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Visionary Leadership and Job Satisfaction: An Empirical Investigation

Dissertation

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ABSTRACT

Current business organizations want to be more efficient and constantly evolving to find ways to retain talent. It is well established that visionary leadership plays a vital role in organizational success and contributes to a better working environment. This study aims to determine the effect of visionary leadership on employees' perceived job satisfaction. Specifically, it investigates whether the mediators meaningfulness at work and commitment to the leader impact the relationship. I take support from job demand resource theory to explain the overarching model used in this study and broaden-and-build theory to leverage the use of mediators.

To test the hypotheses, evidence was collected in a multi-source, time-lagged design field study of 95 leader-follower dyads. The data was collected in a three-wave study, each survey appearing after one month. Data on employee perception of visionary leadership was collected in T1, data for both mediators were collected in T2, and employee perception of job satisfaction was collected in T3. The findings display that meaningfulness at work and commitment to the leader play positive intervening roles (in the form of a chain) in the indirect influence of visionary leadership on employee perceptions regarding job satisfaction.

This research offers contributions to literature and theory by first broadening the existing knowledge on the effects of visionary leadership on employees. Second, it contributes to the literature on constructs meaningfulness at work, commitment to the leader, and job satisfaction. Third, it sheds light on the mediation mechanism dealing with study variables in line with the proposed model. Fourth, it integrates two theories, job demand resource theory and broaden-and-build theory providing further evidence. Additionally, the study provides practical implications for business leaders and HR practitioners.

Overall, my study discusses the potential of visionary leadership behavior to elevate employee outcomes. The study aligns with previous research and answers several calls for further research on visionary leadership, job satisfaction, and mediation mechanism with meaningfulness at work and commitment to the leader.

Keywords: Visionary leadership, Meaningfulness at work, Commitment to the leader, Job satisfaction

ABSTRACT (German)

Heutige Unternehmen wollen effizienter sein und sich ständig weiterentwickeln, um Talente zu binden. Es ist bekannt, dass visionäre Führung eine wichtige Rolle für den Erfolg eines Unternehmens spielt und zu einem besseren Arbeitsumfeld beiträgt. Ziel dieser Studie ist es, die Auswirkungen visionärer Führung auf die wahrgenommene Arbeitszufriedenheit der Mitarbeiter zu ermitteln. Insbesondere wird untersucht, ob die Mediatoren Sinnhaftigkeit der Arbeit und Bindung an die Führungskraft einen Einfluss auf diese Beziehung haben. Ich stütze mich auf die Job Demand Resource theory, um das in dieser Studie verwendete übergreifende Modell zu erklären, und auf die Broaden-and-Build theory, um die Verwendung von Mediatoren zu nutzen.

Um die Hypothesen zu testen, wurden in einer Feldstudie mit mehreren Quellen und zeitlich versetztem Design Daten von 95 aus Führungskraft und Geführten bestehenden Dyaden gesammelt. In einer Drei-Wellen-Studie wurden die Daten zur Wahrnehmung visionärer Führung durch die Mitarbeiter in T1, Daten zu den beiden Mediatoren in T2 und schließlich die Wahrnehmung der Arbeitszufriedenheit durch die Mitarbeiter in T3 erhoben. Die Ergebnisse zeigen, dass Sinnhaftigkeit bei der Arbeit und Bindung an die Führungskraft positive intervenierende Rollen (in Form einer Kette) beim indirekten Einfluss von visionärer Führung auf die Wahrnehmung der Arbeitszufriedenheit der Mitarbeiter spielen.

Diese Studie leistet einen Beitrag zur Literatur und Theorie, indem sie erstens das vorhandene Wissen über die Auswirkungen visionärer Führung auf die Mitarbeiter erweitert. Zweitens trägt sie zur Literatur über die Konstrukte Sinnhaftigkeit bei der Arbeit, Bindung an die Führungskraft und Arbeitszufriedenheit bei. Drittens beleuchtet sie den Mediationsmechanismus, der mit den Untersuchungsvariablen im Einklang mit dem vorgeschlagenen Modell steht. Viertens integriert sie zwei Theorien, die Job Demand Resource theory und die Broaden-and-Build theory, und liefert damit weitere Belege. Darüber hinaus liefert die Studie praktische Implikationen für Unternehmensleiter und HR-Praktiker.

Insgesamt erörtert meine Studie das Potenzial von visionärem Führungsverhalten zur Verbesserung der Mitarbeiterergebnisse. Die Studie steht im Einklang mit früheren Forschungsarbeiten und beantwortet mehrere Forderungen nach weiterer Forschung zu visionärer

Führung, Arbeitszufriedenheit und Vermittlungsmechanismen mit Sinnhaftigkeit bei der Arbeit und Bindung an die Führungskraft.

DECLARATION

Name: Ms. Nilima Gandhi

Student Number: 805925

Degree: Doctor of Philosophy

Visionary Leadership and Job Satisfaction: An Empirical Investigation

I confirm that this is original work conducted by me. All the sources are well-cited, and permission is taken to use the existing literature whenever needed.

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Nilima Gandhi   June 2022

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ABBREVIATIONS

JDR theory: Job demand resource theory

TL: Transformational leadership

CTS: Commitment to the supervisor

TLI: Tucker–Lewis index

CFI: Comparative fit index

RMSEA: Root means the square error of approximation

CMV: Common method variance

et al.: abbreviation of Latin phrase, means "and others"

e.g.: abbreviation of Latin phrase, means "for example"

SD: Standard deviation

LMX: Leader-member exchange

M: Mean

1 INTRODUCTION

This study investigates the effect of perceived visionary leadership behavior on followers' job satisfaction and evaluates the impact of two mediators: meaningfulness at work and commitment to the leader. Accordingly, this first chapter provides a background to the study, mainly introducing all the study variables, i.e., visionary leadership, meaningfulness at work, commitment to the leader, and job satisfaction. The chapter deals with existing literature on the study constructs and motivation to conduct this study. Additionally, it sets out the problem statement, general-purpose, and study objectives.

1.1 Background to the Research

History has had remarkable leaders at every age, every era, and every region has showcased a plethora of leaders serving humankind. These outstanding individuals bring the transformation in various forms, good or bad, such as peace, happiness, serenity, or turmoil. In difficult situations, leaders emerge to motivate, inspire, and guide the followers to achieve change or a common goal. Leadership is a complex multifaced phenomenon for organizations and researchers. The term "leader" was coined around the 1300s, and in the late 1700s, the term leadership was first used (Stogdill, 1974). "Great leaders were important in the development of civilized societies" (Bass, 1990). The concept of leadership is as old as the civilization process, and leaders helped shape civilization. For centuries the importance of leaders has been highlighted, one of the earliest leadership records illustrates Moses "Time and again, Moses demonstrated leadership traits that are highly prized today. Moses used to lead his people through the wilderness are extremely relevant: being flexible, thinking quickly, sustaining the confidence of your people in uncertain times, and creating rules that work for individuals from widely diverse backgrounds" (Baron, 1999, p. 14). It is widely believed that leaders emerge in a situation of crisis. It has been a long-time quest for many researchers to find what are those qualities in a leader that make them stand in a situation of crisis and be able to guide their followers with out-of-the-box solutions.

"Let me define a leader. He must have vision and passion and not be afraid of any problem. Instead, he should know how to defeat it. Most importantly, he must work with integrity" (Kalam, 1999, p. 50).

"Dream, dream, dream. Dreams transform into thoughts, and thoughts result in action" (Kalam, 2003, p. 102).

As quoted by the Missile Man of India, Dr. APJ Abdul Kalam, he was the first-ever aerospace scientist. He visioned becoming the president and served as the 11th president of India to bring in change and a new outlook to the nation. In his autobiography Wings of fire, Dr. Kalam (1999) writes about his leadership experience in India's two major space research organizations: Defense Research and Development Organization (DRDO) and Indian Space Research Organization (ISRO). His autobiography made me perceive the power of visions, and I got captivated by the concept of visionary leadership. It was staggering to witness a boy from an average middle-class family set out to envision India being on the list of developed countries. In the year 1980, under his leadership, India launched its first indigenous Satellite, developed ballistic missiles, and became a nuclear power. Dwivedi (2006), in his empirical study on Dr. Kalam, mentioned that 'he is a powerful visionary along with his visions and the teams created by him he won the trust and created conducive work environment, that provided independence, power, and motivation to the team resulting in great success.' He further adds that Dr. Kalam identified and emphasized the importance of four factors: "goal setting, positive thinking, visualizing and believing" (Dwivedi 2006, p. 298). This strategy was a game-changer in the lives of the junior scientists, who then thrived on the culture of trust and confidence to deliver extraordinary results. The same was the case in Dr. Kalam's administrative teams during his stint as president. Dr. Kalam emphasizes leadership as being more authentic and believes that it all depends on the visions of the leader for followers to get associated with him. Kalam wrote – "A leader is someone whom people naturally follow by choice, whereas a manager must be obeyed" (Kalam 2015, p.64).

Being highly inspired by the concept of visionary leadership, I further expanded my reading on the topic and decided to deep dive. I found mention of visionary leadership in the post-Kalinga campaign in the Indian context. Historians recognized the great Ashoka (273BC- 232BC) from the Maurya dynasty as displaying visionary leadership and envisioning ruling the world through peace and tolerance (Bhatta, 2005). Ruling an empire with tranquillity and order and safeguarding it without brutality and violence was never heard. Only Ashoka visioned it in his mind first and then started practicing and preaching it. Another powerful example from the region I came across is visionary leader Mahatma Gandhi. Gandhi's leadership style was complex and multidimensional.

He had a vision of his own, and what others thought about him never bothered him. He followed his vision and acted selflessly for it. He 'walked the talk' himself. He initiated the change that he wanted to see from himself first, and people joined him. He inspired millions of people through his journey and motivated them to do something with his decisive actions but with peace and harmony. The creator is the one who produces fresh, original ideas defying the general rules and structures of the environment or society. Gandhi exemplified the creator's visionary traits with his unique concept of nonviolence to win over the British (Gandhi, 2018). Having been inspired by such eminent personalities, I decided to pursue this topic further and base my research model on which visionary leadership is an important construct. In my research, I plan to study this age-old concept to find its emergence in today's business world and study the factors influenced by visionary leadership to achieve higher employee outcomes.

In the business world, organizations rely on the leaders to cascade the organizational goals to all levels of employees. Many organizational leaders are an example to the world, such as Steve Jobs, the CEO of Apple Inc, 1985 when he left the organization due to an internal dispute. The organization suffered many financial losses, and this led to tarnishing the company's reputation. Only the return of Steve Jobs in his role back again in 1997 changed the organization's fate. The vision of Steve Jobs mattered and did wonders for Apple Inc and the motivation level of the employees. He did not visualize Apple's products as a techie would do. Still, as a visionary, his vision about each of Apple's products, market positions, design, and pricing helped the company achieve massive success and stand apart from its competitors. Not all leaders possess similar qualities and are bringing change rapidly, but that is another level of discussion about a leader's effectiveness or what makes a leader successful. My thesis research goes in the line to find out how visionary leadership style impacts and what factors accelerate the process of followers' job satisfaction.

Many researchers have defined leadership as a concept and find it challenging to get it precisely done. Stogdill (1974) presented that "there are almost as many definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept." Some very early scientists in this area have suggested definitions of leadership based on the personality traits (such as Bird, 1940; Drake, 1944; Geier, 1967; Stogdill, 1948) and some based on the individual's character in a group (such as Chapin, 1924; Gibb, 1947; Likert, 1967; Murphy, 1941). Definitions of leadership have evolved over the years. Leadership is a complex phenomenon, and it results in a wide variety of

perspectives, frameworks, processes, and concepts. Recently Raffo and Clark (2018) claim that there is not a single 'all in one' definition of leadership, it is personal to each one, and it reflects who we are, what we value, and the message we want to send to others as we express our views about leadership. Leadership research has been more focused on blending organizational approaches with modern theories in the last two decades. It has started shifting its focus from individuals' behaviors and qualities to formulating leader efficacy in a group setting (Hais et al., 1997). This shift further helps to view leadership as an interactive group process in which the leaders influence followers to attain a common goal (Hais et al., 1997; Halevy et al., 2011; Hogg & Van Knippenberg, 2003; Platow et al., 2015).

Visionary leadership has been studied variedly in the past in the areas such as nursing, teaching, public sectors, etc. (see Apriyani et al., 2019; Cheema et al., 2015; Stam et al., 2010; Tellis, 2006). During the literature review process, no empirical studies indicated the role of the visionary leadership of multi-sector employees from Asian countries such as India and Pakistan in a serial mediation model. As per my knowledge, no previous study has examined these exact variables as studied in my study. However, the existing literature has illustrated the fundamental linkage between the variables of interest in this study. But to my knowledge, no previous research has exactly examined the interrelations between variables such as visionary leadership, meaningfulness at work, commitment to the leader, and job satisfaction, in a single model. Moreover, the multi-wave time study carried out in this research is of the first kind exploring the stated linkages. Conducting these analyses will be helpful in gaining clarity and visibility on potential pathways of associating visionary leadership with meaningfulness at work, commitment to the leader, and job satisfaction.

1.2 Visionary Leadership

In this study, I focus on perceived visionary leadership behavior, who are exceptional visionary individuals who can inspire their followers through their vision and energy. Leadership, as a concept, is difficult to define precisely and concisely. Many scientists in the past have attempted to define the concept of leadership. Visionary leadership is an essential style of leadership. It is defined as the future state of ourselves, what we seek to be, and to follow the path of goals, objectives, and action plan (Colton, 1985). Visionary leadership stands apart from all other forms of leadership, as these leaders inspire through their vision and communicate it well that

the organizations benefit heavily (Jul-Chan & Colin, 2004). Visionary leadership is primarily the ability of leaders to envision, create a vision and articulate it to the followers most clearly and simply, providing meaning, goals, and visions for the organization (Nanus, 1992; Sashkin, 1992).

Visionary leaders are risk-takers as they envision the future that not many can predict and are ready to take radical actions to adapt to the changing situation. Leaders carry an enormous responsibility, and their actions may directly or indirectly lead to many consequences. This phenomenon can be explained by an example of an incident with American President G. Bush. He was criticized for poor handling of one of the natural disasters, though as a president, he did not operate the Federal Emergency Management Agency (Kellner, 2007). In the same way, Lee Kuan Yew in Singapore was single-handedly praised and credited for the country's success from a not developed "third-world country" to a developed "first-world country" in one generation time (Yew, 2012). In contrast, it is a humongous task, and many were involved in the success journey.

So, leaders carry a huge responsibility on their shoulders related to expectations from their followers. Expectation from an extraordinary leader is to keep the employees engaged at their work in multiple, innovative ways, which results in engagement and feeling motivated, emotionally attached, committed to the future, and understanding the future vision (Kantabutra & Avery, 2011). Several researchers conclude that the significant role in an organization's success is played by the "vision" of the visionary leaders, highlighting its importance (Breevaart et al., 2014).

The speed of thinking and visioning separates a great leader from a mediocre one. Great leaders can spot mistakes and can correct them. It is said that visionary leaders can see through many eyes. This leader's ability means that they stay in close touch with their followers on the ground, which keeps them updated about reality (Kanter 2017). The followers who understand and value the visionary leaders experience meaningful change (Conger, 1999). Such leaders practice exerting unconventional policies, viewpoints, actions, and exploring new directions. By greater convincing, influencing, and supporting the follower, visionary leaders can imbibe a sense of purpose in followers that make them popular and successful with followers (Halevy et al., 2011). Visionary leaders emphasize vision and can accurately communicate it, making them more successful leaders (Çınar & Kaban, 2012). The company's top management primarily focuses on their leaders who can motivate and engage employees to work with extra dedication and care

(Kantabutra & Avery, 2011). Visionary leadership is another type of transformational leadership with the ability to achieve results instantly by meeting all the company standards (Breevaart et al., 2014).

Visionary leadership focuses on ongoing processes' future vision and mission, offering the organization a competitive edge (Çınar & Kaban, 2012). Hence, employee engagement with the leaders' visions is crucial to achieving desirable results. The more committed and engaged the employees are, the higher the motivation toward the organization's common goals (Kantabutra & Avery, 2011). Kantabutra and Avery (2011) further add that with the help of effective visionary leadership, it is possible to minimize the conflict and outwear loss in the organization. Kirkpatrick and Locke (1996) argue that the quality of the vision in visionary leaders is positively related to self-efficacy, which positively affects employees' performance and satisfaction levels. It is interesting to see how the vision can be converted into action in the case of visionary leaders. The process is explained in Figure 1.1, Moving from vision to action.

FIGURE 1.1

Moving from Vision to Action

Strategic Vision

Vision

↓

Overall Objectives

↓

Long-Term Strategic Plan

↓

Middle-Term Operational Plan

↓

Operations

Short-Term Tactical Plan

↓

Specific Goals

↓

Action

↓

Action

Etc.

L E A D E R S H I P →
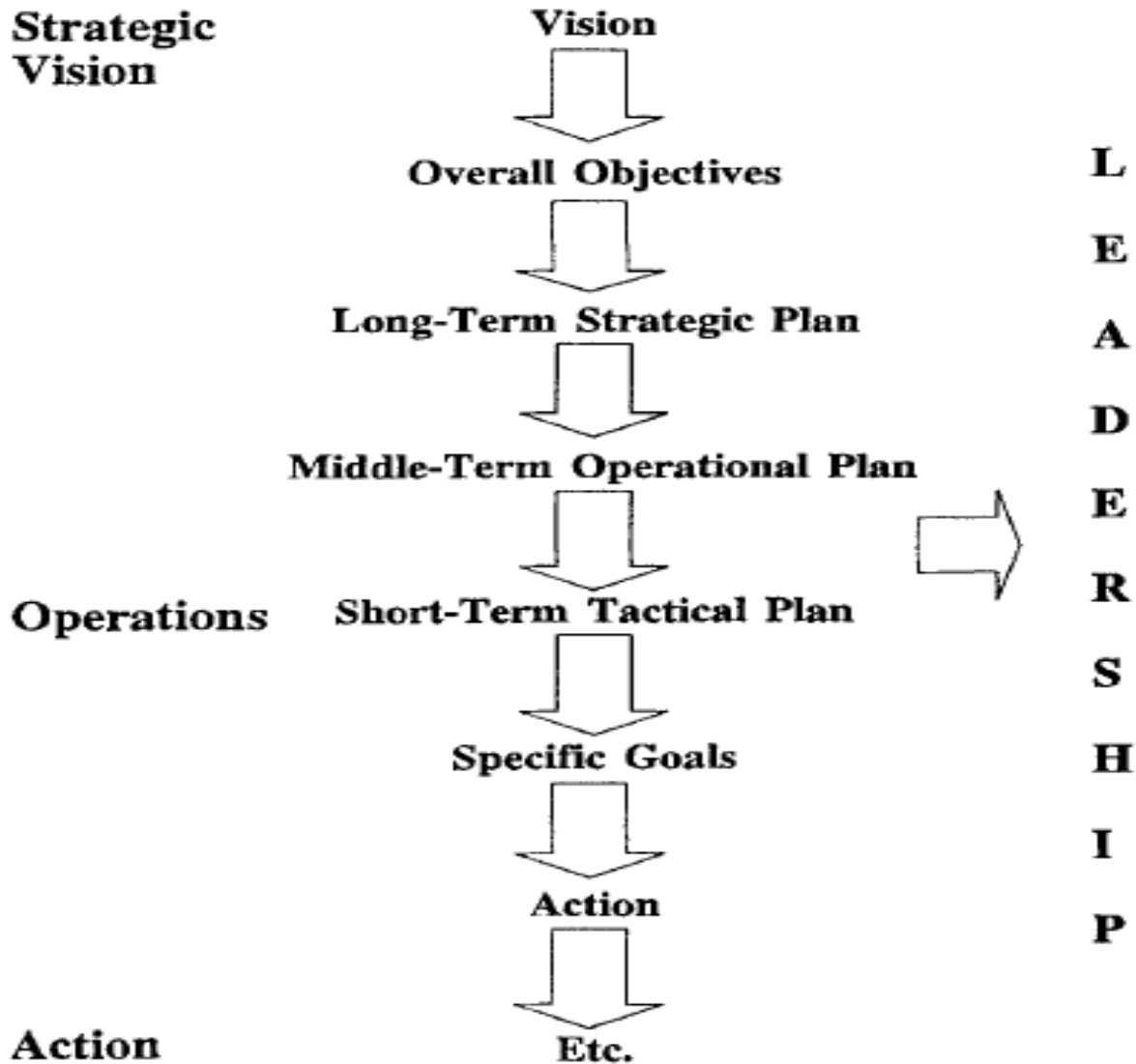
(Kelly, 1993), Reprinted with permission of the publisher

The leader first develops images of a desirable future in his mind, which are visions. This image may or may not be crystal clear, e.g., as indistinct as a dream or as concrete as a goal statement. The important thing here is that this vision translates into a realistic, visual, and attractive future that better condition and shape the organization than the existing one. Vision is essential in defining how the organization will look in the near future, and it provides a goal and zeal for the

employees to work towards it. It is the style of the visionary leader to articulate and communicate it effectively to the employees and guide them through the process. A vision in a leader's mind can portray an unrealistic picture that may not be specific. It depends on the leader's ability to convert it into simple action items for followers to understand and work towards achieving the goals. Effective vision centers around people, both employees, and customers. Many studies are posing the benefits of visionary leadership. Still, some shortcomings are highlighted in some of the studies, such as visionary leadership behavior may not be the most suitable style to deal with ethnically diverse teams (Greer et al., 2012).

