

FLORIDA INTERNATIONAL UNIVERSITY

Miami, Florida

THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN A BENEVOLENT PATERNALISTIC
MANAGERIAL BEHAVIOR, EMPLOYEE PERCEPTIONS OF A CARING ETHICAL
ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE AND AFFECTIVE ORGANIZATIONAL
COMMITMENT IN MEXICO

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of
the requirements of the degree of
DOCTOR OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

by

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2021

To: Interim Dean William Hardin
College of Business

This dissertation, written by Alejandro Miguel Delaney, and entitled The Relationships between a Benevolent Paternalistic Managerial Behavior, Employee Perceptions of a Caring Ethical Organizational Climate and Affective Organizational Commitment in Mexico, having been approved in respect to style and intellectual content, is referred to you for judgment.

We have read this dissertation and recommend that it be approved.

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Florida International University, 2021

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my wife, Letty, my companion in life and best friend.

Ad maiorem Dei gloriam.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I wish to thank the members of my committee for their support. I am humbled by their knowledge and their generosity in sharing their experience and learning. Dr. Ravi Gajendran was gentle and exact in his observations about the mediating variable. Dr. Karlene Cousins's interest in the phenomena of paternalism in Mexico was inspiring and encouraging for the writing of this work. I will be indebted for the rest of my life to Dr. George Marakas: it is impossible to list all that I have learned from him. I am especially grateful to my Co-major Professor and Chair, Dr. Fred O. Walumbwa, for his guidance, help, erudition, patience, and generosity with both his time and teaching.

I also want to thank both Dr. Miguel Aguirre-Urreta for his advice and help with the statistical analysis and Yasemin Shirazi for her diligence in serving our administrative needs. My friends, Walter Liu, Jaly Chea, Juan De Leon, Jesus Arias, Alex Vilayil and, Ligia Trejo were all very supportive with their inspiring words, good humor, and positive attitudes.

I owe a debt of gratitude as well to all the volunteers that filled the questionnaires and the persons that help me in collecting the data in Mexico, in particular, Jorge Ortiz Palomino.

Lastly, I am grateful to my family for their unfailing love.

ABSTRACT OF THE DISSERTATION

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Drawing upon social exchange theory and extant literature on climate and leadership, the goal of this research was to look at the role of employee perceived ethical organizational climate as a potential mechanism through which a benevolent paternalistic leadership style relates to employee affective organizational commitment in Mexico. The research is guided by the following major question: What is the relationship, if any, between benevolent paternalistic managerial behavior, employee perceptions of ethical organizational climate, and affective organizational commitment in Mexico? The study sample consisted of 152 retained subjects, all of whom had a confirmed substantial working experience within Mexico. The survey instrument consisted of the “Paternalistic Leadership Scale” developed by Pellegrini and Scandura (2006, 2008), the “Ethical Organizational Climate Scale” developed by Victor and Cullen (1987), the “Organizational Commitment Scale” originally developed by Allen and Meyer (1990)

and later revised by Meyer, Allen, and Smith (1993), and some demographic questions. Using SPSS 26 the data was subjected to exploratory factor analyses (EFA) and reliability analyses to assess the factor configuration of the measures. Regression analysis using SPSS 26 was used to test whether the independent and mediating variables have the suggested influence on the dependent variable. The results for the four hypotheses proposed in the dissertation were supported. Specifically, our results showed that benevolent paternalistic management is positively related to both affective organizational commitment (H1) and to employee perceptions of a caring ethical organizational climate (H2); employee perceptions of caring ethical organizational climate is positively related to affective organizational climate (H3), and partially mediates the relationship between benevolent paternalistic management and affective organizational commitment (H4).

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Paternalism is a type of interaction in which followers voluntarily return the protection and attentiveness of paternal leadership by displaying compliance (Aycan, Kanungo, Mendonca, & Yu, 2000; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2006). It has also been defined as a father-like style of management where a certain amount of authoritarianism is blended with concern and care (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008). As a result of these descriptors, the concept of paternalism has received reasonable criticism, especially in the Western management literature, where it is in general viewed as an unacceptable type of leadership in nations described as “western, educated, industrialized, rich, and democratic”—countries which are grouped under the newly coined acronym “WEIRD” (Hiller, Sin, Ponnappalli, & Ozgen, 2018). For example, there has been a tendency in this larger literature to depict paternalism in negative terms such as an “anachronism” (Padavic & Earnest, 1994), a system that encourages a “benevolent ‘dictator’ who acts graciously but does so for the purpose of goal accomplishment” (Northouse, 2013, p. 81), the “teeth and claws of a dragon hidden in a cave” (Pope, 2004) or “a hidden” kind of “discrimination” (Colella, Garcia, Reidel, & Triana, 2005), as well as many other unflattering ways in similar lines (Aycan, 2006).

Despite these criticisms and potentially negative descriptors, research on paternalistic management characterized as “a style [of leadership] that combines strong discipline and authority with fatherly benevolence” (Farh & Cheng, 2000, p. 91) has continued to flourish and is today regarded as one of the “emerging and fascinating new area for [management] research” that “presents tremendous opportunities for future

empirical research” (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008, pp. 594 & 596). It has been suggested that this construct represents “a breakthrough in leadership research that may be generalizable across cultures” with widespread practical implications (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008, p. 581).

So far, research across several different countries, including North America, appear to suggest that paternalistic values and approaches relate positively to employee productivity, loyalty, commitment, satisfaction, and performance (Aycan, 2006; Farh, Cheng, Chou & Chu, 2006; Pellegrini, Scandura, & Jayaraman, 2010; Tsui, Pearce, Porter, & Tripoli, 1997). These findings are encouraging because they highlight the importance of paternalistic leadership on various important work-related outcomes in the organization. The findings also raise several important research questions. For example, *how* does paternalistic leadership relate to these important work-related outcomes? Addressing this type of question is important to help managers understand how best they can leverage the benefits of paternalistic leadership style to increase employee productivity, loyalty, commitment, satisfaction, and performance in their respective organizations.

Drawing upon social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and extant literature on climate and leadership, the goal of this research was to look at the role of employee perceived ethical organizational climate defined as the “shared perceptions of what is ethically correct behavior and how ethical issues should be handled” in the organization (Victor & Cullen, 1987, pp. 51-52) as a potential mechanism through which paternalistic leadership style relates to employee affective organizational commitment—described as “an employee’s emotional attachment to an organization” (Scandura, 2016, p. 96) in

Mexico. I specifically focus on how a benevolent paternalistic leadership style—broadly defined as a leader pattern that holds a sincere preoccupation for employees' welfare (Aycan, 2006)—will facilitate employees to perceive the ethical organizational climate as caring (Erben & Guneser, 2008; Treviño et al., 1998) which is the type of ethical climate the Mexican worker desires (Brumley, 2014; Davila & Elvira, 2005; Martínez, 2003, 2005; Thompson & Whiffen, 2018).

Social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) suggests that people develop relationships (good or bad) based upon their experiences with those they interact with. The theory proposes that when employees are in a high social exchange with their leader or supervisor, they will tend to correspond by invoking the norm of reciprocity (Emerson, 1976; Gouldner, 1960) to show their gratitude. Drawing on this theory, I argue that employees who feel genuinely cared for and supported by a paternalistic management will experience a moral duty to reciprocate with affective commitment not only to the leader but also to the organization that either allows or promotes this paternalistic style of management.

The notion that benevolent paternalistic managerial behavior would lead to employee perceptions of a caring ethical organizational climate and consequently, resulting in affective organizational commitment on the part of employees, is based on the idea that “leaders play an important role in the development of climate, for they are the immediate source of the behavioral data on which employees base their views of organizational objectives and policies” (Mayer, Nishii, Schneider, & Goldstein, 2007, p. 931). Specifically, Naumann and Bennett (2000) suggested that “supervisors as climate engineers are likely to shape the meaning employees attribute to these organizational

characteristics (p. 883). Therefore, I expect benevolent leaders to directly influence employees' perceptions of a caring ethical organizational climate, because such leaders genuinely care for their welfare (Aycan, 2006), and thus, are likely to set high ethical policies and practices that all employees must adhere to. I argue followers will learn from the leader what kind of conduct is considered ethically appropriate in the workplace and how ethical choices are resolved within the firm because managers' behavior and example are important in shaping the employee's perception of the ethical organizational climate (e.g, Erben & Guneser, 2008; Kozlowski & Doherty, 1989; Treviño et al., 1998; Walumbwa, Hartnell, & Oke, 2010). Thus, I expect a benevolent paternalistic style of management and the employee's perception of a caring ethical organizational climate will influence the employee's organizational commitment since leaders represent the organization.

This research is significant and important in two ways. First, empirical research on affective organizational commitment is still rather limited in Mexico (Martínez -Serna, Vega- Martínez, & Eternod-Domenech, 2018). Addressing factors that facilitate affective organizational commitment in Mexico is critical, both in a practical and theoretical sense, because the knowledge generated in such research has the potential to help scholars and local practitioners how to improve or enhance affective organizational commitment in their respective organizations. I achieve this objective by introducing and investigating the role of two relevant constructs: benevolent paternalistic leadership behavior and employee perceptions of a caring ethical organizational climate as potential determinants of affective organizational commitment. Second, as succinctly noted by Pellegrini and Scandura (2008), "despite the prevalence of paternalistic leadership in Latin

America...still little is known about [paternalism]” (p. 584). By examining how benevolent paternalistic leadership relates to affective organizational commitment in Mexico, this research not only responds to Pellegrini and Scandura’s (2008) call for research to investigate paternalistic leadership in Latin American business organizations but even more importantly, provides the much-needed evidence of the utility of benevolent paternalistic leadership across cultures.

This research is guided by the following major question:

What is the relationship, if any, between benevolent paternalistic managerial behavior, employee perceptions of ethical organizational climate, and affective organizational commitment in Mexico?

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

Benevolent Paternalistic Managerial Behavior

International leadership, in general, is a topic that has drawn the attention of many researchers in the last twenty years. During this period, it has received contributions from many theoretical perspectives, such as global identity theory, social identity theory, transformative learning theory, experiential learning theory, and others (Graen, 2006; Reiche, Mendenhall, Szkudlarek, & Osland, 2020). Paternalistic leadership is one specific area in international leadership research that has been flourishing in the literature (e.g., Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008). However, despite continued interest, there are still many discrepancies among authors regarding the definition and usefulness, and legitimacy of paternalistic practices in various cultural environments (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008).

Although some early behavioral management theorists, like Hugo Munsterberg (born in 1863, died in 1916) and the multifaceted Mary Follett (born in 1868, died in 1933), thought that managers should show a paternalistic behavior to nurture workgroups that are content while also productive (Munsterberg, 1913; Padron- Martínez, 2017), other scholars contended that paternalistic managerial practices would be outmoded as firms increase their bureaucracy (Weber, 1978). Weber (1978) argued that paternalism is a primeval type of domination, in which submission is due to the manager only by the traditional attributes of his or her position—a practice that could never match the advantages in performance and control promised by the rational-legal type of organization he championed. This negative perception of paternalism follows the steps of

a convention initiated by John Stuart Mill in the nineteenth century, who rejected all kinds of paternalism, based on several premises. For example, the belief that an individual knows what is good for him better than anybody else, that equality demands respect for the liberty of others, and that paternalism promotes dependency and would be an obstacle to the healthy development of an independent and mature character (Mill, 1859/1991).

In the early 1990s, a stream of research on paternalism was originated in the Far East that claimed that this behavior in managers was a positive trend that provided protection and support to their subordinates (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008; Redding, Norman, & Schlender, 1994). This perspective was in open opposition to both Stuart Mill and Weber's authoritarian and pessimistic views on the subject. More recent research emerging from diverse countries in Asia, followed the same line and indicated that paternalism does not necessarily imply "authoritarianism" but, otherwise, a conditional bond in which followers freely return the protection and attentiveness of the paternalistic authority by displaying compliance (Aycan, 2006; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008).

Despite Weber's prophecies, paternalism never disappeared, and a certain degree of paternalism, or at least a "new" type of paternalism, is always to be found in all organizations, even in those that consider themselves highly bureaucratic (Aycan, 2006; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008). This "new paternalism" aroused as an effort to transform the workplace into a more humane environment by either ethicizing or re-instilling morals and flexibility into the relation between leaders and subordinates, instead of the harsh contractual bond between parties that is the norm in some organizations (Aycan, 2006).

