instead, he believes that “crafting” better captures the process by which effective strategies come to be. Different from strategy planning that focuses on systematic thinking and reasoning,

crafting strategy involves traditional skills, dedication, and perfection through the mastery of detail. According to Mintzberg (1987: 66), in crafting strategy, “formation and implementation merge into a fluid process of learning through which creative strategies evolve.”

Mintzberg’s (1987) crafting strategy perspective and the later similar strategy-as-practice perspectives (Jarzabkowski, 2005; Jarzabkowski & Spee, 2009), suggest that strategy can emerge from activities already taking place in the organization and that decision making at the top often takes the form of strategic recognition of changes that have already taken place in the organization (i.e., already been implemented). Therefore, even though decision making and decision implementation can be distinct from the decision making process, the sequence having decision making first and then decision implementation has been largely discarded by scholars of strategy research. Instead, decision making and decision implementation function like a spiraling cycle whereby decision implementation may follow initial decision making, and then another decision could result or a decision could be modified based on the feedback from the initial decision implementation. Thus, I therefore argue here that decision making and decision implementation interact with each other and influence each other in terms of impact on decision quality and work unit performance.

Now imagine that you are a production manager in a manufacturing company. You just proposed an employee lay-off plan to your director that you believe would help your company cut some waste out of your budget. However, your boss thought the plan was not just right. You returned to your department and asked your subordinates to do some research for you, including conducting an internal survey to ask employees’ feedback on the consequences of a lay-off plan. You watched subordinates’ progress carefully to make sure that the research can be completed before the HR started to plan annual headcount in your department. After you had the research

results back, you realized that the lay-off plan would significantly diminish employees' morale and decrease the yield rate of the entire factory if the plan were actually implemented. Moreover, you realize that many of your better performers will leave if you go ahead with the plan. A possible alternative emerged from the previous research that instead of laying off 10 percent of the employees in your department, you decided to reduce 10-percent of working hours of the employees and pay 90 percent of the salary to them. This alternative not only can meet the company requirement to cut 10 percent of the annual budget, but it also can minimize the possible negative effects on morale and retention.

As I previously discussed, authoritarian leaders might create a lower quality decision due to their control in making decisions. However, the negative effect of authoritarian style in decision making may only exist when leader authoritarian decision implementation is also low. If the leaders are high in authoritarian decision making, but low in authoritarian decision implementation, they lack the opportunity to improve their decisions through the crafting strategy process that Mintzberg (1987) advocates. In contrast, leaders' dominance in decision implementation would contrarily improve their decisions quality. Through implementation, the leaders become familiar and intimate with the materials at their hands, and then are able to further advance the quality of their decisions.

Hypothesis 3: Leader authoritarian decision making and authoritarian decision implementation interact to affect work unit decision quality, such that the relationship between leader authoritarian decision making and work unit decision quality is negative for low authoritarian decision implementation, whereas the relationship is positive or non-significant for high authoritarian decision implementation.

The three-way interaction on work unit decision quality. In the previous sections, I

propose there will be interactive effects of leader authoritarian decision making with leader competence and with leader authoritarian decision implementation on work unit decision quality. Nonetheless, the interactive effect between leader authoritarian decision making and authoritarian decision implementation may also depend on the level of leader competence. The interactive effect of leader authoritarian decision making and authoritarian decision implementation may only exist when leader competence is high.

When leaders are high in competence, they are capable of picking up different information through implementation and are able to obtain feedback from other organizational members such as clients, vendors, senior leaders, peer colleagues, and subordinates. They have the skills, knowledge, and experience to select the information that they gathered to review and critique their decision. They are also capable of transforming their previous decision to a better one. Thus, they are able to achieve a higher decision quality throughout the crafting strategy process (Mintzberg, 1987).

In contrast, when leaders are not competent, they might not be able to select the right feedback and information throughout the implementation process and further enhance the quality of their decisions. Therefore, I propose that there is a three-way interaction among leader authoritarian decision making, leader authoritarian decision implementation, and leader competence on work unit decision quality. More specifically, the interactive effect of leader authoritarian decision making and authoritarian decision implementation on work unit decision quality will be weaker when leader competence is low.

Hypothesis 4: Leader authoritarian decision making, leader competence (senior leader-rated), and leader authoritarian decision implementation interact to affect work unit decision quality, such that the interactive effect of leader authoritarian decision making

and authoritarian decision implementation will be weaker when leader competence is low.

The Direct Effects of Work Unit Decision Quality on Work Unit Effectiveness

Both the strategic management and organizational behavior literature provide support that work unit decision quality has a positive effect on work unit performance. From the early strategic choice perspective (Child, 1972) to the later upper-echelon's perspective (Hambrick & Mason, 1984), strategic decision making is in the center of the strategic management literature and is conceived of as a decision-making process that involves one top manager or a small group of top managers. The central question is how the top managers make and implement high-quality strategic decisions. Whether or not the objectives of an organization are achieved is highly dependent on the quality of the decisions made by the top leaders. Similar to the rationale behind the strategic choice and the upper-echelon's perspectives, how work unit leaders make and implement high-quality decisions in their units also impact whether they can achieve the goals of the units and affect their units' performance.

In addition to the strategic management literature, trust and trustworthiness research in the organizational behavior literature also provides support for the effect of work unit decision quality on work unit effectiveness. Trust is defined as the willingness of a trustor to be vulnerable to the actions of a trustee based on the expectation that the trustee will perform a particular action without oversight (Mayer, et al., 1995). Trust is considered a proximal antecedent of various job performance related constructs such as task performance, citizenship behavior, and counterproductive behavior (Colquitt, Scott, & Lepine, 2007; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002) and also an antecedent of group performance (Dirk, 2000; Davis, Schoorman, Mayer, & Tan, 2000).

Trust research has focused on the perception of the leader's trustworthiness and how it influences a follower's sense of vulnerability in a hierarchical relationship (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002;

Mayer, et al., 1995). Followers are concerned about their leaders' trustworthiness because their leaders have great impact on the followers' work, evaluation and rewards. For example, leaders make decisions on pay raises, promotions, and the allocation of work assignments. The leaders' decisions also affect whether the work units can achieve their goals and thus affect work unit performance. When leaders are perceived trustworthy, followers will be more comfortable engaging in behaviors that put them at risk (Mayer & Davis, 1999).

In contrast, when leaders cannot be trusted (e.g. leaders are perceived without the capability to make high quality decisions), followers are not willing to be vulnerable to their leaders. They will divert energy and time to self-preserving activities and lose their focus on work, which can further impact the quality of their job performance. The positive relationship between leader trustworthiness and follower's trust in leader has been supported (Colquitt & Rodell, 2011; Colquitt, et al., 2007; Mayer & Gavin, 2005). The mediating role of trust in leader on the relationship between leader trustworthiness and follower's job performance has also obtained empirical support (Colquitt, et al., 2007).

Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman (1995) conceived of the three trustee's (i.e., leader's) characteristics – ability, benevolence, and integrity from which followers may draw inferences about their leaders. Ability is the perception that a trustee has skills and competencies in the domain of interest. Benevolence is the trustor's (i.e., the follower's) perception that the trustee (i.e., the leader) cares about the trustor. Integrity refers to the perception that the trustee adheres to a set of principles that the trustor finds acceptable. In this dissertation, I postulate that subordinates attribute work unit decision quality to their leader's ability. In particular, authoritarian leaders take full responsibility for making decisions. With authoritarian leaders the quality of the decision in the work unit is even more likely to be attributed to the leader's ability.

Since subordinates observe leaders' actions and draw inferences about the ability of their leader, the decision quality in the work unit may become one of the sources by which subordinates judge their leader's ability. Subordinates evaluate decision quality in their workgroup using the following ways. First, subordinates can assess the work unit decision quality based on their own judgment or decision criteria. Specifically, subordinates may possess knowledge and experience to evaluate the decisions in their work unit. They may also possess different sources of information from their leaders due to their accesses to different organizational functions or resources (Raes, et al., 2011; Wooldridge, et al., 2008). Moreover, subordinates may acquire information related to their work units' decision quality from other organizational members. For example, they may obtain feedback to their units' decision from observing the interaction between the senior leader and their supervisor. They may also hear informal feedback from members in other workgroups. Finally, the organization's reward system may provide the work unit members direct feedback. This is based on the assumption that for the work unit that performs well, the entire team will have more rewards and have more attentions from senior leaders. All the above information serves as cues for subordinates to judge their leader's trustworthiness in terms of their ability, which will in turn develop subordinates' trust in their leaders and make them more engaged in achieving better outcomes in their work.

In addition to work unit performance, I also include work unit citizenship behavior as a critical indicator for conceiving of work unit effectiveness. Work unit citizenship behavior is conceptualized as a distinct group-level phenomenon concerning the extent to which work groups engage in behaviors that support other work groups and the organization as a whole (Chen, Lam, Naumann, & Schaubroeck, 2005). The target of an act of work unit citizenship behavior is another work group or the organization rather an individual in another work group.

Work unit citizenship behavior is important because it includes “a set of behaviors that enhance or facilitate other groups in completing their tasks and help them achieve better results” (Chen et al., 2005: 276). It is also found to be positive related to group performance and to be negatively related to employee’s turnover (Chen, et al., 2005).

Work unit decision quality should also have a positive effect on work unit citizenship behavior. Previous studies support a positive relationship between trust and citizenship behavior (Colquitt, et al., 2007; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Mayer & Gavin, 2005; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990). When leaders are perceived as being more able to make high-quality decisions, they win more trust from their followers. Followers are therefore more willing to take risks, to focus on their work, and to go above and beyond their duty to perform citizenship behavior (Mayer & Davis, 1999; Mayer & Gavin, 2005). In contrast, when leaders cannot be trusted (e.g. leaders are perceived without ability to make decisions), followers are not willing to take risks. Instead, they are distracted from their work by exerting their energy and time to protect themselves and are less willing and likely to perform citizenship behavior. Therefore, as a consequence the entire work unit is less likely to engage in citizenship behavior.

Furthermore, work unit voluntary turnover is also included in my scope of discussing work unit effectiveness. Voluntary turnover is highly associated with performance because lots of costs are associated voluntary turnover, such as recruiting and screening, training, and the loss of continuity in customer relationships (Cascio, 1991). Although researchers have become increasingly aware of the importance of turnover at the group, unit, and organizational levels, research about turnover at the group, unit, and organizational levels is still rare, especially examining the antecedents of turnover at the group and higher levels (Hausknecht & Trevor,

2011). I focus on work unit voluntary turnover, which is defined as the aggregate level of employee voluntary departures that occur within work units (Hausknecht & Trevor, 2011).

Subordinates may draw inferences about their leader's ability from the decision quality in their unit. Because the decisions that the leader makes greatly impact subordinates' work life, subordinates will feel safer and more positive to stay in their unit if they believe their leader is capable of making high-quality decisions. In contrast, subordinates will be psychologically distressed if the leader is not capable of making decisions and not trustworthy. When subordinates do not trust their leaders, they are more likely to consider quitting, because they may not want to put themselves at risk with the leader (Dirks & Derrin, 2002). Therefore, I propose

Hypothesis 5: Work unit decision quality is positively related to (a) work unit performance and (b) work unit citizenship behavior, but is negatively related to (c) work unit voluntary turnover.

The Moderating Effect of Leader Authoritarian Decision Implementation on the Relationship between Work Unit Decision Quality and Work Unit Effectiveness

Leader authoritarian decision implementation moderating the relationship between decision quality and work unit performance. As previously discussed, both decision making and decision implementation are essential to achieve a group's objectives. According to Michael Porter (1980), decision implementation is important because those failures of many firms' strategies stem from an inability to translate a broad competitive strategy into the specific action steps required to gain a competitive advantage. Poor decision implementation has been identified as one of the main reasons for organizational failure (Booz-Allen & Hamilton Inc., 1990; Johnson, 2004; Nutt, 1999). For example, on the basis a study conducted by Ernst & Young that

discovered 66% of corporate strategy is never executed, Johnson (2004) stressed the importance of implementation and why effective implementation is so hard to achieve in an organization. In order to implement decisions and doing something new, work units may need to overcome their inertia (Hannan & Freeman, 1984), conflicting interests between members, and the communication and coordination issues (Johnson, 2004; Nutt, 1999). Consequently, I would argue that leaders should take responsibility for decision implementation rather than avoiding it. They should not delegate every task to subordinates (Amason, 1996). Thus, if leaders employ an authoritarian style in decision implementation, with a high quality of decisions, their work units should achieve higher performance.

In addition to the strategic management literature, trust and trustworthiness research also provides theoretical support to the moderating effect of leader authoritarian decision implementation on the relationship between leader authoritarian decision making and work unit performance. Similar to decision quality that can be attributed to a leader's ability by subordinates, the ability to implement decisions can also be attributed to the trustworthiness of a leader. In other words, subordinates will infer a leader's ability to implement as part of their overall evaluation of the leader trustworthiness, thus affecting their ultimate level of trust in the leader. Jack Welch 4E's leadership model (Krames, 2005; Welch & Welch, 2005) advocates that the decision implementation and execution are key aspects of leadership that any leader needs to pay attention to be effective. In his 4E's leadership model, a good leader should have positive energy, ability to energize others, edge (i.e. the courage to make tough yes-or-no decisions), and execute (i.e. the ability to get the job done). According to Welch, "being able to execute is a special and distinct skill. It means a person knows how to put decisions into action and push them forward to completion, through resistance, chaos, or unexpected obstacles. People who can

execute know that winning is about results.” (Welch & Welch, 2005: 87) Therefore, if leaders are perceived as being more capable of implementing decisions, they are more likely to be trusted by subordinates. Thus, subordinates with such leaders would be expected to be more engaged in their work and also to achieve higher performance in their work units.

Hypothesis 6a: Leader authoritarian decision implementation moderates the positive relationship between work unit decision quality and work unit performance, such that the positive relationship will be stronger when leader authoritarian decision implementation is high.