Visions are predominately idealized pictures of the future based on organizational values and philosophy (Rafferty & Griffin, 2004). The effective communication and articulation of these visions make the leaders effective (e.g., Greer et al., 2012). Visionary leadership has been associated with several employee outcomes in the past, such as job satisfaction (Dumdum et al., 2002; Kohles et al., 2012), organizational citizenship behaviors (e.g., Agle et al., 1996), and lower levels of burnout (Densten, 2005). A leader's powerful vision can reduce ambiguity in employees' lives by providing support and guidance to them (Stordeur et al., 2001). A clear and apt described vision can equip employees with direction and growth avenues (Diebig et al., 2016; Wright et al., 2012). Vision enables a sense of self in a social or group setting leading to belongingness (Haslam & Platow, 2001; Kohles et al., 2012).

Strategic management research underlined that visionary leadership behaviors are essential for managers (Collins & Porras, 1994; Mintzberg, 1994); this helps them engage with followers (Berson et al., 2001). In early research on visionary leadership behaviors, Sashkin (1988) indicated 'visioning' as first articulating the vision, voicing it to the followers, implementing it in various organizational settings, and finally expanding the vision in a much more comprehensive range of organizations. Moreover, the impact of visionary leadership has been an important area of research recently, and it has been widely illustrated to be positively linked to improving team conditions, processes, engagement, satisfaction, and performance (Dumdum et al., 2002; Griffin et al., 2010; Podsakoff et al.,1990; Waldman et al., 2001). Although several studies focus on visionary leadership, there is still a requirement to focus on visionary leaders' perceived behavior leading to positive employee outcomes and organizational change (Groves, 2006). Considering the review of already existing studies on visionary leadership, I found a huge potential in this study construct. I decided to explore the employee-perceived visionary leadership in an empirical study.

Additionally, there has been doubting about the effectiveness of visionary leadership (see Van Knippenberg, & Stam, 2014). Specifically, there have been calls to investigate the mediation mechanism between leadership behavior and employee outcomes (Brown & Mitchell, 2010; Judge et al., 2006; Wang & Xu, 2019). Hence, I want to further build on this topic of leadership behavior, especially visionary leadership, and simultaneously respond to these calls to see if visionary leadership's effectiveness on job satisfaction is positive in the presence of other study variables as mediators. My research provides me with an opportunity to add to the visionary leadership literature.

1.3 Meaningfulness at Work

This study examines two possible mediators, and the first one is meaningfulness at work. There is a lot of work done on meaningfulness in psychology literature. It summarizes, "meaning is a central construct as it signifies how individuals make the connection between one aspect of life and another." Sense-making is an important construct of meaning (Baumeister & Vohs, 2002). Meaning is derived from four needs: purpose, i.e., a sense of the future, values, i.e., saliency to several aspects of life), self-efficacy, i.e., self-effort to achieve specific goals, and self-worth, i.e., accomplishing something that is considered as useful (Baumeister, 1991). Wang and Xu (2019) argue that "ensuring employee's meaningful work is a moral responsibility of organizational management." Primarily meaningfulness can be explained as a protective psychological condition (Matuska & Christiansen, 2008; Seligman, 2002; Swart & Rothmann, 2012). It is seen as essential in humans, regardless of their conditions themselves (Isaksen, 2000).

Meaningfulness at work can be explained as a condition impacting personal growth (May et al., 2004), simultaneously associated with personal behavior (Wrzesniewski 2003). Meaningfulness at work is a value that individuals find in their professional and personal goals and their fit with each other (Kahn 1990). If employees' values, beliefs, and behaviors fit with the work role, they express meaningfulness at work (Brief & Nord 1990). The meaningfulness of work depicts the connection between employees, their work, and their work characteristics, namely variety and feedback (Hackman, 1980). In a previous study, Arnold et al. (2007) used meaningfulness at work and work characteristics that mediate the association between employee well-being and transformational leadership.

1.3.1 Sensemaking: Mechanism to Explain Meaningfulness

In simple terms, sensemaking refers to the process, factors, or variables that enhance the individual's meaning in any ongoing experience, such as work (Weick, 1995). Sensemaking is an individual process and a social process that is further impacted by others in the social circle and the organization (Maitlis, 2005; Weick et al., 2005). Sensemaking emerges especially when individuals are in a situation of ambiguity and complexity (Weick, 1995). Although, many individuals need to find meaningfulness through work (Berg et al., 2013; Wrzesniewski, 2003). Theoretically, all the jobs can be classified as high in meaningfulness or less meaningfulness (Bailey & Madden, 2017). The sense of meaning may change from individual to individual. Weeks and Schaffert (2019) confirmed that the perception and definition of meaning, especially meaningful work, may change with generations. Fig. 1.2 Meaningfulness of work—self-perceptions discusses the change in perceptions with generations such as traditional, baby boomers, generation X, and millennials.

FIGURE 1.2

Meaningfulness of Work—Self-perceptions

Generations	Definitions of Meaningful Work
Millennials	• Nice coworkers • Serving others • Seeing lives improved • Personal happiness
Generation X	• Working with good people • Work-life balance • Pursue individual goals
Baby Boomers	• Success • Reaching personal goals • Helping others achieve goals
Traditionalists	• Challenging work • Self satisfaction with work • Helping others • Company values correspond to own values

(Weeks & Schaffert, 2019) Reprinted with permission from the author.

Many individuals spend most of their time at work, and hence finding meaning in this significant portion of life is vital for them. Self-belief about their job being meaningful is essential. Thus, it enhances their well-being and provides significance to their life (Chalofsky & Cavallaro 2013). At every stage of life, meaningfulness, especially in the work setting, changes its definition (LipsWiersma & Morris 2009).

1.3.2 Quest of Meaning at Work

Multiple researchers have strongly contributed to the research on meaningful work; this phenomenon helps people recognize the sense of things around them, contribute to a larger horizon, and grow personally, too (Steger et al., 2012). The quest for meaning is a universal phenomenon in humans, and loss of it can lead to psychological deprivation (Klinger, 1998). The meaningful work model by Lips-Wiersma and Morris (2009) provides a holistic approach to understanding human needs, impact, and potential in the real world. Organizations emphasize providing meaningful work to the employees (Bailey & Madden, 2016; Keane, 2015). It is essential to have meaningful work for employees (Michaelson, 2009), promoting various positive work outputs. These positive work outcomes include work engagement, job commitment, job satisfaction, overall meaning in professional and personal life, and employee well-being (Allan et al., 2018; Allan et al., 2019; Steger & Dik, 2009; Steger et al., 2012). Humans need to satisfy their fundamental needs (Heine et al., 2006). Hence, employees consciously choose meaningful jobs over higher salaries (Vogel et al., 2020). Additionally, some scholars argue that meaningfulness in life is an essential human need, and when it is not fulfilled, it can lead to negative consequences, including poor work performance (Allan et al., 2018; Harlow et al., 1986; Yeoman, 2014). This earlier research work highlights the importance of overall meaningfulness. Hence in my study, I focus on its impact on workplace outcomes.

Baumeister (1991) further says that meaning for an individual can be achieved from four basic needs that are "purpose (providing a sense of the future), values (providing saliency to different aspects in life), self-efficacy (providing an effort to achieve certain states that are meaningful) and self-worth (providing reasons for attaining that which is deemed as good)." Rodell and Judge (2009) reported in their day-wise study that when job tasks were challenging and contributing to the goal progress, the employees exhibited higher attentiveness. This challenging or goal-oriented work is classified as meaningful (Humphrey et al., 2007). Further, being attentive at work translates into having more heightened awareness and observing more details of the day, thereby allowing higher psychological presence at work (Kahn, 1992). Heine et al. (2006) further had a deep dive into this subject, and they suggest that people demand higher meaning when their need for meaningfulness is not met. This phenomenon is like the "finite capacity" concept; this relates as on the days when the need for meaning is already satisfied, employees may report requirements for less meaningfulness from the job. On the other days, when the requirement for

meaningfulness is not fully met, employees may report a higher need for meaningfulness at work. Overall, studies demonstrate that employees strive for the desire for importance, significant work, challenge, autonomy, or social interaction, considered meaningful work activities vary daily (George, 1991; Petrou et al., 2012).

Klinger (1998) argues that if people do not see value in the work they do, if not all, the majority would question and opt-out if no evident purpose is seen in their work. Fredrickson (2001), in his broaden-and-build theory, confirmed that if followers positively hold perceptions of visionary leadership, it is more likely to increase the sense of connectivity that employees have with their work along with the feeling of meaningfulness. This feeling of meaningfulness leads to a sense of connectivity, in turn, improving their job satisfaction (Fredrickson & Losada, 2005). The reviewed studies highlight the importance of meaningfulness at work. Categorically, there have been calls to study the linkage between leadership behavior/style and meaningfulness at work in the private as well as public domain (Demirtas et al., 2017; Rosso et al., 2010; Steger et al., 2012; Tummers & Knies, 2013). As per the review of previous literature on meaningfulness, it is seen to be positively linked to several employee outcomes in a mediation model (see Allan et al., 2018; Hirschi, 2012; Lee et al., 2017), but not focus on linkage visionary leadership behavior. Additionally, diminutive light is shredded on the antecedents of factors that help develop meaningfulness at work (Demirtas et al., 2017; Wang & Xu, 2019). Therefore, it is interesting to further investigate in my study if perceived visionary leadership behavior proves to be the antecedent of meaningfulness and if it mediates the relation between visionary leadership and job satisfaction in employees.

1.4 Commitment to the Leader

1.4.1 Concept of Commitment

The second mediator used in this study is a commitment to the leader. Firstly, it is important to look at the entire concept of commitment and understand different facets of it. The interest of researchers in studying commitment to both organizations and supervisors can be dated back to the 1960s (Becker, 1960). Mercurio (2015) elaborates that "commitment arises from the exchange between an individual's investment in an organization and subsequent rewards from the employer."

One of the critical definitions of the concept of commitment is "force that binds an individual to a course of action of relevance to one or more targets" (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001).

Additionally, Meyer and Allen (1991) proposed that commitment is a state of the mind that can manifest as a desire, need, or obligation to stay involved within an organization. Additionally, they proposed a three-component model of commitment. This model explains that commitment can be differentiated between affective, normative, and continuous commitment. First affective commitment refers to an employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in an organization with a particular target. Second normative commitment refers to an employee's moral duty to remain loyal to an employer. And finally, continuance commitment refers to an employee's attachment due to the perceived costs associated if they decide to leave the organization and the awareness of the lack of alternative employment opportunities outside (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001).

Commitment for employees is their attachment to the work. Many researchers have identified several types of employee commitment. In their study, Meyer et al. (2001) have identified more than 25 employee commitment concepts. Herscovitch and Meyer (2002) define commitment as: "the degree to which an employee identifies with the goals and values of the organization and is willing to exert effort to help it succeed." Organizational commitment goes long in history and has been a highly researched topic of interest both as a consequence and an antecedent of other work-related variables. In more psychological terms, commitment is "an obliging force that gives direction to behavior" (Meyer & Herscovitch 2001); it is a motive to engage in a particular activity, person, action, or entity. Meyer and Allen (1991) have suggested three dimensions of commitment: affective, continuance, and normative. Affective commitment is the emotional attachment in employees toward the organization. Continuance commitment refers to the practical side, it deals with the costs associated with leaving the organization, and hence the employee stays committed to the existing one. The third Normative commitment is concerned with the feeling of obligation towards the organization and therefore the thought of continuing to comply with the rules and regulations.

Commitment can be categorized into various 'types' (e.g., engagement, attachment, commitment, involvement). Most studies on commitment are based on behavioral, attitudinal, and motivational aspects of sociological, industrial/organizational, and health psychology (Roodt,

2004). There have been several definitions defining the concept of commitment, the most common part in them is organizational commitment is a link or bond between an individual and the organization (Morrow, 1983). Furthermore, Allen and Meyer (1990) interpreted organizational commitment as an individual's sense of attachment and psychological belongingness to the organization or the "emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in, the organization." Organizational commitment is an essential measure that indicates job attitudes and intention to participate actively and engage in the organization (Hsieh & Chan, 2012). Becker et al. (1996) confirmed that being able to identify and internalize the goals and the value of the supervisor in employees' eyes is the basis of commitment directly to the supervisor. For subordinates, trust is an important factor. When they trust their leaders, it is more likely that it is easy for them to internalize the leader's goals and be committed to them (Tyler & Degoey, 1996). Such identification and internalization lead to and strengthen the commitment to the leader (Becker et al., 1996).

Organizational commitment is a psychological mind state that underlines the employee's association with the organization and their decision to stay or leave the organization. Moreover, it can be an emotional attachment to the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1997, Meyer et al., 1993). Additionally, more robust commitment levels in employees reflect that acceptance and willingness to participate and engage in fulfilling goals and job duties in an organization and go the extra mile than the expected job duties (Meyer et al.,1993).

1.4.2 Understanding Commitment to the Supervisor

It can be said that commitment is a multifaceted construct, and this can be crucial to several different variables that are present within or outside the organization (Reichers, 1985; Becker et al., 1996). Previous studies confirm that employees exhibit specific commitment levels to the global organization (Meyer et al., 2002), the top management (Becker, 1992), or to the supervisor (Becker et al., 1996; Clugston et al., 2000), or the functional teams (Snape et al., 2006; Vandenberghe et al., 2004) or to the customers (Siders et al., 2001). Amongst these different foci of commitment, the most important is a commitment to the supervisor/ respective leader as "they are formally responsible for monitoring the performance of employees, are involved in decisions regarding pay and promotions that affect their employees, and are increasingly made accountable for reducing turnover in their teams" (Panaccio & Vandenberghe, 2011). Thus, affective

commitment to the supervisor is an indicator of a high-quality relationship between the employee and their supervisor (Cheng et al., 2003).

Leader-member exchange is the association between leaders and followers. This exchange is dyadic between the leader and a follower, and it is dependent on the leadership style and subordinate's characteristics (Dienesch & Liden, 1986). The quality of the relationship between the leader and follower is a crucial point in determining the commitment level, and it is an amicable relationship. Also, followers are likely to develop a bond with their leaders, leading to positive commitment toward the leader (Shiva & Suar, 2010). On the other hand, organizational commitment is the link between employees and the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

Further commitment to employees is proved to enhance organizational effectiveness (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). In a review of the present studies, it is evident that commitment to the leader is an important construct to study. In addition, there have been calls to examine the association between situational variables (i.e., visionary leadership in this study) and personal variables (i.e., commitment to the leader in this study) (Anderson et al., 2014; Zhou & Hoever, 2014). Hence, my study contributes to the existing literature by examining the mediating effect of commitment to the leader on the association between visionary leadership and job satisfaction.

1.5 Job Satisfaction

One of the first studies on the concept of job satisfaction defines it as an amalgamation of all three situations as psychological, physiological, and environmental, which is the starting point for a person to be truthful to the job (Hoppock, 1935). Job satisfaction, in general, is a complex phenomenon that is measured globally as an employee's attitude towards their job; the employee is either satisfied or dissatisfied with the job (Agho et al., 1993; Parvin & Kabir, 2011; Spector, 1997). On the other hand, an employee's level of job satisfaction depends on various elements of the job (Agho et al., 1993; Blegen, 1993; Cook et al., 1981; Spector, 1997). These elements are classified into five significant dimensions such as rewards (e.g., pay, promotion, recognition), work attributes (e.g., the nature of the work, autonomy, responsibility), organizational context (e.g., policies, procedures, working conditions), other people (e.g., supervisors, co-workers), and self or individual differences (e.g., internal motivation, moral values) (Agho et al., 1993; Blegen 1993; Cook et al., 1981; Locke 1976; Spector 1997). Vroom (1962) was one of the early scientists to work on this topic, and he suggests that job satisfaction focuses on the role an employee plays in the workplace.

He further defines the concept as an endearment employee demonstrating towards the work roles they are performing. Job satisfaction can be represented as the extent to which the employee expectations are matched to real work-life (Davis & Newstrom, 1985). Momentary changes in job satisfaction result in changes in work behaviors in employees (Ilies et al., 2006).

Job satisfaction has been the area of focus for many scholars. Job satisfaction is defined as "the pleasurable emotional state resulting from the perception of one's job as fulfilling or allowing the fulfillment of one's important job values" (Locke, 1976). In simple terms, job satisfaction is the interest one has in their respective work (Agho et al., 1993). It is the "emotional, evaluative and cognitive response" by an individual at the job (Greenberg & Baron, 1997). Additionally, Locke (1976) suggested that job satisfaction arises when employees' needs and outcomes match. Job satisfaction has typically been an effective construct in the organizational behavior literature, mainly for its relationship with job performance and many other work-related behaviors (Judge et al., 2001) and organizational commitment (Meyer et al., 2002). Many turnover studies suggest that higher job satisfaction leads to higher levels of organizational commitment (Bluedorn, 1982; Marsh & Mannari, 1977; Mowday et al., 1979; Price & Mueller, 1981 Schwepker, 2001). Mowday et al. (1979) confirmed that employees with a higher level of commitment level exhibited higher job satisfaction, productivity, performance, and lower absenteeism and tardiness. Similarly, job satisfaction impacts employee turnover (Lewis & Cho, 2011), and higher levels of job satisfaction can improve performance and profits (Anderson, 1984; Van Dyck et al., 2005).

There have been relatively few studies suggesting a linkage between leadership behavior and job satisfaction (see Gross et al., 2021; Margolis, & Ziegert, 2016; Seibert et al., 2013; Suharyati & Harijanto, 2019), but most of them have been at the team level. Moreover, a limited number of studies have been found to link direct visionary leadership behavior to job satisfaction in employees. Hence taking into consideration the existing literature on job satisfaction, it was logical to choose employee job satisfaction as the dependent variable. Also, it was the most suitable employee outcome in line with examining the effects of visionary leadership. Moreover, there have been many studies showcasing the antecedents of employees' job satisfaction. E.g., Grandey (2000), Martinson and Wilkening (1984); Scott et al. (2012); Youngblood et al. (1983). The problem is that majority of such studies focus on samples from western regions (Ayob & Nor, 2019). And little is known about developing countries, especially such as India and Pakistan. Even

though previous studies have shed light on antecedents of job engagement and satisfaction levels, the empirical evidence and literature on several employment sectors other than western countries remain nascent (Ayob & Nor, 2019). Therefore, my study tries to bridge this gap by measuring the effects of visionary leadership on employee outcomes such as meaningfulness at work, commitment to the leader, and job satisfaction in a serial mediation model and adds to the literature on the effects of visionary leadership with a focus on a sample from developing countries such as India and Pakistan.

1.6 Proposed Research Model

This study makes a theoretical contribution to understanding the relationship between visionary leadership, meaningfulness at work, commitment to the leader, and job satisfaction by formulating theoretical arguments and then empirically testing a mediating model through which the mediators affect job satisfaction in beneficial ways. The proposed research model depicting these linkages is illustrated in Figure 1.3 Proposed Research Model. Further, I tested this model and found support for each linkage through a survey with a total of 95 participants.