Some authors have remarked that it was unfortunate that the benevolent dimension of paternalism was undervalued in most of the literature coming from the West (Aycan, 2006; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008). Thus, paternalism has been dissimilarly depicted by diverse authors at different times and cultures.

Paternalism is an important factor in the numerous societies around the world, notably in societies with cultures that favor collectivism, power distance, particularism (versus universalism), affectivity, and diffuseness (versus specificity and professionalism in business interactions that leave no room for emotions) (Aycan, 2006; Hofstede, 1983). Aycan (2006, p. 449), drawing from many sources, summarizes as follows her understanding of paternalistic leadership behavior: a) the manager builds up “a family atmosphere in the workplace: behaving as a father to subordinates;” b) he or she creates a “close and individualized relationships with the subordinates,” being sincerely preoccupied with their private personal life and welfare of his family; c) the manager involves himself in the private non-work sphere of the subordinates, joining in some specific family events; and d) those in authority believe it is their duty to protect those under their responsibility, and take for granted retributive deference and loyalty from the subordinates. The subalterns, in turn, profess their deference and loyalty to paternalistic leaders in the following ways: a) “considering the workplace as a family,” holding an emotional attachment with the paternalistic manager, being happy, proud, and honored to be related with him; b) being reverent, loyal, and respectful to the manager, shielding him from all censures or criticisms; c) involving themselves in the manager’s personal non-work spheres if the leader requests so; and d) keenly acknowledging “the leader’s authority, genuinely believing that the leader knows what is good for the employee”

(Aycan, 2006, p. 449). Thus, benevolent paternalism is a kind of bond in which subordinates of their own free will return the kindness, guardianship, and safeguarding offered by the manager by showing compliance (Aycan, 2006; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008).

Inherent to Paternalism is the dualism between protection and command. This dualism, by necessity, can only be fully appreciated by an analogy with the relationships within the family (Aycan, 2006; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008). Mothers and fathers take on a twofold mission of both custody and command over their offspring. These two facets have been blended in the bibliography coming from the West where custody and command have been related to authoritarianism and thus rebuffed (Aycan 2006). Nevertheless, this position has been challenged by other cultures by contending that a progenitor exercises command in two alternative styles, as follows: a) caring or order-keeping, and b) restrictive or dominating. The former is linked with parental love and affection (Aycan 2006; Lau & Cheung, 1987) and is sometimes referred to as “parental warmth” (Mogro-Wilson, 2008). Today’s situation is that researchers on paternalistic management disagree on both the number of dimensions that are to be found in the construct and to what degree the displayed philanthropy is sincere and not mere manipulation (Aycan, 2006; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008).

Regarding the number of dimensions considered in the construct, differences are depending on the cultural geographic area of the population under study. In the Far East, the tendency has been to describe paternalistic leadership as tridimensional. This is a triad combining the following factors: command, example, and fatherly altruism (Farh & Cheng, 2000). In this view, the commanding factor is a rigid style of authoritarianism

which mirrors the boss' unchallenged control and authority over the subordinates; example echoes the manager's consistent adherence to implicit Confucian or Islamic ethical principles and values; and altruism denotes the manager's holistic and individualized concern for the welfare of both the subalterns and their close relatives (Aycan, 2006; Farh & Cheng, 2000; Gelfand, Erez & Aycan, 2007; Hiller et al., 2018). A drawback of this multi-dimensional definition of paternalism is the consistent, reliable, finding of negative correlations between the three aspects (command, example, and altruism) of the proposed construct (Farh & Cheng, 2000).

The unidimensional assumption suggested both by Aycan (2006) and Pellegrini and Scandura (2008) that emphasizes altruism and shielding employees from the hard realities of decision-making is more in accordance with the idiosyncrasy and expectations of the Latino employee than the above-mentioned triad model (Aycan, 2006; Hiller et al., 2018; Martínez, 2003, 2005; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008).

This benevolent unidimensional type of paternalism is relational and conditional: employees demonstrate loyalty and conformity in response to the employer's safeguarding and concern and, vice versa, employer show safeguarding and concern because the employees demonstrate loyalty and conformity; thus, is differentiated from controlling authoritarianism, which seeks to keep submission and obedience among the subordinates (Aycan, 2006; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008). However, it is important to point out that even if paternalism happens in a framework of a hierarchical and dyadic relationship concerning manager and employee, it is not identical to LMX (leader-member exchange). The difference is that LMX focuses on boosting the subaltern's professional output, performance, and career, while paternalism is wider and more

diffuse, as the leadership is concerned with the subaltern's long-term general wellbeing both in the workplace and off-the-job, albeit without any thoughts about using managerial tools that may empower the employees (Hiller et al., 2018; Naktiyok & Kula, 2012).

Furthermore, some transformational leadership studies have also considered the similarities between parents and leaders, comparing leader–follower relationships to parent-child relationships, proposing that these relationships are analogous in multiple respects (Popper & Mayseless, 2003), thus potentially overlapping with paternalistic leadership. For example, managers, like fathers, are role models whose responsibilities include caring, taking charge, and guiding individuals who are contingent upon them (Popper & Mayseless, 2003). Cheng et al. (2004) clarify that the conceptualization of transformational leadership and benevolent paternalistic management diverge in two crucial aspects. The first is that transformational leadership is an important leadership style in the individualistic societies in the West, while paternalistic leadership is an emic (culture-specific) type of management that is predominant in communities that exhibit hierarchical and collectivistic tendencies (Cheng, Chou, Wu, Huang & Farh, 2004; Hofstede, 1983). The second aspect is that the principal goal of transformational leaders is to increase employees' work outcomes, while paternalistic managers are more interested in building a bond with their employees to enhance employee's work and personal outcomes (Cheng et al., 2004).

In the following section, I draw on social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) to describe the relationship between benevolent paternalistic managerial behavior and affective organizational commitment.

Benevolent Paternalistic Managerial Behavior and Affective Organizational Commitment

Researchers have examined the impact of benevolent paternalistic management on affective organizational commitment and other follower's outcomes as well (Bedi, 2020; Cheng, Huang, & Chou, 2002; Cilek, 2019; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008; Pellegrini, Scandura, & Jayaraman, 2010). The aims of social exchange theory are the patterns of reciprocity inherent to the relationships and interactions among human beings (Gouldner, 1960). As stated in social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), a person believes has a duty to reciprocate in kind, when favored by the actions of another individual. Thus, in an organization, when somebody views a manager as caring, considerate, and supportive, this individual will do his or her best to reciprocate the manager and the organization with constructive deeds and feelings (Gouldner, 1960). Benevolent behaviors shown by people in a position of leadership inspire the followers to exhibit desirable actions and attitudes within the work environment; this is because the leaders' concern for the followers' welfare builds a personalized emotional bond that generates a virtuous sequence of constructive mutual correspondence (e.g., Niu, Wang, & Cheng, 2009; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008). Caring managers also show a holistic interest for their followers and family members facilitating their professional and personal well-being, growth, and development, which, consecutively, provokes a sense of allegiance in the employees to both the leader and the organization that is perceived as allowing or promoting the benevolent behavior of the leader (e.g., Brumley, 2014; Cheng et al., 2004; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008). Such leaders also assist followers during a personal crisis (Brumley 2014; Cheng et al., 2004; Farh et al., 2006). Thus, it is much more likely that

caring managers will engender gratitude in their employees, inspiring the latter to return the kindness in a fashion that is reciprocally beneficial for all parties involved, for instance, growth in affective organizational commitment (Erben & Guneser, 2008, Farh & Cheng, 2000; Farh et al., 2006). In support, several authors suggest that employee perceptions that their firm advocates a benevolent management increase their affective commitment and conclude that organizations can benefit if they persuade their managers to show benevolent paternalistic behaviors (e.g., Bedi, 2020; Brumley, 2014). Thus, based on theory and extant research, I propose the following:

Hypothesis 1: Benevolent paternalistic managerial leader behavior will be positively related to employee affective organizational commitment.

Perceptions of Ethical Organizational Climate

At the core of the concept of leadership is the bond that develops between the follower and the leader (Scandura, 2016). For the last two decades or so, growing attention has been paid by researchers to themes related to business ethics. This has led to the advancement of many models related to ethical organizational climate concepts (Erben & Guneser, 2008). Ethical climate research and theory can be deemed as a subcategory of the organizational climate literature¹ (Treviño, Butterfield & McCabe, 1998). Many of the ethical organizational climate models suggest that a firm-specific

¹ Organizational climate could be described as perceptions the subaltern personnel share about how facts, norms, ethics, behaviors are to be understood in the firm (Reichers & Schneider, 1990). It is an overall feeling, as perceived by the employees, that is transmitted, among others, by the behaviors and interactions of the members of the firm, organizational artifacts, and architectural designs (Luthans, 2010). Organizational culture and organizational climate are not the same. While culture depends on the firm's cardinal values of the management, climate involves the shared perceptions about the workplace amid the personnel (Scandura, 2016). Culture depends on the context and evolves as time elapses and management changes, whereas climate is related to the specific situation as perceived by the personnel at a single "point in time" (Scandura, 2016, p. 377). Therefore, "climate affects individual-level outcomes through its impact on cognitive and affective states" (Scandura, 2016, p. 377).

factor shaping subjective assessments of the organizational climate is managers' behaviors (Erben & Guneser, 2008; Treviño et al., 1998). Furthermore, Aycan's (2006) suggests that a father-like managerial style while blurring the limits between the family and the organization, determines the morals of the workplace influencing an individual's values and ethics. Thus, it seems reasonable to expect that the implementation of a paternalistic managerial style may play a significant role in building an ethical organizational climate (Erben & Guneser, 2008).

Victor and Cullen (1988) depicted ethical organizational climate as "the prevailing perceptions [by the employees] of typical organizational practices and procedures that have ethical content" or "those aspects of work climate that determine what constitutes ethical behavior at work [as perceived by the employees]" (p. 101). Drawing on the theory of moral development (Kohlberg, 1981), Victor and Cullen (1987, 1988) postulated a conceptual paradigm for studying employee's ethical fundamental motivations. They use the term "loci" (singular "locus") to refer to the ultimate sources to which individuals attribute their ethical and moral choices. Two main loci are mentioned, as follows: a "locus of analysis" and a "locus of control". The former refers to any of the following three sources of ethical prescriptions or standards of what is right or wrong as follows: the conscience of the individual; the rules that govern the team; and, lastly, the uses, norms, and laws of the larger community. Locus of control, on the other hand, relates to the criteria the individual applies when taking an ethical decision, which can be either of the three moral philosophies of egoism, altruism, or principled-based ethics (also

known as deontological) (Erben & Guneser, 2008; Forte, 2005; Scandura, 2016; Victor & Cullen, 1987, 1988).²

Nine distinct ethical fundamental or basic motives turned out by relating both loci as described in Table 1. Each of the basic motives tends to correspond to one or more of the five perceived organizational ethical organizational climate types that are described in the literature (e.g., Erben & Guneser, 2008; Forte, 2005; Scandura, 2016).

Table 1

Postulated Ethical Basic Motives

		Locus of Analysis (source of the ethical norms)		
Locus of Control (the type of ethical criteria used by the individual)	Egoism or Self-interest	Individual	Local/Team	Cosmopolitan/Community
		Basic motive: Self-interest (Ethical climate: Instrumental)	Basic motive: Company profit (Ethical climate: Instrumental)	Basic motive: Efficiency (Ethical climate: Instrumental and Caring)
Locus of Control (the type of ethical criteria used by the individual)	Altruistic	Basic motive: Friendship (Ethical climate: Caring)	Basic motive: Team interest (Ethical climate: Caring)	Basic motive: Social responsibility (Ethical climate: Caring)

² The Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy (<https://plato.stanford.edu/archives/win2020/entries/ethics-deontological/>) explains that the word *Deontology* etymologically derives from the Greek “deon” (duty) and “logos” (science). In modern moral philosophy, this term refers to external norms that instruct the individual on what decisions he should make when confronted with moral and ethical choices. There are two other groups of ethical theories known respectively as “aretaic” (from the Greek word for virtue) and “consequentialist”. Aretaic choices are guided by the person’s subjective image of what he aspires to be, while consequentialism only considers the quality of the outcomes resulting from the chosen acts.