Leader authoritarian decision implementation moderating the relationship between decision quality and work unit citizenship behavior. In addition to the moderating effect between work unit decision quality and work unit performance, leader authoritarian decision implementation also moderates the relationship between work unit decision quality and work unit citizenship behavior. When leaders are perceived as being more capable of implementing high-quality decisions, they gain more trust from their subordinates. Subordinates are more willing to take risks and to go above and beyond their duty to perform citizenship behavior such as displaying a higher willingness to assist other work groups, to take fewer work breaks, and to take an active part in the change initiatives of their unit (Chen, et al., 2005; Mayer & Davis, 1999; Mayer & Gavin, 2005). In contrast, when leaders are perceived as not having the capability to implement high-quality decisions, they are less trusted by their subordinates. Subordinates are thus not willing to take risks to perform citizenship behaviors. Instead, they take away from contributing to their work by exerting their energy and time to protect themselves.

Hypothesis 6b: Leader authoritarian decision implementation moderates the positive relationship between work unit decision quality and work unit citizenship behavior, such

that the positive relationship will be stronger when leader authoritarian decision implementation is high.

Leader authoritarian decision implementation moderating the relationship between decision quality and work unit turnover. As previously discussed, subordinates may draw inferences about their leader's ability from the decision quality in their work unit. Leader's ability is one of the antecedents for having trust in one's leader (Colquitt & Rodell, 2011; Colquitt, et al., 2007; Mayer, et al., 1995), which further reduces the voluntary turnover in the work unit (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Here I postulate that leader authoritarian decision implementation is also attributed to a leader's ability by subordinates since leader's execution and the ability to get things done are also highly valued by subordinates. Thus, when leaders are rated highly in authoritarian decision implementation, subordinates will build up greater trust in their leaders. They then would feel more secure and positive about staying in their work unit. In contrast, subordinates will be more distressed to the extent that the leader is not capable of effectively implementing decisions. When subordinates do not trust their leaders, they are less likely to take risks to work with their leader and to stay in their work unit (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Therefore, I propose

Hypothesis 6c: Leader authoritarian decision implementation moderates the negative relationship between work unit decision quality and work unit voluntary turnover, such that the negative relationship will be stronger when leader authoritarian decision implementation is high.

Authoritarian Leader, Work Unit Decision Quality, and Work Unit Effectiveness

Previous literature focusing on strategic decision making has established the connection between leaders' behavior and organizational performance. According to the upper echelons

theory (Hambrick & Mason, 1984), leaders act on the basis of their personalized interpretations of the strategic situations they face, and these personalized construals are a function of executives' experiences, values, and personalities. Organizational outcomes can be viewed as reflections of the values and cognitive processes of powerful actors in organizations. Subsequent research has supported the idea that leaders have a powerful influence on the organizational performance that they supervise (e.g. Colbert, Kristof-Brown, Bradley, & Barrick, 2008). Research on team leadership has also provided much evidence that team leaders' values, styles, and behaviors can impact their teams' effectiveness (see Mathieu, Maynard, Rapp, & Gilson, 2008 for a review of this literature).

Although prior research has supported that leaders can have their influence upon the units' (or teams') effectiveness, the mechanisms used to explain this relationship have been focused on social or interpersonal processes. In this dissertation, I also take another different route and propose that work unit decision quality links authoritarian leadership to work unit effectiveness. The strategic choice perspective (Child, 1972) and the upper-echelon's theory (Hambrick & Mason, 1984) also stress the importance of decision quality as the bridge to link leadership behavior to group-level outcomes because whether or not the objectives of an organization are achieved is highly dependent on the quality of the decisions made by the top leaders.

Integrating these literatures with my previous argument, I propose that leader authoritarian decision making may have an indirect effect on work unit effectiveness through its impact on work unit decision quality. The indirect effect, however, may only exist when leader authoritarian decision implementation is rated low because leader authoritarian decision making has a negative effect on work unit decision quality only when leader authoritarian leadership

implementation is low.

Hypothesis 7: Leader authoritarian decision implementation moderates the mediating effect of work unit decision quality on the relationships of leader authoritarian decision making with (a) work unit performance, (b) work unit citizenship behavior, and (c) work unit voluntary turnover, such that the mediating effects of work unit decision quality will be significant for low leader authoritarian decision implementation, whereas the relationship will not be significant for high leader authoritarian decision implementation.

The overall model of this research is presented in Figure 1.

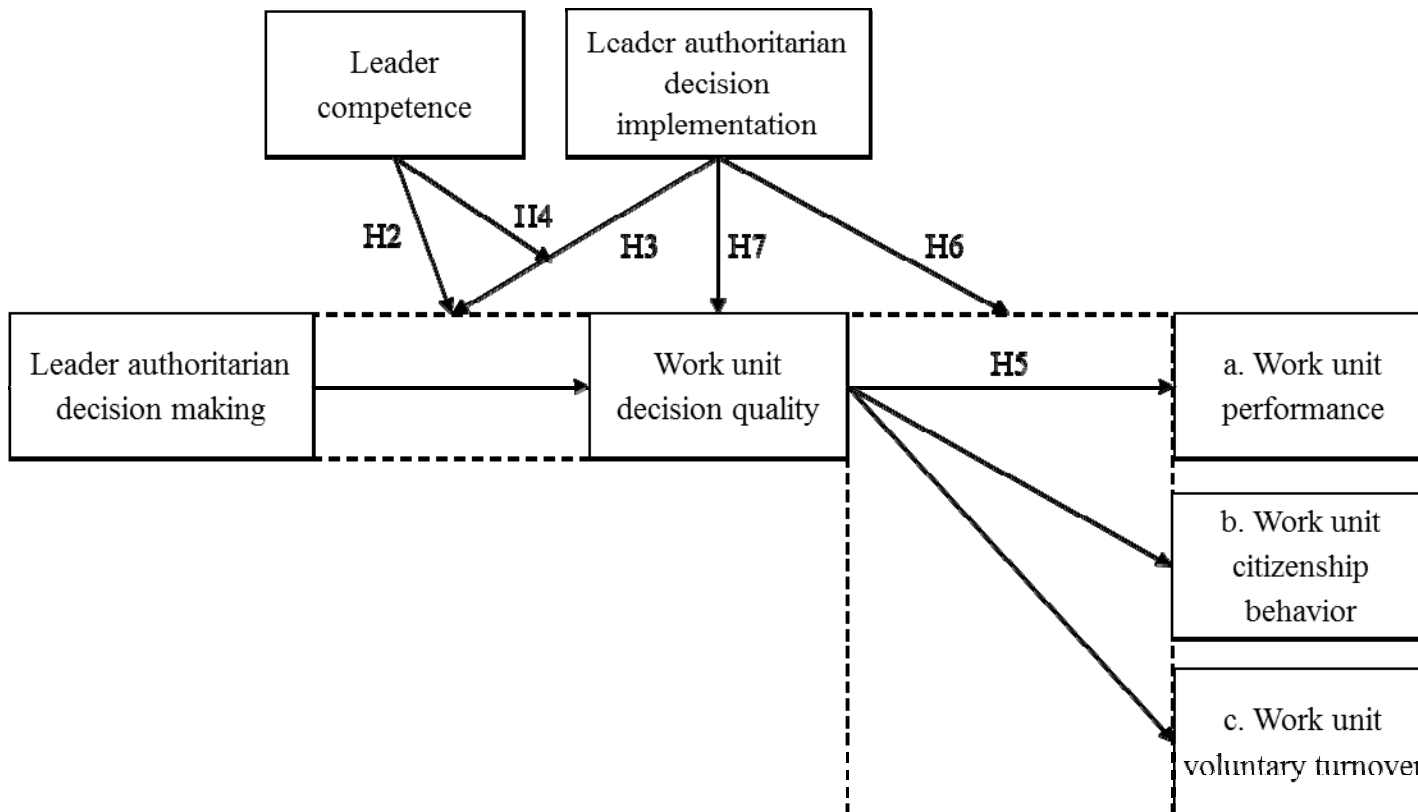


FIGURE 1. Research Model of Authoritarian Leadership and its Impact on Work Unit Effectiveness

CHAPTER III: METHODS

Sample and Procedure

All of my data were collected within one large Chinese Fast Moving Consumer Goods (FMCG) company. The company's leadership was interested in understanding their leaders' styles and behaviors and how their leaders' behaviors affected their work units' performance and voluntary turnover.

I first had a meeting to discuss the details with the vice president, directors, department managers, and account managers of the company's human resources function. We reached a consensus that the surveys would mainly focus on the relationship between unit leaders and their units' effectiveness. We defined a unit as a department or a division (i.e. one level above the department level) in the company. We included all business functions (i.e. manufacturing, quality control, research & development, finance, human resources, sales & marketing) and all product lines in our surveys to prevent any possible bias from sampling.

I started the data collection process in December before the company's annual performance review (in January). In every January, the company conducts its annual performance review. Managers and subordinates sit down to talk about subordinates' accomplishments and managers' expectations. Subordinates also provide feedback to their managers. Before conducting the survey, I visited the company's factories to understand their business. I also met the HR directors and directors of the company's different business units to communicate my leadership surveys and obtain their assistance.

I worked closely with the company's HR department to secure 114 main departments and divisions in the company to conduct my survey. In each department and division, we planned to survey 3-4 members (400 members in total). The headquarter HR director and staff then

organized the respondents in four different groups and arranged the respondents in the auditorium of the company headquarter to take the survey. Leader authoritarian decision making, authoritarian decision implementation, and work unit voluntary turnover were measured in this survey. After the respondents sat down and received their questionnaires, I explained the purpose of the survey, ensured the confidentiality of their responses, answered questions, and obtained oral consents from the respondents. 376 members from 114 work units participated in the survey. The responsive rate was 95.5%. 11 problematic questionnaires were deleted because the responses appeared consistent systematic biases (e.g. all responses were in the same anchor). 365 questionnaires were used in further analyses.

In the member sample, 55.7% of members were male; 44.3 of members were female. 35.7% of members were younger than 30; 47.2% of members were between 31 and 35; 10.4% were between 36 and 40; 6.7% were over 40. In terms of member's education, 19% of members held junior college degrees and 81% held bachelor degrees or above. Of the members, 6.7% worked in production; 2.3% worked in sales & marketing; 27% worked in research & development, quality control, equipment, and information technology; 20.3% worked in human resources, legal, and administration; 13% worked in procurement and transportation; 28.7% worked in finance and accounting; and 2% worked in other functions.

In addition to the member survey, one month after I received the responses of the member survey, I sent out another survey to the senior leaders (i.e. general managers, vice presidents, and directors) of the 114 work units. The senior leader survey includes their evaluation on work unit decision quality, performance, group citizenship behavior, and leader competence. These senior leaders are the unit leaders' direct supervisors. They usually supervise multiple units and thus are appropriate sources to assess unit leader's and unit's effectiveness. The HR director sent out

emails to each senior leader with the measures and a letter from me. Each senior leader was asked to assess the competence of his/her supervising unit leaders (i.e. 2 to 4 unit leaders) and the decision quality, performance, and group citizenship behavior of his/her supervising units (i.e. 2 to 4 units). Ratings for 73 work units and 73 unit leaders were obtained.

Work unit leaders' background information was provided by the human resources department. For the unit leader's gender, 64.2% of leaders were male and 35.8 % of leaders were female. 11.4 % of leaders were younger than 30; 55.2 % of members were between 31 and 35; 21.9 % were between 36 and 40; 6.7 % were between 41 and 45; 4.8 % were over 45. In terms of leader's education, 5.8 % of members held junior college degrees and 94.2 % held bachelor degrees or above. Of the unit leaders, 83% were department managers and 17% were directors and above. 10.5% worked in production; 1.9% worked in sales & marketing; 24.8% worked in research & development, quality control, equipment, and information technology; 22.9% worked in human resources, legal, and administration; 11.4% worked in procurement and transportation; 28.6% worked in finance and accounting.

Measures

A Chinese version of English items was created in accordance with Brislin's (1980) procedure for translation and back-translation.

Authoritarian decision making and decision implementation. I reviewed previous empirical studies of authoritarian leadership (Aycan, 2006; Cheng, Chou, Farh, 2000; Cheng, et al., 2004), but none of these studies had a widely accepted construct valid scale for measuring authoritarian decision making and authoritarian decision implementation. Therefore, in accordance with Hinkin's (1995) steps for scale development, I developed a new measure for authoritarian decision making and authoritarian decision implementation.

(1) *Item generation*. I conducted an open-question survey to generate the item pool for authoritarian decision making and decision implementation. I invited employees in several Taiwanese private enterprises who had at least 1-year full-time experience in their companies to participate in this on-line survey. At the beginning of the on-line survey, I provided the definitions of authoritarian decision making and authoritarian decision implementation to the participants. If participants agreed to participate in the survey and personally had experience working with authoritarian leaders, they were invited to continue working on the survey. Each participant was requested to provide 5 incidents related to their experience about authoritarian decision making and authoritarian decision implementation. 35 employees completed the on-line survey; 234 items were obtained from this open-question study. After establishing the item pool, I set up an expert meeting with four industrial and organizational psychology doctoral students. We reviewed and made changes (i.e. modified, deleted, or combined items) to each item. Items were not changed unless all of the five people agreed with the change. 15 items were obtained from the expert meeting.

(2) *Exploratory factor analysis (EFA)*. I collected an extra sample for the initial item reduction process. I collected 121 Taiwanese employees' responses on the 15 items of authoritarian leadership. The survey was also conducted through a survey website. An exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was used to eliminate items with factor loadings below .7 and cross-factor loadings of .4 or higher. Principle axis factoring and Varimax rotation were used in the EFA process. The factor structure of the measures was consistent with my theoretical predictions, and 5 items were retained for authoritarian decision making, while the other 5 items were retained for authoritarian decision implementation. The EFA results are presented in Table 1. The Cronbach alpha values were .88 and .88, respectively for each scale.

(3) *Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA)*. A confirmatory factor analysis was performed to establish the construct validity of the new measure. The CFA was performed with the sample that will be used to test the hypotheses in my dissertation. The analysis yielded a good fit of the 10 items on a 2-factor model. Table 2 presents the two-factor model for authoritarian decision making and decision implementation ($\chi^2 = 74.15$, $df = 32$, comparative fit index [CFI] = .96, root mean square error of approximation [RMSEA] = .06). The Cronbach alpha values were .78 and .82, respectively.

Work unit decision quality. Dooley and Fryxell's (1999) decision quality scale was adopted to measure work unit decision quality. The scale consists of six items. I modified the referent in the original scale from "this decision" to "decisions in this unit." Sample items included, "Decisions in this unit are based on the best available information; decisions in this unit are made based on valid assumptions; and decisions in this unit help this unit achieve its objectives." 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 "strongly disagree" to 7 "strongly agree" was used.