FIGURE 1.3

Proposed Research Model
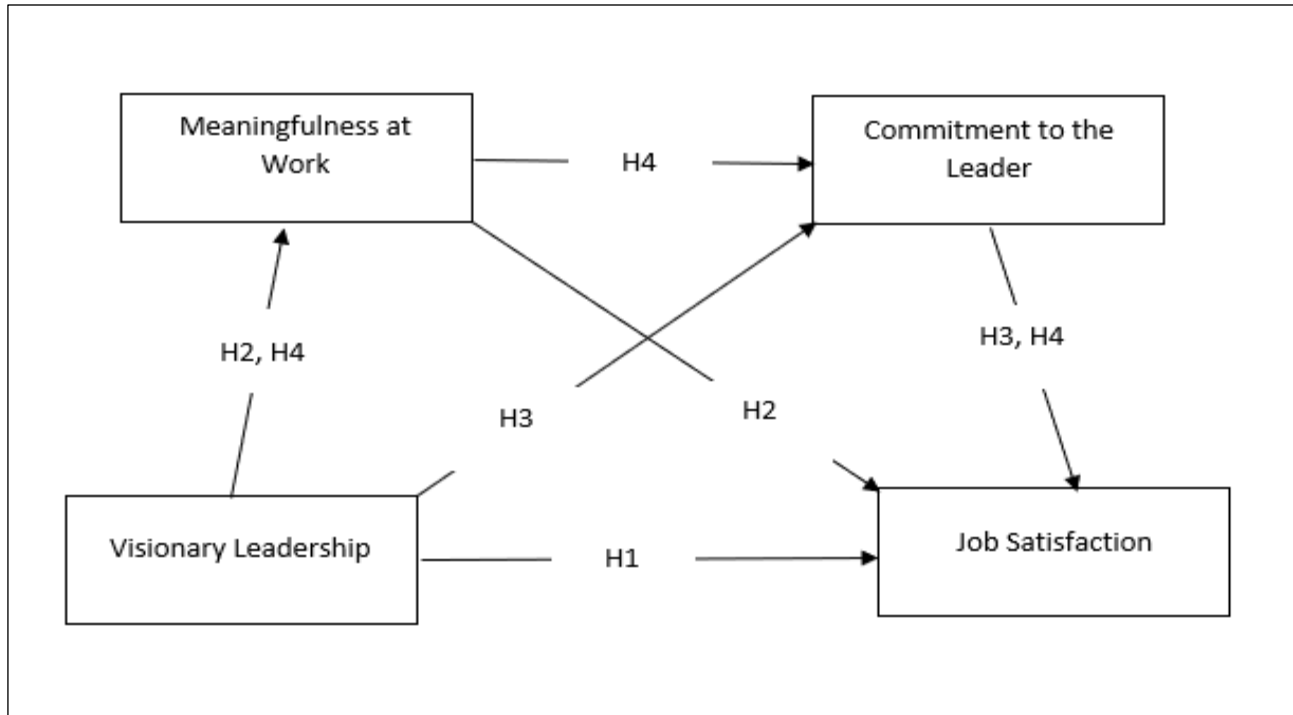
1.7 Proposed Research Questions

Based on the proposed model in Fig 1.3, the following key research questions are formulated to guide the entire study process. My study attempts to answer the following research questions

1. What effect do visionary leaders have on the perceived job satisfaction of followers in a direct leader-follower relationship?
2. What impact does meaningfulness at work have on the relationship between visionary leadership and followers' job satisfaction among middle/senior-level managers and subordinates in India and Pakistan's education, manufacturing, and IT industries?
3. What impact does commitment to the leader have on the relation between visionary leadership and followers' job satisfaction among the millennial age group in the region?
4. How do both meaningfulness at work and commitment to the leader interact and affect the relationship between visionary leadership and job satisfaction?

1.8 Contributions of This Study

This study accords to the enrichment and expansion of the knowledge pool of human resource development through evidence about the relationships between psychological and behavioral factors such as visionary leadership, meaningfulness at work, commitment to the leader, and job satisfaction in employees. The study helps in providing a rich theoretical framework of the complex relationship among the four organizational study constructs, as mentioned using a complex serial mediation model. Additionally, it would be beneficial to the practical side in an organizational setting for managers as well. The findings of the study can be beneficial to the following in several ways:

Existing literature

My study offers contributions to the existing literature in four significant ways. First, it contributes to the literature on visionary leadership by exploring the constructs directly related to the followers, both psychological and behavioral way in one single model in contrast to the past studies (Bass 1985; Burns 1978; Halevy et al., 2011; House 1977; Lowe et al., 1996; Shamir et al., 1993; Waldman et al., 2001) where it was focused on or combined with other leader behaviors or styles. Moreover, the constructs, including visionary leadership, are assessed by the respective followers in the case of my study.

Second, the constructs, i.e., meaningfulness at work and commitment to the leader, are relatively new concepts. Although previous research has confirmed that meaningfulness at work is positively related to several employee outcomes, there is not much evidence on its antecedents, which help develop meaningfulness at work in the first place (Demirtas et al., 2017; Wang & Xu, 2019). This study caters to these requests by assessing visionary leadership as one of the antecedents to meaningfulness at work and examines the relationship. The same holds for the second mediator's commitment to the leader. There have been several studies analyzing the antecedents of organizational commitment (see Bateman & Strasser, 1984; Carson et al., 2007; Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006) instead of the commitment to the leader. My study fills this gap by providing an analysis existing between these constructs.

Third, I support broadening the understanding of and answering calls for research on leadership behavior with employee outcomes (see, e.g., van Knippenberg et al., 2007; Yukl, 2012)

and for research on a specific mediating mechanism (Brown & Mitchell, 2010; Wang & Xu, 2017). More precisely, there have been calls for studying the effect of leadership on meaningfulness at work in private and public organizations (Demirtas et al., 2017; Rosso et al., 2010; Steger et al., 2012; Tummers & Knies, 2013). This study attempts to respond by suitably examining the mediating role of work meaningfulness and commitment to the leader on the relationship between visionary leadership and job satisfaction.

Fourth, my study expands the geographical coverage in contrast to the previous studies. Several studies have presented the relationship between leadership and employee outcomes, focusing on western countries (e.g., Apriyani et al., 2019; Baltaci et al., 2012; Cheema et al., 2015; Hamidifar, 2010; Rahmat et al., 2019) but not specifically on Asian diverse countries such as India and Pakistan, as in the case of this study.

Human resource professionals and business organizations

The offered data will provide the HR professionals with information on how visionary leadership affects employees' job satisfaction at work. The results will enable the HR professionals to help improve the HR practices used in the organization with managers and employees. The results from data analysis will further help initiate collaboration among leaders (managers) and followers (employees) that will be rewarding in terms of positive organizational culture and positive work culture.

Organizational behavior and leadership management researchers: The results of this study will help the organizational behavior and leadership management researchers evaluate the visionary leadership factors, employee job satisfaction and mediators' meaningfulness at work, and commitment to the leader. Results would develop the researcher's leader-follower relationship and help them evaluate strategies to enhance the knowledge, skills, and attitude in today's workforce.

Also, this study will help organizations to understand better work practices and reasons to drive agenda to improve the working culture. This study will stimulate the managers to find new ways to enhance the skills, attitudes, and knowledge required by employees to deal with the global environment. Therefore, using data based on a sample from several geographies from different industry employees will contribute to the knowledge of the importance of leadership practices. This study will provide information and in-depth knowledge about concepts such as visionary

leadership, job satisfaction, meaningfulness at work, and commitment to the leader. And will help to evaluate employee-manager attitudes and approaches in the workplace.

1.9 Purpose of Study

The purpose of this study was two-fold. First, to examine leader and follower perceptions of four constructs through literature review: Visionary Leadership, meaningfulness at work, commitment to the leader, and job satisfaction. Secondly, to examine the relationship between visionary leadership and three constructs predicting a serial mediation model. There is the potential that this research will obtain a more thorough understanding of how leaders can adapt to the followers' perceptions and improve work practices in the corporate world. This study will support the potential need of leaders to develop the constructs studied in the study to achieve better results from employees at work.

So, the purpose of this quantitative study can be summarized as to correlate visionary leadership, meaningfulness at work, commitment to the leader, and job satisfaction in a potential serial mediation model, from a study completed by 95 dyads of leaders and followers from diverse industries across the world. The proposed model contains visionary leadership as the study's independent variable and job satisfaction as dependent on meaningfulness at work and commitment to the leader as mediators.

1.10 Organization of Study

The layout of the thesis is in a logical sequence, starting with the introduction in chapter 1 till the discussion and recommendations in chapter 5, as outlined below.

Chapter one: introduces the study and provides a background to the study, a statement of the problem, the significance, and the objectives of the study.

Chapter two: reviews the current literature available about the variables used in the study and their relations with each other. It delves into the theoretical framework of the research and presents a model hypothesizing the association between the variables.

Chapter three: sets out the research methodology, design, and methods used in the study. It includes participant setting and selection, a summary of the survey used, and procedures for data collection and data analysis.

Chapter four: deals with the presentation, analysis, and interpretation of the data and confirms the serial mediation model within the variables.

Chapter five: focuses on this study's summary, discussion, and recommendations. It summarizes the key findings of this research and provides recommendations for future research in the area of visionary leadership and related variables.

1.11 Summary

In this chapter, the introduction and background to the study included an explanation and introduction of the concept of visionary leadership, meaningfulness at work, commitment to the leader, and job satisfaction. In addition to this, the statement of the problem, which explained the extent of the problem to be studied, the primary and specific research questions that were crafted to guide the research process, and the primary and specific objectives of this study were elaborated. The proposed model of my study was outlined. This chapter discussed the significance of this study, i.e., it explained the target beneficiaries of the study and the scope of this study. The definitions of basic terms found in the research and the organization of the thesis were presented in this chapter.

The next chapter presents a detailed literature review of the study constructs in line with the existing literature. It deals with the relevant theories and the links between the study constructs. Moreover, the hypotheses are formulated to analyze the validity further. In the next chapter, relevant literature related to visionary leadership, meaningfulness at work, commitment to the leader, and job satisfaction of followers will be discussed. I have attempted to review the existing literature in detail concerning the variables in the study. The existing literature review has helped me further link them as per my formulated model. The theories explaining the link between the study variables are examined. I am integrating the Job demand resource (JDR) theory and Broaden-and-build theory to explain the linkages and add to the existing literature. Additionally, the theoretical framework, including hypotheses about the relationships between variables, is illustrated.

2 THEORY AND HYPOTHESES

2.1 Theoretical Framework

Leadership is a vast concept, and many scholars have tried to define and explain leadership in various definitions and explanations (see Bird, 1940; Chapin, 1924; Drake, 1944; Geier, 1967; Gibb, 1947; Likert, 1967; Murphy, 1941; Stogdill, 1948; Stogdill,1974). Moreover, there have been several leadership theories, and the review of these leadership theories highlights some lines of similarity leading to repetition within them. I used the JDR theory (Bakker et al., 2007) to explain the overarching concept in my model dealing with the link between visionary leadership and job satisfaction along with the broaden-and-build theory (Fredrickson, 2001); which provides a rationale for the mediating effect of meaningfulness at work and commitment to the leader.

2.1.1 Job Satisfaction Through JDR Model

This study is based on the job demand–resource (JDR) model (Bakker et al., 2007) for two reasons. First, the JDR model proposes that the work environments influence job demands such as workload, physical demands, and physical working conditions that drain employees' cognitive and physical resources, such as increased stress and burnout, resulting in health issues and low energy. In the case of this study, the work environment is employee-perceived visionary leadership behaviors. Second, the model proposes that there are multiple resources (such as social, psychological, physical, or organizational) that help to foster work goals and reduce job demands. These job resources are majorly physiological and psychological in employees, and these elevate learning, personal growth, and development and reduce stress. Both these job demands and job resources are related to occupational strain levels, which further are associated with job satisfaction (Van Woerkom et al., 2016) which is the dependent variable of the study.

JDR theory has been vastly used in the previous research linking various types of job demands and resources. As per JDR theory, job demands exist when few or all elements of the job require physical and psychological effort (Bakker & Demerouti, 2014). There have been ample studies suggesting that job demands are not necessarily negative or stressors; however, they may require additional effort due to overdemanding work sequences see Bakker (2015), Bakker et al. (2009), Mache et al. (2014), Upadyaya et al. (2016), and Yanchus et al. (2013). Bakker (2015) has argued explicitly in his study that a combination of challenging job demands and high-level job

resources catalyzes employee work engagement, ultimately leading to better satisfaction levels in employees. There is little exposure to the difference between "challenge" and "hindrance" related to job demands; there is insufficient authentication on it and if both these types of job demands exist for every aspect of jobs is unclear (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011).

JDR model has been developed over time, and the first original model only included burnout (Demerouti et al., 2001). Later there was an extended version of JDR, which included engagement, which has been widely used in previous studies (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). In the next version, personal resources were added to the JDR model (Xanthopoulou et al., 2009). And then, the newer version was introduced, which tests engaging leadership styles in the JDR model, which results in reducing the job demands and increasing the job resources, thereby increasing positive employee outcomes (Schaufeli, 2017). My study draws upon this latest version, where I argue that visionary leadership, which is a motivational, inspiring leadership style (Bono & Judge, 2003), reduces job demands and increases personal resources leading to better employee perceived job satisfaction.

The JDR theory has been extended in various models since its inception almost 20 years ago, such as personal resources, which have been incorporated into the JDR model (Xanthopoulou et al., 2009). Personal resources are defined as "positive self-evaluations that are linked to resiliency and refer to individuals' sense of their ability to control and impact upon their environment successfully" Xanthopoulou and colleagues (2009, p. 236). The vital extension relevant to my study is that leadership style has been added to the JDR model by Schaufeli (2017). Especially visionary leadership, which is engaging in nature. Visionary leaders inspire their followers and enthuse them with their vision and plans. By strengthening and connecting strongly with their followers, leaders can fulfill the employees' basic psychological needs. Need for autonomy and competence, thereby increasing the commitment. This process elevates job resources and reduces job demands (Schaufeli, 2017). In conclusion, Schaufeli (2017) states that the JDR model offers an all-inclusive, modified, empirically validated model that supports specifying relationships amongst job, personal characteristics, leadership, wellbeing, and other employee outcomes.

With support from the JDR theory, I propose that meaningfulness at work and commitment to the leader are posited as a mechanism through which visionary leadership has an impact on the

job satisfaction of the followers. This can be further explained as each job has job resources that play a vital motivational role in enhancing performance (Bakker & Demerouti, 2014; 2017). The JDR theory also envisages that every individual carries intrapersonal resources that influence the working environment (Hobfoll et al., 2018). These job resources then activate personal resources (Van Veldhoven et al., 2020). Accordingly, in my researched model, visionary leadership is seen as a job resource that can directly encourage discretionary behaviors such as commitment to the leader while elevating the job satisfaction level of employees. Alternatively, it can indirectly affect by activating personal resources such as meaningfulness at work, which encourages the employees to showcase positive discretionary behaviors and attitudes towards the organization. This action is highly likely as meaningfulness at work and commitment to the leader imply that the individuals perceive that they can captivate autonomously and intentionally the environment around them during the process of achieving organizational goals. These individuals are prepared to contribute to positive attribution in challenging situations (Luthans & Youssef-Morgan, 2017).

As per a previous study, job resources can lead to activating personal resources (Van Veldhoven et al., 2020). As important as leadership and personal resources are for employee performance. Similarly, employees' attitudes towards their work play a vital role (Avey et al., 2011). One attitude of interest is employees' intention to leave, and these intentions may be to leave the organization or the job they do (De Simone et al., 2018). With a high level of psychological capital, employees can thrive in the challenging environment at work and hence negatively affect their intention to leave the organization and subsequently be more satisfied with the job (Gupta & Shaheen, 2017; Hayes et al., 2012). In addition, Bakker and Demerouti (2014) suggest that there is limited knowledge about the effects of job demands on personal resources from the theoretical point of view. Further, they conducted a study using a sample of nurses, getting them to fill out a questionnaire at the end of each working week. The study was continued for three consecutive weeks. The results confirmed that the job demands reinforced the effect of personal resources on employee engagement. In my research, using this model as the base, I am trying to examine the relationship between the work environment (independent variable: visionary leadership) and measure its effect on the job demands and resources (dependent variable: job satisfaction).

My study focuses on exploring the connection between visionary leadership and job satisfaction. Former president of the University of Notre Dame, Father Theodore Hesburgh, asserted that "the very essence of leadership is you have to have a vision" (Bowen, 1987, p. 68).

One key factor in visionary leadership is shared or collective vision. Senge (1990) defined a shared vision as "the capacity to hold a shared picture of the future we seek to create (i.e., Polaroid - instant photography or education - lifelong learners)" (p. 9). A well-articulated vision portrays a credible, realistic, and attractive future for the organization and its employees, and it is a condition better than the current one in many ways "Vision is the commodity of leaders, and power is their currency" (Bennis & Nanus, 1985, p. 17). A vision must inspire, challenge the members of the organization to give their most whole, be innovative and evolutionary, empower, support, guide members throughout the time, and most importantly, be achievable (Calabrese et al., 1996). Sashkin and Rosenbach (1998) commented that "vision is based on the ability to think through what's happening, to determine causes, and to identify how complicated chains of cause and effect actually work" (p. 69). Visions allow organizations to bind their employees together toward a common goal (Senge, 1990). Visions are value-driven and specific to the organization's members and yet provide creativity to each member to fulfill it in their style (Calabrese et al., 1996). The shared vision imbibes "unearthing shared pictures of the future that foster genuine commitment and enrollment rather than compliance" (Senge, 1990, p. 9).

Successful visionary leaders orient and inspire their followers to not only fulfill the vision but also achieve it with dedication, enthusiasm, and the right attitude towards their work (Weller & Weller, 2000). "To choose a direction, a leader must first have a mental image of a possible and desirable future state of the organization" (Bennis & Nanus, 1985, p. 82). With the help of a genuine vision, people feel motivated within, and they do not need an external force for motivation to achieve this vision; as stated by Senge, "people excel and learn, not because they are told to, but because they want to" (Senge, 1990, p. 9).

Burns (1978) conceptualized both transformational and transactional leadership styles on the opposite ends of a scale. He added that transactional leadership exists when there is a purpose of exchange from the leader toward the followers. In contrast, transformational leadership occurs in a more complex situation and requires more than compliance from the followers (Kuhnert & Lewis, 1987). On the other hand, Bass (1985) insists that most leaders lean towards using a combination of both transformational and transactional leadership styles. Yukl et al. (2002) classified leadership behaviors into three classifications such as relationship, task, and change behaviors. In this classification, connections and functions are classified as transactional, and on the other hand, change behaviors are classified as transformational. In his words, 'transformational

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leadership augments transactional leadership.' Transactional practices are straightforward, and they do little to motivate, enhance motivation, or bring the extra effort to carry out any change; these are only possible to experience in the transformational leadership style (Leithwood et al., 1996). In the end, the leader must demonstrate an adaptive, flexible leadership style that has various layers and levels capable of changing as per relevant situations and conditions (Yukl, 2008). Transformational leaders have illustrated characteristics and behaviors that nurture the engagement levels of their followers (Connaughton & Daly, 2004; Kark et al., 2003; Luhrmann & Eberl, 2007; Yukl, 2008), and visionary leaders display the same transformational characteristics and behaviors. Visionary leaders also exhibit behaviors that are "necessary for followers themselves to have the knowledge, skills, and abilities" (Randolph & Sashkin, 2002, p. 129).

Earlier scholars have studied exceptional 'visionary' leaders who have contributed to the notable success of their organizations (Bass, 1985; Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Luhrmann & Eberl, 2007; Martin & Epitropaki, 2001). These studies have found that successful visionary leaders possess the ability to articulate their visions, inspire followers, empower them to perform, and keep them engaged throughout the process. Visionary leadership creates high levels of commitment, cohesion, trust, improved performance, and motivation in the followers (Zhu et al., 2005). In another study, Hogan and Kaiser (2005) suggested that leader effectiveness can be used to estimate organizational effectiveness.

2.1.2 The Broaden-and-Build Theory of Positive Emotions

The choice of mediators in this study for serial mediation can be well justified using the broaden-and-build theory (Fredrickson, 2001). The broaden-and-build theory posits that emotions are short-term experiences that are physiological and cognitive, and these affect how individuals think and behave (Fredrickson, 2001). These types of behavioral patterns can be termed thought-action sequences (Fredrickson, 2001). Fredrickson (1998; 2001) further added that these broadened thought-action sequences allow individuals to build lasting cognitive and social resources, including relationships or satisfaction with life. This theory proposes that positive emotions can broaden the cognitive processes that enhance the individual's behavior and performance (Fredrickson, 2001). Bakker (2008) further noted that the broaden-and-build theory could be beneficial in providing a framework to understand the individual's behavior at the workplace. Many have extended the application of this theory in practice; as per a study with sales

organizations, Sridhar and Lyngdoh (2017) confirmed how salespeople build positive emotions that help them share appropriate information with the customer, showcasing ethical behavior.

According to the broaden-and-build theory (Fredrickson, 2003; 2013), "positive emotions facilitate optimal functioning by broadening people's thought-action repertoire, which then contributes with time to building their personal and social resources." For example, joy makes you play, push limits, and be creative. Pride urges us to announce achievements to others and reach higher levels. Interest encourages to explore and gather new information and acquire experiences in life. Over a while, broadened mindset builds personal and social resources such as knowledge, resilience, and social relationships (Fredrickson, 2003; 2013). In the workplace, these are the crucial resources that are needed to deal with adversity, change, and effective collaboration (Knight & Eisenkraft, 2015).