Principled or Deontological	Basic motive: Personal morality (Ethical climate: Independent)	Basic motive: Rules and procedures (Ethical climate: Rules)	Basic motive: Laws and professional codes (Ethical climate: Law and Code)

Notes. The table is based on Erben and Guneser (2008), and Victor and Cullen (1988). The ethical climates in brackets are based on Scandura (2016).

The perceived ethical organizational climate types are usually labeled as follows: Independent, Instrumental, Law and Order, Rule, and Caring (or Benevolent) (Erben & Guneser, 2008; Forte, 2005; Scandura, 2016). Regarding the locus of control, the moral philosophy of self-interest or egoism implies that the subject is only concerned about his own personal interests, whereas altruism indicates that the person is looking for the common good, trying to optimize the benefits for the whole society. Finally, the deontological or principled criteria is broadly defined as the subject striving to be faithful to some moral values, ideals, or principles, either religious or not in origin (Erben & Guneser, 2008; Forte, 2005; Scandura, 2016; Victor & Cullen, 1987, 1988).

Concerning the locus of analysis, the title *Individual* denotes the subject that is guided in her ethical choices by her own norms, by rules she made for herself, based on her experience and reasoning. *Local*, in the context of this paper, refers to practices, rules, and codes in the organization, and *Cosmopolitan* implies the consensus, norms, and laws of the larger community outside the organization (Erben & Guneser, 2008; Victor & Cullen, 1987, 1988).

One of the messages conveyed by Table 1 is, for instance, that a subject with an altruistic criterion will perceive a caring ethical climate when meeting friendship, team

interest, and/or social responsibility as ethical motives. The specific ethical motive that acts as a catalyst for triggering the perception depends on the subject's source of ethical prescriptions (which, as already mentioned may be anyone of the following three: the individual, the team, the community). Alternatively, a person with an egotistic criterion of moral decision-making may sometimes perceive the climate as benevolent when he abides by the community norms and organizational efficiency is the ethical motive. Thus, the employee may determine what constitutes the right behavior in a specific situation by pondering how the ethical motives are affected by a specific moral decision (Erben & Guneser, 2008; Victor & Cullen, 1987, 1988). A similar conclusion can be made for the remaining ethical climates (instrumental, independent, rule, and law-and-code).

Research suggests that probably the main organization-specific element that may affect the locus of control and therefore the employees perception of the ethical organizational climate is leader behavior (e.g., Erben & Guneser, 2008; Treviño et al., 1998, Victor & Cullen, 1987, 1988). This view is supported by several authors who suggest that role models are an important source for learning and developing new behaviors and attitudes (Aycan, 2006; Kozlowski & Doherty, 1989; Mayer et al., 2007; Naumann & Bennett, 2000; Walumbwa et al., 2010). As representatives of the organization, employees often look for inspiration from their leaders, and thus leaders become the guide for the kind of behaviors that are ethically admissible in the company. Leaders also set the standards and ways in which to address ethical issues in the organization (Erben & Guneser, 2008).

Benevolent Paternalism and Perceived Caring Ethical Organizational Climate

Benevolent paternalism is an accepted managerial strategy in Mexico, used with the aim of promoting employee organizational commitment (Brumley, 2014). It should be noted that the type of benevolent paternalism that prevails in Mexico is different from paternalism as practiced in Asia (e.g., Aycan, 2006; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008). It has been referred to by different authors as “fraternalism” (d’Iribarne, 2002), “maternalism” (Northouse, 2013; Specker-Sullivan, 2016), “soft-paternalism” or “parentalism” (Kultgen, 2014).³ In Mexico, paternalism is conscious of differences in rank and status, but subordinates do not resent this asymmetry, as long as who holds power acts as the integrator and harmonizer of the group (Brumley, 2014; Martínez, 2003, 2005). Employees would doubt the talents, capacity, knowledge, skills, and adequacy of the manager who delegates decision-making authority; this is so because followers in Mexico require the leader to personally be in charge, conspicuously deciding on behalf of the group what is the best for each member (Martínez, 2003, 2005). The resultant situation is somewhat paradoxical because the leader is expected to take on the duties and privileges of the one who is in command, but it is also anticipated that he will act more like a protector of his followers than like one who is in command (d’Iribarne, 2001; Davila & Elvira, 2005). This means that there is a tacit understanding about some social roles that

³ Some view the word “Maternalism” as appropriate to depict this patronizing behavior towards adults because it mirrors the manner a typical stereotyped [Latin] mother pampers her offspring (Kultgen, 1995, 2014; Specker-Sullivan, 2016). In Latin America, it is taken for granted that mothers will overprotect their kids (Becerra, 2007). In Mexico, I have heard the Spanish colloquial term “Mamitis” to portray the tendency of some local mothers to over-indulge their children—especially the males—, “mami” being the informal expression used by Mexican children when calling their mothers. It has been observed in families of Mexican background living in the U.S a pattern of differential treatment of the children depending on their genre (McHale, Updegraff, Shanahan, Crouter, & Killoren, 2005).

the benevolent paternalistic manager must fulfill, for instance, attending wedding ceremonies or memorial services of the employees or their close relatives, partaking as a team member at company games, sharing the table with subordinates at organizational parties (Kabasakal & Bodur, 2007). On these occasions, the social distance between the leader and subordinates is diminished without awkwardness, allowing the manager to conduct himself like a benevolent parent (Kabasakal & Bodur, 2007). Indeed, some scholars have suggested that Mexican workers often believe they are entitled to pass over their immediate supervisor to directly address a high manager about their issues—whether job-related or personal (Davila & Elvira, 2005). It is therefore not surprising to see Mexican employees befriending their general manager on LinkedIn and Facebook or asking their boss to dance at a company party, just like that, as if nothing extraordinary was happening.

Some researchers have suggested that the root causes of benevolent paternalism in Mexico are to be found in the powerful influence of well-established Latin ethos like “respeto” and “familismo” (e.g., Thompson & Whiffen, 2018). “Respeto” (respect) involves acknowledging the value of all the individuals implicated in the specific social setting, especially the elderly, the knowledgeable, and the one with authority; it implies everyone fulfilling his obligations and keeping his place in society, in order to preserve solidarity and harmony in the group and community (e.g., Martínez, 2003, 2005; Thompson & Whiffen, 2018). “Respeto” is a feature Mexican fathers strive to pass on to their children; interestingly enough, many think this trait is learned through a reciprocal formality in the relationship and communication between a father and son or daughter (Taylor & Behnke, 2005). “Familismo” (concerning the family) is a bi-dimensional

concept. There is an attitudinal “familismo,” that relates to feelings of reciprocity, solidarity, and loyalty, between blood kinship, encompassing the following fundamental beliefs: (a) the individual is secondary to the family, (b) kinship interrelatedness, (c) the dignity of the family is paramount (Calzada & Yoshikawa, 2012). There is as well a behavioral “familismo” that describes the conducts that mirror these beliefs (Calzada & Yoshikawa, 2012).

Other authors have emphasized the influence of historical profoundly rooted Catholic teachings, and conventional gendered family roles as a source of the legitimization of paternalism in Mexico (e.g., Boyer, 2000). In the Spanish colonies, the forerunner to current models of organizations was the “hacienda”, an agrarian large estate, where the tenants and workers were related to the landlord in a bond of confidence, mutual deference, and support (e.g., Davila & Elvira, 2005; Guerra, 2014; Martínez, 2003, 2005). In Mexico, during the late nineteenth century, many textile mills were established in urban and rural homesteads (Boyer, 2000). Mill owners continued to provide the workers with the privileges and benefits typical of the haciendas, including a modest education and building and sustaining local churches for the moral development of the workforce (Boyer, 2000).

Many scholars have argued that one of the main sources for the expectation of paternalism at the workplace is to be found in the implicit values of the religion practiced by the majority of the members of the society (e.g., Aycan, 2006; Farh & Cheng, 2000; Hiller et al., 2018). Furthermore, religion is judged as a powerful element in the creation of ethos (Grondona, 2000). Catholicism is the religion practiced by most of the population in Mexico (e.g., Blancarte, 1993; de Kadt, 1967; Klaiber, 2009). Therefore,

unsurprisingly, the ethics in the Mexican large society are mainly derived from the Catholic Church teachings (Camp, 1994; Grondona, 2000; Marta, Heiss & De Lurgio, 2008; Montaner, 2000). So, in principle, it is reasonable to assume that the ethical basic motives within which Mexican employees operate are the Christian moral philosophies of benevolence and principled [deontological] ethical prescriptions of loving your neighbor (e.g., Camp, 1994; Klaiber, 2009; Marta et al., 2008; Montaner, 2000, pp. 61-62), a fact which plays into the Mexican cultural anticipations that a manager must be caring and benevolent with his employees (Davila & Elvira, 2005; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008).⁴

Drawing on this historical context and the important influence of the managers' behaviors and example in determining the ethical locus of control and shaping the employee's perception of a certain type of ethical organizational climate (e.g., Erben & Guneser, 2008; Treviño et al., 1998, Victor & Cullen, 1987, 1988), I argue and propose that in Mexico a benevolent paternalistic managerial behavior—managers who are genuinely concerned in the wellbeing of the employees—will facilitate employees to perceive the ethical organizational climate as caring, which is the type of ethical climate the Mexican worker desires (Brumley, 2014; Davila & Elvira, 2005; Martínez, 2003, 2005; Thompson & Whiffen, 2018). Remarkably, and despite this type of leadership or managerial style practical and theoretical appeal, there have been not many attempts to

⁴ Articles 2432 of the Catholic Church Catechism (CCC) emphasizes that managers must consider the whole good of the persons under their responsibility, granting to the employees a fair remuneration that guarantees them a dignified livelihood for themselves and their family. In Christianity, the concepts of “a loving divinity” and “fatherhood” are intricately connected. Actually, the best-known Christian prayer is the “Our Father” (Matthew 6:9; Luke 11:2). Furthermore, in Mexico, I have often heard the utterance “Que Padre!” (what a father!) by individuals of all ages or social conditions, when referring to something convenient, good, or agreeable.

study the links between benevolent paternalistic management and ethical organizational climate around the world (Erben & Guneser, 2008; Otken & Cenkci, 2012; Saygili, Ozer & Karaya, 2020). Importantly, the relatively few studies that have been conducted so far appear to suggest that there are indeed some important differences between Taiwan, Turkey, and the U.S. regarding the processes underlying the effect of a benevolent paternalistic managerial behavior on organizational ethical climate (Gumusluoglu, Karakitapoglu, & Hu, 2020).⁵ To my best knowledge, the relationship between benevolent paternalism and ethical organizational climate has not yet been studied in Latin America. Accordingly, I advance the following:

Hypothesis 2: Benevolent paternalistic managerial leader behavior will be positively related to employee perceptions of a caring ethical organizational climate.

Affective Organizational Commitment of Employees

“Organizational commitment is a psychological state that describes an employee relationship with their organization and a propensity to continue the relationship with the organization” (Scandura, 2016, p. 96). Organization commitment in general is a job-related mindset conceptualized as having three distinct dimensions (Allen & Meyer, 1990, 1996; Meyer & Allen, 1991). The first dimension is “affective commitment” which more specifically refers to “an employee’s emotional attachment to an organization” he

⁵Gumusluoglu, Karakitapoglu, and Hu (2020) concluded that whereas procedural justice was a toll connecting a benevolent paternalistic managerial behavior with the ethical organizational climate in Taiwan, Turkey, and the U.S, interactional justice played a role only in the U.S. Procedural justice refers to the equality in the mechanism used to resolve a dispute (Argyris, 1977). Interactional justice is the extent to which individuals are dealt with respect and dignity while procedures are implemented (Schermerhorn, Hunt, Osborn, & Uhl-Bien 2010).

values and cares about (Scandura, 2016, p. 96). The second is “continuance commitment” defined as the extent to which an employee is conscious of the cost for him of quitting the firm (i.e., employees decide to stay and remain committed to the organization because of the high costs involved in their leaving). Finally, “normative” commitment is the moral duty to remain in the organization (i.e., employees decide to stay and remain committed to the company for the mere reason that ethically is the proper thing to do) (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Scandura, 2016). Importantly, each dimension is believed to contribute to the relation of the worker with the company and have consequences for their continuing affiliation to the firm and may be impacted by diverse preceding conditions or may have different outcomes (Meyer & Allen, 1991). In this dissertation, the focus is on affective organizational commitment because this dimension may “more strongly influence work behaviors than other components or proposed forms of commitment, ... [therefore,] affective commitment may be reasonably considered a core essence of organizational commitment” (Mercurio, 2015, p. 403).