Work unit performance. The 3-item work unit performance measure from de Jong & Elfring (2010) was used. The three items were "the amount of work the unit produces; the quality of work the unit produces; your overall evaluation of the unit's effectiveness." Respondents evaluated the three items on the 7-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 "very poor" to 7 "excellent."

Work unit citizenship behavior. Chen, Lam, Naumann, and Schaubroeck's (2005) 10-item group citizenship behavior scale was adopted. Sample items include "my work group as a whole provides assistance to other work groups with heavy workloads; my work group as a whole takes fewer work breaks than other work groups; my work group as a whole takes an

active part in the change initiatives of our company.” Senior managers assess their supervising units’ group citizenship behavior on the 7-point Likert scale from 1 “strongly disagree” to 7 “strongly agree.”

Work unit voluntary turnover. Two items were written by the author for this study. The two items were “last year many employees in this work unit voluntarily left; this work unit has a serious employee voluntary turnover issue” and were evaluated by the 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 “strongly disagree” to 7 “strongly agree.”

Leader competence. Mayer & Davis’ (1999) scale for trustworthiness in ability was adopted. Senior leaders assessed their subordinate leaders’ competence using this 6-item scale. Sampled items included “This subordinate is very capable of performing his/her job; this subordinate has much knowledge about the work that needs done; I feel very confident about this subordinate’s skills.” 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 “strongly disagree” to 7 “strongly agree” was used.

Aggregation Check

In the current study, since authoritarian decision making, authoritarian decision implementation, and work unit voluntary turnover were group-level constructs, the multi-item r_{wg} indices (i.e. for interrater agreement) were computed to justify the aggregation of individual-level responses to group-level variables (Bliese, 2000; James, Demaree, & Wolf, 1993). The r_{wg} values for leader authoritarian decision making, leader authoritarian decision implementation, and work unit voluntary turnover were .90, .92, and .81 respectively, providing supportive evidence for my aggregation.

TABLE 1. Exploratory Factor Analysis for Authoritarian Decision Making and Authoritarian Decision Implementation

Stems and Items	Factor Loadings	
	1	2
Authoritarian decision making		
1. My supervisor makes decisions on his/her own without asking others' opinion.	.68	-.05
2. My supervisor is not confident about my decision.	.76	-.13
3. My supervisor believes his/her idea is better and asks me to thoroughly follow his/her direction.	.89	.06
4. During the decision-making process, my supervisor interrupts any speaking that conflicts with his/her idea.	.76	.09
5. My supervisor selects the information or idea that supports his/her decision.	.80	.04
Authoritarian decision implementation		
6. When implementing decisions, my supervisor carefully monitors every task.	.15	.70
7. My supervisor demands every detail to be well executed.	-.10	.75
8. My supervisor stresses the efficiency of decision implementation.	-.01	.86
9. Once a consensus is reached, my supervisor immediately sets up schedules and performance indicators to monitor implementation of the decision.	-.07	.73
10. My supervisor demands a high standard on decision implementation.	.05	.82
Reliability	.88	.88
Eigenvalues	3.47	3.40
% of Variance	34.66	34.02

N= 121

TABLE 2. Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Authoritarian Decision Making and Authoritarian Decision Implementation

Stems and Items	Factor Loadings
Authoritarian decision making	
1. My supervisor makes decisions on his/her own without asking others' opinion.	.63
2. My supervisor is not confident about my decision.	.70
3. My supervisor believes his/her idea is better and asks me to thoroughly follow his/her direction.	.79
4. During the decision-making process, my supervisor interrupts any speaking that conflicts with his/her idea.	.72
5. My supervisor selects the information or idea that supports his/her decision.	.41
Authoritarian decision implementation	
6. When implementing decisions, my supervisor carefully monitors every task.	.54
7. My supervisor demands every detail to be well executed.	.59
8. My supervisor stresses the efficiency of decision implementation.	.76
9. Once a consensus is reached, my supervisor immediately sets up schedules and performance indicators to monitor implementation of the decision.	.72
10. My supervisor demands a high standard on decision implementation.	.73

Note. N= 365. $\chi^2 = 74.15$, df = 32, CFI = .96, RMSEA = .06.

Data Analyses Strategies

For examining the interactive effects among leader authoritarian decision making, leader authoritarian decision implementation, and leader competence on work unit decision quality, a hierarchical regression analysis was performed. Leader's gender and age were used as the control variables and entered first in the regression analysis. For examining the direct effects of work unit decision quality on work unit effectiveness, a simple regression technique was used. Finally, Edwards and Lambert's (2007) general analytic framework was adopted to examine the moderating effects of leader authoritarian decision implementation on the relationship between work unit decision quality and work unit effectiveness and also to examine the moderating effects of leader authoritarian decision implementation on the mediating effects of work unit decision quality on the relationship between leader authoritarian decision making and work unit effectiveness. According to Edwards and Lambert (2007), their general analytical framework "can incorporate moderation into any combination of paths that constitute a mediated model. It also translates results from regression equation used to estimate model parameters into expressions that how individual paths and their associated direct, indirect, and total effects vary across levels of the moderator variable. Confidence intervals and significant tests are provided for individual paths and direct, indirect, and total effects, as well as comparisons of paths and effects across levels of the moderator variable" (p. 17). I adopted Edwards and Lambert's (2007) general analytical framework because their framework has these above benefits, while addressing the drawbacks of earlier approaches.

I analyzed the total effect moderation model because the total effect moderation model tests the moderated mediation effect and the direct moderation effect simultaneously. In addition to examining the moderating effect of authoritarian decision implementation on the mediating

effect of work unit decision quality, the total effect moderation model examines if the moderating effect occurs in the direct path of authoritarian decision making and unit effectiveness. In so doing, the relationships among authoritarian decision making, authoritarian decision implementation, work unit decision quality, and work unit effectiveness can be better disentangled.

The total effect moderation model is represented by Equation 1 and 2 below, which is estimated by SPSS. The analyses involved two major steps. First, individual coefficients for Equation 1 and 2 were obtained from the SPSS regression module. Before starting to conduct the regression analyses, I did mean-centering for the control variables, the antecedent, the moderator, and the mediator. For Equation 1, the control variables, leader gender, age and competence were first entered in the regression equation, and then leader authoritarian decision making (i.e. X), authoritarian decision implementation (i.e. the moderator Z), and the interaction term (i.e. XZ) were entered. For Equation 2, the same control variables were first entered in the regression equation; then leader authoritarian decision making (i.e. X), work unit decision quality (i.e. the mediator M), authoritarian decision implementation (i.e. the moderator Z), the interaction term of authoritarian decision making and authoritarian decision implementation (i.e. XZ), and the interaction term of work unit decision quality and authoritarian decision implementation were entered (i.e. MZ). The values for a and b represent the unstandardized regression coefficients; e refers to random errors.

$$M = a_{01} + a_{X1}X + a_{Z1}Z + a_{XZ1}XZ + e_{M1}. \quad (1)$$

$$Y = b_{02} + b_{X2}X + b_{M2}M + b_{Z2}Z + b_{XZ2}XZ + b_{MZ2}MZ + e_{Y2}. \quad (2)$$

Furthermore, the regression coefficients generated from Equation 1 and 2 were tested by

the SPSS regression module. I further computed the simple paths, indirect effects, and total effects by using Equation 3. An excel file provided by Edwards and Lambert (2007) was used to compute these additional coefficients. The excel file was embedded in different formulas to compute the simple paths, indirect effects, total effects at selected levels of the moderator variable (one standard deviation above and below the mean for work unit decision quality). After computing the coefficients, a constrained nonlinear regression (CNLR) was conducted to examine these coefficients from 1,000 bootstrap samples. The output from the constrained nonlinear regression was entered in Edwards and Lambert's (2007) excel file. The Excel percentile function was then used to locate the 2.5 and 97.5 percentiles of the simple paths, indirect effects, and total effects. The bias-corrected confidence intervals created by the Excel percentile function were then used to examine whether the simple paths, indirect effects, and total effects reached the significant levels. On the other hand, the differences for the first stage, second stage, and direct effect were tested by the regression module performed for Equation 1 and 2.

$$\begin{aligned}
 Y &= [b_{02} + a_{01}b_{M2} + (b_{Z2} + a_{Z1}b_{M2} + a_{01}b_{MZ2})Z + a_{Z1}b_{MZ2}Z^2] + [b_{X2} + a_{X1}b_{M2} + (b_{XZ2} + a_{XZ1}b_{M2} + \\
 &\quad a_{X1}b_{MZ2})Z + a_{XZ1}b_{MZ2}Z^2]X + e_{Y2} + b_{M2}e_{M1} + b_{MZ2}Ze_{M1} \\
 &= [b_{02} + b_{Z2}Z + (a_{01} + a_{Z1}Z)(b_{M2} + b_{MZ2}Z)] + [(b_{X2} + b_{XZ2}Z) + (a_{X1} + a_{XZ1}Z)(b_{M2} + b_{MZ2}Z)]X + \\
 &\quad e_{Y2} + b_{M2}e_{M1} + b_{MZ2}Ze_{M1}. \quad (3)
 \end{aligned}$$

CHAPTER IV: RESULTS

Descriptive Statistics

Correlations among variables and reliability statistics of the variables are presented in Table 3. Correlation results indicated that leader authoritarian decision making was negatively related to leader authoritarian decision implementation ($r = -.16, p < .10$), providing preliminary support to Hypothesis 1 that leader authoritarian decision making and leader authoritarian decision implementation were two distinct constructs, as demonstrated in the initial confirmatory factor analysis results. Leader authoritarian decision making was positively related to work unit voluntary turnover ($r = .23, p < .05$). Work unit decision quality was positively related to work unit performance ($r = .22, p < .10$) and work unit citizenship behavior ($r = .66, p < .01$). Leader competence was positively related to work unit decision quality, work unit performance, and work unit citizenship behavior ($r = .40, p < .01$; $r = .33, p < .01$; $r = .35, p < .01$). In terms of the control variables, leader gender was negatively related to leaders' age and competence ($r = -.18, p < .10$; $r = -.24, p < .05$).

TABLE 3. Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations of All Involved Variables

Variables	Mean	s.d	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Leader gender	1.36	.48									
2. Leader age	4.39	.98	-.18+								
3. Leader competence	5.71	.75	-.24*	.08	(.90)						
4. Authoritarian decision making	2.64	.49	.10	.15	-.06	(.78)					
5. Authoritarian decision implementation	4.08	.47	-.07	-.10	.07	-.16+	(.82)				
6. Work unit decision quality	5.82	.51	-.18	.08	.40**	-.06	.19	(.74)			
7. Work unit performance	5.92	.62	-.01	.02	.33**	.04	.01	.22+	(.68)		
8. Work unit citizenship behavior	5.60	.49	-.20	-.06	.35**	-.07	.02	.66**	.19	(.67)	
9. Work unit voluntary turnover	3.49	1.39	.13	-.05	-.07	.23*	-.09	-.16	-.14	-.13	(.91)

Note. N = 65–114

+ $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

In order to further examine the construct distinctiveness of leader authoritarian decision making and authoritarian decision implementation, I conducted a confirmatory factor analysis. I first had leader authoritarian decision making and authoritarian decision implementation as two latent constructs in Model 1. The CFI and RMSEA were reported to indicate the model indices (Williams, Vandenberg, & Edwards, 2009). The results indicate that the two-factor structure fitted the data well ($\chi^2 = 69.77$, $df = 31$, $CFI = .97$, $RMSEA = .06$). An alternative Model 2 that combined authoritarian decision making and authoritarian decision implementation as one factor was created. The one-factor structure did not fit the data well ($\chi^2 = 335.17$, $df = 32$, $CFI = .73$, $RMSEA = .17$). The CFA results show that Model 1 (i.e. the two-factor structure) was better than Model 2 (i.e. the one-factor structure) ($\Delta \chi^2 = 265.40$, $p < .01$), further supporting Hypothesis 1.

The Interactive Effects among Leader Authoritarian Decision Making, Leader Authoritarian Decision Implementation, and Leader Competence on Work Unit Decision Quality

A hierarchical regression analysis was performed to test the interactive effect of leader authoritarian decision making and leader competence, the interactive effect of leader authoritarian decision making and authoritarian decision implementation, and the three-way interactive effect of leader authoritarian decision making, authoritarian decision implementation, and leader competence on work unit decision quality.

Table 4 presents the hierarchical regression results. In Model 1, the control variables, leader's gender and age were entered into the regression equation. The main effects, leader authoritarian decision making, leader authoritarian decision implementation, and leader competence were also entered into the equation. Results in Model 1 shows that both leader

authoritarian decision implementation and leader competence were positively related to work unit decision quality ($\beta = .23, p < .10$; $\beta = .33, p < .05$, respectively). The interactive term of leader authoritarian decision making and leader competence and the interactive term of leader authoritarian decision making and authoritarian decision implementation were further entered in the Model 2. Results in Model 2 indicate that both of the interactive effects were significant ($\beta = -.30, p < .05$; $\beta = .36, p < .01$, respectively). The two interactive effects were further plotted in Figure 2A and 2B.

According to Figure 2A, the interactive effect of leader authoritarian decision making and leader competence, however, was different from how it was hypothesized. I hypothesized that the relationship between leader authoritarian decision making and work unit decision quality should be negative for low leader competence but should be positive or non-significant for high leader competence. However, Figure 2A shows a contrary result that the relationship between leader authoritarian decision making and work unit decision quality became positive for low leader competence and became negative for high leader competence. Thus, Hypothesis 2 was not supported. On the other hand, Figure 2B shows a negative (or non-significant) relationship between leader authoritarian decision making and work unit decision quality for low leader authoritarian decision implementation but a positive (or non-significant) relationship for high leader authoritarian decision implementation. Simple effects were further examined by adopting Edwards and Lambert's (2007) bootstrapping method. Simple effects results supported Hypothesis 3 that leader authoritarian decision making had a negative effect on work unit decision quality for low leader authoritarian decision implementation ($b = -.25, p < .05$), whereas it was not related to work unit decision quality for high leader authoritarian decision implementation ($b = .11, p > .05$).