The broaden-and-build theory uncovers the effect of positive emotions on an individual's daily life. It highlights the importance of positive emotions at work that supports optimal functioning. The theory suggests that positive emotions broaden an individual's thinking, creativity, and attention (George & Zhou, 2007). This process fuels psychological resilience and builds personal resources, which in turn flourishes human perspective and overall satisfaction with different aspects of life, as argued by Fredrickson (2001; 2004). Fredrickson further quoted, "People should cultivate positive emotions in their own lives and the lives of those around them, not just because doing so makes them feel good at the moment, but also because doing so transforms people for the better and sets them on paths toward flourishing and healthy longevity" (Fredrickson, 2004, p. 1375). These personal resources can range from physical to intellectual to social and to psychological resources and can have enduring effects, as demonstrated by Fredrickson (1998; 2001) and Fredrickson and Branigan (2001). There has been existing research that indicates that individuals with higher positive emotions perform better and participate in less counterproductive behaviors (Kaplan & Flum, 2009; Lyubomirsky et al., 2005).

In my study, I am evaluating two mediators through the lens of broaden-and-build theory. In my research, I argue that the meaningfulness at work and the commitment level to the leader are positive emotions that contribute to broadening the thought-action consequences of employees, leading to better satisfaction levels in employees. Perceived meaningfulness at work is a highly effective and potential element of the broaden-and-build process in employees, as it is motivating

for employees to see the positive meaning in the work they perform. Perceived meaningfulness at work being a powerful motivator provides a rationale for offering more focused work efforts leading to a higher level of commitment in employees (Hackman & Oldham, 1980; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). In addition, with higher perceived meaning at work, employees can deal with adverse events in more efficient ways (Folkman & Moskowitz, 2000). It is possible because meaning in human life is a positive resource that provides energy and opportunity for betterment (Tugade & Fredrickson, 2004). In a previous study, meaningfulness at work was recognized as one of the critical antecedents of engagement (Kahn, 1990). Kahn (1990) further defines meaningfulness as "a feeling that one is receiving a return on investments of oneself in a currency of physical, cognitive, or emotional energy" (p. 703-704). There were a few more studies that echoed the results and confirmed meaningfulness leading to engagement (May et al., 2004; Truss et al., 2006). Further, May et al. (2004) built upon other models and confirmed that work meaningfulness increases the intrinsic motivation of employees. Hence considering the linkages mentioned above of meaningfulness to positive employee outcomes, it will be interesting to examine its relationship with employee perceived job satisfaction.

Rank and Frese (2008) considered commitment ("emotional attachment to the organization," Meyer and Allen, 1991) as a positive emotion at work. The commitment was seen as a positive employee attitude, as argued by Ribeiro et al. (2021). In the same line, commitment towards a leader can be an emotional attachment towards the respective leader and can also be considered a positive emotion. As per broaden-and-build theory (Fredrickson, 2001), commitment as a positive emotion broadens an individual's thought-action repertoires, stimulating innovation or new ideas (Odoardi et al., 2019). In addition, Rivkin et al. (2015) tested commitment as a positive emotion via the broaden-and-build theory. Higher the transformational leadership, the higher the affective commitment levels in employees toward their leaders (Khaola & Musiiwa, 2021).

Chalofsky (2003) revealed that meaningfulness at work depends directly on the work itself and the sense that is influenced by the job, and the balance and integration it provides with various domains of work. When the performed work makes the employee feel good about it and brings the common good, the meaningfulness and overall purpose are experienced (Chalofsky, 2003). This sense of meaning is related to an individual's values, beliefs, and purpose then individuals try to align their purpose in life with their aim of work (Chalofsky & Krishna, 2009). In servant leadership, the leaders support their followers in finding a sense of purpose in their work and

empowering them with the freedom to carry out the tasks and thereby express their talents (van Dierendonck, 2010). Leaders' supportive and caring behavior towards their followers can lead to meaningful work to caring relationships. This feeling of being supported and trusted by their leaders in followers can spark optimization of employee capabilities such as innovation and creativity, leading to better organizational outcomes (Yoshida et al., 2014). Transformational visionary leaders' practices align the perceived meaning in followers with the organizational goals, which leads to goal attainment (Parolini et al., 2009). Employees feel a sense of self and a sense of balance in their daily activities only if they feel they are doing meaningful tasks (Chalofsky, 2003).

Meaningfulness at work can accord to the general sense of meaning; hence, when employees experience meaningfulness at work, they likely carry the same feeling in overall life outside the work (Chalofsky & Krishna, 2009). There have been several studies depicting that meaningfulness at work and in a broad context (even in personal life) is essential at work, supporting various employee outcomes (Annor, 2016; Sprung & Jex, 2012; Wayne et al., 2013; Zhou & Buehler, 2016). Despite its importance, meaningfulness is still potentially a less developed variable in organizational sciences. Brown & Lent (2016) have suggested that the eudemonic wellbeing in employees can be achieved with meaning at work (along with work calling and engagement). Lips-Wiersma and Wright (2012) attempted to conceptualize meaningfulness at work systematically and assessed its sources at the workplace.

Chalofsky (2003) advocates that meaningfulness at work is not only about the work one performs for daily/monthly wages but also it's a lifestyle. It is the way one lives with the principles and values at work. The feeling of meaningfulness is 'a deep-seated belief system', which is essential daily for a committed workforce (Kahn 1990, 1992; May et al., 2004; Woods & Sofat 2013). Hence the phenomenon of 'psychological meaningfulness' as coined by Kahn (1990), complements this state where an individual receives a return psychologically for the performed duties at work. He further adds that the employees who perceive their work to be meaningful feel more useful, worth, and valuable at work. It is also essential for employees to have a sense of autonomy and control over their job to perceive their work to be meaningful in multiple ways (Hackman & Oldham, 1980).

In conclusion, meaningfulness at work is beyond the income or monetary benefits in the long term that the employee receives in return (Hirschi, 2012). Meaningful work leads to job

satisfaction (Saks, 2006). Williams and Karau (1991) simplified this and suggested that when the outcome is meaningful, the result is also significant. Also, meaningful work makes the work more engaging and enjoyable (Beadle & Knight 2012), which leads to a safe and healthy work environment (Kahn, 1990), further leading to better organizational outcomes. In such an environment, employees feel highly satisfied; they feel pride and honor in the workplace leading to higher productivity (Dik & Duffy, 2009; Hakanen et al., 2006; Wrzesniewski et al., 1997).

Organizational commitment is a pleasant, successful, positive relationship between employees and their organization. With higher organizational commitment, one tries to assimilate the personal goals and values with organizational goals and values and demonstrates efforts to stay in the organization (Hunt & Morgan, 1994; Mohammed & Eleswed, 2013). Commitment is essential and fundamental to both employees in terms of satisfaction, advancement, and involvement and to the organization in terms of having low levels of turnover, high morale, and motivation levels (Brien et al., 2015; Devos et al., 2014; Erdem & Ucar, 2013). Commitment is a futuristic action that one intends to take in the future to commit to either some action or relationship (Brien et al., 2015; Cohen, 2007). The early scholars studying this phenomenon stated that commitment is a one-dimensional behavior; it is a decision to stay or leave the organization (Becker, 1960; Scholl, 1981). In one of the early attempts to explain this phenomenon, Becker (1960) stated that organizational commitment exists when employees "engage in consistent lines of activity" (p. 33).

Employee commitment toward the supervisor can, in turn, enhance the organizational commitment levels. However, it can also get tricky, as when the supervisor decides to leave the organization, the probability of employees feeling less committed and wanting to leave the organization also increases (Eisenberger et al., 2010). Additionally, an employee's commitment to the supervisor is a stronger emotion and has a more significant effect on employee performance than the effect of an employee's commitment to the organization (Becker et al., 1996). In a similar line, the impact of unethical, abusive behavior of supervisors can lead to a significant adverse effect on employee job satisfaction and the organizational work environment. There was a notable link found between the quality of work-life, the employee's experience at work, and their commitment to the organization (Yadav et al., 2019). High-quality work-life expertise can lead to deficient levels of absenteeism, reduced levels of turnover, and an increase in levels of job satisfaction in employees (Havlovic, 1991). In another study within the private sector with a group of mid-level

managers, the results revealed a strong connection between employees' job satisfaction and commitment levels (Srivastava, 2013).

Additionally, trust in the supervisor was another vital factor studied that demonstrated higher commitment to the organization and supervisor (Srivastava, 2013). As per Mowday et al. (1979), the commitment levels in employees are built on a steady and consistent basis, as employees perceive it as a relation-building with the organization; it is also affected by day-to-day events that take place at the workplace. Porter and colleagues (1974) presented a theory named the theory of organizational commitment, and this theory states that employee attitude is the key.

The decision of employees to stay or leave the organization depends on employees' attitude toward the organization than the employee's overall attitude towards the job itself (Porter et al., 1974). Employees uncommitted to work or organization will leave the organization in a short span (Angle & Perry, 1981). In line with this research, it was found that the higher the level of organizational commitment level the lower the intention of the employee to leave the organization (Addae et al., 2006; Pare & Tremblay, 2007). The organizational commitment from the attitudinal approach emerges when the employee identifies themselves with the organizational goals and mission and wants to continue the relationship (Mowday et al., 1979). In recent years there has been a lot of focus on discovering the organizational commitment outcomes. In the past, it has been shown to reflect positive job satisfaction levels (Bateman & Stasser, 1984; Mowday et al., 1982), a positive effect on employee efforts (Chelte & Tausky, 1986; Wiener & Vardi, 1980), and higher motivation levels (Mowday et al., 1979).

I use the JDR theory as the overarching theory for my study. From a broader perspective, the JDR model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017) provides a framework to support the model I use in this study. According to Bakker and Van Woerkom (2018), leadership behaviors are considered as behavior that would "foster the acquisition of personal and job resources, and indirectly promote work engagement and performance." Thus, followers' positive perceptions about leadership behaviors tend to acquire job resources and personal resources such as meaningfulness and commitment leading to job satisfaction. This process, in turn, has a positive effect on engagement and performance (Bakker & Van Woerkom, 2018). My study integrates the JDR theory of work engagement (Bakker & Demerouti 2017) with the broaden-and-build theory (Fredrickson, 2004) of positive emotions to explain the relationship between leadership and job satisfaction in

followers. More specifically, the relationship between meaningfulness at work and employee satisfaction level with the job can be explained by the broaden-and-build theory (Soane et al., 2013), similarly to the relationship between commitment to the leader and job satisfaction in employees. In addition, JDR theory help explain the link between job characteristics and resources. Thus, the theoretical framework presented in this study takes advantage of these two theories to explain how employees' positive psychological experience with work can lead to job satisfaction. This study assesses the interlink between the variables derived from psychology and organizational behavior that support human resource development (HRD) as a discipline (Jacobs, 1990; Swanson, 2001). This study investigated several hypotheses regarding the inter-relationships among visionary leadership, meaningfulness at work, commitment to the leader, and job satisfaction, which formed the primary serial mediation hypothesis.

2.2 Visionary Leadership and Job Satisfaction

2.2.1 Conceptualization of Visionary Leadership

A leader has a good vision of the future and can strategize his actions and the team goals in the same direction. One of the prime roles of a leader is to be a "change agent" (Roueche et al., 1989). Often, the future is uncertain and unpredictable. In such situations, the role of the leader is to guide the institution and employees. Bass (1985) defines the first and most crucial role of leadership to attain and equip subordinates. The second important role is leadership in managing stakeholders and ensuring that they benefit from their investment (Madison et al., 2016). The third role emphasizes ensuring that the organization engages in communal activities (Greenleaf, 1970).

In contrast, the business leadership model highlights that the role of leadership is to discard the practices and processes that prove not valuable for the organization and its people and bring in new ideas and capitalize on the successful product lines (Drucker, 1967; 1995). Drucker (1967) advocates that a leader in an organization should "…concentrate on the few major areas where superior performance will produce outstanding results". However, Spears (1995) argued that the leadership focus should not be only on the institution's profitability but also on the leader-follower relationship and how well they can work together.

Several leadership styles have been categorized and have been found to be effective. The success of the leader and, subsequently, the organization depends on the leader's leadership style.

The most effective one is exhibiting balance between multiple styles van Eeden et al. (2008). Mintzberg (2010) defines true leaders are those who engage their followers with modesty and consideration and get concerned about them without thinking about personal gains. It demonstrates how a leader deals with their followers and situations. There has been substantial research already existing on leadership styles, their attributes, traits, and philosophies behind them (Carless, 1998; Eagly et al., 2003; Hofstede, 1980; House et al., 2004; Howell & Costley, 2006; Javidan et al., 2006; Jogulu & Wood, 2006; Jogulu & Wood, 2007; Jogulu & Wood, 2008; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Kennedy, 2002; Mandell & Pherwani, 2003). In a nutshell, leadership style is a combination of a leader's personality traits, characteristics, skills, and behavior towards the followers (Marturano & Gosling, 2008).

Leadership begins with a clear vision of the future; vision strengthens the change process and encourages process kick-off. Vision becomes an essential aspect of creativity, leading to a visionary and implementation role in organizations. Leaders not only build the vision for their organization, but it is also necessary to be able to communicate the same to the followers effectively. A responsive visionary leader takes responsibility for each organizational problem, need, hope, challenge, and dream encountered by the organization. As history has proved, visionary leaders such as Abraham Lincoln, Winston Churchill, and Nelson Mandela reacted to the imminent threats in the present and thought beyond the dark horizon (Johnson & Suskewicz, 2020).

Several leadership styles are listed as Autocratic leadership: An autocratic leader has no faith or trust in the followers and focuses on monetary benefits as the only reward for motivating them. It is a very task-oriented leadership style, and the leader is effective in communicating and asserting the vision and objectives (Bass & Stogdill 1981; Clark et al., 2009; Muczyk & Reimann 1987; Yukl 1989). Bureaucratic leadership: This is a style that involves maintaining a routine task. This style follows a set of rules and standards. That means everything must be done in an exact, specific manner leaving no room for flexibility, creativity, or innovation. Charismatic leadership: This is a style that identifies with the charisma of a leader who fills the environment with energy and positive reinforcement (Bell, 2013). A charismatic leader inspires and encourages followers and tries to bring out the best in them; hence the followers also tend to work hard to impress their leaders. Democratic leadership: This style demands group participation; leaders call for the involvement of followers in the decision-making process (Parker & Stone, 2003). With this positive consultation, employees feel empowered and part of the process, becoming more dedicated and

loyal (Mullins & Linehan, 2005; Clark et al., 2009). Laissez-Faire leadership: In this style, the authority and power are with followers instead of the leader. The leader contributes little or no direction to the followers in determining and attaining the goals. Considering there is much less involvement of the leader, it is also regarded as destructive leadership (Skogstad et al., 2007) or no leadership (Aydin et al., 2013; Bass, 1990; Lam & O'Higgins, 2011). Laissez-faire leadership can turn out to be the best or the worst form of leadership, depending on the situation or followers (Goodnight, 2011). It is often also considered a destructive style. The leaders avoid responsibility, do not focus on followers' needs, provide them with any feedback and avoid the decision-making process (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Transformational leadership: Transformational leadership is defined as "leader behaviors that transform and inspire followers to perform beyond expectations while transcending self-interest for the good of the organization" (Avolio et al., 2009). These types of leaders are one of the best for the followers as they promote their intellectual development, team spirit, enthusiasm, confidence, and which in turn elevates group wellbeing and performance (Aydin et al., 2013; Cho & Dansereau, 2010). Chu and Lai (2011) divulge those transformational leaders bring change and innovation to the systems and cultivate the same practices in the staff. Transactional Leadership: This is as style as the name suggests, a transaction based on the rewards conditioned to the performance (Avolio et al., 2009). This style focuses on micromanaging or close monitoring employees, identifying mistakes, and gathering a corrective action plan for problem-solving. It is the style of a leader where they either rewards or punish the employee for the task accomplished.

A vision is a roadmap set by the leader for followers to follow. Without vision, there is no clear picture of goals in front of the employees, and they would be clueless as to where the organization or the department is heading. The leadership literature emphasizes the importance of vision and turns visionary leadership see (Carton et al., 2014; Greer et al., 2012; Griffin et al., 2010; Van Dierendonck et al., 2014; Venus et al., 2013; 2019). It is incredibly vital for the development of strategy in organizations (Westley & Mintzberg, 1989). It is confirmed that the communication of visions in an effective manner is one of the most positive leadership behaviors (for a review, see van Knippenberg & Stam, 2014). Visionary leadership is fundamental in planning actions and devising strategies and activities which assist the organization in achieving goals (Cheema et al., 2015). Ndalamba et al. (2018) argued that vision could never be constant, with rapid changes in

technology and cultural and social differences. Thus, the vision needs to upgrade to keep its market sustainable (Ndalamba et al., 2018).

Earlier, Burns (1978) suggested two different perspectives on leadership to elaborate on how leaders influence their followers, and these perspectives are transformational and transactional leadership. Charisma is the focal point in the transformational discussion, and this can be illustrated when leaders can motivate and engage followers in doing something towards achieving common organizational goals rather than their self-interest (Burns, 1978; Hogg, 2001). On the other side, transactional leadership states an exchange between leader and follower. This concept can be illustrated as leaders guiding followers to achieve the goals, and followers report back the status depicting it as a transaction (Burns, 1978; Hogg, 2001). The transformational leadership style can be coined in the visionary leader category, and the transactional style can be the representative leader category (Halevy et al., 2011).

Bass and Stogdill (1990) attempted to compare the morality of both the leadership models, i.e., transformational and transactional, and claimed that transformational leaders boost the morale and motivation of followers and inspire them towards common goals. On the other hand, transactional leaders focus on the followers' self-interest, such as salary, increments, incentives, etc. They further stated, "The transformational leader emphasizes what you can do for your country, while the transactional leader focuses on what your country can do for you" (Bass & Stogdill 1996).

Bass and Avolio (1994) explained four types of Transformational leadership behavior as below:

Idealized influence: this behavior refers to the extraordinary role model behavior by the leaders in front of the followers. In this case, the transformational leaders are respected, admired, and followed by their followers (Bass, 1990).

Inspirational motivation: this behavior represents appealing to the followers by simple ways to get them to follow; this challenges the followers to react and excel in their efforts to achieve the goals (Coad & Berry, 1998).

Intellectual stimulation is the facet of transformational leadership. The leaders promote innovation and creativity in problem-solving challenges; this helps followers get stimulated for critical thinking and encourages better participation (Avolio, 1999).

Individualized Consideration: in exact words, is "understanding and sharing in others' concerns and developmental needs and treating each individual uniquely" (Bass & Avolio: 1997).

As per Bass (1996), the visionary leadership style helps leaders build a fostering environment that enhances follower performance. It provides opportunities to find various creative ways for the organizations by providing a framework that allows leaders and followers to operate in uncertain times and complex situations while setting goals, determining priorities, and policies, aligning structures and beliefs with principles and assessing principles progress. Visionary leadership is a style of leadership in which the leader can imagine and articulate clear visions about future times, creating a purpose and meaning to work done in an organization (Nanus, 1992; Sashkin, 1992).

2.2.2 Characteristics of Visionary Leadership

Kahan (2002) observed that visionary leadership is also transformational and uses the power of inspiration within the followers to elevate their performance. Visionary leaders nurture and embrace their dream their vision and yet provide a sense of security to the employees that, ultimately, it will become true. This assurance comforts the followers (Starratt, 1995). Green (2006) illustrated that visionary leaders possess charisma and creativity and are super alive with the constant energy that enables them to find endless opportunities to deal with problems and invent and create new ways to do things. Spreier et al. (2006) formulized that clarity and communication are the centermost characteristics of visionary leaders.

The concept of leadership has been of utmost importance in business studies. It is one of the crucial factors in an organization's success or failure. It has been a central area of interest by many scholars in various studies. Over the past years, a significant focus has been on the transformational leadership (Bass, 1985), which is also coined charismatic (Conger, 1989), visionary (Sashkin, 1988; Westley & Mintzberg, 1989), or new leadership (Bryman, 1993). What makes this concept so interesting for scholars to keep attracted to it for such a long period. The fundamental reasoning could be the differences between people, why only a few are leaders, why

others choose to follow a leader, and what makes a leader successful? Researchers have been on a lengthy pursuit to find the answers and enlighten the world with the topics on skills, behavioral patterns, attributes, decision making, and many more that can guide the workforce. For a leader in an organization set up success does not only mean higher revenue, significant contracts, or more and more customers but also creating a cohesive work environment for teams to flourish, motivating subordinates to bring out the best in them, encouraging, supporting them through the high and lows. These are the features that differentiate between a leader and a manager.