Cullen, Parboteeah, and Victor (2003) argue that up to the point that individuals show a preference for certain kinds of ethical climates, employees would be more committed to the firm where they perceive a climate of their liking. Thus, the organizational commitment would be greater in companies with principled or benevolent-based climates than in firms with egoistic-based climates (Cullen, Parboteeah, & Victor, 2003). In other words, employees are likely to identify more and get emotionally involved with firms they perceive encourage values of solidarity with the community and among the workers, promoting felt responsibility for others (Cullen et al., 2003). Thus, these authors observed a positive relationship between perceptions of a caring ethical

climate and affective commitment (Cullen et al., 2003). Other authors also have suggested that ethical organizational climates influence affective organizational commitment (Arias-Galicia, 2005; De Clercq & Belausteguigoitia-Rius, 2007; Erben & Guneser, 2008). Taken together, I suggest that employees will be more affectively committed to the organization that has, in their view, the kind of ethical climate they (the employees) prefer (Cullen et al., 1993; Erben & Guneser, 2008). Further, employees will be more affectively committed and perceive to have values in common with a firm that displays benevolence for individuals and the community (Erben & Guneser, 2008). Martin and Cullen (2006) in a meta-analytic review mention that some researchers posit “higher levels of organizational commitment when members perceive stronger caring climates” (p.181). Thus, I propose the following:

Hypothesis 3: Employee perceptions of a caring ethical organizational climate will be positively related to affective organizational commitment.

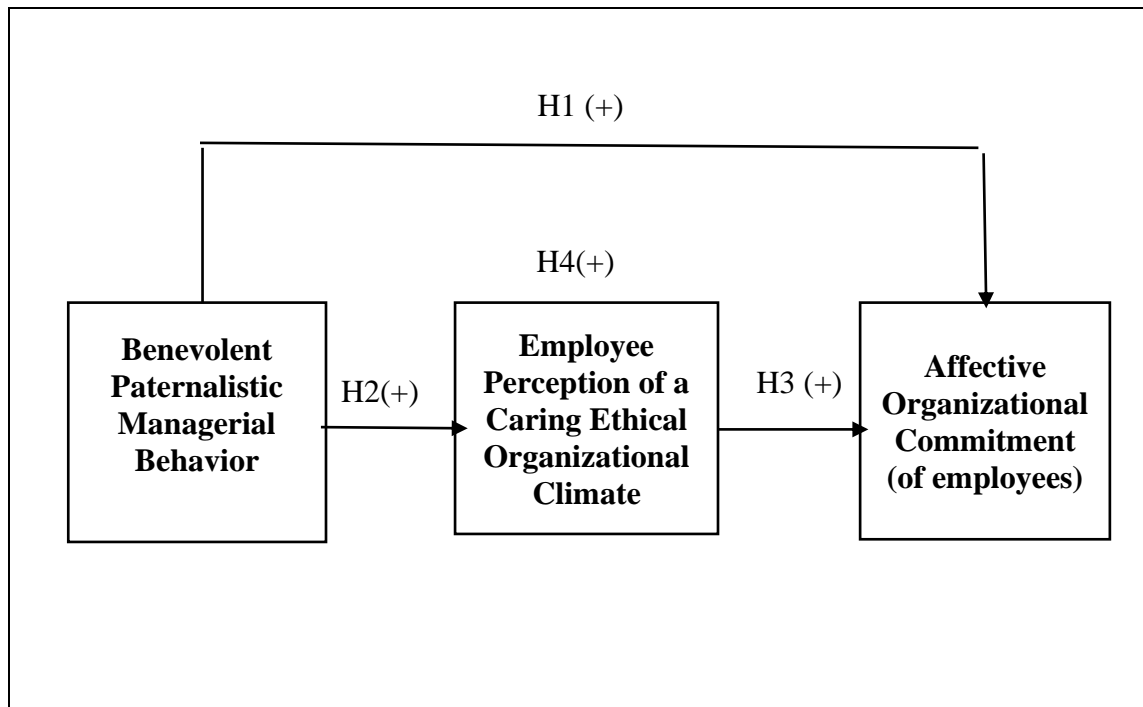
So far, I have argued that benevolent paternalistic managerial behavior is linked in a positive way to both affective organizational commitment and employee perceptions of a caring ethical organizational climate (Hypotheses 1-2), and that employee perception of a caring ethical organizational climate are linked in a positive way to affective organizational commitment (Hypothesis 3). Building on Hypotheses 1-3, I further argue that employee perceptions of a caring ethical organizational climate will act as a mediator through which benevolent paternalistic managerial behavior influences employee affective organizational commitment. However, because I argue in Hypothesis 1 that benevolent paternalistic managerial behavior has a direct relationship with employee affective organizational commitment, I propose a partial mediation as follows:

Hypothesis 4: Employee perceptions of a caring ethical organizational climate will partially mediate the relationship between benevolent paternalistic managerial behavior and affective organizational commitment.

Figure 1 below summarizes the proposed hypothesized relationships for this dissertation.

Figure 1

Research Model



CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Pilot Test

In late June of 2019, a pilot test in preparation for this paper was executed in a medium-size pharmaceutical company located in the Mexican city of Queretaro. It was a descriptive, deductive, quantitative non-experimental design. The subjects were 55 volunteers from a specific population: employees of the previously mentioned company. They completed questions regarding demographic information, three Likert-type questionnaires, and an open question. The participants were evaluated on the control variables (gender and age) and independent variables (Benevolent Paternalistic Management, Employee's Identification with the work-place in-Group Scale, Pull to Leave the Job), and then evaluated on the dependent variable (Job Involvement). The questionnaires given to the participants were in Spanish.

Before the Pilot, two pre-tests were conducted, one with the top three managers of the company and the other one with five key subaltern employees. Based on what was learned in the pre-test, some questions of the survey for the pilot were modified, in particular, the choice of words in the Spanish translations.

All the proposed Likert-type instruments used in the pre-test and pilot were previously validated measures in social science and human resources research, with minor modifications to adapt them to the local Mexican culture. The questionnaires were completed by the participants in about 15 minutes on average in between job shift changes.

The following are the learning points of the Pilot test which were implemented for the final research:

- i. Changing the paternalistic scale from the one suggested by Aycan (2006) to the one proposed by Pellegrini and Scandura (2006, 2008). In the opinion of many subjects who took the Pilot and the Pre-Test, they could recognize and relate more to the items of the latter questionnaire than the ones of the former.
- ii. Simplifying the research model by reducing the number of hypotheses and changing some of the variables to be measured to make the model more meaningful and useful in a Mexican context. The decision was to include employee perception of a caring ethical organizational climate as a mediator between benevolent paternalistic managerial style as a predictor and affective organizational commitment as an outcome.
- iii. In both the Pilot and Pre-Tests, participants appeared to prefer affective organizational commitment measures over job involvement. Although both constructs are similar in concept, they vary in the object of identification. Organizational commitment is more related to the employee connection to the firm while job involvement refers to the affinity of the employee with the duties inherent to his job (Brown & Leigh, 1996).

Full-Scale Research

The data for the full-scale research was collected at different times and from various groups during September and October of 2020.

Samples

The study sample consisted of 152 retained subjects ($N = 152$), all of whom had a confirmed substantial working experience within Mexico. Those individuals mainly resided in the cities of Mexico City, Queretaro, Saltillo, and Monterrey. Most respondents are or had been involved in either the pharmaceutical industry or in sectors related to the pharmaceutical industry.

About 42% of the respondents of the retained surveys were female and 58% male. The age range was broad, as follows: some 37% of the volunteers were less than 30 years old, 24% between the ages 31-45, 31% between 46-60, and the remaining 8% over 61. About 58% of the subjects were college graduates.

Procedure

To recruit sample participants I resorted to two different procedures. First, I distributed over 700 questionnaires through email or WhatsApp to professional friends, acquaintances, former colleagues, customers, suppliers, and LinkedIn contacts who fitted the profile of holding a confirmed substantial working experience within Mexico. Of all those, 98 questionnaires were returned, for a response rate of around 14%. Of this group of 98 respondents, 10 were subsequently discarded because they either had more than 5 unanswered questions or the subjects did not have the exact right qualifications regarding a veritable working experience in Mexico.

The second way to gather information was by asking for volunteers to fill out the survey in the same medium size pharmaceutical factory in the Mexican city of Queretaro in which the pilot test was conducted in 2019. These questionnaires were circulated by two individuals in the factory who had the opportunity to contact the volunteers. These

key collaborators were given instructions about the method of the research. In total, 64 employees volunteered to participate. For these participants, it was possible to implement a two-week temporal separation between the different questionnaires of the survey with the goal of minimizing method bias (Jordan & Troth, 2020; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012).

For the remaining 98 responders, who were those who responded to the questionnaire by email or WhatsApp, it was not possible to proceed with a temporal separation in the filling of the survey scales. For these participants, method bias was somewhat curtailed because of the following provisions: a) the surveys were short, b) these contacts tended to be highly educated subjects; c) the scale items were simple and clear, d) negative and positive items were balanced; e) reversed code items were included, f) there were some proximal separations among the items measuring each construct, and g) a detailed set of instruction and explanations was conveyed to the subjects when asking them to fill the survey, creating a psychological separation (Jordan & Troth, 2020; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012).

Measures

The survey instrument was translated into Spanish using a back-translation technique (Brislin, 1980), where the author, who is a native Spanish speaker, made the first translation into Spanish, and a native Mexican Spanish speaker checked the scales for clarity, accuracy, and wording of items.

The first part of the questionnaire was a cover letter thanking the subjects for their participation, asking them to answer the questions to the best of their knowledge, and reminding them they can quit the research at any moment of their convenience.

In the second section, there was a “Paternalistic Managerial Behavior Survey” measured using the paternalistic leadership scale developed by Pellegrini and Scandura (2006, 2008). The scale consisted of 13 items. All the items were measured using a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from “strongly disagree” (1) to “strongly agree” (5). Sample items included: “My manager is interested in every aspect of his/her employees’ lives,” “My manager is like an elder family member (father/mother, elder brother/sister) for his/her employees,” and “My manager exhibits emotional reactions in his/her relations with the employees; doesn’t refrain from showing emotions such as joy, grief, anger.”

In the third section of the questionnaire, there was an “Organizational Ethical Climate Survey” developed by Victor and Cullen (1987) to measure types of ethical climates as perceived by the employees within organizations. The scale consisted of 26 items. All the items were measured using a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from “completely false” (1) to “completely true” (5). Sample items included: “In this company, people are expected to follow their own personal and moral beliefs”, “In this company, people protect their own interest above other considerations,” and “In this company, each person is expected, above all, to work efficiently.”

Lastly, there was an “Organizational Commitment Survey” originally developed by Allen and Meyer (1990) and later revised by Meyer, Allen, and Smith (1993), to measure the organizational commitment of employees. The scale consisted of 18 items. All the items were measured using a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from strongly disagreed (1) to strongly agreed (5). Sample items included: “I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this organization,” “I believe I have too few options to

consider leaving this organization,” and “I would not leave my organization right now because of my sense of obligation to it.” This section also included some demographic questions to determine some individual characteristics of the respondents such as age, gender, and marital status (see Appendix A for the complete list of the retained measures).

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Analysis

The data was analyzed using the following steps:

Step 1: The data set was reviewed to check for any missing data and adjusted accordingly. Negative items were reverse-coded.

Step 2: Exploratory Factor Analyses (EFA) and reliability analyses using SPSS 26 were conducted to assess the factor configuration of the measures.

Step 3: Using SPSS 26 the items in each scale were aggregated into a single total for each variable and Descriptive Statistics were provided. Normality tests, as well as Q-Q plots, were run and interpreted.

Step 4: Regression analysis using SPSS 26 was used to test whether the independent and mediating variables have the suggested influence on the dependent variable.⁶

Results

Step 1: The data set was reviewed to check for any missing data and adjusted accordingly. From 162 returned surveys, I retained 152. The 10 surveys that were discarded were either because they had more than five unanswered questions or the individual participants did not meet the required working experience in Mexico.

⁶ Although redundant a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and structural equation modeling (SEM) analysis using AMOS 26 was also performed in the expectation that it would re-confirm the robustness of the proposed model. The results are shown in Appendix B.