To examine the three-way interactive effect of leader authoritarian decision making, authoritarian decision implementation, and leader competence on work unit decision quality, the interactive term of leader authoritarian decision implementation and leader competence and the three-way interactive term of leader authoritarian decision making, leader authoritarian decision implementation, and leader competence were entered in Model 3. Results in Model 3 suggest the three-way interaction effect was significant ($\beta = .34, p < .01$). The three-way interaction was plotted in Figure 3A and 3B. As hypothesized, the moderating effect of leader authoritarian decision implementation on the relationship between leader authoritarian decision making and work unit decision quality was weaker for low leader competence, supporting Hypothesis 4.

The Direct Effects of Work Unit Decision Quality on Work Unit Effectiveness

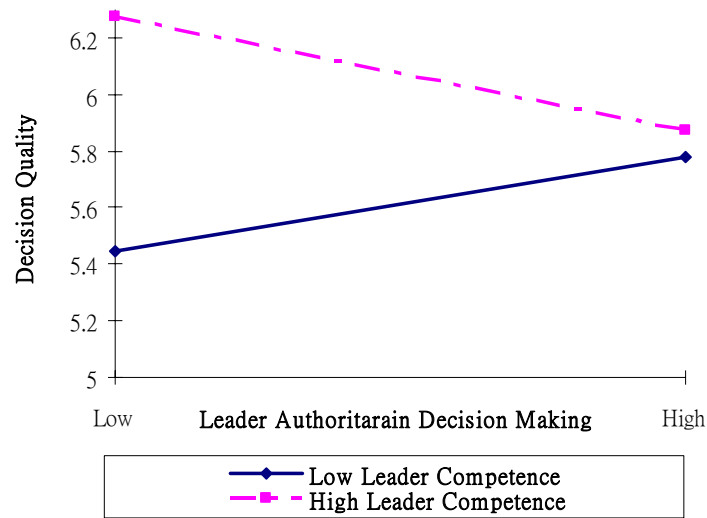
A simple regression analysis was performed to examine the direct effects of work unit decision quality on work unit performance, work unit citizenship behavior, and work unit voluntary turnover. Leader's gender, age and work unit decision quality were entered in the regression equation. Results in Table 5 suggest that work unit decision quality was positively related to work unit performance and work unit citizenship behavior ($\beta = .27, p < .05$; $\beta = .64, p < .01$), supporting Hypothesis 5a and 5b. However, work unit decision quality was not related to work unit voluntary turnover. Hypothesis 5c was not supported ($\beta = -.18, p > .05$).

TABLE 4. Results of Interactive Effects among Leader Authoritarian Decision Making, Leader Authoritarian Decision Implementation, and Leader Competence on Work Unit Decision Quality

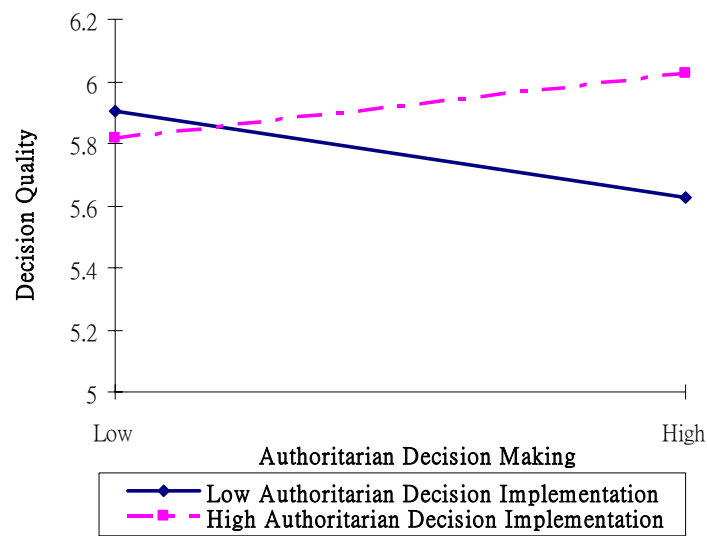
Independent Variables	Work Unit Decision Quality		
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Controls			
Leader gender	-.11	-.15	-.23*
Leader age	.10	.10	.11
Main effects			
Leader authoritarian decision making	-.07	-.03	-.16
Leader authoritarian decision implementation	.23+	.19	.11
Leader competence	.33*	.46**	.46**
Two-way interaction			
Leader authoritarian decision making X Leader authoritarian decision implementation		.36**	.24+
Leader authoritarian decision making X Leader competence		-.30*	-.31*
Leader authoritarian decision implementation X Leader competence			.04
Three-way interaction			
Leader authoritarian decision making X Leader authoritarian decision implementation X Leader competence			.34**
ΔR^2	.23*	.13**	.08*
Overall F	3.25*	4.20**	4.46**

Note. The ΔR^2 value in Model 1 was the overall R^2 in Model 1. The ΔR^2 value in Model 2 was computed from the overall R^2 in Model 2 subtracting the overall R^2 in Model 1. The ΔR^2 value in Model 3 was computed from the overall R^2 in Model 3 subtracting the overall R^2 value in Model 2.

+ $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

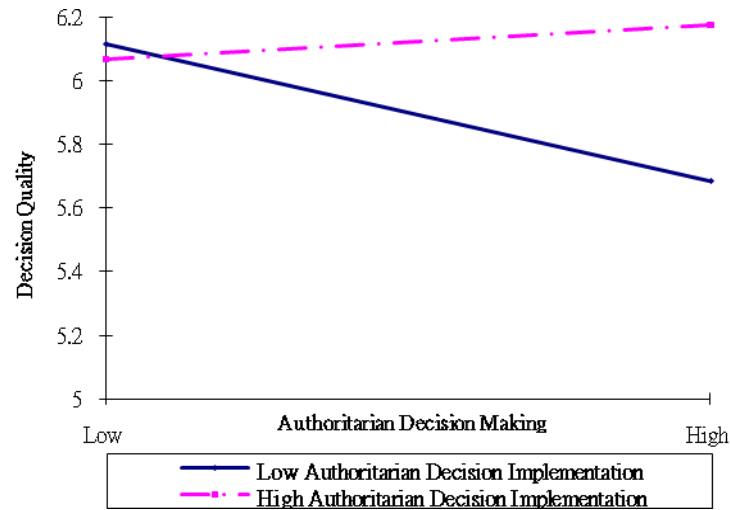


A. The Interactive Effect of Leader Authoritarian Decision Making and Leader Competence

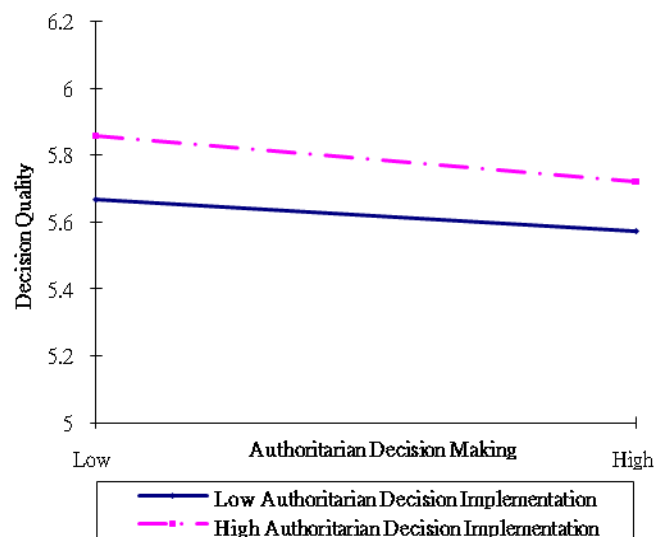


B. The Interactive Effect of Leader Authoritarian Decision Making and Authoritarian Decision Implementation

FIGURE 2. Plots of the Two-Way Interactive Effects on Work Unit Decision Quality.



A. For High Leader Competence



B. For Low Leader Competence

FIGURE 3. Plots of the Three-Way Interaction Effect of Leader Authoritarian Decision Making, Authoritarian Decision Implementation, Leader Competence on Work Unit Decision Quality.

TABLE 5. Results of the Direct Effects of Work Unit Decision Quality on Work Unit Effectiveness

Independent Variables	Outcomes		
	Work unit performance	Work unit citizenship behavior	Work unit voluntary turnover
Controls			
Leader gender	.06	-.07	.08
Leader age	.01	-.12	.00
Main effects			
Work unit decision quality	.27*	.64**	-.18
R ²	.07	.44**	.05
Overall F	1.33	15.26**	.93

+ $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Results from Edwards and Lambert's General Analytical Framework

Work unit performance as the outcome. As shown in Table 6, results indicate that leader authoritarian decision implementation moderated the path from leader authoritarian decision making to work unit decision quality ($a_{XZ1} = .38, p < .05$), the path from work unit decision quality to work unit performance ($b_{MZ2} = .40, p < .05$), and the direct effect of leader authoritarian decision making on work unit performance ($b_{XZ2} = .36, p < .10$).

Simple effects in Table 7 were computed from the coefficients in Table 6. For low authoritarian decision implementation (i.e., one standard deviation below the mean, $Z = -.47$), the first stage of the indirect effect ($a_{X1} + a_{XZ1}Z$) equals $-0.07 + 0.38(-0.47) = -0.25$; the second stage of the indirect effect ($b_{M2} + b_{MZ2}Z$) equals $0.21 + 0.40(-0.47) = 0.02$; the direct effect ($b_{X2} + b_{XZ2}Z$) equals $0.16 + 0.36(-0.47) = -0.01$; The indirect effect is computed by the product of the first and the second stages $-0.25 * 0.02 = -0.01$; finally, the total effect is computed by the sum of the direct and indirect effects $-0.01 + (-0.01) = -0.02$. On the other hand, for high authoritarian decision implementation (i.e., one standard deviation above the mean, $Z = .47$), the first stage of the indirect effect ($a_{X1} + a_{XZ1}Z$) equals $-0.07 + 0.38 * 0.47 = 0.11$; the second stage of the indirect effect ($b_{M2} + b_{MZ2}Z$) equals $0.21 + 0.40 * 0.47 = 0.40$; the direct effect ($b_{X2} + b_{XZ2}Z$) equals $0.16 + 0.36(0.47) = 0.33$; The indirect effect is computed by the product of the first and the second stages $0.11 * 0.40 = 0.04$; finally, the total effect is computed by the sum of the direct and indirect effects $0.33 + 0.04 = 0.37$.

Differences in the first stage, the second stage, and for the direct effect were examined by the standard errors reported by the regression module. Differences between low and high authoritarian decision implementation were significant at the first stage of the indirect effect ($0.11 - (-0.25) = 0.36, p < .05$), at the second stage ($0.40 - 0.02 = 0.38, p < .05$), and also were

significant for the direct effect ($0.33 - (-0.01) = 0.34, p < .10$). Differences for the indirect effect and total effect were tested with bias-corrected confidence intervals based on the CNLR module. Results indicated that differences for the indirect effect were not significant ($0.04 - (0.01) = 0.05, p > .05$). Finally, differences for the total effect was significant ($0.37 - (-0.02) = 0.39, p < .10$). These results provided preliminary support for Hypothesis 6a that leader authoritarian decision implementation moderated the path from work unit decision quality to work unit performance. However, the moderating effect of leader authoritarian decision implementation on the mediation of work unit decision quality was not found from the analysis, so that Hypothesis 7a was not supported.

Differences in simple slopes for low and high authoritarian decision implementation were depicted to visualize the moderating effects in different paths and to provide evidence to support Hypothesis 6a. On the basis of Equation 1 and 2, differences in simple slopes were presented in Figure 4A, 4B, 4C, 4D, and 4E. Figure 4A plots the moderating effect of authoritarian decision implementation on the path from leader authoritarian decision making to work unit decision quality. Figure 4B demonstrates the moderating effect on the path from work unit decision quality to work unit performance. It shows that the positive relationship was stronger when leader authoritarian decision implementation was high ($0.40, p < .10$) compared to when that was low ($0.02, p > .05$), supporting the Hypothesis 6a. According to Figure 4D, when leader authoritarian decision implementation was high, there was also a positive relationship between authoritarian decision making and work unit performance ($0.33, p < .05$). Comparing Figure 4C and 4D suggests that the difference in slopes for the direct effect was the primary reason for the difference in slopes for the total effect in Figure 4E.

In sum, results support the Hypothesis 6a that leader authoritarian decision

implementation moderated the relationship between work unit decision quality and work unit performance, such that the positive relationship was stronger when leader authoritarian decision implementation was high. However, leader authoritarian decision implementation moderated the direct effect of leader authoritarian decision making on work unit performance rather than moderating the indirect effect of leader authoritarian decision making on work unit performance. Hypothesis 7a thus was not supported.

TABLE 6. Unstandardized Coefficient Estimates from Equation 1 and 2 as Leader Authoritarian Decision Implementation as the Moderator

Outcome variable	a_{X1}	a_{Z1}	a_{XZ1}	R^2	b_{X2}	b_{M2}	b_{Z2}	b_{XZ2}	b_{MZ2}	R^2
Work unit performance	-.07	.23*	.38*	.29**	.16	.21	.06	.36+	.40*	.33**
Work unit citizenship behavior	-.07	.23*	.38*	.29**	.07	.56**	-.18+	.07	-.40**	.53**
Work unit voluntary turnover	-.07	.23*	.38*	.29**	.75+	-.57	.09	.03	-.46	.10

Note. a_{X1} , a_{Z1} , and a_{XZ1} are unstandardized coefficients from Equation 1, which uses work unit decision quality as the dependent variable. b_{X2} , b_{M2} , b_{Z2} , b_{XZ2} , and b_{MZ2} are unstandardized coefficients from Equation 2, which uses work unit performance, work unit citizenship behavior, and work unit voluntary turnover as the dependent variable.