It has been a long topic of debate whether leaders are born or created? For many years, it was believed that leadership needs some unique characteristics that the "born leaders" have and cannot be imparted. This misbelief was busted in 1948 by Ralph Stogdill of Ohio State University through a massive integrative review and synthesis of data in the form of leadership research. He was the pillar member who started the new behavior-based research in this area which is popularly known as "the Ohio State Leadership Studies" (there is another version for managers that is known as "the Managerial Grid"). Stogdill found by studying over 100 research studies that none exhibited any clear evidence that leaders were any more special than the non-leaders in terms of born characteristics (Stogdill, 1948).

With this started the new era of research on the emergence of leadership and theories around it. Many theories have explained this phenomenon, such as Fiedler's theory (1964), which has been heavily studied in the past 30 years. Also known as Fiedler's contingency theory of leadership, in which he explains that leadership style is based on situations, and so is its effectiveness. The two critical factors that play a key role here are "leadership style" and "situational favourableness" (later called "situational control"). Later in 1982, Hersey and Blanchard confirmed the same finding and added that leaders would be better positioned to influence followers by understanding and adapting to the surrounding situational factors. Their principal results are focused on the characteristics of followers. They claim in their theory that leadership style also depends upon the followers. A leader and followers relationship changes over time as the maturity and ability of followers increase (Hersey & Blanchard,1982).

Waldman et al. (2001) suggest that visionary leaders use effective communication styles to change the employee attitude and output, which can lead to higher levels of employee satisfaction and organizational outcomes. On the other hand, poor communication or lack of clear

communication to portray the vision can lead to followers being unresponsive to the vision itself. Visionary leadership behavior improves the organizational citizenship of employees, making them feel more connected to the organization (Dhammika, 2016). Breevaart et al. (2014) confirm the importance of visionary leadership in improving organizational profits. It was also stated that empowering employees by involving them in the decision-making process elevates their commitment to the vision of the organization (Huang et al., 2010). Visionary leaders focus on articulating and communicating a clear vision that helps in achieving purpose and meaning in work in organizations (Nanus, 1992; Sashkin, 1992). Visionary leadership has been shown to have positive effects on employee perceptions of job satisfaction, leadership, and organizational effectiveness (Hater & Bass, 1988). Kantabutra and Avery (2011) argued that the leader motivates and engages the employees, resulting in the employee being more committed to their work and vision. There have been prior investigations about visionary leadership that confirm that it has an impact on the growth, development, and success of the organization (Bass, 1985; Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Luhrmann & Eberl, 2007). Zhu et al. (2005) have stated that visionary leadership creates higher levels of trust, cohesion, motivation, performance, and commitment. Visionary leadership and employee engagement both have shown positive effects on the customer as well as employee satisfaction (Cheema et al., 2015).

Leadership is the style in which a leader influences the behavior of the employees, and this can be done to achieve more cohesion and productivity at work and reach faster towards the organizational goals. An effective leader has the ability to provide motivation, comfort, support, and an effective communication style that helps in not only providing well-being, satisfaction at work, and enhancement in the work environment for employees but also providing structure, power, and control over the system. In the literature, there are various leadership theories present, which answer several questions about leadership style. One such theory is Great-Man Theory: In 1846, Thomas Carlyle stated in the best interests of the heroes that, "universal history, the history of what man has accomplished in this world, is at the bottom of the history of the great men who have worked here" (p. 2). Carlyle asserted that leaders are born, and only those who are born with heroic potential and extraordinary skills can become leaders. Carlyle's Great Man theory became soon very popular, and it was the answer to questions people had for a long time about authority. Who had it? Who would hold it in the future? Under what claims were it to be held? However, over time, this concept of leadership was found to be flawed, especially since it failed to explain the

case of Hitler, Martin Luther Kind, Napoleon, Mahatma Gandhi, and the like, thereby challenging the credibility of the Great Man theory. Eventually, the great man theory became irrelevant. The new research then started to take place, focusing on leadership traits and beliefs shifted from leaders who are born or destined by nature to find, reflecting on the potential of the leader and developing features and skills.

Trait Theory: The early scientists asserted that the physical and personality traits of leadership were blessed inborn leaders; this distinguished them from non-leaders. The next set of theorists ignored the assumptions of whether the leadership characteristics were inherited or acquired; instead, it focused on the traits of leadership. During the late 1940s, many scholars examined the traits of military and non-military leaders respectively and proposed the magnitude of certain traits emerging at a certain point in time. Jenkins (1947) identified two traits, emergent and effectiveness traits. Emergent traits are "the heredity traits such as height, intelligence, attractiveness, and self-confidence," and effectiveness traits can be "adopted based on experience or learning," such as charisma (Ekvall & Arvonen, 1991). The challenging part of this theory was the research on traits that distinguished leaders from non-leaders displayed that only minor variations existed between them (Burns, 2003).

Contingency Theories (Situational): This theory synthesizes that there is no one single perfect leadership style that caters to all the needs and situations, but it is contingent upon factors such as the type of followers (demographics like age, gender, education background, etc.), the situation of the followers many more factors. For example, not only does the environment and dynamics for a leader change, but also the employees change, and so will the need for a leader to change and adapt. The theory of contingency is a category of behavioral theory that suggests that leadership style is circumstantial, and one style may not be suitable in all situations. The maturity of the followers is also an essential factor that accords to the style of leadership (Bass, 1997).

Style and Behavior Theory: This theory emphasizes a particular necessary leadership skill that comes out in a leader in one specific situation or based on a follower's behavior. Just like one leadership does not fit all, in the same way, one distinctive leadership style cannot be effective in every situation. This theory recognizes that adaptation to style depends on various follower behaviors. Yukl (1989) instigated three new leadership styles, democratic, autocratic, and laissez-faire. Democratic leaders showcase more freedom, creativity, and a high level of satisfaction, in

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turn, better connection with followers. Autocratic leaders display a focus on productivity and output with less or no connection with the followers. Laissez-faire leadership is a free-flow style, which is effective on highly skilled and already motivated followers. Several researchers have discussed different leadership styles, which can be adapted and modified depending on the situation. However, most actions can be classified as autocratic, democratic, or laissez-faire. The theory revolves around several styles and behaviors that can be adapted depending on the situation.

Process Leadership Theory: This theory highlights the process of leadership, mainly principal-centered leadership, charismatic leadership, and servant leadership. Leaders generally nurture the vision and consider it to be greater than themselves, and they align to the vision of the organization or a social goal. The process leadership theories suggest that the primary responsibility of a leader is to contribute to the well-being of followers and take on social responsibility. The evolution of leadership theories has been from heredity to acquired traits to styles to situations and behaviors to the function of groups and group processes to the current emphasis on interaction in the group with organizational and personal improvements.

Transactional Theory: Bass and Avolio (1994) observed transactional leadership "as a type of contingent-reward leadership that had active and positive exchange between leaders and followers whereby followers were rewarded or recognized for accomplishing agreed-upon objectives." Leadership research has been mainly concentrated on the exchange between the leader and the follower. The transactional theory possesses the leader-follower association and the series of agreements between them (House & Shamir, 1993). The leader-follower exchange results in transactions such as for good work, leader rewards with positive support, praise, promotion, good pay, etc. on the other hand, he may focus on errors, no support, avoiding responsibility, or decision making. This attitude is termed "management-by-exception." This transaction could be passive or active (Avolio & Bass, 1997).

Transformational Theory: This theory determines itself from the rest of the contemporary theories based on its coverage, alignment that covers a more significant part, vision for the leader-follower exchange, activities, processes, etc. Transformational leadership has the ability to elevate the motivation and morality of followers and leaders (House & Shamir, 1993). As per Bass (1985), a transformational leader "attempts to induce followers to reorder their needs by transcending self-interests and strive for higher-order needs." Transformation deals with visioning the future and

taking action to move towards it. That is the reason this theory stands unique in its ways as it focuses on the future vision and transforming the processes or way how things are done, motivating, and empowering the followers (House & Aditya, 1997).

While these theories had widespread application and acceptance by scholars, none can be practically applied. The primary reason is that none assimilate the three essential factors that are essential in the practice of leadership, i.e., leaders' personality, leaders' behaviors, and situational factors (Sashkin 1988). As per Sashkin, a universal and more helpful approach must include all three elements; Fiedler focuses on personality and situations, whereas Hersey and Blanchard only look at behavior and situations. However, in recent years many authors have re-defined and updated multiple theories of charismatic, transformational, or visionary leadership that including Bass (1985); Bennis and Nanus (1985); Burns (1978); Conger and Kanungo (1988); House (1977); Sashkin (1988); Shamir et al. (1993); and Tichy and Devanna (1986).

2.2.3 Elements of leadership

Character

The character has been titled differently in various leadership theories such as ethics, morals, values, and integrity. In the case of any leader, his actions have a much more significant impact on many other people than that of action from an average person. Hence, the leader ought to act ethically (Flanigan et al., 2017). Leadership theories conclude that the leader should be of ethical/moral character in order to represent the followers and have authority over others. Theories that place character at the center of leadership include great man, authentic leadership, trait theory, adaptive leadership, level-five leadership, transformational leadership, charismatic leadership, servant, strategic, and ethical leadership (Bass, 1985; Collins, 2001; Greenleaf, 1970; George, 2003; Heifetz & Heifetz, 1994; Hitt et al., 2005; Mihelič et al., 2010; Stogdill, 1948; Stogdill, 1974). Character is inexorable in organizations. In today's business world, when organizations practice character in their daily dealings by nurturing values such as humility, empathy, and integrity, their leaders are not expected to practice these values but also call for the same behavior from their followers.

Characteristics

The characteristics are mainly the leader's qualities, traits, or attributes. Trait theory revolves around the characteristics of the leader. However, it is challenging to locate other approaches discussing characteristics as the crucial elements of leadership. Leadership characteristics are the traits such as personality, intelligence, self-awareness, and individual personal characteristics such as ambition, persistence, and courage. These characteristics decide how good the leader will be as this helps one to perform the leadership role more effectively, and the absence leads to the opposite (Greenleaf, 1970; George, 2003; Hambrick & Mason, 1984; Stogdill, 1948, 1974; Zaleznik & Kets de Vries, 1975). In leadership theories, much has been emphasized about leaders' attributes, but little literature exists about followers' traits. It has been assumed that when a leader has strong qualities, they are effective in controlling their followers in practical ways.

People Practices

Most leadership theories talk about the "how" part of a leader's actions, such as how leaders influence, how they achieve goals, find better ways to get things done, etc. The argument flourished in this domain which suggests that if leaders follow people's processes diligently, they will empower, equip, and inspire their followers to excel in their roles, leading to organizational performance. People practices that are covered in leadership theories are selecting and positioning people, monitoring and evaluating performance, involving people in decision making, supporting, directing, and many more (Bass, 1985; Bass et al., 2003; Blake et al., 1964; Fiedler, 1967; Greenleaf, 1970; Heifetz & Heifetz, 1994; Hersey et al., 1979; House & Mitchell, 1974; Hitt et al., 2005; Katz, 1955; Luthans & Avolio, 2003; Vroom & Yetton, 1973; Zaleznik & Kets de Vries, 1975).

Institutional Practices

Institutional practices deal with the endeavor of leaders to expand an organization's proficiency to achieve its goals. Most of the institutional practices are focused on clarifying, communicating, and practicing organizational goals. Leaders try to look for ways to develop an efficient organizational structure through crafting, refining, and communicating the organizational goals clearly to employees to establish systems, processes, policies, and procedures and observe their implementation (Blake et al., 1964; Hambrick & Mason, 1984; Heifetz & Heifetz, 1994;

Hersey et al., 1979; Hitt et al., 2005; Katz, 1955; Luthans & Avolio, 2003; Vroom & Yetton, 1973). Along with people practices, institutional practices have received much focus.

Outcomes

Why does leadership exist, and what should be its outcome? These questions make us think about the outcomes of the leadership process. Leadership theories discuss in detail many such outcomes of leadership, such as effective strategic leadership, goals, profitability, performance beyond expectation, and team performance (Bass, 1985; Hambrick & Mason, 1984; Hill & Bartol, 2016; House & Mitchell, 1974; Hitt et al., 2005; Zaleznik & Kets de Vries, 1975). The outcome is the sole important reason why some leaders are successful, some are not, or in organizations why some are hired, and some are sacked. Drucker (1996) argues that their end goal should be to achieve goals along with whatever else leaders do. Leadership is gauged on the results and not on other parameters.

Considering that leaders achieve results not alone but through people who are their followers, several leadership theories suggest that for better outcomes, one needs efficient people and a better working environment (House & Mitchell, 1975; Kouzes & Posner, 2012). Without results, there is no leadership. So, it is safe to say that leadership does not exist without consequences.

The Followers

Burns (1978) asserts that the transforming relationship between a leader and a follower is not based on power but on mutual elevation and stimulation. A leader must know their followers; it is essential to understand their goals and quality but also helps to determine the way of working with them for better results. Followers are the most critical part of leadership (Carsten et al., 2010). In an organization, when the followers fail to perform their duties, it negatively impacts the organization's performance. The overall responsibility lies still with the leaders and not followers. That is why scientists argue that the followers (co-workers) success can be seen only through their participation as per leadership theory (Hersey et al., 1979; House & Mitchell, 1975).

The Context

Kellerman (2015) explains context as the "setting within which work (including leadership) gets done." The most effective and ethical leaders are capable of understanding the context and

then are able to make use of that context to get things done for higher organizational goals and achievements. In organizations, the context affects leadership outcomes and hence, in turn, organizational performance. Context and leadership are interdependent (Bredeson et al., 2011; House & Aditya, 1997). Also, context affects the effectiveness of leadership (Blackmore, 2011). Though the importance of context is time and again highlighted, House and Aditya (1997) argue that it has yet not gotten the attention it deserves in leadership theory research. One exception to this is the health care sector (Hartley & Benington, 2010).

2.2.4 Visionary leadership and vision forming

For an organization, it has always been essential to achieve successful outcomes. In pursuit of this visionary leadership, behaviors have been a highly researched concept that caters to this need to achieve long-lasting, highly effective results. Visionary leaders provide vision, guidance, encouragement, and motivation, which helps employees react appropriately and are instrumental in affecting and shaping organizational procedures, practices, products, and services (Yukl 1999). Jaques (1986), in his study, makes it clear that there are people with an extraordinary ability to "vision," which is a result of their advanced level of cognitive development. He further adds that these leaders further benefit the followers with the vision and behavioral skills to deal with situations around them. Sashkin supported this by stating that visionary leaders define and communicate a high level of values through their behavioral skills. He further adds that visionary leaders not only outline the vision of the organization but also strengthen the follower-related features such as integration, goal attainment, adaptation, and values (Sashkin, 1988). Here adaptation refers to change brought in the organization to react to the environmental conditions. Goal attainment suggests activities leading from manufacturing to delivery of the final output. Integration is patterns of coordination. And values refer to the fundamental beliefs shared by most members of the organization (Sashkin, 1988). Likewise, Bass (1985) suggests that visionary or transformational leadership influences organizational factors such as objectives, tasks, structure, and surroundings, thereby enhancing the overall work environment.

Below, Figure 2.1 explains how the vision created by visionary leaders transforms into organizational vision, which can be communicated and implemented further to achieve higher results.

FIGURE 2.1

Sustainability Scheme of Vision Transformation
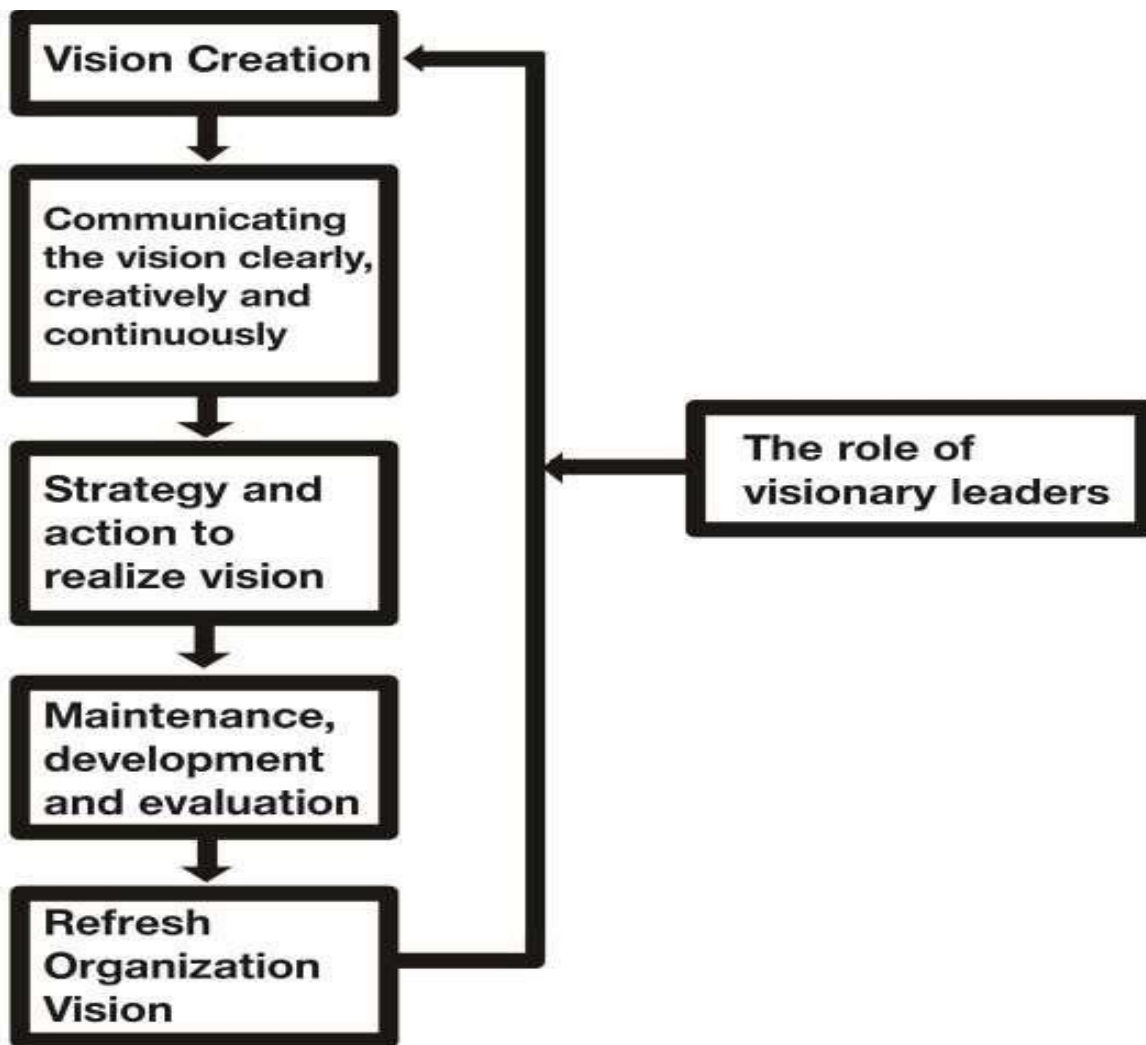
(Ani, Fahmy, Lukito, Prima Lita, & Rahim, 2020) Reprinted with the permission of the publisher.

Moreover, Bennis (1989) argued that all the successful leaders in the 21ˢᵗ century would have the ability to create a vision and bring that into reality. At the same time, 21ˢᵗ century leaders in organizations have a unique set of challenges considering the boom in technology, the millennial generation, and profound changes in the working style, and this has pushed the leaders to adapt to the new model of managing employees rather than the traditional way of instructing and commanding the employees. The new model involves a lot of guidance, support, encouragement, innovation, energy, and commitment (Ibarra & Scoular, 2019). As research has demonstrated in

the past, the empowered teams are not only productive and proactive but also reflect high levels of job satisfaction and commitment towards their leader, team, and organization. These employees are motivated and ready to go the extra mile. Hence leadership that is empowering is crucial (Giles, 2016). In a recent study by Garton (2017), he argues that leaders are made and not born, and hence anyone can become an inspiring leader, but still, there is a massive scarcity of them in today's business world. He proves this with his employer survey with the Economist Intelligence Unit, where less than half of the respondents agreed that their leaders were motivating or inspiring and even fewer said that their leaders engaged them. This survey highlights a problem statement in organizational leaders and urges to find a solution to enable the leaders with a mechanism to deal with situations and improve the satisfaction level of employees; this is the major problem I try to tackle in my study by proposing a model that can be beneficial and can be adapted by the business leaders.