The survey had a total of 57 items, multiplied by 152 retained subjects, it made a full total of 8664 potential answers. Of all these, only 62 questions were non-response (0.7%), which is a small percentage and can be considered non-problematic (Dong & Peng, 2013). To complete the data set, I replaced the missing data using mode attribution. Although this is a basic method of data imputation, the risk of bias remains low due to a small number of missing values (Zhang, 2016).

Step 2: The EFA and reliability analysis using SPSS 26 was performed to assess the factor configuration on each of the questionnaires for “paternalism managerial behavior”, “ethical organizational climate”, and “organizational commitment”. A total of 13 items were retained that measured the three dimensions that were of interest, as follows: “benevolent paternalistic managerial behavior” (5 items), “employee perception of a caring ethical organizational climate” (3 items), and “affective organizational commitment” (5 items).

Using SPSS 26, a further principal axis EFA with oblique rotation (direct oblimin) was conducted on the previously identified and retained 13 items. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure verified the sampling adequacy for the analysis, $KMO = .865$, which is considered meritorious (Kaiser & Rice, 1974), and all KMO values for individual items were greater than .815, which is well above the acceptable limit of .50 (e.g., Backhaus et al., 2006; Kaiser & Rice, 1974). An initial analysis was run to obtain eigenvalues for each factor in the data. Three factors had eigenvalues over Kaiser’s criterion of 1 and in combination explained 64.83% of the variance. The Scree Plot showed inflections that would justify retaining three factors. Thus, we retained the previously identified three factors because of the convergence of the Scree Plot and

Kaiser's criterion on this value. The items that cluster on the same factor suggest that factor 1 represents benevolent paternalistic managerial behavior (BPM), factor 2 represents employee affective organizational commitment (AOC), and factor 3 represents employee perceptions of caring ethical organizational climate (CEC). All these three factors had high reliability, with all Cronbach's alphas $> .80$ which is a good value for this measure of scale reliability as it shows a high factor internal consistency (e.g., Adadan & Savasci, 2011; Cho & Kim, 2015; Nunnally, 1978). The results of the reliability analyses using Cronbach's alpha conducted for each variable were the following: for benevolent paternalistic managerial behavior (BPM) = .871, for affective organizational commitment (AOC) = .801, and for employee perceptions of a caring ethical organizational climate (CEC) = .823. Reliability coefficient, mean, percent of variance for each variable, and the retained items are reported in Table 2.

Table 2

Retained Item-Total Statistics and Cronbach's Alpha

VARIABLE BPM								
	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items	Mean	% of Variance	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
	.871	5	15.3487	38.142				
VAR00004: My manager gives advice to his/her employees on different matters as if he/she were an elder family member.					12.0329	18.522	.692	.845
VAR00002: My manager creates a family environment in the workplace.					12.0658	17.797	.788	.821
VAR00003: My manager is like an elder family member (father/mother, elder brother/sister) for his/her employees.					12.7105	18.353	.722	.838
VAR00001: My manager is interested in every aspect of his/her employees' lives.					12.8289	18.010	.737	.834

VAR00005: My manager gives his/her employees a chance to develop themselves when they display low performance.	11.7566	20.212	.550	.878
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VARIABLE AOC				
	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items	Mean	% of Variance
	.801	5	17.5461	11.130

VAR00011: This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	14.3289	13.851	.530	.781
VAR00013: I owe a great deal to this organization.	14.0724	14.385	.551	.772
VAR00012: This organization deserves my loyalty.	13.8750	13.196	.664	.736
VAR00010: I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.	13.7500	14.387	.583	.763
VAR00009: I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this organization.	14.1579	13.988	.595	.759

VARIABLE CEC				
	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items	Mean	% of Variance
	.823	3	9.3816	6.211

VAR00007: The most important concern is the good of all the people in the company.	6.2566	5.569	.601	.832
VAR00008: In this company, our major concern is always what is best for the other person.	6.2039	4.733	.746	.686
VAR00006: In this company, people look out for each other's good.	6.3026	5.246	.695	.740

Step 3: Using SPSS 26, the items in each scale were aggregated into a single total and Descriptive Statistics provided (see Table 3) as well as a Correlation table (see Table 4). Variables BPM and CEC have a strong positive correlation as the coefficient value lies between ± 0.50 and ± 1 (.560). Variables BPM and AOC have a positive medium correlation as the value lies between ± 0.30 and ± 0.49 (.392). Variables CEC and AOC have a positive medium correlation as the value lies between ± 0.30 and ± 0.49 (.430).

Table 3*Variables Descriptive Statistics*

Factor	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness Statistic	Skewness Std. Error	Kurtosis Statistic	Kurtosis Std. Error	N
BPM	15.3487	5.30308	-.180	.197	-.790	.391	152
CEC	9.3816	3.27328	-.266	.197	-.796	.391	152
AOC	17.5461	4.55843	-.513	.197	.263	.391	152

Note. The values for kurtosis and asymmetry and between -2 and +2 are regarded as acceptable to prove normal univariate distribution (George & Mallery, 2010).

Table 4*Variables Correlations*

		BPM	CEC	AOC
BPM	Pearson Correlation	1	.560**	.92**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000
	N	152	152	152
CEC	Pearson Correlation	.560**	1	.430**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000
	N	152	152	152
AOC	Pearson Correlation	.392**	.430**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	
	N	152	152	152

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

Histograms (with normal overlays) and Boxplots were also created for all aggregate scales, checking whether there are any obvious outliers (see Figures 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, and 7 below).

No outliers were shown in the Boxplots for variables BPM and CEC. Four outliers were found in the dependent variable AOC. However, a decision was made not to

drop those outliers because they are just out values (marked with a small circle in SPSS) and neither far out nor extreme values (marked with a star in SPSS).

Figure 2

Variable BPM: Histogram (with Normal Overlay)

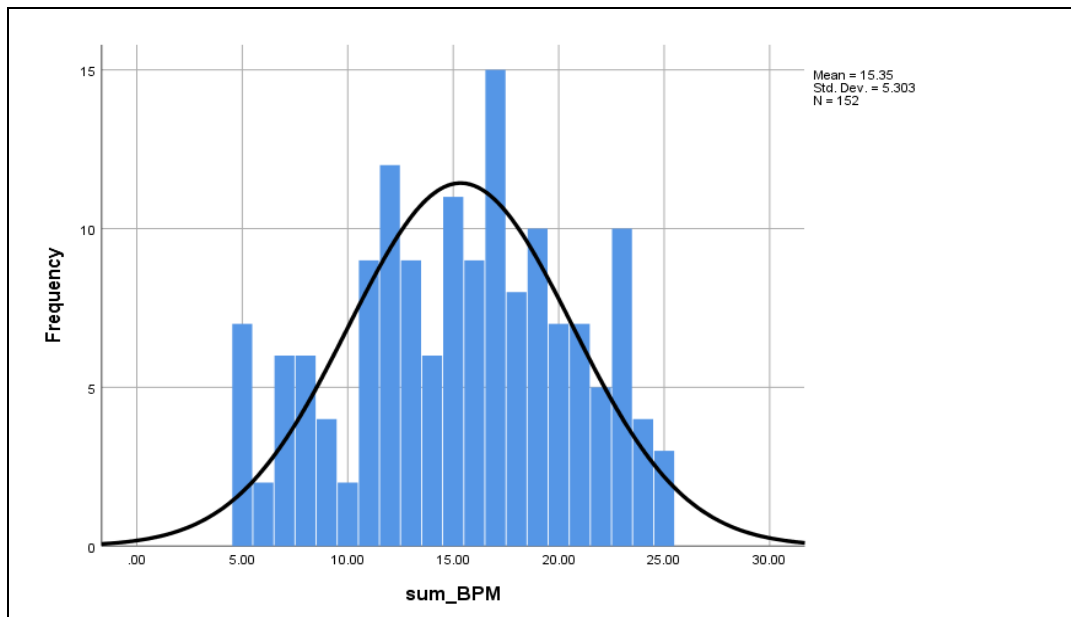


Figure 3

Variable BPM: Boxplot

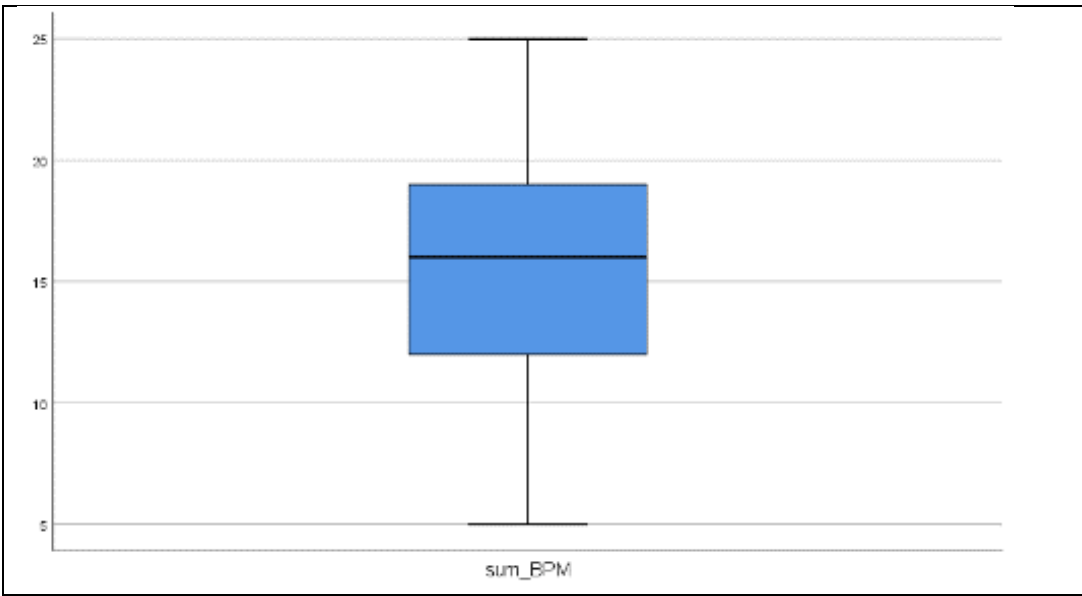


Figure 4

Variable CEC: Histogram (with Normal Overlay)