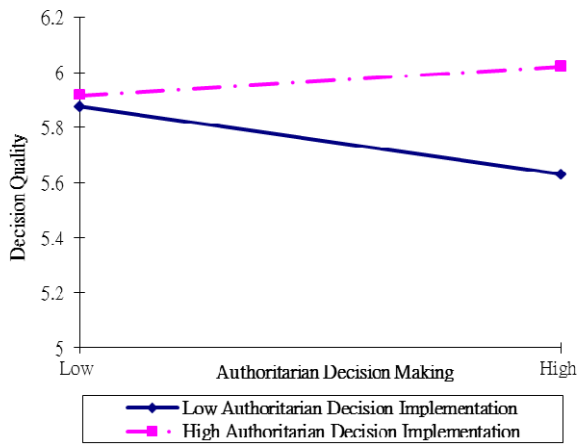
+ $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

TABLE 7. Analysis of Simple Effects

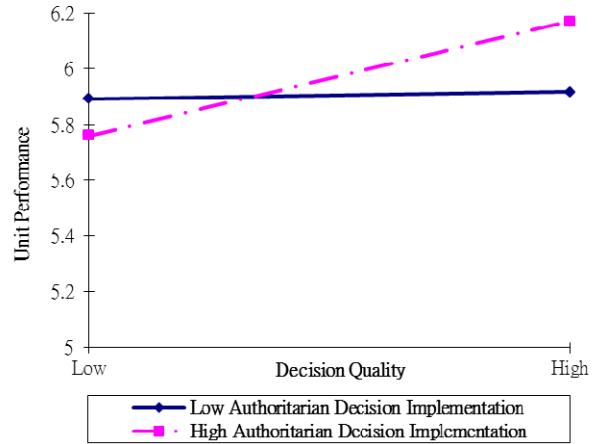
Outcome variable	Stage		Effect		
	First	Second	Direct	Indirect	Total
Work unit performance					
Low ADI	-.25**	.02	-.01	-.01	-.02
High ADI	.11	.40+	.33*	.04	.37*
Differences	.36*	.38*	.34+	.05	.39+
Work unit citizenship behavior					
Low ADI	-.25**	.74*	.04	-.18**	-.14
High ADI	.11	.37**	.10*	.04	.14+
Differences	.36*	-.37**	.06	.22**	.28+
Work unit voluntary turnover					
Low ADI	-.25**	-.35	.74	.09*	.83
High ADI	.11	-.79**	.77	-.08	.69
Differences	.36*	-.44	.03	-.17*	-.14

Note. ADI refers to authoritarian decision implementation. For rows labeled low ADI and high ADI, table entries are simple effects computed from Table 4. Low and high ADI are defined by one standard deviation below and above the means (i.e. $Z = -.047$ and $.047$, respectively). Differences between low ADI and high ADI was computed by subtracting the effects for high ADI from the effects for low ADI.

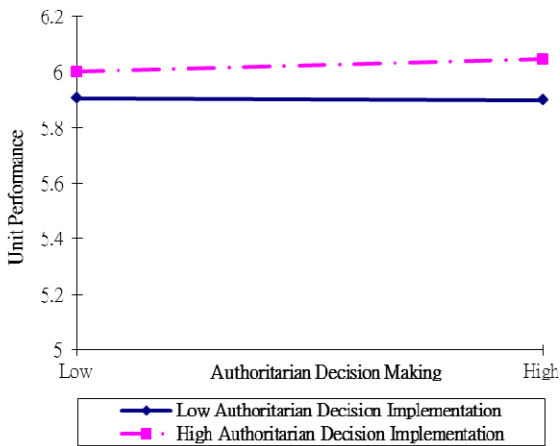
+ $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.



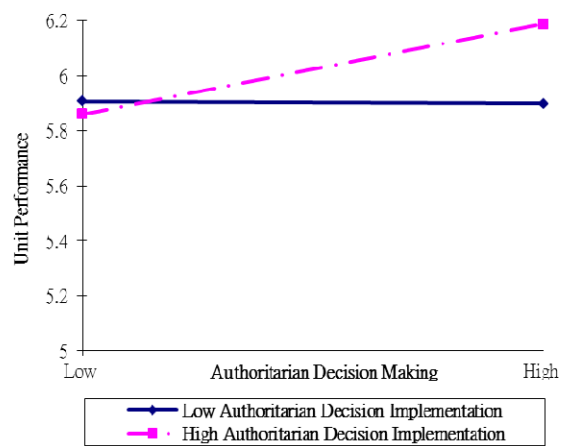
A. First Stage



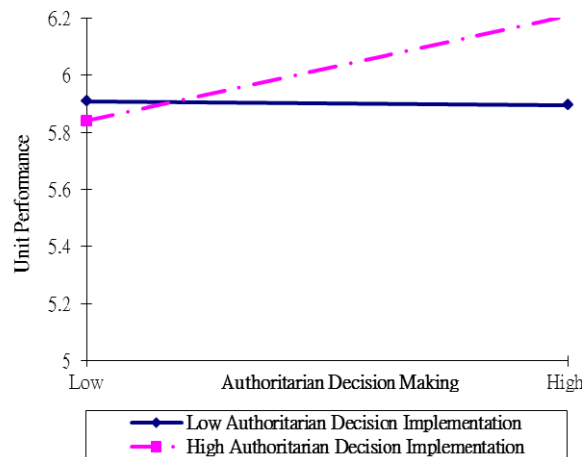
B. Second Stage



C. Indirect Effect



D. Direct Effect



E. Total Effect

FIGURE 4. Plots of Interactive Effects with Work Unit Performance as the Outcome.

Work unit citizenship behavior as the outcome. Results show that leader authoritarian decision implementation moderated the path from leader authoritarian decision making to work unit decision quality ($a_{XZ1} = .38, p < .05$) and the path from work unit decision quality to work unit citizenship behavior ($b_{MZ2} = -.40, p < .01$), while the direct path from leader authoritarian decision making to work unit citizenship behavior was not significant ($b_{XZ2} = .07, p > .05$).

Simple effects were computed from the coefficients in Table 6. For low authoritarian decision implementation, the first stage of the indirect effect equals $-0.07 + 0.38(-0.47) = -0.25$; the second stage of the indirect effect equals $0.56 + (-0.40)(-0.47) = 0.74$; the direct effect equals $0.07 + 0.07(-0.47) = 0.04$; The indirect effect is computed by the product of the first and the second stages $-0.25 * 0.74 = -0.18$. Finally, the total effect is computed by the sum of the direct and indirect effects $0.04 + (-0.18) = -0.14$. For high authoritarian decision implementation, the first stage of the indirect effect equals $-0.07 + 0.38 * 0.47 = 0.11$; the second stage of the indirect effect equals $0.56 + (-0.40) * 0.47 = 0.37$; the direct effect equals $0.07 + 0.07 * 0.47 = 0.10$; The indirect effect is computed by the product of the first and the second stages $0.11 * 0.37 = 0.04$. Finally, the total effect is computed by the sum of the direct and indirect effects $0.10 + 0.04 = 0.14$.

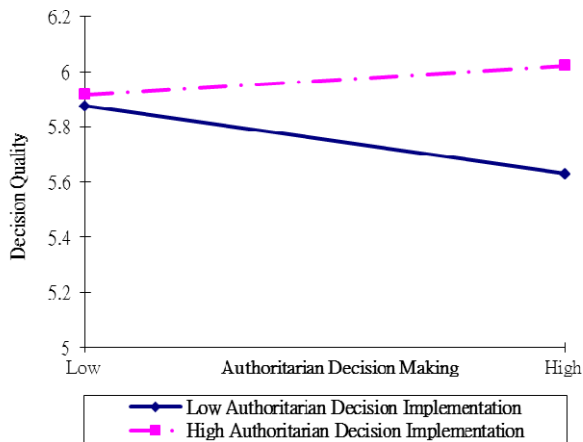
Differences between low and high authoritarian decision implementation were significant in the first stage of the indirect effect ($0.11 - (-0.25) = 0.36, p < .05$) and in the second stage ($0.37 - 0.74 = -0.37, p < .01$) but were not significant for the direct effect ($0.10 - 0.04 = 0.06, p > .05$). Moreover, differences were significant for the indirect effect ($0.04 - (-0.18) = 0.22, p < .01$) and for the total effect ($0.14 - (-0.14) = 0.28, p < .10$). These results preliminarily supported Hypothesis 6b that leader authoritarian decision implementation moderated the path from work unit decision quality to work unit citizenship behavior. However, the positive relationship was

stronger when leader authoritarian decision implementation was low. The result was exactly opposite to what I hypothesized. Therefore, Hypothesis 6b was not supported. Moreover, Hypothesis 7b was obtained the preliminary support. The moderating effect of leader authoritarian decision implementation on the mediation of work unit decision quality was also significant.

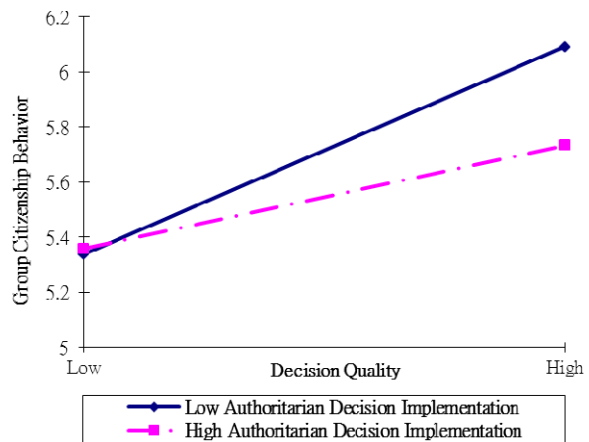
Differences in simple slopes for low and high authoritarian decision implementation were depicted to provide further evidence to support Hypothesis 7b. Figure 5A depicts the moderating effect of leader authoritarian decision implementation on the path from authoritarian decision making to work unit decision quality. Figure 5B shows the moderating effect on the path from work unit decision quality to work unit citizenship behavior, such that the positive relationship between work unit decision quality and work unit citizenship behavior was stronger for low authoritarian decision implementation ($0.74, p < .05$). For the indirect effect, Figure 5C shows that when leader authoritarian decision implementation was low, the mediating effect of work unit decision quality on the relationship between leader authoritarian decision making and work unit citizenship behavior was significant ($-0.18, p < .01$). In contrast, when leader authoritarian decision implementation was high, the mediating effect of work unit decision was not significant ($.04, p > .05$). Comparing Figure 5C through 5E suggests that the difference in slopes for the indirect effect was the primary reason for the difference in slopes for the total effect in Figure 5E.

In summary, results from the analyses found the moderating effect of leader authoritarian decision implementation on the relationship between work unit decision quality and work unit citizenship behavior. The positive relationship, however, was stronger when leader authoritarian decision implementation was low rather than when leader authoritarian decision implementation was high. In addition, the mediating effect of work unit decision quality on the path from leader

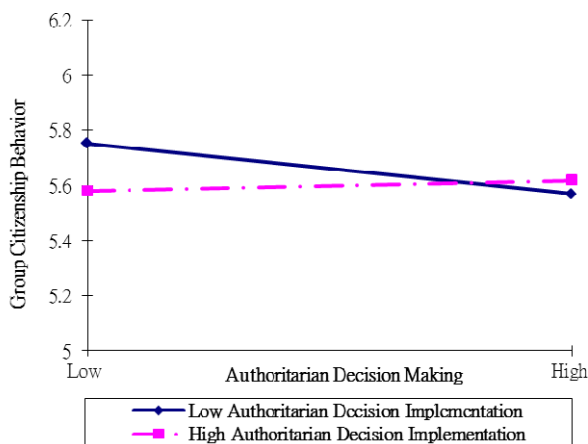
authoritarian decision making to work unit citizenship behavior was significant for low authoritarian decision implementation but was not significant for high authoritarian decision implementation, supporting Hypothesis 7b.



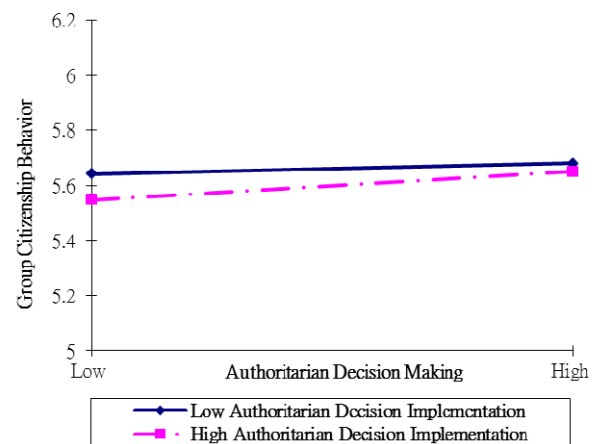
A. First Stage



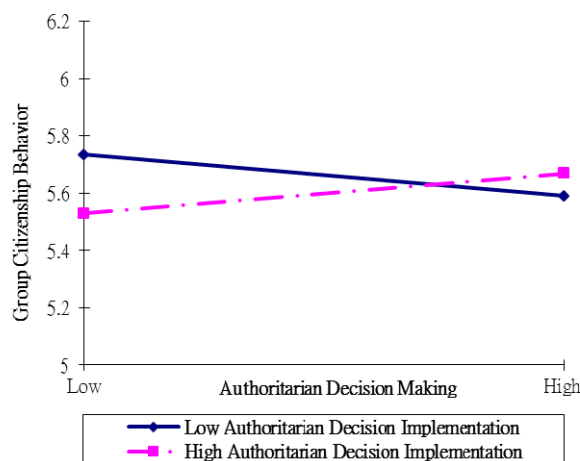
B. Second Stage



C. Indirect Effect



D. Direct Effect



E. Total Effect

FIGURE 5. Plots of Interactive Effects with Work Unit Citizenship Behavior as the Outcome.

Work unit voluntary turnover as the outcome. For work unit voluntary turnover, results indicate that leader authoritarian decision implementation moderated the path from leader authoritarian decision making to work unit decision quality ($a_{XZ1} = .38, p < .05$). However, it did not moderate the path from work unit decision quality to work unit voluntary turnover ($b_{MZ2} = -.46, p > .05$) and the direct effect of leader authoritarian decision making on work unit voluntary turnover ($b_{XZ2} = .03, p > .05$).