2.2.5 The Mechanism Through Which Visionary Leadership Fosters Job Satisfaction

Leadership is one of the most critical predictors while studying the causes of job satisfaction, and it is at the center of focus. Leadership is a people's function, which involves significant social interaction by influencing and motivating employees to achieve the organizational goals (Skansi, 2000). There has been enough evidence through several studies in different regions that confirm the positive relationship between leadership and the job satisfaction of health care providers (Berson & Linton, 2005; Chiok Foong Loke, 2001; Dunham-Taylor, 2000; Herspanhol et al., 1999; Lowe et al., 1996; Martin, 1990; Morrison et al., 1997; Seo et al., 2004; Stordeur et al., 2000; Vance & Larson, 2002). Leadership style comprises a leader's attitudes, behaviors, characteristics, and skills that affect an employee's job satisfaction, commitment, and productivity. It depends on the ability of a leader to influence followers to perform at their highest capability. Previous research confirms that job satisfaction is highly dependent on leadership style (Turner et al., 2002). Transformational leadership has been shown to foster job satisfaction in employees (Lok & Crawford, 2004; Medley & Larochelle, 1995). It is further indicated that transformational leadership enhances the employee perception and commitment to the organization (Barling et al., 1996; Ojokuku et al., 2012).

Visionary leadership is proven to provide high levels of cohesion, commitment, trust, motivation, and enhanced performance in employees (Zhu et al., 2005). Also, the leader's

effectiveness translates into organizational effectiveness (Hogan & Kaiser, 2005). But it is additionally challenging for managers to ensure that the employees are satisfied with the job they are doing. A satisfied worker is more efficient and effective in an organization (Haque & Aston, 2016; Rahman et al., 2015). Overall leadership has been shown to have an effect on organizational as well as individual performance (Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Keller, 2006; Wang & Howell, 2010). Scholars have indicated that leaders influence employee behaviors and attitudes that have an impact on organizational performance (Estes & Wang, 2008; Wang et al., 2011). Not only that but the transformational leadership style has also been found to enhance organizational innovation (Jung et al., 2003).

In previous studies, job satisfaction has been researched several times. Job satisfaction, in simple terms, can be explained as the "pleasure derived while doing a job." It has been shown to have a direct relationship with leader effectiveness and intention to quit (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014), personality traits of the leader (Hancock et al., 2018; Kiarie et al., 2017), organizational support, and leader behavior (Ahmad & Yekta, 2010), organizational culture and leadership behavior (Tsai, 2011), leadership behavior (Osborn & Vicars, 1976), and leadership behavior and trust (Gilstrap & Collins, 2012).

It has been argued that both transactional and transformational leadership styles have an impact on the satisfaction level of employees (Lok & Crawford, 2004). Although, it was confirmed in a study that transformational leadership demonstrated to have a higher impression on job satisfaction as compared transactional leadership (Awamleh & Al-Dmour, 2004). It has been indicated in earlier research that the transformational leadership style promotes empowering employees and further helps in strengthening the motivation and job satisfaction levels of employees (Herman & Chiu, 2014; Top et al., 2015). Job satisfaction consists of three distinct job attitudes: affective experience, an evaluative judgment, and beliefs about the job (Weiss, 2002; Weiss et al., 1999). Job satisfaction can be considered an evaluative judgment of an employee's work conditions (Weiss, 2002), and it may depend upon various factors in employees.

There is extensive literature available that confirms that when employees feel empowered at work, they posit more robust job performance, commitment to the organization, and job satisfaction. Lee et al. (2018) argue in their study that certain leadership styles work best on a specific type of employees. "Empowering" leaders should know when they can be most effective.

In another field study with leader-follower dyads in a time-lagged design, the positive relationship between visionary and empowering leadership on employee performance was confirmed (Kearney et al., 2019). Visionary leadership is the fine ability of a leader to communicate the goals and influence people to achieve their determined goals. One more study confirmed the positive relationship between performance development and leadership and stated that this, in turn, results in higher job satisfaction (Riaz & Haider, 2010). In their study, Kim et al. (2020) performed three daily surveys that confirmed transformation leadership style elevates job satisfaction in employees.

In a recent field and experimental study, it was confirmed that visionary leadership results in higher job satisfaction in employees. It elaborates those visionary leaders who effectively communicate the vision picture to the follower's help and comfort them in the change process, which eases them to deal with uncertainty resulting in better satisfaction at work (Venus et al., 2019). A similar study on the millennial generation strengthens the connection between empowering visionary leadership and to millennial workforce's engagement and satisfaction level (Silva et al., 2020). The importance of positive leadership behavior has been highlighted previously. Owens and Hekman (2016) suggest that leader behavior elevates social behavior in followers, which leads to positive performance and satisfaction outcomes. As per the JDR model, leadership has been a primary antecedent of job resource deriving (Buonomo et al., 2021).

In conclusion, I add to the visionary leadership literature, implying visionary leadership as a positive phenomenon leading to positive employee outcomes (Baum et al., 1998; Kirkpatrick et al., 2002; van Knippenberg & Stam, 2014). Based on this reasoning, I propose that visionary leadership is a mechanism that has a positive impact on job satisfaction in employees. The following hypotheses ground this study:

H1. Visionary leadership is positively related to subordinates' job satisfaction.

2.3 Visionary Leadership and Job Satisfaction- The Role of Meaningfulness at Work

2.3.1 Visionary Leadership Provides Meaning and Purpose

Visionary leadership present in the organization, along with the internal culture, is a major determinant of an organization's success Tellis (2006). The most important quality of a successful great visionary leader is to be able to turn the larger vision into simple goals and be able to articulate

them to the employees in the form of an organizational mission; the simpler way it is expressed, the easier it is for employees to follow (Ahmed, 2004). Great vision appeals not only to the mind and brain but to the heart as well. That makes the followers to be motivated to follow a vision. This helps them associate a meaning to every action. Kotter's research (1996) confirms the same, where he mentioned that authentic vision drives a sense of meaning and clarifies direction leading to shared aspiration amongst the followers. Another large study based on a sample involving more than 300 organizations exhibits that the vision of the leaders has a major impact on causing radical innovation. (Chandi & Tellis, 1998). Later Tellis and Golder (1996; 2000) demonstrated that leaders' vision helps in generating technological change. They explain that with the help of an example from large brands such as Procter & Gamble, Intel, Microsoft, etc. They argue that visionary leaders focus on the emerging or future market trends; they tend to plan and innovate in line to stay ahead of the market curve. This vision of the leaders helps them be the first in the market to introduce a new trend or innovation in the products.

Visionary leader behaviors (Bass, 1985; 1999; De Hoogh & Den Hartog, 2009; Griffin et al., 2010; Shamir et al., 1993) are primarily central elements of transformational leader behaviors (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978), and charismatic leadership theories (Conger & Kanungo, 1987; House, 1977; House & Howell, 1992; Shamir et al.,1993). These theories revolve around the concept that inspiring vision inculcates the meaning and purpose in the communication style of transformational or charismatic leaders (Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio,1993; Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996; Strange & Mumford, 2002; Yukl, 1999).

A study conducted by Padilla et al. (2007) suggests that followers who benefit from an organization would like to remain loyal and committed to their leader even when the organizational resources are exploited in the process. Further followers could actively support leaders than merely tolerating and participating in their self-serving agenda to increase their short-term interests (Padilla et al., 2007). For today's managers, managing and maintaining meaningfulness at work is highly vital (Bailey & Madden, 2016). One of the most important motivators in employee behavior is being able to find meaning at work (Heine et al., 2006), and this theme gains more and more important as the younger generation joins the workforce (Twenge et al., 2010).

Perceived leader behaviors play a vital role in the impact of meaning, value, saliency, and connectivity that works generate for followers. It is interesting to see how leadership style can play

a role in meaningfulness for an employee. Studies indicate that the transformational leadership style is more relevant to follower's meaningfulness at work which means that transformational leaders are more effectively able to link subordinates' mundane job roles to the larger picture of organizational goals effectively, and that fosters the subordinates perceived meaningfulness at work (e.g., Bono & Judge, 2003; Grant, 2008; Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006).

2.3.2 Meaningfulness at Work Leads to Several Employee Outcomes

For humans, work has always been a central activity (Hulin, 2014). Scientists consider meaningfulness a "fundamental human need" (Greenberg et al., 1997; Hulin, 2014; Karau & Williams, 1997). Humans try to find meaningfulness in life through their work (Rosso et al., 2010). In broad terms, meaningful work is the work that is experienced as significant, consequential, or essential by the employees (Rosso et al., 2010). In a larger context, meaningfulness arises from serving others, being authentic, and broadening one's potential (Lips-Wiersma & Morris, 2009; Rosso et al., 2010). Some argue that even though employees performing enriched jobs may experience less or no meaningfulness, the opposite is also true (Bailey et al., 2017; Lepisto & Pratt, 2017). Experiencing meaningful work can mean both meaningfulness at work and in work are found (Bailey et al., 2017; Pratt & Ashforth, 2003). The first implies the context in which work is done and the latter on the nature of the work.

Meaningfulness at work is found to be helpful in enhancing the follower's engagement (Humphrey et al., 2007). It serves as the source of competitive advantage for organizations, and hence it has been suggested that the leadership gives utmost preference to advocating and maintaining meaningfulness in the workplace (e.g., Keane, 2015). Meaningful work benefits the employees and the organization in fostering results (Rosso et al., 2010). Studies support that employee prefer meaningful work as it promotes a healthy feeling of interest and affection at work, professional achievement, and positive contribution to others' lives. In continuation to this viewpoint, meaningful work has been studied with multiple variables and proved to enhance positive organizational outcomes such as job satisfaction, reduction of absenteeism, amiable work behavior, individual performance, motivation for work, employee engagement, organizational identification, reduced stress, personal fulfillment, career development, and sense of empowerment (Harpaz & Fu 2002, May et al., 2004, Pratt & Ashforth 2003, Rosso et al., 2010).

The previous research back in the 1960s that focused on work redesign and job analysis (e.g., Fried & Ferris, 1987; Turner & Lawrence, 1965) suggests "experienced meaningfulness of the work" as the "degree to which the employee experiences the job as one which is generally meaningful, valuable, and worthwhile" (Hackman & Oldham, 1975). Hackman and Oldham (1975) further clarify that the job characteristics model (JCM) confirms that the meaningfulness of the work is "enhanced primarily by three of the core dimensions: skill variety, task identity, and task significance."

Spreitzer (1995), in his study, found that meaningfulness at work fosters empowerment in employees. This concept was further studied by Seibert et al. (2011). They explained that meaning at work and psychological empowerment share a close relationship, in which meaning found at one's work emphasizes the critical facet of empowerment. Epitropaki and Martin (2005) suggested that the sense of meaningful work gets elevated when leaders empower their followers by involving them in the decision-making process. Psychological researchers propose that work meaningfulness is a critical psychological state in which employees produce positive work outcomes (Hackman & Oldham, 1980; May et al., 2004; Humphrey et al., 2007). Earlier research has revealed that perceived work meaningfulness advocates a positive relationship with work engagement (Demirtas et al., 2017; May et al., 2004), psychological well-being (Arnold et al., 2007), job performance (Frieder et al., 2018), organizational commitment (Jiang & Johnson, 2018), career commitment, and job satisfaction (Duffy et al., 2011). Ultimately, the implications of meaningful work for engagement may be somewhat different within-person than between persons (Vallacher & Wegner, 1987; 1989). Valacher and Wegner (1987) further suggest that Meaningfulness at work varies daily for individuals. Hence it is safe to say it can be in excess on certain days or deficit on certain days. They carried out a daily within-person examination to work on this phenomenon. They found that on the days, the meaningfulness at work is positively related to engagement and attentiveness work. In research conducted by Arnold et al. (2007) and Nielsen et al. (2008), the results stipulated that meaningfulness of work and work characteristics mediated the association between transformational leadership and the well-being of employees. The meaningfulness of work imbibes the relation that individuals have with their work and elements of their work, such as feedback and variety (Hackman & Oldham, 1980).

2.3.3 Meaningfulness at Work and Broaden-and-build Theory

The link between meaningfulness at work and work satisfaction can be supported by Fredrickson's broaden-and-build theory (Han et al., 2021). This theory argues that "positive emotions broaden a person's momentary thought-action repertoires, and this widened array of thought-action builds enduring personal resources. An employee's experience with meaningfulness about work broadens their urge to seek information actively and experiences helpful for the work, and this urge, in turn, builds attachment to work, i.e., job satisfaction or work engagement" (Han et al., 2021).

I am leveraging the broaden-and-build theory (Fredrickson, 1998; 2001) as a framework to explain the process by which meaningfulness at work can be used as a mediator in describing follower-rated job satisfaction. The model demonstrates that employees who find their work meaningful have broadened thought-action repertoires and feel more committed to their leaders, enabling and motivating them to generate suggestions on improving organizational functioning. Meaningfulness at work has been associated with several positive work outcomes, and a large amount of research contributes to that area, such as job satisfaction (Glavas & Kelley, 2014; Wrzesniewski et al., 1997), psychological well-being (Arnold et al., 2007), organizational commitment (Glavas & Kelley, 2014; Tummers & Knies, 2013), psychological well-being (Arnold et al., 2007), performance (Hackman & Oldham, 1980), engagement (Kahn, 1990; May et al., 2004), and lower levels of stress (Knoop, 1994). There is a line of research exists that deals with how the professions have an impact on meaningfulness at work. Certain occupations were found to be high in meaningfulness, such as bankers (Sennett, 2006), educators (Berg et al., 2013), and physicians (Cardador et al., 2011).

A recent survey conducted by Deeg and May (2020) proposes a type of work (mainly ethical) that is notable related to meaningfulness at work and the well-being of the employees. Another recent extensive survey by Cardona and Beveridge (2019), which resulted through multiple regression analysis, presents a positive link between meaningfulness at work on job satisfaction and individual performance through job engagement. Mercurio (2020) performed a study on stigmatized occupational groups, and it was featured that experiencing meaningfulness at work was an essential factor in these occupations.

Meaningfulness was considered a personal resource in an earlier study (Soane et al., 2013). The broaden-and-build theory further depicts that the linkage employees have with their leader

fosters broadening individuals' mindsets (Fredrickson, 2001), making them feel better committed to their leader directly. I, therefore, propose that the mediating process of meaningfulness on job performance via promotive voice behaviors is nourished when employees have high-quality relationships with their leaders (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). In other words higher commitment level for the leaders.

Given the context of all these relevant studies, I argue that meaningfulness at work mediates the relationship between visionary leadership and job satisfaction; I posit:

H2. The relationship between visionary leadership and job satisfaction is mediated by meaningfulness at work.

2.4 Visionary Leadership and Job Satisfaction- The Role of Commitment to the Leader

2.4.1 Commitment to the Supervisor Vs. Organizational Commitment

The three-dimensional commitment construct developed by Meyer and Allen (1991); has been tested on several occasions. Previously, O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) have illustrated three bases of commitment, namely compliance, identification, and internalization. Chen et al. (2002) defined commitment to the supervisor as "the relative strength of a subordinate's identification with attachment, and dedication to a particular supervisor." Identification is the first phase that occurs when the employee recognizes and appreciates specific attributes of the supervisor, such as accomplishments, attitudes, personality, and behavior (Becker et al., 1996; Gregersen, 1993). This phase identifies and distinguishes between commitment to the organization and the supervisor (Becker et al., 1996). This concept is further elaborated by Tekleab & Chiaburu (2011), who confirmed that most employees are involved in a minimum of two social exchange relationships, firstly with the organization and the other with the supervisor, manager, or leaders. Thus, commitment to the supervisor is related to yet different from organizational commitment (Landry et al., 2010). Organizational commitment is defined as "the relative strength of an individual's identification with, and involvement in, a particular organization" (Mowday et al., 1982).

Employee commitment is considered one of the essential aspects when evaluating leader success. Employee commitment derives multiple positive results along with organizational performance. As per the report by Mayfield (2000), high employee loyalty has been revealed to

elevate productivity by 11%. Negative employee commitment accounts for more than 34% of employee turnover, and this result can further cost organizations an estimated 100% to 150% of the departing worker's annual salary as higher costs (Cascio, 2003). Additionally, a committed workforce not only praises and elevates the reputation of their employer in the job market, but also this employer branding helps in recruiting better employees for the organization (Goman, 1991).

Working with some supervisors is satisfying, rewarding, and more enjoyable than with particular other supervisors (Chen, 2001; Huyghebaert et al., 2017). More supportive (Vandenberghe et al., 2004) or trustworthy (Nwibere & Olu-Daniels, 2014), supervisors receive a better commitment from the employees. It is seen that supervisors reward employees with tangible or intangible resources for those who illustrate a higher percentage of commitment towards them (Chughtai, 2013).

2.4.2 Visionary Leadership Leading to Commitment

It is an exciting line of research for many scientists to see the reasons and effects of less or no commitment in employees. One of the critical reasons is when the employees are not treated well by their leaders/bosses, and hence the decision to leave the organization follows (Mardanov et al., 2007). Few other reasons could be lower commitment, lower job and life satisfaction, the higher conflict between work and family, and psychological distress (Tepper, 2000). Suppose employees have a feeling of less commitment to the organization and have no satisfaction with their work. In that case, it is directly due to low leader-member exchange (LMX) and consecutively low commitment to the leader (Schyns & Wolfram, 2008).

Visionary leadership can be counted as effective only when the followers follow and stay committed to the vision depicted by the leader (Avery, 2004). Hence vision plays a vital role if it meets followers' desires. Studies have revealed that an effective visionary leadership style is in the consensus of followers' needs and requirements (Gilmore & Shea, 1997). When followers feel motivated and excited through their attraction to the vision and values of the leader, followers see more meaning and importance in the tasks (Bono & Judge, 2003). Hence visionary leaders are believed to partly increase the intrinsic motivation of their followers (Shamir et al., 1993). Indeed, this makes the relationship between a visionary leader and commitment to the leader much more robust as, in the follower's eyes, the vision seems worthwhile to achieve.

For visionary leaders, two powerful aspects of success are their appealing vision which attracts the followers, and the extent of followers' emotional attachment to the vision (Howell & Shamir, 2005; Shamir et al., 1993). Emotional commitment plays a significant role as this defines how committed the followers stay in the long run and if they are willing to work towards this specific vision (Collins & Porras, 1994; Lipton, 1996; Shamir et al., 1993). Vision inspires people even in the bottom line of the organization (Nanus, 1992). Only when the followers get emotionally committed are they self-motivated and eager to participate in the tasks voluntarily to ensure the organizations achieve its goals and success. This explains the reason employees go one step beyond to reach a specific target, such as scientists and engineers working day and night to achieve an essential scientific breakthrough or managers letting go of their vacation time to meet a project deadline and ensure the company's success (Nanus, 1992). In addition, Nanus (1992) defines emotional commitment as the extent to which employees connect with the leader's vision and their willingness to go the extra mile to achieve this vision for their leader.

As per a large multinational study, leader communication style and leader behavior count immensely in elevating employee commitment levels (Goleman, 2000). There is enough evidence and well-established empirical research that links leadership and employee commitment level (Avolio et al., 2004). Organizational commitment is defined as "the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization" (Mowday et al., 1982, p. 27). Employee commitment reflects the degree of connection the employee feels with their organization (Fu & Deshpande, 2014).

Bushra et al. (2011), in their study involving banking sector employees, suggest that transformational leadership is a potential determinant of organizational commitment. Transformation leaders voice out their followers' opinions and ideas during policymaking higher-level meetings inducing confidence and a sense of higher potential in them (Bass & Avolio, 1994). Such leaders put the needs of followers at the center point and solve their problems, motivate them to achieve higher results finally accelerate employee commitment of the employees to their organization (Walumbwa & Lawler, 2003).

Studies have demonstrated in the past that leaders who can articulate vision and mission to their subordinates, inspire and empower them towards growth, can engage the workforce much more successfully. These visionary leaders create a work environment more cohesive and imbibe

commitment, trust, motivation, and enhanced performance in their followers (Zhu et al., 2005). A leader's effectiveness is directly proportional to organizational effectiveness (Hogan & Kaiser, 2005). Influential leaders use social interaction skills to gain support from their followers (Hogg, 2001).

Multiple studies have been done in the past that exhibit a positive relationship between job satisfaction and commitment to the organization (Agho et al., 1993; Blegen, 1993; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Spector, 1997). Studies demonstrate that high job satisfaction increases employee commitment though it has been argued that vice versa is true (Bateman & Strasser, 1984; Lund, 2003; Vandenberg & Lance, 1992). Previous studies have revealed that organizational commitment is essential and beneficial for both employees and the organization (Randall, 1987). Rowden (2000), in his research, confirmed that more substantial commitment levels in employees lead to job security, career advancement, and increased rewards. The association between transformational leadership and organizational commitment has been underlined in various contextual settings (Peachey et al., 2014, Ross & Gray, 2006, Triana et al., 2017; Walumbwa et al., 2005) and different findings (Emery & Barker, 2007; Walumbwa & Lawler, 2003).