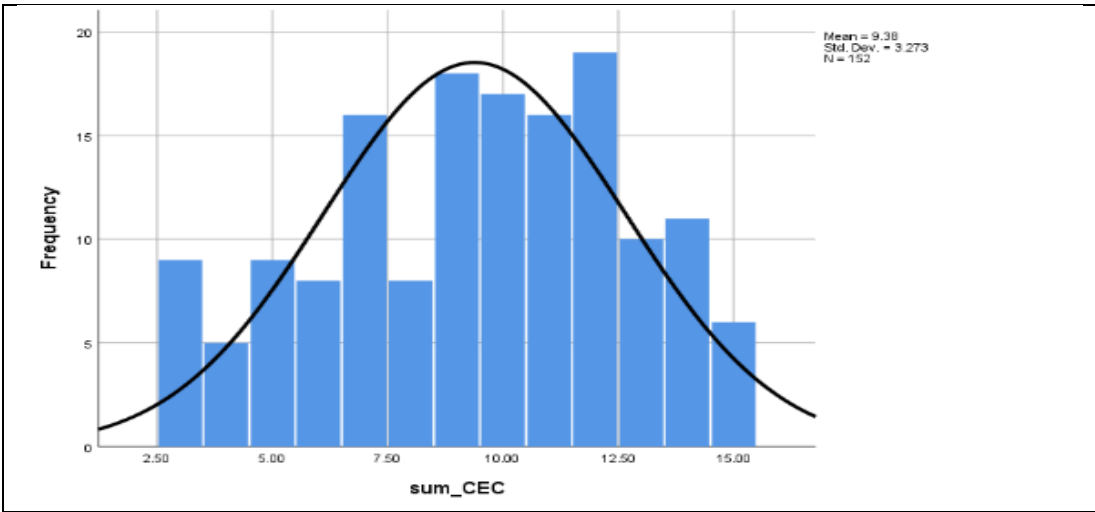


Figure 5

Variable CEC: Boxplot

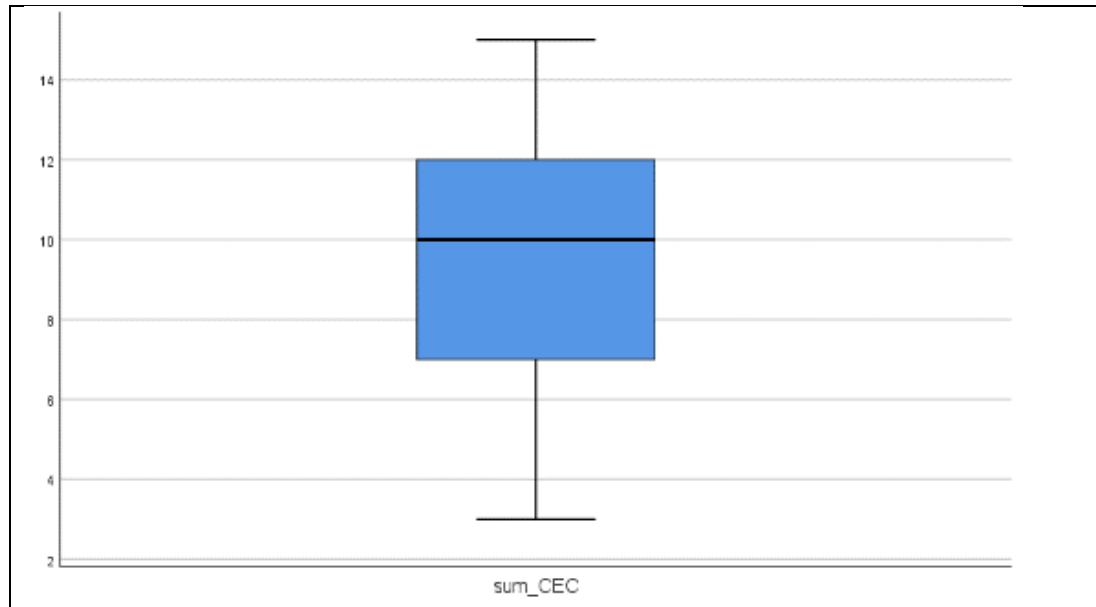


Figure 6

Variable AOC: Histogram (with Normal Overlay)

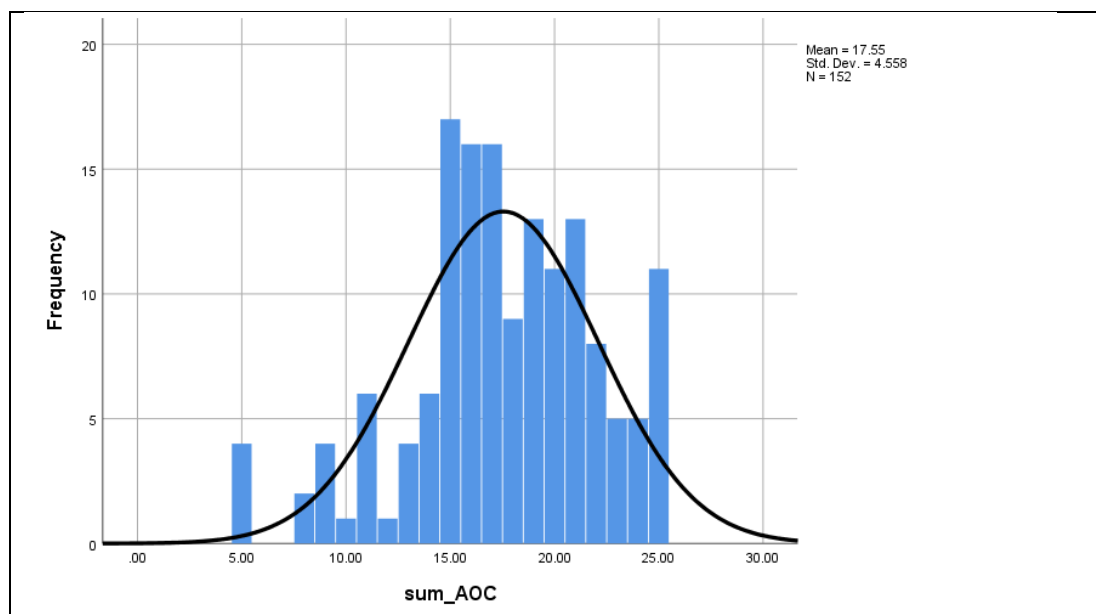
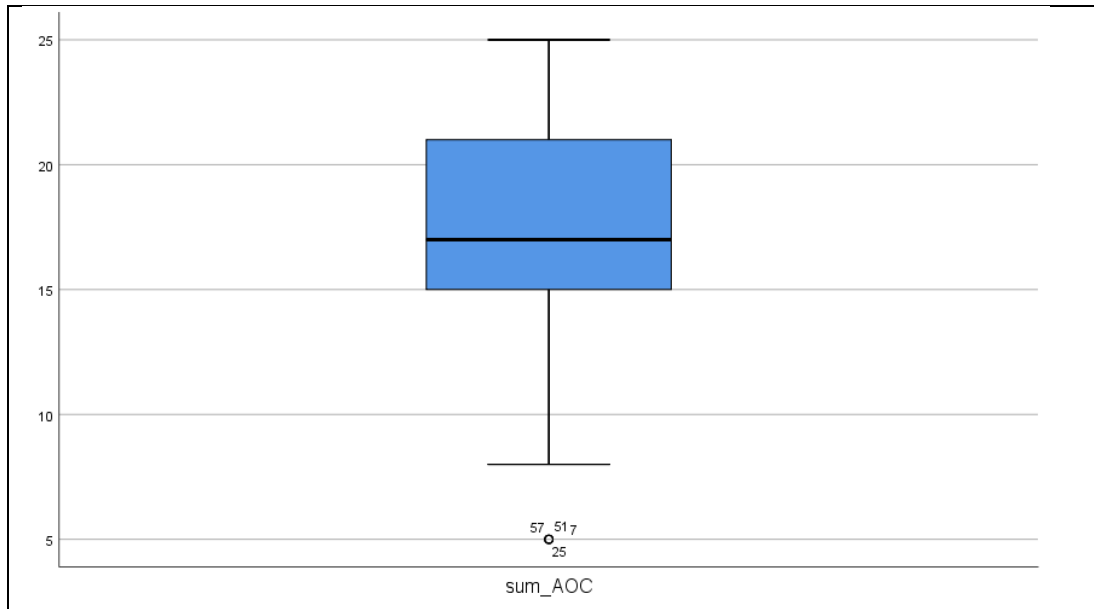


Figure 7

Variable AOC: Boxplot



Normality tests (see Table 5) as well as Quantile-Quantile (Q-Q) plots (see Figures 4, 7, and 10) were also run and interpreted, arriving at the conclusion that the distribution of the data approximates to normality.

Table 5

Variables Tests of Normality

Shapiro-Wilk			
	Statistic	df	Sig.
BPM	.971	152	.003
CEC	.962	152	.000
AOC	.963	152	.000

Note. If the **Sig.** value of the Shapiro-Wilk Test is greater than 0.05, the data is normally distributed (Shapiro & Wilk, 1965)

Figure 8

Variable BPM: Normal Q-Q plot

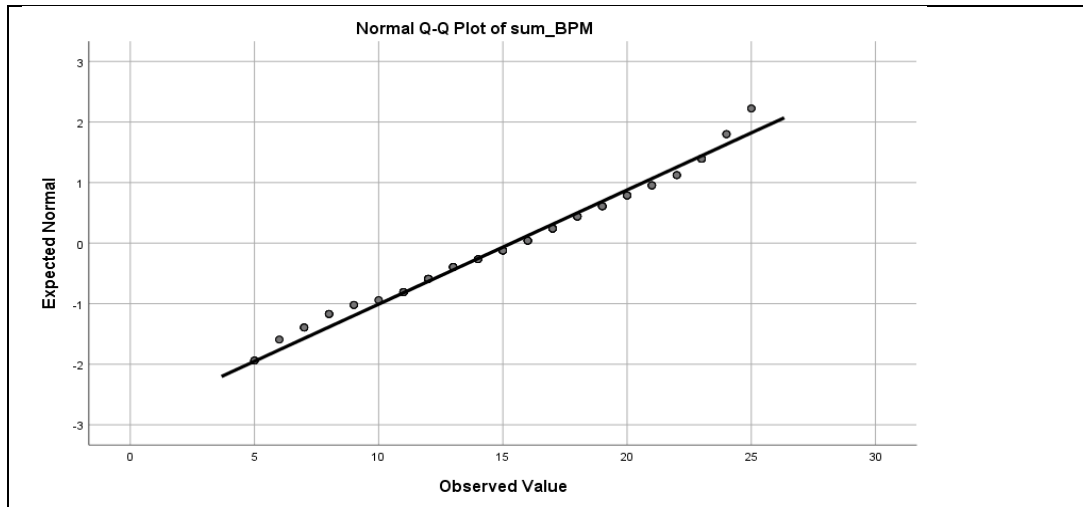


Figure 9

Variable CEC: Q-Q Plot

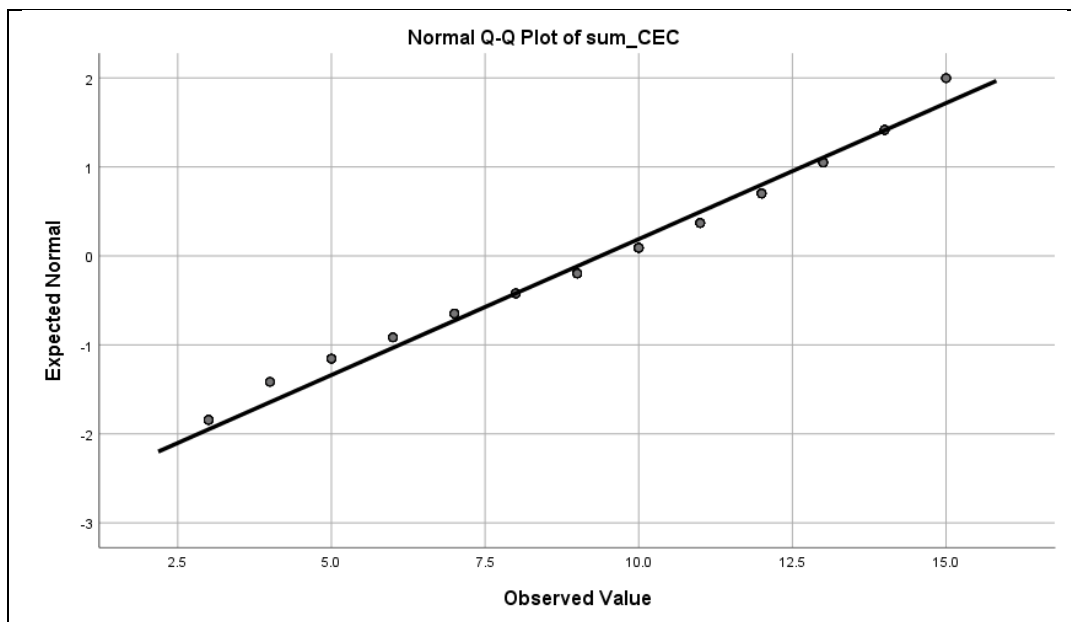
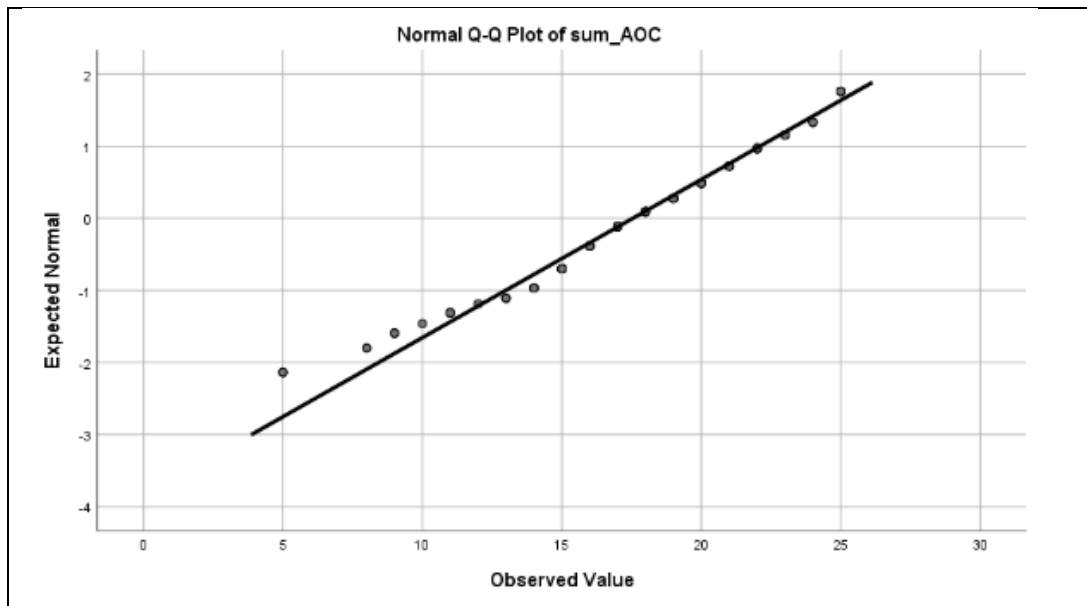


Figure 10

Variable AOC: Q-Q Plot



Step 4: Regression analyses using SPSS 26 were used to test whether the independent and mediating variables have the suggested influence on the dependent variable. The research model implies four different regressions:

- a) Regression testing H1: BPM as predictor and AOC as the outcome.
- b) Regression testing H2: BPM as predictor and CEC as the outcome.
- c) Regression testing H3: CEC as predictor and AOC as the outcome.
- d) Multiple regression testing H4: a full model with BPM as a predictor of AOC (Block 1) and CEC as a partial mediator in the relationship between BPM as a predictor and AOC as the outcome (Block 2).