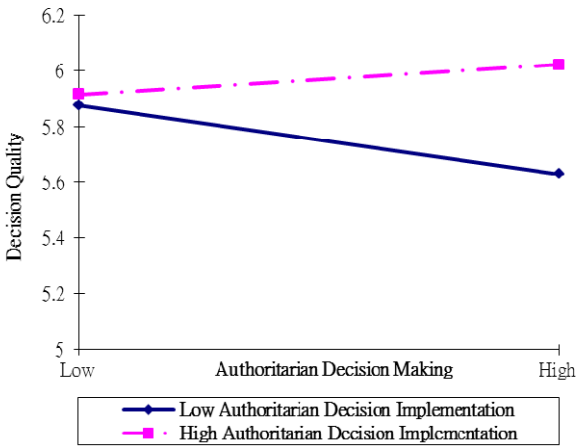
Simple effects are presented in Table 7. For low authoritarian decision implementation, the first stage of the indirect effect equals $-0.07 + 0.38(-0.47) = -0.25$; the second stage of the indirect effect equals $-0.57 + (-0.46)(-0.47) = -0.35$; the direct effect equals $0.75 + 0.03(-0.47) = 0.74$; The indirect effect is computed by the product of the first and the second stages $-0.25 * -0.35 = 0.09$. Finally, the total effect is computed by the sum of the direct and indirect effects $0.74 + 0.09 = 0.83$. For high authoritarian decision implementation, the first stage of the indirect effect equals $-0.07 + 0.38 * 0.47 = 0.11$; the second stage of the indirect effect equals $-0.57 + (-0.46) * 0.47 = -0.79$; the direct effect equals $0.75 + 0.03 * 0.47 = 0.77$; The indirect effect is computed by the product of the first and the second stages $0.11 * -0.79 = -0.08$; the total effect is computed by the sum of the direct and indirect effects $0.77 + (-0.08) = 0.69$.

Differences between low and high authoritarian decision implementation were significant in the first stage of the indirect effect ($0.11 - (-0.25) = 0.36, p < .05$) but were not significant in the second stage and for the direct effect ($-0.79 - (-0.35) = -0.44, p > .05$; $0.77 - 0.74 = 0.03, p > .05$). However, differences for the indirect effect were significant ($-0.08 - 0.09 = -0.17, p < .05$), supporting that the moderated mediation was significant. Finally, differences for the total effect were not significant ($0.69 - 0.83 = -0.14, p > .05$). In sum, Hypothesis 6c was not supported. However, Hypothesis 7c obtained the preliminarily support. The moderating effect of leader

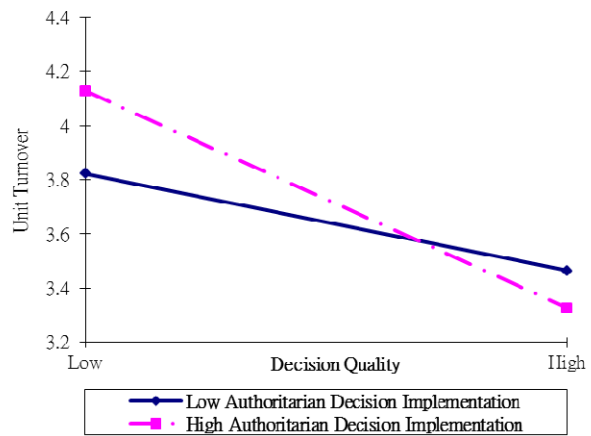
authoritarian decision implementation on the mediation of work unit decision quality was significant.

Differences in simple slopes for low and high authoritarian decision implementation were plotted. Figure 6A depicts the moderating effect in the first stage. Although Figure 6B suggests that the negative relationship between decision quality and work unit voluntary turnover was stronger for high authoritarian decision implementation ($-0.79, p < .01$), the differences between low and high authoritarian decision making was not significant ($-0.44, p > .05$). For the indirect effect, Figure 6C shows that the mediating effect of work unit decision quality on the relationship between leader authoritarian decision making and work unit voluntary turnover was significant for low authoritarian decision implementation ($0.09, p < .05$) but was not significant for high authoritarian decision implementation ($-0.08, p > .05$), supporting Hypothesis 7c. Comparing Figure 6C through 6E suggests that the difference in slopes for the total effect was not significant because the differences in slopes for the indirect and direct effects were in the different directions.

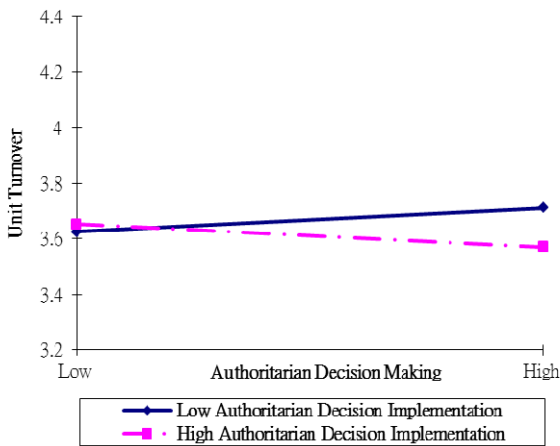
In summary, these results did not support Hypothesis 6c, but provided support for Hypothesis 7c. That is, leader authoritarian decision making had an indirect, positive effect on work unit voluntary turnover through its negative impact on work unit decision quality, such that the indirect effect only exists when leader authoritarian decision implementation was low.



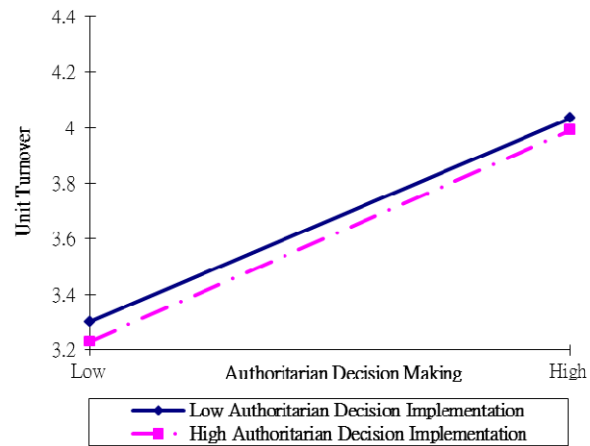
A. First Stage



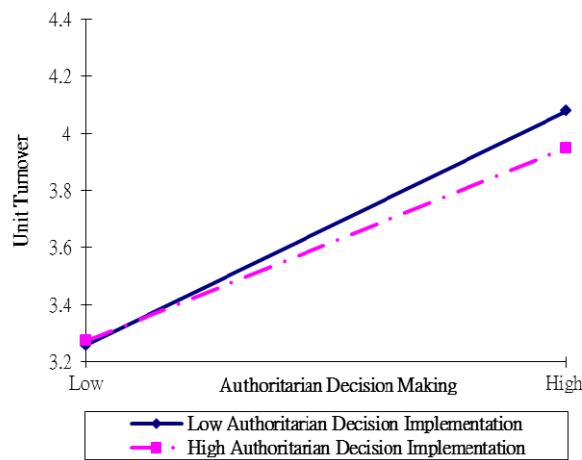
B. Second Stage



C. Indirect Effect



D. Direct Effect



E. Total Effect

FIGURE 6. Plots of Interactive Effects with Work Unit Voluntary Turnover as the Outcome.

TABLE 8. Overall Result Summary

Hypotheses	Results
1. Authoritarian decision making and authoritarian decision implementation have discriminant validity.	Supported
2. Leader authoritarian decision making and leader competence interact to affect work unit decision quality, such that the relationship between leader authoritarian decision making and work unit decision quality is negative for low leader competence, whereas the relationship is positive or non-significant for high leader competence.	Not Supported
3. Leader authoritarian decision making and authoritarian decision implementation interact to affect work unit decision quality, such that the relationship between leader authoritarian decision making and work unit decision quality is negative for low authoritarian decision implementation, whereas the relationship is positive or non-significant for high authoritarian decision implementation.	Supported
4. Leader authoritarian decision making, leader competence, and leader authoritarian decision implementation interact to affect work unit decision quality, such that the moderating effect of leader authoritarian decision implementation on the relationship between leader authoritarian decision making and work unit decision quality will be weaker when leader competence is low.	Supported
5. Work unit decision quality is positively related to (a) work unit performance and (b) work unit citizenship behavior but is negatively related to (c) work unit voluntary turnover.	Partially supported
6. Leader authoritarian decision implementation moderates the relationship of work unit decision quality with (a) work unit performance, (b) work unit citizenship behavior, and (c) work unit voluntary behavior, such that the relationship will be stronger when leader authoritarian decision implementation is high.	Partially supported
7. Leader authoritarian decision implementation moderates the mediating effect of work unit decision quality on the relationships of leader authoritarian decision making with (a) work unit performance, (b) work unit citizenship behavior, and (c) work unit voluntary turnover, such that the mediating effects of work unit decision quality will be significant for low leader authoritarian decision implementation, whereas the relationship will not be significant for high leader authoritarian decision implementation.	Partially supported

CHAPTER V: DISCUSSION

This dissertation aims to address the inconsistent findings regarding the relationship between authoritarian leadership and work-related outcomes. In general, the results here indicated that the effect of authoritarian leadership on work unit effectiveness depends on the interaction of the two elements of authoritarian leadership (i.e. leader authoritarian decision making and leader authoritarian decision implementation). When leaders are low in authoritarian decision implementation, their authoritarian style in decision making may have a negative, indirect effect on work unit citizenship behavior and a positive, indirect effect on work unit voluntary turnover through its negative impact on work unit decision quality. These results support that leader authoritarian decision implementation is a necessary ingredient when understanding the relationship between authoritarian leadership and effectiveness.

For the path from leader authoritarian decision making to work unit decision quality, results confirm Minzberg's (1987) crafting strategy that leader authoritarian decision implementation may interact with their authoritarian decision making and together affect their work units' decision quality. When leader authoritarian decision implementation is low, leader authoritarian decision making has a negative effect on work unit decision quality. Moreover, leader competence is also found as an important contingent factor affecting the relationship between leader authoritarian decision making and work unit decision quality. I hypothesized that leader authoritarian decision making has a negative effect on work unit decision quality when leader competence is low. However, results did not support this hypothesis. Instead, results indicated that leaders with highly rated competence in general make better decisions than those with low competence, regardless of the style that leaders adopt. In addition, leaders who are not authoritarian in terms of their decision making, while also being low in terms of rated competence appear to make the worst decisions. Based on my findings, I would speculate that if

these leaders listen to other members' views, but are not competent enough to integrate their ideas and to help reach consensus, I suspect the decision quality would suffer as compared to those leaders, who simply do not listen to their team members. Furthermore, I found evidence to support the proposed three-way interaction among leader authoritarian decision making, leadership authoritarian decision implementation, and leader competence on work unit decision quality in the current study. For leaders with low competence, they not only are more likely to make low-quality decisions but also are less likely to benefit from the crafting strategy process to enhance their decisions even though they appeared authoritarian on the implementation process.

For the path from work unit decision quality to work unit effectiveness, as expected, high leader authoritarian decision implementation is found to strengthen the positive relationship between work unit decision quality and work unit performance. This finding was in contrast with my finding that high leader authoritarian decision implementation weakened the positive relationship between work unit decision quality and work unit citizenship behavior. Goal setting theory (Locke & Latham, 1990) may help explain why the positive relationship between unit decision quality and work unit citizenship behavior is weaker for high leader authoritarian decision implementation. When leaders are authoritarian in decision implementation, they set up specific, challenging goals that motivate subordinates' performance (Locke & Latham, 2002, 2006). They also monitor whether the goals are well executed. To the extent the decisions are of high quality, we might expect that the leader's subordinates are more engaged in specific, challenging goals that are assigned by their authoritarian leaders. However, Ordonez, Schweitzer, Galinsky, and Bazerman (2009) postulate that organizations that rely heavily on goal setting may erode the foundation of cooperation and harm altruistic behaviors. If subordinates are too focused on achieving the specific goals that are assigned by the authoritarian leader, subordinates

may decrease their performance in terms of unit level citizenship behavior, suggesting that they stay within the narrow parameters set by the leader.

Finally, leader authoritarian decision implementation also moderates the mediating effect of work unit decision quality on the path from authoritarian decision making to work unit citizenship behavior and to work unit voluntary turnover. However, leader authoritarian decision implementation does not moderate the mediating effect of work unit decision quality from authoritarian decision making to work unit performance. Instead, leader authoritarian decision making interacts with authoritarian decision implementation to affect work unit performance directly. A possible explanation for this result is that other mechanisms such as empowerment or intrinsic motivation may function as the mediators between authoritarian decision making and work unit performance instead of the work unit decision quality.

Theoretical Contribution

My dissertation makes three major contributions to the leadership literature. First, by decomposing authoritarian leadership into authoritarian decision making and authoritarian decision implementation, I am able to conceptually as well as empirically demonstrate the distinctiveness of these two elements. Doing so also sheds a light on the puzzling findings in prior research focusing on authoritarian leadership, and begins to take a closer look at the relationship between authoritarian leadership and performance.

Second, by applying authoritarian leadership style to the decision-making process, I focus on the impact of authoritarian leadership on work unit outcomes (i.e. work unit performance, work unit citizenship behavior, and work unit turnover). However, previous studies mainly focus on the dyadic relationship between authoritarian managers and subordinates at the individual level (e.g. Wu, et. al., 2002; Cheng, et. al., 2004; Farh, et. al., 2006). The mechanisms that are

proposed to link authoritarian leadership and subordinates' outcomes are also at the individual-level, such as subordinate affective trust in leader (Chen, Eberly, Chiang, Farh, & Cheng, in press) and subordinate's fear to leader (Farh, et al., 2006).

Finally, I integrate organizational behavior and strategic management research in helping to examine and explain how authoritarian leadership affects work unit performance, work unit citizenship behavior, and work unit turnover. For example, Mintzberg's (1987) crafting strategy perspective is used to interpret the moderating effect of leader authoritarian decision implementation on the relationship between leader authoritarian decision making and work unit decision quality. Through implementation and then mastery of details, leaders can further adjust their perspectives and enhance the decisions that they previously made, where "formation and implementation merge into a fluid process of learning through which creative strategies evolve" (Mintzberg, 1987: 66).

I have also made connections between trust and trustworthiness research in organization behavior in order to examine theoretical linkages between work unit decision quality and work unit effectiveness and in testing the moderating effect of leader authoritarian decision implementation on the relationship between work unit decision quality and work unit effectiveness. Theoretical support from this stream of research is necessary because the work unit outcomes such as work unit performance, citizenship behavior, and voluntary turnover to some extent can still be viewed as an aggregative form of individuals' outputs. Thus, I suggest that it is important to include both the strategic management and organizational behavior literatures to examine authoritarian leader style, decision quality, and work unit outcomes. My integrative approach responds Avolio's (2007) call for multilevel, multi-component, and interdisciplinary approach to examining leadership.