In situations when the team is committed to the leader, they likely comply with his requests, which results in a cohesive team environment and improved cooperation. Employees can be collectively committed to a leader who is considered a superordinate identity (Hornsey & Hogg, 2000). In continuation to this, Sluss et al. (2012) confirmed that for a new joiner, the connection to the leader helps to connect to the group they lead. So, commitment to the leader, in turn, is viewed as reducing in-group friction and facilitating cooperation within working groups.

Recently organizational commitment has been an area of focus for organizations as many have realized that it is a vital factor for organizations to achieve their goals. As per the management development model Pool and Pool (2007) developed, organizational commitment leads to job satisfaction. As per the model, organizational commitment primarily affects employees' motivation. Therefore, initially, organizational commitment involves the effort-performance expectation of the employee, and the effort-performance expectation, in turn, affects the performance-work output expectation. These expectations further magnify job satisfaction (Pool & Pool, 2007). Mowday et al. (1982) defined organizational commitment as a belief that is strong

in employees' minds to pursue organizational values and goals with a positive attitude and desire to work hard towards them. Team commitment is the feeling of attachment, affection, loyalty, interest, and belongingness towards a team and their association. Due to this strong desire and positive sentiment, one wants to be associated with the team for a longer time, depicting higher commitment (Somech & Bogler 2002). Tang et al. (2000) confirmed that confident and proactive team members exhibit higher team and organizational attachment. Additionally, Van Dyne and Pierce (2004) argued that when individuals are given more responsibility, they illustrate higher commitment levels with groups, organizations, and their leaders. Khodabandeh and Sattari Ardabili (2015) investigated the mediating role of organizational commitment on employees' self-efficacy and citizenship behavior of employees and confirmed the positive relationship.

There have been previous studies depicting the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment. These studies support different types of linkages between the two, such as the first model, which has received considerable support, assumes job satisfaction as an antecedent to organizational commitment (William & Hazer, 1986). The second popular model is a defying commitment as an antecedent to the job satisfaction of employees (Bateman & Strasser, 1984). Interestingly there is support for both the models leading to satisfaction and commitment.

Odoch and Nangoli (2014) examined a survey in Uganda Commerce Colleges, and the results concluded that a positive relationship existed between commitment and job satisfaction. Additionally, Markovits et al. (2008) studied organizational commitment and job satisfaction in their research with Greek public and private sector employees. The results reconfirm that commitment is positively related to internal and external job satisfaction. Teng et al. (2007) proposed that job satisfaction is an essential indicator of turnover intentions suggesting higher or lower commitment levels. The traditional models of job satisfaction focus on the overall feeling that individuals have at their workplace (Lu et al., 2012). Job satisfaction is an individual's perception of their job, which has been an important study factor due to its impact on the workplace (Teng et al., 2007). A lower level of job satisfaction has an effect on the service quality provided by an individual (Asegid et al., 2014).

Organizational commitment is the degree to which employees feel connected with the organization or their readiness to leave it (Greenberg & Baron, 2008). Multiple studies have elaborated on the strong connection between organizational commitment and job satisfaction

(Porter et al., 1974). Since then, the relationship between organizational commitment and job satisfaction has been researched multiple times (Falkenburg & Schyns, 2007; Martin & Bennett, 1996; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer et al., 2002; Morrow et al., 2011; Moynihan & Pandey, 2007).

Managers rate the performance of the employee basis on the employee's behavior at the workplace and not on the employee's feelings about their job (Bowen et al., 2000). Hence considering employee behavior as a demonstration of the broaden-and-build process extends theory-building efforts on the processes by which meaningfulness leads to desirable workplace outcomes (Fürstenberg et al., 2020). Moreover, in reality, within organizations, not all managers will have effective, constructive relationships with all their employees (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995), and this quality of their relationship defines the extent to which the employees feel capable and motivated to work with the supervisors (Fürstenberg et al., 2020) confirming higher commitment to the supervisor.

Employees propound not only commitment to the leader but also a professional commitment to the work, and the quality of leader-member exchange was seen to be enhancing the level of commitment in both cases (Dong et al., 2019). A recently meta-analytic study gathered evidence to prove that there is a reciprocal relationship between the commitment level of employees with their job satisfaction level (Zhao et al., 2020).

2.4.3 Commitment to the Leader and Outcomes

Several researchers have argued that commitment to the organization can contradict a commitment to a job or union (Gordon & Ladd, 1990) or profession (Gouldner, 1957). On the other hand, some argue that the similarity between organizational commitment and a person's job is possible (e.g., Lee et al., 2000, Meyer & Allen, 1997, Wallace, 1993). Becker and Billings (1993, p. 177), in their study, measured commitment to four targets such as supervisor, organization, workgroup, and top management. They proposed four distinct profile groups using cluster analysis.

- "uncommitted group- little commitment of any kind

-committed group- strong commitment to all four targets.

-locally committed group -more committed to their supervisor and workgroup than to the organization and top management

-globally committed group- showed the opposite pattern to a locally committed group."

These findings suggest that commitments to different targets can be changed, and it implies the attitude and behavior of the employees. That is the main reason the commitment research has been focused on the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Mowday et al., 1979). However, as mentioned above, there can be several other foci of commitment, and hence scholars emphasize focusing on these other crucial targets of commitment, such as supervisors, work teams, co-workers, and clients (Becker, 2016; Becker & Gerhart, 1996; Klein et al., 2012; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Reichers, 1985). In general, few studies focus on commitment to a profession (Blau, 2003), career (Goulet & Singh, 2002), work team (Rikketa & Van Dick, 2005), and supervisor (Vandenberghe & Bentein, 2009). However, none of these previous studies considered a commitment to the leader as a mediator.

Previous research has highlighted that higher commitment to the supervisor results in better work attitudes and behaviors, such as job satisfaction (Chen, 2001), task performance (Becker & Kernan, 2003; Cheng et al., 2003; Siders et al., 2001), and organizational citizenship behaviors (Wasti and Can, 2008). In another study by Vandenberghe and Bentein (2009), it was found to be negatively related to turnover in employees. Although there is growing interest in this construct, there are few empirical studies have been dedicated to it. In a qualitative analysis of longitudinal data, it was confirmed that variables such as commitment to the leader, team performance, and satisfaction are impacted by leader behavior and style (Pescosolido, 2019). Along with leader behavior, trust in the leader promotes commitment to the leader with psychological empowerment and employee wellbeing (Li et al., 2020).

Although it has been argued that various variables impact this relationship positively, such as positive work experience in an organization. On the other hand, negative work experiences such as stress will more likely produce harmful job satisfaction and commitment levels in employees (Agho et al., 1993; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). In various studies, it has been proposed that the elements directly related to an employee's work experience, such as their actual work, its impact, and meaning, will have a direct and immediate influence on the personal perception of the work experience. In the end, these factors will affect job satisfaction and commitment more than anything (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Davidson et al., 1997; Effken & Stetler, 1997; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; McDermott & Lashinger, 1996; Meyer et al., 1993).

In the past, leadership has been linked to commitment in the employees for both the organization and the leader. There is evidence present in the literature suggesting the importance of the role of the leader in the commitment of the employees; incredibly transformational visionary leadership has shown positive results in enlarging the organizational commitment of employees (Avolio et al., 2004; Nguni et al., 2006; Zhu et al., 2009).

In the last few decades, several studies have been focused on the effect of organizational commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1997). It has been exemplified that organizational commitment to employees is related positively to job satisfaction (Bateman & Strausser, 1984), job performance (Meyer et al., 1993), prosocial organizational behavior (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986), and attendance (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990), and negatively associated with the turnover intention (Mowday et al., 1982).

However, these studies mainly focus on the organizational commitment part and not on the other foci of commitment. Reichers (1985) was one of the early scientists who confirmed that there could be multiple foci of commitment in employees and organizational commitment is only one dimension of it. He proposed numerous foci of commitment, i.e., the numerous constituency model of organizational commitment, which elaborates that the employees could be committed to leaders, supervisors, managers, co-workers, unions, or even customers. In addition, employees may commit differently to these different foci, and the commitment level with each focus depend on the compatibility between employee and each constituency. Several studies (Becker et al., 1996; Hunt & Morgan, 1994) were further based on this perspective from Reichers (1985).

In my study, commitment to the leader is considered a suitable mediator because it emphasizes the role of a leader or supervisor in the relationship between employees and the organization itself. Although the importance of the construct commitment to the supervisor is increasing, few empirical studies are investigating the results of this construct (Chughtai, 2013). Moreover, the relationship between empowering visionary leadership and organizational commitment has been extensively studied (Freire & Azevedo, 2015; Humborstad & Perry, 2011), but there is less focus on commitment to the leader. The commitment was seen as a positive employee attitude (Ribeiro et al., 2021). And it was tested earlier in the broaden-and-build theory by Rivkin et al. (2015). As per broaden-and-build theory (Fredrickson, 2001), commitment as a positive emotion broadens an individual's thought-action repertoires, stimulating innovation or new ideas (Odoardi et al., 2019). I thus argue in consideration of the above substantive review that

commitment to the leader catalyzes the relation between visionary leadership and job satisfaction in employees. I deduce the following hypothesis:

H3. The relationship between visionary leadership and job satisfaction is mediated by the commitment to the leader

2.5 Visionary Leadership, Meaningfulness at Work, Commitment to the Leader, and Job Satisfaction

Mainly visionary leadership behaviors include creating an image that articulates the ideal, future, and value-based image that can, in turn, shape the positive conduct of followers (e.g., Shamir et al., 1998; Stam et al., 2010, 2010a). In addition, visionary leadership behaviors comprehend motivating followers, maintaining high expectations and helping followers believe in their ability to achieve those, and handholding followers to see how their work contributes to the large vision picture of the organization (House et al., 1991; Shamir et al., 1993). In a longitudinal, randomized field experiment, Dvir et al. (2002) found that visionary leadership behavior has a positive impact on followers' development and performance. Nanus and Dobbs (1999) explain in their book that leader actions have a significant effect on employee perceptions. Positive leader actions have a more chance of positive employee behavior and improved performance.

The importance of meaningfulness at work has been highlighted in various studies. Meaningfulness at work was revealed to be connected positively with work outcomes such as increased job satisfaction engagement, positive work behaviors, motivation, performance, and well-being (Lysova et al., 2019; Rosso et al., 2010). Another study suggests that Meaningfulness at work is positively related to ethical leadership, well-being, and engagement work, highlighting the purpose of work (Cardona & Beveridge 2019).

Research investigating the antecedents of commitment to supervisor is getting popular among researchers. Commitment to the supervisor is the psychological attachment demonstrated by the employees towards their supervisor (Becker et al., 1996; Clugston et al., 2000). As per the leader-member exchange (LMX) theory, employees indicate a commitment to their supervisor when they are receiving direct and personal support from their supervisors (Dansereau et al.,1975; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Support from the supervisor at different levels is crucial for better commitment (Blau, 2017; Zinta et al., 2011).

Job satisfaction is another widely studied concept (Judge et al., 2001). In general, job satisfaction is a positive affective reaction towards one's job. The most all-inclusive and hence most accepted definition for job satisfaction was given by Locke (1976), which states, "job satisfaction is 'a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job' (p. 1304). Judge et al. (2001) argued that job satisfaction consists of both affective and cognitive components. The affective components are the feelings and emotions of a person (Organ & Near, 1985; Organ & Konovsky, 1989). Although this construct has been studied multiple times in the past, and many researchers have mentioned the antecedents of job satisfaction in previous research, in the organizational behavior literature, considering today's competitive business environment and fast changes, there is a considerable need to study this construct further and add to the literature (Dinc, & Aydemir, 2014). Another critical outcome variable that has been extensively studied in the past is job satisfaction. Many researchers and practitioners have studied job satisfaction from various angles. Steel and Rentsch (1997) mentioned that the job satisfaction in employees stays stable over time. However, some argue that there is a daily fluctuation in satisfaction levels on a day-to-day basis in employees (Bowling et al., 2005). These fluctuations depend on the everyday work life faced by employees (Ilies & Judge, 2002).

Job satisfaction is directly associated with and affected by various job motivators. In theory, job satisfaction has been considered a dependent variable, explained by different factors (Gkolia et al., 2014). Theoretically, job satisfaction has been established on the theory of human motivation by Maslow (1943) and Herzberg (1968), and it remains valid even in today's world.

As mentioned, one of the first theories explaining job satisfaction was Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory (1943), according to which every person has five sets of needs. At the lowest level, the basic needs, i.e., physiological needs such as food, shelter, etc., then comes to the safety needs, followed by belongingness needs which are social recognition needs. The fourth is esteem needs and at the top of the hierarchy is the self-actualization needs. An individual's job satisfaction can be associated with famous Maslow's hierarchy of needs (Pardee, 1990). Maslow states that many organizational factors are needed by an individual; if the needs are fulfilled, then the person feels more satisfied with the working environment and stays committed for a more extended period. He further confirms that organizational factors that contribute to physiological needs are pay, good working conditions, etc. Safety needs are job security, pension, union, etc. Social needs include

cohesive workgroups, friendly supervision, and esteem needs are social recognition and job title. At the same time, self-actualization needs include career advancement and challenging work.

In 1968, Herzberg suggested the two-factor theory. This theory recommends two sets of factors: motivators and hygiene. He explained that job satisfaction at work is a motivator, and dissatisfaction is a consequence of hygiene factors.

Vroom's expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964) assumes that job satisfaction is strongly related to an employee's perception of the outcome of the task and the reward associated with it. When employees understand that a good performance is rewarded and any form, their satisfaction level increases; subsequently, another model by Porter and Lawler (1968) states that for every individual, the reasons for motivation to performance are identified by their perception of induvial task, the means they receive from the job, and the way individuals organize the tasks.

Herzberg's Theory (1968) was argued heavily since if a person is partially satisfied with their job, this does not mean that they are not overall satisfied. Hackman and Oldham (1975, 1976) proposed the Job Characteristics Model to tackle this point. The concept of this model is that it focuses on developing the characteristics of a job that helps enhance motivation, satisfaction, and performance. They suggest that organizations need to focus on five attributes of the job such as task identity, skill variety, autonomy, task significance, and feedback.

The theory of satisfaction based on needs (McClelland, 1985) aims at elaborating an individual's satisfaction with different needs and values. Whereas the Social Exchange Theory (Thibaut & Kelly, 1959) focuses on the social aspects of costs and rewards. Costs generally negatively influence the performance of tasks, such as anxiety, punishment experiences, difficulties of engagement, and rewards such as personal satisfaction, salary, benefits, enhancement of esteem, and social status (Thibaut & Kelley, 1959).

Job satisfaction has been connected to crucial organizational concepts, and it has frequently been an exciting construct for scholars to check its antecedents. In the past, it has been studied in the context of constructs such as turnover, absenteeism, productivity, career mobility, absenteeism, job security, and organizational effectiveness; hence has been an area of focus (Currivan, 1999; Nguni et al., 2006; Van Scooter, 2000). Lawler (1973) defines the term overall job satisfaction as a combination of all the things that employees expect to receive from the job and what they receive

(Evans, 1998). Levi (1967) confirmed that the level of involvement of employees in the decision-making process at work impacts their productivity and job satisfaction. One of the early studies suggests that motivation in individuals results in higher satisfaction (Robbins, 1984). The intrinsic and extrinsic motivation/rewards in the working environment and job position is linked to satisfaction (Li, 1993). Kanter (1977) argued that the employee's present job position or contents does not guarantee the same level of satisfaction even after career development or internal movement in the organization. Absenteeism has been considered an indicator of low job satisfaction (Hackman & Lawler, 1971; Hrebiniak & Roteman, 1973; Porter & Steers, 1973). There can be several reasons leading to job dissatisfaction, one of them is role ambiguity, when workers are confused about their job roles or unclear about the expected behavior at work, leads to role ambiguity and further to job dissatisfaction (Edmonson & Edmonson, 2006; Lee & Schuler, 1982; Wood et al., 2012). Poor LMX or unsupportive work colleagues relationships lead to job dissatisfaction (Amarantidou, 2010; Belias & Koustelios, 2014). In contrast, Job satisfaction positively affects the motivation level of employees (Alzaidi, 2008; Bateman & Organ, 1983; Chang, 2009; Fraser et al., 1998; Menon & Saitis, 2006; Michaelowa, 2002; Obineli, 2013; Ololube, 2006).

Previous studies confirm that job satisfaction predicts organizational commitment (Angle & Perry, 1983; Stevens et al., 1978; Tsai & Huang, 2008; Valaei et al., 2016; Williams & Hazer, 1986; Yang & Chang, 2008). In contrast, some scholars argue that commitment is an antecedent to job satisfaction (Bateman & Strasser, 1984; Curry et al., 1986; Price & Mueller, 1981; Vandenberg & Lance, 1992), as is the case in this study. Hence it is interesting to analyze the directional of the linkage. My study aims to extend the knowledge and shed light on the serial mediation relationships among the four considered variables; that is, meaningfulness at work and commitment to the leader as two mediators in the association between visionary leadership and job satisfaction. The serial mediation model (Hayes, 2012) describes how different mediator variables are connected in a particular way along a chain in the proposed model. Scholars have a consensus that the link between the two constructs can exist, but there can be many arguments on the direction of the relationship. Considering the existing literature, I propose the linkages approach in the most logical way. In order to analyze whether serial mediation analysis can support this chain of effects, the following hypothesis is posited:

H4. The relationship between visionary leadership and job satisfaction is serially mediated by meaningfulness at work and commitment to the leader

2.6 Summary

This chapter highlighted the proposed model of the study in the light of previously recorded articles and journals. Additionally, the hypotheses for the study of my research model were illustrated. From the previous research, some links in the study variables were already found; this chapter discussed the theoretical base of these linkages.

The next chapter, I will discuss the research methodology adopted for this study and the reasoning for using each approach. Till now I have covered, the historical development, theory, and hypotheses relating to variables of the study, i.e., visionary leadership, job satisfaction, meaningfulness at work, and commitment to the leader were studied. Moreover, the connection between the variables was discussed in the purview of previous studies. The next chapter will deal with the concept of the research design and methodology, the research paradigm, population, sample and sampling techniques, methods of data gathering used in this research, data collection procedures, validity, reliability, and ethical considerations in carrying out this study.

3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Research Methodology

Rajasekar et al. (2013) exemplify research methodology as a process in which researchers detail their work and explain their research. It is a systematic procedure to solve problems. It is crucial to create a research methodology as it helps researchers devise a research plan to work efficiently. Saunders et al. (2018) define research as: "a process that people undertake systematically to find out things, thereby increasing knowledge." In line with this definition, this study has followed a systematic process plan and devised a methodology to process existing information and collect data in an attempt to answer the questions raised in the aims and objectives of the study.

Firstly, I carried out a thorough literature review to identify current understanding, practices, and gaps in the visionary leadership area following the other constructs used in the study. The motivation to do this research and the introduction of each study variable are majorly outlined in Chapters one and two. A comprehensive and critical review of the literature was conducted at the initial stage of the research. I tried to establish a strong theoretical base for the study during this process. The literature review covered the definitions of visionary leadership, meaningfulness at work, commitment to the leader, and job satisfaction, existing links between these variables, direction of the relationships, gaps in the existing studies and aim, objectives, and research questions focused on the current study. The source of literature comprises journal articles, books, reports, reviews, and conference proceedings majorly. Searches with the name of the constructs were made using various electronic databases, including Elsevier (Science Direct and SCOPUS), ProQuest, EBSCO, Web of Knowledge, internet search engines (Google Scholar), and the university library catalog. I repeated this process throughout the entire study, which helped me find the crucial authors working in this area and relevant journals along with the existing work already done in the area of study.

In the second stage, the information gathered from the literature review was used to finalize the approach for data collection. This study features quantitative data collection and analysis techniques. I then formulated the study's hypotheses and planned a strategy for data collection. The research methodology and data analysis became the base for chapters three and four, respectively.

In the final stage, I analyzed the gathered data using SPSS tools, and the results were presented. The results of each hypothesis were discussed in chapter five. All the chapters were substantiated with relevant literature.

3.2 Research Approach

The research approach is the process plan for the steps starting from formulating research questions and proceeding to the method of investigation followed by analysis till the interpretation of the result. In general, the three most notable approaches to research are qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods. In this study, I focus on the quantitative approach, which deals with all types of numerical data. The data is measurable and can be used to create statistical analysis and quantify behaviors, attitudes, opinions, and other variables. Quantitative information is collected using questions such as how much, how many, and how often and can be conducted using surveys, interviews, and observation methods (Neuman & Robson, 2014) through a questionnaire in the case of this study.