Hypotheses Testing

A summary of the results for H1-H4 is shown in Table 6 below.

Table 6

Results of Regression Analyses: unstandardized coefficient, significance and R square.

Independent Variable	Mediating Variable	Dependent Variable			
		H1	H2	H3	H4
		AOC	CEC	AOC	AOC
BPM		.337*	.346*		.190*
CEC				.599*	
	CEC				.427*
F-Value		27.287	68.660	34.070	20.822
Sig.		.000	.000	.000	.000
R Square		.154	.314	.185	.218
Support for Hypothesis		Support for Hypothesis was found	Support for Hypothesis was found	Support for Hypothesis was found	Support for Hypothesis was found

* unstandardized coefficients $p < 0.05$

Hypothesis 1 proposed that benevolent paternalistic managerial leader behavior will be positively related to employee affective organizational commitment. A regression analysis was conducted in SPSS 26 to examine the relationship between benevolent paternalistic managerial behavior (BPM) as a predictor and affective organizational commitment (AOC) as the outcome. Neither tolerance nor VIF statistics indicated the presence of multicollinearity (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010). The model was significant [$F(1,150) = 27.287, p = .000$] and explained 15.4 % of the variance in AOC. Of interest to H1, the unstandardized coefficient for BPM was .337 and this coefficient is significant [$t = 5.224; p = .000$], indicating that each unit increase in BPM leads to an

increase of .337 units in AOC, in the same positive direction as predicted in the research model. Therefore, H1 received support.

Hypothesis 2 proposed that benevolent paternalistic managerial leader behavior will be positively related to employee perceptions of a caring ethical organizational climate. A regression analysis was conducted in SPSS 26 to examine the relationship between BPM as a predictor and employee perception of CEC as the outcome. Neither tolerance nor VIF statistics indicated the presence of multicollinearity (Hair et al., 2010). The model was significant [$F(1,150) = 68.660, p = .000$] and explained 31.4 % of the variance in CEC. Of interest to H2, the unstandardized coefficient for BPM was .346, and this coefficient is significant [$t = 8.286; p = .000$], indicating that each unit increase in independent variable BPM leads to an increase of .346 units in outcome variable CEC, in the same positive direction as predicted in the hypothesized model. Therefore, H2 received support.

Hypothesis 3 proposed that employee perceptions of a caring ethical organizational climate will be positively related to affective organizational commitment. A regression analysis was conducted in SPSS 26 to examine the relationship between employee perception of CEC as a predictor and AOC as the outcome. Neither tolerance nor VIF statistics indicated the presence of multicollinearity (Hair et al., 2010). The model was significant [$F(1,150) = 34.070, p = .000$] and explained 18.5 % of the variance in AOC. Of interest to H3, the unstandardized coefficient for BPM was .599, and this coefficient is significant [$t = 5.837; p = .000$], indicating that each unit increase in CEC leads to an increase of .599 units in AOC, in the same positive direction as predicted in the research model. Therefore, H3 received support.

Hypothesis 4 proposed that employee perceptions of a caring ethical organizational climate will partially mediate the relationship between benevolent paternalistic managerial behavior and affective organizational commitment. A multiple regression analysis was conducted in SPSS 26 to examine the mediating effect of employee perception of CEC on the relationship between BPM as a predictor and AOC as the outcome. Neither tolerance nor VIF statistics indicated the presence of marked multicollinearity (Hair et al., 2010). Two models were obtained as follows: Model 1 examined the relationship between benevolent paternalistic managerial leader behavior (BPM) as a predictor and affective organizational commitment (AOC) as the outcome. The model was significant [$F(1,150) = 27.287, p = .000$] and explained 15.4% of the variance in AOC. The unstandardized coefficient for BPM was .337 indicating that each unit increase in BPM leads to a positive increase of .337 units in AOC (Green & Salkind, 2017). The full model (Model 2) depicts that employee perception of CEC partially mediates on the relationship between BPM as a predictor and AOC as an outcome. This model shows a 6.5 % increase in the variance of AOC and this change was significant [$F(1,149) = 12.301, p = .001$], and explains 21.8 % of the variance in AOC. Of interest to H4, the unstandardized coefficient for CEC was .427, and this coefficient is significant [$t = 3.507; p = .001$], indicating that for each unit change of CEC while keeping BPM constant, AOC increases by .427; the unstandardized coefficient for BPM was .190, and this coefficient is also significant [$t = 2.521; p = .013$], indicating that for each unit change in BPM, while keeping CEC constant, AOC increases by .190 (Green & Salkind, 2017) The comparison of Model 1 to the full model (Model 2) shows that the direct effect of independent variable BPM on outcome AOC is reduced from an unstandardized

coefficient of .337 in Model 1 to an unstandardized coefficient of .190 in the full model (Model 2). This is a decrease of .147 in the direct effect of independent variable BPM on outcome AOC from model 1 to the full model (Model 2). This decrease of .147 in the direct effect of independent variable BPM on outcome AOC is a consequence of entering the variable CEC as a mediator. This value of .147 is different than 0 (zero), thus indicates that variable CEC partially mediates the effect of independent variable BPM on outcome AOC. If the result of the difference of the direct effect of independent variable BPM on outcome AOC between Model 1 and the full model (Model 2) would have been 0 (zero) it would have shown that the effect of BPM on AOC was totally mediated by CEC (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Therefore, H4, which states that employee perceptions of a caring ethical organizational climate (CEC) will partially mediate the relationship between benevolent paternalistic managerial behavior (BPM) and affective organizational commitment (AOC), received support.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION

Discussion and Conclusion

In the past two decades, organizational behavior scholars have centered their interest on relational competencies as a key issue when dealing with leadership efficacy, and one of these relational leadership approaches is paternalistic management (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008). However, research on paternalism has been relatively limited in scope, thus further study is required on the results, consequences, effect, and distinctions between alternative paternalistic managerial types. A style or dimension of particular interest is benevolent paternalism because of its extensive adoption, and the functional implications, consequences, and costs, emotional and otherwise, of applying benevolence at the workplace (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008). A further reason to study a benevolent paternalistic managerial style is that a firm-specific factor shaping the employee's subjective assessments of the ethical organizational climate is managers' behaviors (Erben & Guneser, 2008; Treviño et al., 1998). To my knowledge, there is no work so far relating benevolent paternalism with a certain type of ethical organizational climate in Mexico or any other country in Latin America. This dissertation is a humble effort in the direction of filling this gap. To achieve this, I examine the relationship between benevolent paternalistic managerial behavior (BPM), employee perceptions of caring ethical organizational climate (CEC), and affective organizational commitment (AOC) in Mexico.

Employees that are affectively committed to their organization intend to continue in it, as they relate and align with the firm objectives, sense that they belong to the

company, and are pleased with their job. They feel appreciated, valued, and proud of being part of the organization; therefore, they defend and speak well of it to outsiders (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Not surprisingly, some literature describes a positive relationship between organizational commitment and other organizational outcomes such as productivity, quality, and profitability (Cilek, 2019). To enhance our understating of this relationship, our model proposed that employee perceptions of CEC would have a partial mediating effect in the positive relationship between BPM as a predictor and AOC as an outcome.

Overall, the results provide support for our proposed model. Specifically, our results showed that BPM is positively related to AOC (H1); BPM is positively related to employee perceptions of CEC (H2); employee perceptions of CEC is positively related to AOC (H3); employee perceptions of CEC partially mediates the relationship between BPM and AOC (H4).

Different circumstances may influence how subordinates respond to paternalism (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008). In Mexico, a country where paternalism is ubiquitous, the knowledge that benevolent paternalistic managerial behavior has a favorable influence on employee outcomes is important (Martínez, 2003, 2005). The positive impact of benevolent paternalistic managerial behavior on both the perception of the employees of a caring ethical climate and the employee's affective organizational commitment, justifies, up to a certain point, the toll in personal time, emotional drainage, and mental fatigue—in short, ego depletion—that a benevolent paternalistic managerial style demands from the leader (Lin, Ma, & Johnson, 2016).

Implications and Future Research Suggestions

Research dealing with paternalistic practices in Mexico is mostly concerned with cross-cultural comparisons, in addition to being relatively scant (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008; Ruiz, Wang, & Hamlin, 2013). These comparisons have the tacit goal of developing a management model that lends itself to be used as a guide for expatriate executives working for multinational companies in Mexico (Ruiz et al. 2013). By contrast, this dissertation is aimed at providing managers in Mexico with a theoretical framework for wiser use of paternalistic practices to improve work outcomes. Of special interest is affective organizational commitment, a dimension that is at the core of work-related outcomes such as job performance and turnover (Scandura, 2016).

In the larger literature, the commonest theoretical framework applied when treating paternalism is one of coercion that involves a dominant all-knowing figure that restricts the autonomy and freedom of the follower (Ayman, 2006; Hiller et al., 2018; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008). But such a paradigm seems to be inadequate for Mexico, as it has been found that Mexican workers feel uncomfortable with a leader that professes an autocratic style of leadership (Ruiz et al., 2013). To achieve this objective, this dissertation draws on social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and extant literature on climate and leadership (Kozlowski & Doherty, 1989; Mayer et al., 2007; Naumann & Bennett, 2000; Walumbwa et al., 2010) to elucidate how benevolent paternalistic leadership behavior relates to affective organizational commitment by creating a caring ethical organizational climate. Social exchange theory suggests that equity and reciprocity are key factors in social interactions (Emerson, 1976; Gouldner, 1960), and thus employees led by benevolent paternalistic managers are more likely to reciprocate the father-like

treatment (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008) by being more committed to the organization. Similarly, the idea that leader behavior is an important factor influencing followers' stances is consequential with previous research linking leadership to climate formation (Kozlowski & Doherty 1989; Mayer et al., 2007; Naumann & Bennett, 2000; Walumbwa et al., 2010).

Although there is no consensus among scholars about the effectiveness of a paternalistic management approach (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2006), some researchers have noted that there no single answer to this issue and that it depends on cultural and contextual considerations (Martínez, 2003, 2005). The findings of this dissertation provide some initial support that benevolent paternalistic managerial behavior is a reasonable managerial style that can promote the perception of employees of a caring ethical organizational climate and affective organizational commitment of employees in Mexico.

From a practical perspective, the results of this dissertation suggest that leaders who demonstrate benevolence to their employees by focusing on their welfare both within and outside the organization, framing their relationship in terms of a reciprocal genuine preoccupation and loyalty, and showing flexibility in meeting the employees' terms and demands as much as the business situation allows it, are more likely to enhance affective organizational commitment from their employees. The results further suggest that benevolent paternalistic managerial behavior is more likely to create a caring ethical organizational climate that facilitates affective organizational commitment among employees. Taken together, the results from this dissertation suggest that Mexican organizations should invest in leadership development programs that focus on benevolent

paternalistic leadership training to enhance caring ethical organizational climate and affective organizational commitment.