Four Types of Leaders Based on the Different Authoritarianism Levels

In addition to the authoritarian leaders who are both high in authoritarian decision making and authoritarian decision implementation, three other types of leaders can be obtained according to the different levels of authoritarian decision making and authoritarian decision implementation. Figure 7 depicts the other three types of leaders besides authoritarian leaders – laissez-faire/empowered (i.e. low authoritarian decision making and low authoritarian decision implementation), authoritative (i.e. low authoritarian decision making and high authoritarian decision implementation), and pseudo-authoritarian (i.e. high authoritarian decision making and low authoritarian decision implementation).

Laissez-faire/empowered. For low authoritarian decision making and low authoritarian decision implementation, two types of leaders can be put in this category. The first type of leader is the laissez-faire leader. A laissez-faire leader is the leader who avoids attempting to influence their subordinates and who shirk their supervisory duties (Bradford & Lippitt, 1945). According to Bass and Bass (2008), laissez-faire leaders leave too much responsibility with subordinates, set no clear goals, and do not help their groups to make decisions. Such leaders do not monitor the work in his/her group and give feedback to their subordinates. Basically, they are just inactive. In the full range model of leadership, laissez-faire leaders are listed as the least effective leaders (Avolio, 2010).

In contrast, while empowering leaders give autonomy to their followers, they also set boundaries within which followers are given discretion to act as they think best. The empowering leader follows up with resources, support, and caring. They remain concerned and will follow up to see if the task has been successfully completed. This type of leadership is not related in any way to laissez-faire leadership, in which the leader does nothing unless asked by colleagues and

even then may procrastinate or fail to respond (Bass & Bass, 2008).

Authoritative. I conceive of authoritative leadership as the positive form of authoritarian leadership. It is characterized by a democratic style in decision making and an authoritarian style in decision implementation. Under the authoritative leadership, group members can input their strengths and information into the decision making process and then generate better decision quality. Meanwhile, the solid decisions can remain well implemented under the top managers' strict monitoring and driving.

In child and adolescence psychology, this positive form of authoritarian leadership (i.e., authoritative form) has been widely discussed and has been considered the best parenting style (Baumrind, 1978; Maccoby & Martin, 1983). According to Baumrind (1978), a parenting style can be categorized in terms of the four elements: responsiveness vs. unresponsiveness and demanding vs. undemanding. Based on the four elements, three different parenting styles are proposed: authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive. Maccoby and Martin (1983) extended Baumrind's work and proposed the four parenting styles (i.e., authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent, and neglectful), which are still widely used by parents. As previous researchers and I define authoritarian leadership, these researchers (Baumrind, 1978; Maccoby & Martin, 1983) characterize authoritarian parenting as setting high expectations of conformity and compliance to parental rules and directions. In contrast, an authoritative parent "exerts firm control but does not hem the child in with restrictions (Baumrind, 1978: 245). Authoritative parenting is characterized by democracy, control, and warmth and contributes to healthy psychological development and school success of adolescence (Steinberg, et al., 1992). Authoritative parents strictly supervise their children's behavior but grant psychological autonomy or democracy (Steinberg, et al., 1989; Steinberg, et al., 1991).

		Authoritarian Decision Making	
		Low	High
Authoritarian Decision Implementation	Low	Laissez faire/ Empowered	Bossy
	High	Authoritative	Authoritarian

FIGURE 7. Four Types of Leaders Based on the Authoritarian Level in Decision Making and Decision Implementation

In management practice, many successful CEOs adopt this positive form of authoritarian leadership. Jack Welch, the CEO of General Electric, heading the 1984 Fortune list of the 10 toughest bosses in America (Flax, 1984), is a good example of the authoritative leadership style. Jack Welch is a tough person, but he encourages subordinates to speak their minds (Cosier & Schwenk, 1990). After Welch took the idea of Six Sigma from Motorola, he mandated that all divisions (except finance) implement it. He required that unit heads meet regularly so that they can share their ideas with each other (Pearce, Conger, & Locke, 2008), supporting a more authoritative style.

Bossy. True authoritarian leaders should be both high in authoritarian decision making and authoritarian decision implementation. They are not only dominant in how they make decisions, but also make sure the decisions are well carried out in their organizations and that the organizational goal once specified will be achieved. For leaders who are high in authoritarian decision making but low in authoritarian decision implementation, I name this type of leader as the bossy leader. Compared to authoritarian leaders, bossy leaders, in contrast, only enjoy obtaining power by making decisions, but do not care whether the decisions have been well implemented. Therefore, bossy leaders may be even less effective than authoritarian leaders.

It is interesting to compare the four types of leaders in terms of their impact on work unit performance, work unit citizenship behavior, and work unit voluntary turnover. Doing so helps to understand the effectiveness of each type of leader in a more integrative picture. In my dissertation, authoritarian leaders are found to achieve the highest level of work unit performance, whereas they also create a lower level of work unit citizenship behavior and a high level of voluntary turnover in their units. The results are consistent with people's general image of authoritarian leaders. For example, Michael Eisner, the former Disney's CEO was labeled as

being a control freak by the press. He first brought remarkable growth and success to Disney and made his executive leaders very wealthy. However, many of his top leaders in the end left Disney after they made enough money (Gross, 2002).

For authoritative leaders (i.e. low authoritarian decision making and high authoritarian decision implementation), however, results in the dissertation do not meet my expectation that they would achieve the highest performance. Because of the effect of high authoritarian decision implementation, authoritative leaders also create a relatively low level of work unit citizenship behavior in their units. However, because authoritative leaders adopt a more democratic style in decision making, they also have the lowest level of voluntary turnover in their units. Finally, pseudo-authoritarian leaders are found to achieve a low-level of performance and a low-level of work unit citizenship behavior. Meanwhile, they also generate the highest voluntary turnover in the unit. The results support my proposal that pseudo-authoritarian leaders are the least effective leaders within the four types of leaders.

Limitations and Future Directions

One of the major limitations for the current study is whether the results can be generalized to different industries or different countries/cultures. The sample in the dissertation is a Chinese FMCG (Fast Moving Consumer Goods) company. The China market is currently entering a fast-growing stage. Production and quality control are the two key challenges for the company. Thus, the challenging industrial context might legitimate authoritarian leadership in this company. In addition, this industry and the Chinese context are usually accompanied with a high power distance culture. Power distance culture has been identified as one of the most influential contextual factors for the generalizability of leadership theories across different cultural contexts (Earley & Erez, 1997; Farh & Cheng, 2000; Hofstede, 1980). It refers to “the

extent to which a society accepts the fact that power in institutions and organizations is distributed unequally” (Hofstede, 1980: 45). Evidence from previous studies support that authoritarian leadership is more acceptable to subordinates in a high power distance culture (Earley and Erez, 1997; Farh & Cheng, 2000; Ivergar & Lepper, 1999). Therefore, future research should pay more attention to examining the effects of authoritarian leadership in different industries in different corporate and national cultures.

Second, I used trust and leader trustworthiness research (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Mayer, et al., 1995) as the theoretical foundation to link work unit decision quality to work unit effectiveness and to support the moderating role of leader authoritarian decision implementation on the relationship between work unit decision quality and work unit effectiveness. However, the trust and leader trustworthiness mechanisms were not assessed in this dissertation research. Future studies should examine whether or not subordinates will attribute the decision quality in their unit to their leader’s trustworthiness and thus affect subordinates’ trust in their leader, which in turn would be expected to affect their performance and their willingness to stay.

In addition, work unit decision quality, work unit performance, and work unit citizenship behavior are measured by the same source at the same time. Therefore, the relationships of work unit decision quality with work unit performance and with work unit citizenship behavior might be inflated. Future work should adopt different sources or a longitudinal approach to examine the effects of group decision quality on group-level performance and group citizenship behavior.

Moreover, as previously discussed, authoritative leadership is proposed as a positive form of authoritarian leadership and as a combination of democratic and authoritarian leadership. However, defining authoritative leadership as a combination of low authoritarian decision making and high authoritarian decision implementation might not fully capture the nature of the

authoritative leadership construct. The dissertation does not find strong positive results to support this positive, authoritative style. In addition to authoritative leadership, I also propose another leadership style named bossy leadership. I expect that more qualitative and empirical studies should be conducted to understand the nature of authoritative leadership and bossy leadership and their impact on subordinate's and group's outcomes.

Furthermore, I only include one style of leadership in my dissertation, so it is not possible to understand whether or not other factors such as some other leadership behaviors impact subordinates' perceptions on their leaders' leadership and level of trustworthiness. Future studies should simultaneously consider other leadership behaviors or subordinates' characteristics such as subordinates' level of competence to study the effects of authoritarian leadership.

Finally, in my dissertation, leader authoritarian decision implementation does not moderate the mediating effect of work unit decision quality from authoritarian decision making to work unit performance. Instead, leader authoritarian decision implementation interacts with authoritarian decision making to affect work unit performance directly. A possible explanation for this result is that other mechanisms such as psychological empowerment or intrinsic motivation may function as the mediators between authoritarian decision making and work unit performance instead of the work unit decision quality. For example, authoritarian leadership may reduce subordinates' psychological empowerment and their intrinsic motivation to perform, which in turn reduce work unit performance. I suggest future work can explore these motivational mechanisms to further understand the relationship between authoritarian leadership and performance.

Conclusion

This dissertation aims to dissolve the inconsistent findings toward the relationship

between authoritarian leadership and work unit effectiveness. Authoritarian leadership is first defined as authoritarian decision making and authoritarian decision implementation. The two elements are further distinguished by theoretical discussion and empirical examination. Second, leader authoritarian decision implementation interacts with leader authoritarian decision making to affect work unit decision quality. When leader authoritarian decision implementation is low, leader authoritarian decision making has a negative relationship with work unit decision quality. The interactive effect of leader authoritarian decision making and authoritarian decision implementation is further mitigated by low leader competence. Moreover, high leader authoritarian decision implementation is found to strengthen the positive relationship between work unit decision quality and work unit performance. However, it does not strengthen the positive relationship between work unit decision quality and work unit citizenship behavior and does not strengthen the negative relationship between work unit decision quality and work unit voluntary turnover. Finally, the moderating mediation model among leader authoritarian decision making (i.e. the predictor), work unit decision quality (i.e. the mediator), leader authoritarian decision implementation (i.e. the moderator), and work unit effectiveness (i.e. the outcome) obtain partial support in this dissertation.

REFERENCES

- Adorno, T. W., Frenkel-Brunswik, E., Levinson, D. J., & Sanford, R. N. 1950. *The Authoritarian personality*. New York: Harper.
- Amason, A. C. 1996. Distinguishing the effects of functional and dysfunctional conflict on strategic decision making: Resolving a paradox for top management teams. *Academy of Management Journal*, 39: 123–148.
- Andrews, K. 1971. *The concept of corporate strategy*. Homewood, IL: Dow Jones.
- Aristotle. 384–322 BC. *General introduction internet encyclopedia of philosophy*. Retrieved February 8, 2011, from <http://www.iep.utm.edu/aristotl/>.
- Authoritarian. 2009. *American heritage dictionary of the English language*. Retrieved February 8, 2011, from <http://education.yahoo.com/reference/dictionary/entry/authoritarian>.
- Avolio, B. J. 2007. Promoting more integrative strategies for leadership theory-building. *American Psychologist*, 62: 25-33.
- Avolio, B.J., Rotundo, M., & Walumbwa, F. O. 2009. Early life experiences as determinants of leadership role occupancy: The role of parental influence and rule breaking behavior. *Leadership Quarterly*, 20: 329-342.
- Aycan, Z. 2006. Paternalism: Towards conceptual refinement and operationalization. In U. Kim, K. S. Yang, & K. K. Hwang (Eds.), *Indigenous and cultural psychology: Understanding people in context*: 445-466. New York: Springer Science & Business Media. Inc.
- Bantel, K. A. & Jackson, S. E. 1989. Top management and innovations in banking: Does the composition of the top team make a difference? *Strategic Management Journal*, 10: 107-124.
- Bass, B. M., & Bass, R. 2008. *The Bass handbook of leadership: Theory, research, and*

- managerial applications*. New York: Free Press.
- Baum, J. R. & Wally, S. 2003. Strategic decision speed and firm performance. *Strategic Management Journal*, 24: 1107-1129.
- Baumrind, D. 1978. Parental disciplinary patterns and social competence in children. *Youth and Society*, 9(3): 239–276.
- Blau, P. M., & Scott, W. R. 1962. *Formal organizations: A comparative approach*. San Francisco: Chandler.
- Bliese, P. D. 2000. Within-group agreement, non-independence, and reliability: Implications for data aggregation and analysis. In K. J. Klein & S. W. Kozlowski (Eds.), *Multilevel theory, research, and methods in organizations*: 349-381. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Booz-Allen & Hamilton Inc. 1990. *Making strategy work: The challenge of the 1990s*. New York: Booz-Allen & Hamilton Inc.
- Bossidy, L., Charan, R., & Burck, C. 2002. *Execution: The discipline of getting things done*. New York: Crown Business.
- Boyatzis, R. E. 1982. *The competent manager: A model for effective performance*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- Bradford, L. P., & Lippitt, R. 1945. Building a democratic work group. *Personnel*, 22: 142-148.
- Brislin, R. W. 1980. Translation and content analysis of oral and written material. In H. C. Triandis & J. W. Berry (Eds.), *Handbook of cross-cultural psychology*, Vol. 2 Methodology: 389–444. Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.
- Brownlee, J. 2007. *Authoritarianism in an Age of Democratization*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Butler, J. K. 1991. Toward understanding and measuring conditions of trust: Evolution of a

- condition of trust inventory. *Journal of Management*, 17: 643-663.
- Butler, J. K., & Cantrell, R. S. 1984. A behavioral decision theory approach to modeling dyadic trust in superiors and subordinates. *Psychological Reports*, 55: 19-28.
- Cascio, W. F. 1991. *Costing human resources: The financial impact of behavior in organizations*. Boston, MA: PWS-Kent.
- Chen, X. P., Eberly, M. B., Chiang, T. J., Farh, J. L., & Cheng, B. S. in press. Affective trust in Chinese leaders: Linking paternalistic leadership to employee performance. *Journal of Management*.
- Chen, X. P., Lam, S. S. K., Naumann, S., & Schaubroeck, J. 2005. Group citizenship behaviour: Conceptualization and preliminary test of its antecedents and consequences. *Management and Organization Review*, 1: 273-300.
- Cheng, B. S., Chou, L. F., & Farh, J. L. 2000. A triad model of paternalistic leadership: The constructs and measurement. *Indigenous Psychological Research in Chinese Societies*, 14: 3-64. (in Chinese)
- Cheng, B. S., Chou, L. F., Wu, T. Y., Huang, M. P., & Farh, J. L. 2004. Paternalistic leadership and subordinate responses: Establishing a leadership model in Chinese organizations. *Asian Journal of Social Psychology*, 7: 89-117.
- Cheng, B. S., Huang, M. P., & Chou, L. F. 2002. Paternalistic leadership and its effectiveness: Evidence from Chinese organizational teams. *Journal of Psychology in Chinese Societies*, 3: 85-112.
- Child, J. 1972. Organizational structure, environment, and performance: The role of strategic choice. *Sociometry*, 1-22.
- Colbert, A. E., Kristof-Brown, A. L., Bradley, B. H., & Barrick, M. R. 2008. CEO