Despite the above theoretical and practical implications of this dissertation, several theoretical questions remain unanswered regarding paternalism in Mexico. For instance, are older generations more appreciative of paternalistic management than younger ones? Do some industries in Mexico display a more paternalistic culture than others? Is paternalism perceived differently in a non-profit, a governmental organization, the service sector, or on a factory floor? Is benevolence interpreted differently by managers, supervisors, or workers? For example, a supervisor may have the intention to be benevolent and believe he or she is acting accordingly, but workers may have a different understanding of what benevolence is or not. Another potential question that may deserve future research attention is the following: Is the degree of paternalism constant or does it change over time? Future research should consider longitudinal research design to study how paternalism develops over time (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008), and while doing so, also investigates the potential generational and industry differences in the understanding of paternalism.

Study Limitations

The main limitation of this research is the relatively small sample size ($N = 152$). The methodology employed in this study were survey questionnaires. A second limitation is that the data is cross-sectional, meaning that it was collected at one period in time (Brady & Johnston, 2008). Moreover, a further bias is that the data was collected for both the dependent and independent variables from a common source (Podsakoff et al., 2012). This bias is also known as common method variance or same source bias (Jordan &

Troth, 2020; Podsakoff et al., 2012). However, an effort was made to minimize this bias by implementing a two-week temporal separation between the different questionnaires whenever possible (64 subjects). For the remaining responders, it was not feasible to proceed with a temporal separation in the filling of the survey scales. For those specific cases, method bias was somewhat curtailed following the recommendations proposed by Jordan and Troth (2020) and Podsakoff, MacKenzie, and Podsakoff (2012) as follows: a) the surveys were short; b) the LinkedIn contacts tended to be highly educated subjects; c) the scale items were simple and clear; d) negative and positive items were balanced; e) reversed code items were included; e) there were some proximal separations among the items measuring dimensions of each construct; f) a detailed set of instructions and explanations was conveyed to the subjects when asking them to fill the survey, creating a psychological separation.

In summary, this study shows support for the use in Mexico of the benevolent dimension of paternalism as a managerial tool as results suggest that those employees who perceive benevolence at the workplace tend to exhibit a high affective organizational commitment. However, this relationship is partly mediated by the employee's perception of a caring ethical organizational climate, which further suggests that to maximize the benefits of benevolent paternalistic managerial behavior in enhancing employees' affective organizational commitment, organizations should strive to create a caring ethical organizational climate.

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APPENDIX A
QUESTIONNAIRE ITEMS

This appendix lists all the retained items of the questionnaires presented to the volunteers who participated in the research.

Scale questionnaire to measure Benevolent Paternalistic Managerial Behavior

Table A1 shows the retained items measuring the benevolent dimension of the paternalistic leadership scale developed by Pellegrini and Scandura (2006, 2008). The original questionnaire presented to the volunteers consisted of 13 items measured by a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from “strongly disagree” (1) to “strongly agree” (5).

Table A1

Benevolent Paternalistic Managerial Behavior Scale

Item #	Question
1 (1)	My manager is interested in every aspect of his/her employees' lives.
2 (2)	My manager creates a family environment in the workplace.
3 (4)	My manager is like an elder family member (father/mother, elder brother/sister) for his/her employees.
4 (5)	My manager gives advice to his/her employees on different matters as if he/she were an elder family member.
5 (13)	My manager gives his/her employees a chance to develop themselves when they display low performance.

Note. In brackets the item assigned number in the original paternalistic leadership scale developed by Pellegrini and Scandura (2006, 2008).

Scale Questionnaire to Measure Employee Perception of a Caring Ethical Organizational Climate

Table A2 shows the retained items measuring the caring dimension of the employee perceptions of an ethical organizational climate scale developed by Victor and Cullen (1987). The original questionnaire presented to the volunteers consisted of 26 items measured by a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from “strongly disagree” (1) to “strongly agree” (5).

Table A2

Caring Ethical Organizational Climate Scale

Item #	Question
6 (5)	In this company, people look out for each other's good.
7 (12)	The most important concern is the good of all the people in the company.
8 (16)	In this company, our major concern is always what is best for the other persons.

Note. In brackets the item assigned number in the original employee perceptions of an ethical organizational climate scale developed by Victor and Cullen (1987).

Scale Questionnaire to Measure Affective Organizational Commitment

Table A3 shows the retained items measuring the affective dimension of the organizational commitment scale developed by Allen and Meyer (1990) and later revised by Meyer, Allen, and Smith (1993). The questionnaire consisted of 18 items measured by a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from strongly disagreed (1) to strongly agreed (5).

Table A3*Affective Organizational Commitment Scale*

Item #	Question
9 (1)	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this organization
10 (2)	I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.
11 (5)	This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.
12 (16)	This organization deserves my loyalty.
13 (18)	I owe a great deal to this organization.

Note. In brackets the item assigned number in the organizational commitment scale revised by Meyer, Allen, and Smith (1993).

APPENDIX B

CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS (CFA) AND STRUCTURAL EQUATION MODELING (SEM)

Although redundant after an EFA and regression analysis, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and a structural equation analysis (SEM) using AMOS 26 was conducted recognizing that no new knowledge would be gained other than re-confirming the robustness of the proposed model, namely, BPM as an independent variable, CEC as a partial mediator variable, and AOC as the outcome. A good-fitting model is one that is reasonably consistent with the data. The following results are reported: TLI (Tucker Lewis Index) of .956 and a CFI (Comparative Fit Index) of .965. Those findings indicate the model is a good fit as both indicators are above the cut-off values of $TLI \geq 0.95$ and $CFI \geq .90$. An RMSEA (Root Mean Square Error of Approximation) of .056 also shows the model is a good fit, as the cut-off value of this index for a good fit is $< .08$ (Schreiber, Stage, King, Nora, & Barlow, 2006). These results are summarized in Table B1. The full details of both CFA and SEM analysis are shown in Figures B1 and B2.

Table B1

CFA and SEM Results

Indicator	Value	Cut-Off Value	Conclusion
TLI Tucker Lewis Index	.956	$TLI \geq 0.95$	Good Fit
CFI Comparative Fit Index	.965	$CFI \geq .90$	Good Fit
RMSEA Root Mean Square Error of Approximation	.056	$< .08$ (Schreiber, Stage, King, Nora, & Barlow, 2006).	Good Fit

Figure B1

CFA Analysis (Default Model): Squared Multiple Correlations, Standardized Direct Effects and Correlations

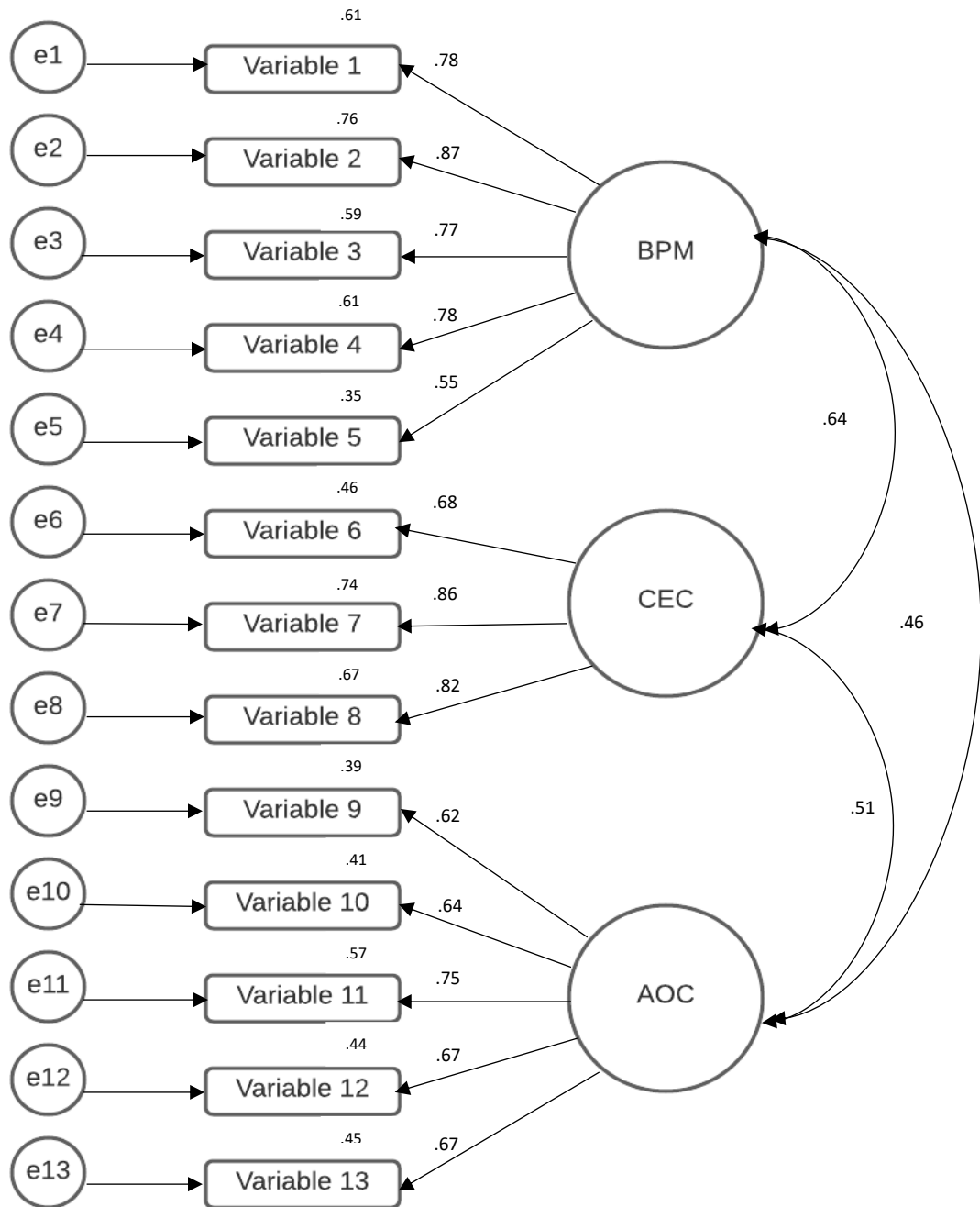
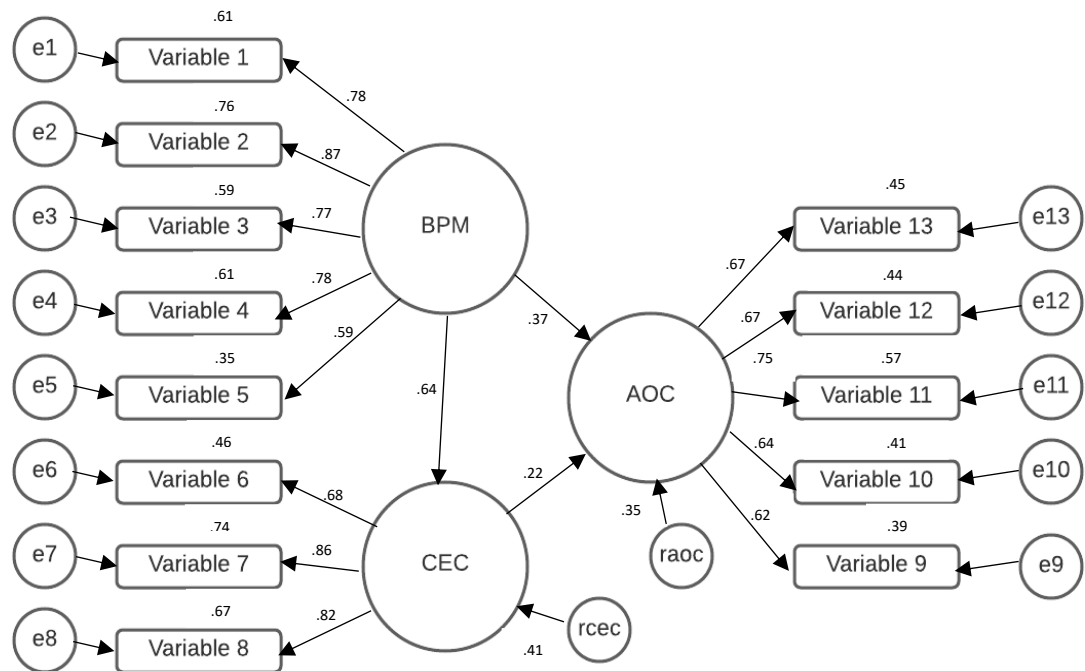


Figure B2

SEM Analysis (Default Model): Standardized Direct Effects and Squared Multiple Correlations



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