- transformational leadership: The role of goal importance congruence in top management teams. *Academy of Management Journal*, 51: 81-96.
- Colquitt, J. A., & Rodell, J. B. 2011. Justice, trust, and trustworthiness: A longitudinal analysis integrating three theoretical perspectives. *Academy of Management Journal*, 54: 1183-1206.
- Colquitt, J. A., Scott, B. A., & LePine, J. A. 2007. Trust, trustworthiness, and trust propensity: A meta-analytic test of their unique relationships with risk taking and job performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92: 909–927.
- Cosier, R. A., & Schwenk, C. R. 1990. Agreement and thinking alike: Ingredients for poor decisions. *Academy of Management Executives*, 4: 69-74.
- Davis, J. H., Schoorman, F. D., Mayer, R. C., & Tan, H. H. 2000. The trusted general manager and business unit performance: Empirical evidence of a competitive advantage. *Strategic Management Journal*, 21: 563–576.
- de Jong, B., & Elfring, T. 2010. How does trust affect the performance of ongoing teams? The mediating role of reflexivity, monitoring, and effort. *Academy of Management Journal*, 53(3): 535-549.
- Dirks, K. T. 2000. Trust in leadership and team performance: Evidence from NCAA basketball. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 85: 1004–1012.
- Dirks, K. T., & Ferrin, D. L. 2002. Trust in leadership: Meta-analytic findings and implications for research and practice. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87: 611–628.
- Dooley, R. S., & Fryxell, G. E. 1999. Attaining decision quality and commitment from dissent: The moderating effects of loyalty and competence in strategic decision-making teams. *Academy of Management Journal*, 42: 389–402.

- Earley, P. C., & Erez, M. 1997. *The transplanted executive: Why you need to understand how workers in other countries see the world differently*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Edwards, J. R., & Lambert, L. S. 2007. Methods for integrating moderation and mediation: A general analytical framework using moderated path analysis. *Psychological Methods*, 12: 1-22.
- Farh, J. L., & Cheng, B. S. 2000. A cultural analysis of paternalistic leadership in Chinese organizations. In J. T. Li, A. S. Tsui, & E. Weldon (Eds.), *Management and organizations in the Chinese context*: 84-127. London: Macmillan.
- Farh, J. L., Cheng, B. S., Chou, L. F. & Chu, X. P. 2006. Authority and benevolence: Employees' responses to paternalistic leadership in China. In A. S. Tsui, Y. Bian, & L. Cheng (Eds.), *China's domestic private firms: Multidisciplinary perspectives on management and performance*: 230-260. New York: Sharpe.
- Farh, J. L., Liang, J., Chou, L. F., & Cheng, B. S. 2008. Paternalistic leadership in Chinese organizations: Research progress and future research directions. In C. C. Chen & Y. T. Lee (Eds.), *Leadership and management in China: Philosophies, theories, and practices*: 171-205. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Fiedler, F. E. 1967. *A theory of leadership effectiveness*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Flax, S. 1984. The toughest bosses in America, *Fortune*, August 6, 1-5.
- Gross, D. 2002. The louse in the mouse house: Why Disney's Michael Eisner should be fired. Retrieved June 7, 2012, from http://www.slate.com/articles/business/moneybox/2002/08/the_louse_in_the_mouse_house.html
- Hambrick, D. C., & Mason, P. A. 1984. Upper echelons: The organization as a reflection of its top managers. *Academy of Management Review*, 9: 193-206.

- Hannan, M. T., & Freeman, J. 1984. Structural inertia and organizational change. *American Sociological Review*, 49: 149-164.
- Hausknecht, J. P., & Trevor, C. O. 2011. Collective turnover at the group, unit, and organizational levels: Evidence, issues, and implications. *Journal of Management*, 37: 352-388.
- Hersey, P. and Blanchard, K. H. 1969. *Management of organizational behavior – Utilizing human resources*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Hinkin, T. R. 1995. A review of scale development practices in the study of organizations. *Journal of Management*, 21: 967–988.
- Hofstede, G. 1980. *Culture's consequences international differences in work-related values*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications.
- House, R. J. 1971. A path-goal theory of leader effectiveness. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 16: 321-339.
- House, R., Rousseau, D. M., & Thomas-Hunt, M. 1995. The meso paradigm: A framework for integration of micro and macro organizational. In L. L. Cummings & B. Staw (Eds.), *Research in organizational behavior*, 17: 71-114. Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Ivancevich, J. M. 1974. A study of cognitive training program: trainer styles and group development. *Academy of Management Journal*, 17: 428-439.
- Iyengar, S. S., & Lepper, M. R. 1999. Rethinking the value of choice: A cultural perspective on intrinsic motivation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 76, 349-366.
- James, L. R., Demaree, R. G., & Wolf, G. 1993. r_{WG} : An assessment of within-group interrater agreement. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78: 306-309.
- Janis, I. L. 1972. *Victims of Groupthink*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

- Jarzabkowski, P. (Ed.). 2005. *Strategy as practice: An activity-based approach*. London: Sage.
- Jarzabkowski, P., & Spee, A. P. 2009. Strategy-as-practice: A review and future directions for the field. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 11(1): 69-95.
- Johnson, L. K. 2004. Execute your strategy-without killing it. *Harvard Management Update*, 9: 3-5.
- Jones, A. P., James, L. R., & Bruni, J. R. 1975. Perceived leadership behavior and employee confidence in the leader as moderated by job involvement. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 60: 146-149.
- Kanter, R. M. 1977, 1993. *Men and women of the corporation*. New York: Basic Books.
- Katzell, R., Millier, C., Rotter, N., & Venet, T. 1970. Effects of leadership and other inputs on group process and outputs. *Journal of Social Psychology*, 80: 157-169.
- Kee, H. W., & Knox, R. E. 1970. Conceptual and methodological considerations in the study of trust. *Journal of Conflict Resolution*, 14: 357-366.
- Krames, J. A. 2005. *Jack Welch and the 4 E's of leadership: How to put GE's leadership formula to work in your organization*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Lewin, K., Lippitt, R., & White, R. K. 1939. Patterns of aggressive behavior in experimentally created social climates. *Journal of Social Psychology*, 10: 271-301.
- Likert, R. 1961. *New patterns of management*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Likert, R. 1967. *The human organization*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Lippitt, R. 1940. *An analysis of group reaction to three types of experimentally created social climates*. Doctoral dissertation, State University of Iowa, Iowa City.
- Locke, E. A., & Latham, G. P. 2002. Building a practically useful theory of goal setting and task motivation: A 35-year odyssey. *American Psychologist*, 57(9): 705-717.

- Locke, E. A., & Latham, G. P. 2006. New directions in goal-setting theory. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 15(5): 265–268.
- Locke, E. A., & Latham, G. P. 1990. *A theory of goal setting & task performance* (p. 544). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall College Division.
- Locke, E. A., & Schweiger, D. M. 1979. Participation in decision-making: One more look. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 1: 265-339.
- Maccoby, E. E., & Martin, J. A. 1983. Socialization in the context of the family: Parent–child interaction. In E. M. Hetherington (Eds), *Handbook of child psychology*, IV: 1–101. New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- Mathieu, J., Maynard, M. T., Rapp, T., & Gilson, L. 2008. Team effectiveness 1997-2007: A review of recent advancements and a glimpse into the future. *Journal of Management*, 34: 410-476.
- Mayer, R. C., & Davis, J. H. 1999. The effect of the performance appraisal system on trust for management: A field quasi-experiment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 84: 123–136.
- Mayer, R. C., Davis, J. H., & Schoorman, F. D. 1995. An integrative model of organizational trust. *Academy of Management Review*, 20: 709–734.
- Mayer, R. C., & Gavin, M. B. 2005. Trust in management and performance: Who minds the shop while the employees watch the boss? *Academy of Management Journal*, 48: 874–888.
- McCurdy, H., & Lambert, W. 1952. The efficiency of small human groups in the solution of problems requiring genuine cooperation. *Journal of Personality*, 20: 478-494.
- Mintzberg, H. 1978. Patterns in strategy formation. *Management Science*, 24: 934–948.
- Mintzberg, H. 1987. Crafting strategy. *Harvard Business Review*, July 1987: 66-75.
- Mintzberg, H., & Waters, J. 1985. Of strategies, deliberate and emergent. *Strategic Management*

Journal, 6: 257–272.

Morse, N. C., & Reimer, E. 1956. The experimental change of a major organizational variable.

Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 52: 120-129.

Noble, C. H. 1999. The eclectic roots of strategy implementation research. *Journal of Business*

Research, 45: 119–134.

Nutt, P. C. 1999. Surprising but true: Half the decisions in organizations fail. *Academy of*

Management Executive, 13(4): 75–90.

Ordonez, L. D., Schweitzer, M. E., Galinsky, A. D., & Bazerman, M. H. 2009. Goals gone wild:

The systematic side effects of overprescribing goal setting. *Academy of Management*

Perspectives, 23: 6-16.

Pearce, C. A., Conger, J. A., & Locke, E. A. 2008. Shared leadership theory. *Leadership*

Quarterly, 19: 622-628.

Pearce, J. A., II & Robinson, R. B., Jr. 1985. *Strategic management: Strategy formulation and*

implementation, 2nd edition. Homewood, IL: Richard D. Irwin, Inc.

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., & Bommer, W. H. 1996. Transformational leader behaviors

and substitutes for leadership as determinants of employee satisfaction, commitment, trust,

and organizational citizenship behaviors. *Journal of Management*, 22: 259–298.

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Moorman, R. H., & Fetter, R. 1990. Transformational leader

behaviors and their effects on followers' trust in leader, satisfaction, and organizational

citizenship behaviors. *Leadership Quarterly*, 1: 107–142.

Porter, M. E. 1980. *Competitive strategy*. Free Press, New York.

Priem, R. L. 1990. Top management team group factors, consensus, and firm performance.

Strategic Management Journal, 11: 469-478.

- Raes, A. M. L., Heijltjes, M. G., Glunk, U., & Roe, R. A. 2011. The interface of the top management team and middle managers: A process model. *Academy of Management Review*, 36: 102-126.
- Rosen, B., & Jerdee, T. H. 1977. Influence of subordinate characteristics on trust and use of participative decision strategies in a management simulation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 62: 628-631.
- Samelson, F. 1986. Authoritarianism from Berlin to Berkeley: On social psychology and history. *Journal of Social Issues*, 42: 191-208.
- Sanford, N. 1986. A personal account of the study of authoritarianism: Comment on Samelson. *Journal of Social Issues*, 42: 209-214.
- Schweiger, D. M., Sandberg, W. R., & Rechner, P. 1989. Experiential effects of dialectical inquiry, devil's advocacy, and consensus approaches to group strategic decision making. *Academy of Management Journal*, 32: 745-772.
- Sitkin, S. B., & Roth, N. L. 1993. Explaining the limited effectiveness of legalistic "remedies" for trust/distrust. *Organization Science*, 4: 367-392.
- Smither R. D. 1991. The return of the authoritarian manager. *Training*, November: 41-43.
- Smither, R. D. 1993. Authoritarianism, dominance, and social behavior: A perspective from evolutionary personality psychology. *Human Relations*, 46: 23-43.
- Steinberg, L., Elmen, J. D., & Mounts, N. S. 1989. Authoritative parenting, psychosocial maturity, and academic success among adolescents. *Child Development*, 60: 1424-1436.
- Steinberg L., Lamborn, S. D., Dornbusch, S. M., & Darling, N. 1992. Impact of parenting practices on adolescent achievement: Authoritative parenting, school involvement, and encouragement to succeed. *Child Development*, 63: 1266-1281.

- Steinberg, L., Mounts, N. S., Lamborn, S. D., & Dornbusch, S. M. 1991. Authoritative parenting and adolescent adjustment across various ecological niches. *Journal of Research on Adolescence*, 1: 19-36.
- Thompson, A. A., & Strickland, A. J. III. 1986. *Strategy formulation and implementation*. Homewood, IL: R. D. Irwin.
- Vroom, V. H., & Yetton, P. W. 1973. *Leadership and decision-making*. Pittsburgh, PA: University of Pittsburgh Press.
- Weber, M. 1947. *The theory of social and economic organization* (A. M. Henderson & T. Parsons, trans.). New York: Free Press.
- Welch, J., & Welch, S. 2005. *Winning*. New York: HarperCollins Publishers.
- Williams, L. J., Vandenberg, R. J., & Edwards, J. 2009. Structural equation modeling in management research: A guide for improved analysis. *Academy of Management Annals*, 3: 543-605.
- Wooldridge, B., Schmid, T., & Floyd, S. 2008. The middle manager perspective on strategy process: Contributions, synthesis, and future research. *Journal of Management*, 34: 1190–1221.
- Wu, T. Y., Hsu, W. L., & Cheng, B. S. 2002. Expressing or suppressing anger: Subordinate's anger responses to supervisors' authoritarian behaviors in a Taiwan enterprise. *Indigenous Psychological Research in Chinese Societies*, 18: 3-49.
- Yukl, G. 1990. *Skills for managers and leaders*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Yukl, G. 2009. *Leadership in organizations (7th Edition)*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

VITA

Ting-Ju Chiang was born in Taipei, Taiwan. He enjoys understanding and experiencing different cultures. His family originates from Taiwan, Japan, and China. He received his MS in Business Administration at the University of Washington, MS in Industrial/Organizational Psychology, and BS in Psychology at the National Taiwan University. He was also a graduate exchange student to Kyushu University, Japan. In 2012, he earned his Doctor of Philosophy at the University of Washington in Business Administration.