The questionnaire is a document that contains questions and other types of items to collect information that is used for the analysis and synthesis of different outcomes (Acharya, 2010). There are structured or unstructured types of questionnaires, structured ones contain elaborative questions that are easy to administer, and consistency in answers can be found. These are the most common type of questionnaires used in quantitative studies, as is the case in this study. Moreover, the other type of unstructured contains open-ended questions, which allows respondents to answer freely and share their viewpoints,

3.3 Sampling

Sampling is a focal point in data collection. It is essential to understand that data cannot be collected from all the individuals in a population. Hence sampling needs to be done, which enables the selection of a small subset of the population comprising characteristics of the entire population (Endacott & Botti, 2005). Hence it is vital to choose the right type of sampling method depending on the type of the research. There are two types of sample selection techniques, namely probability and non-probability sampling. The probability sampling technique uses probability theory to select samples from a large population and uses random selection. Non-probability sampling is a sampling technique opposite to probability sampling. It is highly dependent on the judgment of the researcher (Panacek & Thompson, 2007). There are various types of non-probability techniques

involved, such as convenience, purposive, and snowball sampling. The current study uses the purposive sampling method to avoid biases.

3.3.1 Purposive Sampling

Purposive sampling is the researcher's judgmental sample. It is a type of non-probability sample in which the main objective is to select samples that truly represent the population. This can be attained by gathering a deep understanding of the research topic and thorough research on the population (Lavrakas, 2008). This method was chosen for the current study as the participants needed to be under the research criteria.

The survey-based method is used in this study to test the hypotheses. For this purpose, the data was collected from dyads of leaders and followers who have been working together in the working relationship for at least one year. It was a multi-industry study, and these dyads worked in corporate offices, majorly from the private sector in the education, IT, or manufacturing industry. The data was collected in three waves and multi-source. The contacted participants were asked to provide the data of their respective supervisor (leader) or respective team members (follower). The title of the leader ranged from Head of the Department, Vice President, Manager, or Team Lead, and the followers were the one level below employees who directly reported to the supervisor.

These participants were appropriate for this study for two reasons: they had spent at least one-year span in a dyadic relationship that helps in being able to answer the questions about their respective leaders or follower. And secondly, the participants consist of corporate workers who can relate to these concepts and hence are most suitable for studying the chosen variables. Team members were asked to answer questions regarding various independent and dependent variables such as visionary leadership, meaningfulness at work, commitment to their supervisor, and job satisfaction. Two survey versions were distributed, a leader version and a follower version which were sent to them respectively. Both supervisor and team members were asked to provide consent to participate in the survey. They were assured that the data was confidential and secured per European data security standards.

Data were gathered in a time-lagged design at three-time points in the form of waves study from two sources with one month's time gap in each data collection. The reason for collecting data in three waves was that, as per previous research, minimum of three waves is necessary to test actual causal effects in a mediation model (Collins et al., 1998; Cole & Maxwell, 2003). In total, 164 dyads, i.e., 328 people, were provided with an online survey link, designed separately for a

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leader and a follower in the first wave. Each employee was assigned a specific code in order to match the responses of all three waves. Only dyads who had completed the first wave were invited for the second wave, and the ones who finished T2 were invited to participate in the T3 survey. A total of 164 dyads were invited to fill wave two (T2). Finally, 101 dyads completed the survey till the end of the T3 phase. One month as the time lag interval was sufficient considering the model deals with a psychological process and its effects on the employee.

3.4 Participants and Procedure

Participants were given a cover letter, which covered the details of the research, the duration and time, and the plan of the study. Moreover, the purpose and agenda of the study were shared. The participants were asked to share their consent to proceed with the research. Participants were informed that if they wished, they could terminate their involvement at any point in time and for any reason. Additionally, the instructions to complete the survey were provided. The informed and consented participants have shared the link to the questionnaire. For every survey period, email reminders were sent to each participant. Data was collected via the online software Unipark from Questbank. Further analyses were done using SPSS, and Jamovi was used for statistical analyses.

This research is based on data collection from a survey study in three waves (at the distance of one month each) and two source data (i.e., data from leaders and followers). Data were collected through an online survey research platform. An invitation e-mail with a cover letter was sent to all the selected participants. They agreed to participate in the survey and shared their respective supervisor or team members' details. In total, 164 dyads confirmed their interest in participating in the study. The survey link was sent to these participants to complete the questionnaire for T1. Out of the total number of participants who completed the survey, 153 dyads completed the survey and received the invitation for T2 after one month. Out of these, 121 number dyads completed the survey and got invited for T3 after a month's gap. Finally, 101 respondents completed the T3 survey. Hence total of 101 members filled out complete three survey periods, and the overall response rate of the sample was 61.6 %.

Outliers were identified from this sample based on the details, such as age, gender, job description, and personal code that the respondents filled out. I identified six outliers where either of the two details, such as age, job description, and personal code, did not match with the responses gathered in the T1, T2, and T3 survey periods. Hence these six outliers were removed from the

final selection, and a total of 95 respondents were chosen to be further used for data analysis. All the further analyses were performed on this dataset of 95 follower respondents, and the results were presented. The final response rate of this sample was considered 58%.

3.5 Rationale for Using a Survey Research Design

Firstly, survey methods are inexpensive. Despite providing incentives to the respondents, it still proves to be a cost-efficient method compared to other methods. For this study, the respondents were not provided with any incentives; however, they were intrinsically motivated to participate in the study.

Secondly, survey methods provide a broad capability, i.e., it is capable of describing all the characteristics of a large population. This method ensures that even with a smaller number of respondents, the results of the study can be generalized to a larger population.

Thirdly, this method provides a significant level of flexibility. There are various modes possible to conduct a survey, such as online surveys, social media surveys, email surveys, mobile surveys, paper surveys, face-to-face interviews, and telephone surveys. In the current times, it is undoubtedly a huge benefit of this to reach out to a more significant number of respondents.

Lastly, there is high confidentiality and anonymity possible in this method, which allows the respondents to answer honestly and openly, enabling us to receive more accurate data. It is confirmed that when the participants receive a confirmation that the survey is strictly confidential, it increases the chances of them providing accurate data (Anderson, 2017).

Considering all the benefits the survey method offers, I decided to use the technique to collect data for my study.

3.6 Ethical Considerations

The study followed the code of conduct of ethics for research at the University of Potsdam. I adhered to the guidelines of the university throughout my study. According to the approved methods, all sources of data and information used in this research were acknowledged. In addition to these, I took caution to address the ethical principles guiding research concerned with humans, such as confidentiality, privacy, anonymity, no harm, obtaining consent and approval, and termination of research.

• Protecting the participants from hurt, either physical or psychological harm, in case people feel stressed or threatened as retaliation from authorities.

• Informed consent – complete information about the study so that participants were decided for themselves whether they want to participate or not.

• The right to privacy – the personal information of the participants fully confidential; and

• Honesty – the purposes of the research were clarified and transparent.

Before the research, the participants were informed about the nature of the study and that each of those selected had the choice to take part voluntarily. In addition, participants' identity was safe and secured as per European data protection law.

3.7 Measures

All items were measured on a seven-point Likert scale from 1 ("strongly disagree") to 7 ("strongly agree"). When available, I used an existing German translation of the original English items; otherwise, I used the standard translation-back-translation method (Brislin, 1986).

Data were gathered by using questionnaires already used in existing research.

3.7.1 Visionary Leadership

The data for the construct visionary leadership was collected in T1. It is a five-item scale and focuses on the leader's ability to predict and communicate visions about the future. The five items scale consisted of questions such as "talks about the future," "communicates a clear idea about what should be accomplished," "has a clear idea about what the future should look like," "communicates his/her vision of the future," and "states clearly where we are going..." These items were based on a scale from Kearney et al. (2019).

Cronbach alpha (α) for visionary leadership was found to be 0.83.

3.7.2 Meaningful Work

The data for construct meaningfulness work was collected in T2. The scale is adopted from Kirkman and Rosen's (1999) Empowerment scale. The instrument consists of four items under the positive work meaning dimension. The items include "My work is important," "My tasks are worthwhile," "My job is meaningful," and "My work is significant."

Cronbach alpha (α) for the present study was found to be 0.91.

3.7.3 Commitment to the Leader

The data for scale commitment to the leader was collected in T2. Team-level team commitment was assessed with a three items measure adapted from Shapiro and Kirkman's (1999) organizational commitment scale. The items evaluated the extent to which employees agreed or disagreed that they were loyal to the leader. The items included "|I am loyal to my leader," "I hope that I will get the chance to work with my leader for a long time|," and "I trust my leader."

Cronbach alpha (α) for the present study was found to be 0.88.

3.7.4 Job Satisfaction

The data for construct job satisfaction was collected in T3. Job satisfaction was measured using a five items scale developed based on a subscale from the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire (Cammann et al., 1979). Each subordinate evaluated their job satisfaction. The items included "All in all, I am satisfied with my job," "My job satisfaction is high," "In general, I don't like my job," "In general, I like working here," and "I like my work." In general, the items captured the degree to which the employees were satisfied and enjoyed working.

The Cronbach alpha for the scale was 0.45. Considering that this score does not confirm the scale's reliability, I looked for options to improve the reliability. In the beginning, the deviation of each item was checked, and it was found that item number three (reverse scored) did not match and reflected a high deviation. The logical reason for this would be that this is the only negative item on the scale; there is a chance that it was misread due to similarity in the items and hence the high deviation. As suggested by Raykov (2007), I decided to delete this item from the analysis and conducted the reliability analysis once again, which significantly improved the Cronbach alpha for the scale to 0.91. For all further analyses, a new factor was computed by omitting item three from the scale, and the results are presented.

3.7.5 Control Variables

The study sample consists of a wide range of different industries and job roles from diverse organizations. Task complexity was regarded as a control variable, considering such diversity in

the job roles of the sample. It was rated by followers in T1, assessing the complexity of tasks performed by the followers. Task complexity was measured by a three items scale developed by Morgeson and Humphrey's (2006) Work Design Questionnaire. The items included such as "My work tasks are demanding," "My work tasks are difficult," "My work tasks are complex," and "My work tasks go far beyond simple routine work." Cronbach's alpha was 0.82.

Second, to eliminate the possibility that the hypothesized outcomes might have been caused due to the job characteristics, I controlled follower workload (as suggested by Wirtz & Rigotti, 2020) (rated by followers at T1) as another control variable. Follower's workload was measured on a six-item scale (Illies et al., 2007). The items included, "The workload is high, I have too much work to do, I have to work under time pressure, I have a lot of unfinished work piled up, I have to work fast, I have to work extra hard to finish tasks." For this scale, Cronbach's alpha was 0.90.

Finally, to rule out the possibility of results being influenced by the demographic factors as suggested by scholars, I decided to control age (e.g., Antoniou et al., 2006; Kanfer & Ackerman, 2004) and gender (e.g., Banihani et al., 2013; Posig & Kickul, 2004). Additionally, actual working hours of followers were controlled as the amount of time spent at work together between a leader, and follower may affect the outcome (e.g., the longer their interaction- the stronger the effect) (as suggested by Wirtz & Rigotti, 2020). These three variables were assessed using a single item rated by followers at T1. Followers responded with their age and gender and selected their actual working hours on a range scale.

3.8 Data Analysis

Data analysis is a process of systematic application of statistical and logical techniques to specify, describe, summarize, and evaluate data (Steneck, 2007). The qualitative data analysis accounts for the statistical procedure, which is repeated throughout the research and analyzed simultaneously. In qualitative research, the analysis of data can be critical to be able to identify the typical pattern in the collected data and be able to meet the objectives of the research (Dudovskiy, 2018). Alternatively, in quantitative data analysis, quantified data is collected, which needs to be further critically interpreted to be able to find the meaning of the results seen. It is essential to be able to find a link or comparison between research and the reviewed literature.

3.9 Analytical Approach

This study theorizes that visionary leadership is related to job satisfaction first through meaningfulness at work and then through a commitment to the leader. In this study, I am "Integrating the two models with mediation," i.e., serial mediation with two mediators, as depicted in Figure 1.3 (Hayes, 2013; Van Jaarsveld et al., 2010). The PROCESS macro (Hayes, 2013) was used to evaluate mediation effects. It is assessed with the help of a cross-sectional survey technique and regression analysis with bootstrapping (Tongchaiprasit & Ariyabuddhiphongs, 2016). The investigation was conducted in two steps as below.

3.9.1 Preliminary Analysis

Before conducting subsequent analysis, I first analyzed the demographic overview of respondents, such as the follower's age, experience level, industry, and location. The respective descriptive statistics for the followers are presented in the next chapter. Later, means, standard deviations, and reliability estimates were computed for each scale: visionary leadership, meaningfulness at work, commitment to the leader, and job satisfaction. I also conducted a correlations analysis; the results are presented in the next chapter.

3.9.2 Quantitative Analysis

In the second stage, a serial mediation analysis was conducted. A serial mediation model was tested, in which visionary leadership (X) would lead to job satisfaction in employees (Y) via first mediator meaningfulness at work (M1) and commitment to the leader (M2). As per this model, the direct and indirect effects of the independent variable on the dependent variable via two mediators were checked. This section presents and analyses quantitative data obtained through a questionnaire using SPSS quantitative data analysis software. Additionally, the direction of the mediation and parallel mediation, if any, were tested; the results are mentioned in the Appendix.

All analyses were conducted using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), Version 25, considering the multilevel nature of this model. I used Pearson's product-moment correlations to confirm the relationships between the studied variables. Bivariate correlations were used on the total sample. Serial Multivariate Mediation Analyses Model 6, from PROCESS macro for SPSS, Version 2.16, was used to check the mediation model (Hayes & Scharkow, 2013). The model involves testing the serial and nonlinear mediation effects from visionary leadership to job satisfaction and meaningfulness at work with the commitment to the leader as a mediator. Hayes

and Preacher (2010) introduced a procedure to analyze nonlinear mediation effects. Preacher et al. (2007) and Hayes and Scharkow (2013) suggested models for testing multiple serial mediations.

3.10 Measurement Model

To establish the validity of the research measurement model, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted. CFA is used to determine whether the predicted structure is present in the dataset in cases where a strong link regarding the structure is apparent to the researcher (Brown, 2015). To test discriminant validity of four study variables (i.e., visionary leadership, meaningfulness at work, commitment to the leader, and job satisfaction), CFA of all 16 items that compose all variables was performed. This analysis was performed using R-based statistical software Jamovi, which is an emerging statistical software among social scientists. The model confirmed an adequate fit to the observed data.

3.10.1 Serial Mediations

There is a bit of a change in the sample size across models, as all respondents did not answer every measure that was utilized in the study. A serial mediation allows many possible associations to try between the study variables. Firstly, it helps to determine the indirect effect of the dependent variable on the independent variable through one or both mediators. In correlation and multiple regression techniques, serial mediation has been seen to have numerous advantages over other approaches (Preacher & Hayes, 2008).

Secondly, the serial mediation model sanctions identify the extent to which the mediator contributes to the relationship between independent and dependent variables.

Thirdly, serial mediation reduces the chance of parameter bias which occurs due to excluded variables, as it allows for a cluster of the potential confounding variables in the model.

Lastly, in PROCESS macro, bootstrapping was used for serial mediation analyses as recommended by Preacher and Hayes (2008). This method is an effective resampling technique that enables the estimation of resampled data size. It involves taking a sample size of 'n' cases from the original sample size and then it repeats the process 5,000 times.

3.10.2 Bootstrapping

The bootstrapping methodology was performed to verify the significance of the indirect effect of visionary leadership on job satisfaction (Shrout & Bolger, 2002). After the bootstrapping and measurement model tests, I investigated the sequential mediation effect of meaningfulness at

work and commitment to the leader between perceived visionary leadership and job satisfaction. It mainly helps the smaller sample size study like this one, as bootstrapping samples with replacement increases the prospects of the empirical distribution of data to be closer to the actual distribution in the entire population. This method permits for more accurate estimates.

3.10.3 Common Source Variance

As for both independent and dependent variables in this study, the considered data was from the same source, and the ways of reducing the effects of common method variance were considered. Common method bias refers to "variance that is attributable to the measurement method rather than through the constructs the measures represent" (Podsakoff et al., 2003). This bias may run the risk of an inflated or deflated relationship between the independent and dependent variables. To minimize and address the common method bias, I used a few of the recommendations suggested by Podsakoff et al. (2003) in this study.

Firstly, the ex-ante approach was incorporated in the research design stage itself. The approach illustrates assuring participants of the study with anonymity and confidentiality. For the study, the participants were assured that there were no correct or incorrect answers and that they should answer as honestly as possible in the survey. These procedures should "reduce people's evaluation apprehension and make them less likely to edit their responses to be more socially desirable, lenient, acquiescent and consistent with how the researcher wants them to respond" (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

The second proven method for reducing common method bias is the temporal separation of the independent and dependent variables. This approach suggests the use of a longitudinal design (see Taris & Menard, 2008). In this study, a longitudinal study with a gap of one month period interval between each construct was followed; independent variables in T1, mediators in T2, and a dependent variable in T3 were collected. There is strong evidence that it reduces common method bias (e.g., Lindell & Brandt, 2000).

Finally, the ex-post approach was implemented after the data collection. During the statistical analysis, I used procedures to determine if common method bias was a problem and if there was a need to control it. As suggested by Chang et al. (2010) and Posakoff et al. (2003), Harman's single-factor test was performed to measure the extent of common method bias in the

data. Still, no significant results were found (see the Results section). Hence this was not much of a concern.

3.11 Summary

This chapter provided an overview of the research methodology and procedures used to acquire and analyze empirical evidence to determine the association between visionary leadership and job satisfaction with two mediators' meaningfulness at work and commitment to the leader. The chapter explains why and how qualitative methodology was adopted for this research study.

The results from qualitative data analysis are discussed in the next chapter. In the next chapter, I attempted to explain the methodological approach and procedure employed to collect data in my research. Additionally, a description of the research paradigm, the research design, and the rationale for using these methods for collecting data are discussed. Moreover, the ethical issues that followed in the study have been clarified. The next chapter deals with using quantitative data analysis techniques to present, analyze, and interpret data collected through survey mechanisms. This chapter aims to analyze the data after intervention and explain the perspective of analysis to exhibit the change gained by visionary leadership on chosen constructs.

4 DATA ANALYSIS

4.1 Results

The results of several analyses conducted in this study are recorded below

4.1.1 Demographic Data

The demographic factors relevant to the study are given below, such as age, gender, industry, and location. The first is the age of respondents, i.e., subordinates in this study are shown in Table 4.1, which ranges between 20 to 50.

TABLE 4.1

Age of Respondents

Age group	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
20 to 29	38	40.1	40.1	40.1
30 to 39	46	48.1	48.1	88.2
40 to 49	8	8.5	8.5	96.7
50 +	3	3.3	3.3	100.0
Total	95	100.0	100.0	

The results indicate that the respondents were old enough to answer the questions, although almost 88% were less than 40 years of age. As reflected in Table 4.1, the highest frequency lies in the class interval of 30 to 39, accounting for 48.1% of the respondents, followed by 20-29, which accounts for 40.1%. It was found that eight subordinates were between the age group 40 to 49, accounting for 8.5%. The smallest group is in the range of above 50, which accounts for only 3%. These figures confirm that most of the subordinates were found to fall into the millennial generation category of the age group 20 to 39.

The gender of the respondents is given in Table 4.2 below, listed as male and female.

TABLE 4.2

Gender of the Respondents

Gender	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Male	61	64.2	64.2	64.2
Female	34	35.8	35.8	100.0
Total	95	100.0	100.0	

As per the data collected, 61 respondents were male, accounting for 64.2% of the total follower population. Moreover, 34 respondents were females accounting for 35.8% of the follower's population.

The respondents were full-time employees in different sectors. Table 4.3 below depicts the industry of respondents.

TABLE 4.3

Industry of Respondents

Industry list	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Manufacturing	26	28.7	28.7	28.7
IT and software	18	19.8	19.8	48.5
Education and research	51	51.5	51.5	100.0
Total	95	100.0	100.0	

The table captures the data of the industry details the respondents are working. As per the table, the majority of follower respondents accounting for 51.5%, belong to the education and research industry. These respondents are research assistants working at different universities. They were followed by 26 respondents from the manufacturing industry, accounting for 28.7% of the total follower population. The least number of respondents belong to the IT and software industry, measuring 19.8% of the total follower population.

The study was majorly focused on the Asian continent, mainly countries such as India and Pakistan. Table 4.4 identifies the location of the respondents

TABLE 4.4

Location of the Respondents

Country List	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
IN – India	32	33.7	33.7	33.7
PK – Pakistan	50	52.6	52.6	86.3
Others	13	13.7	13.7	100.0
Total	95	100.0	100.0	

The table summarises the location details of the respondents. As per the findings from this table, it is evident that most of the followers account for 86.3% of the respondents who come from the Asian continent, primarily from countries India and Pakistan. The remaining 13.7% mainly consists of NRI (Non-resident Indians) working in different parts of the world, such as Germany (5), Denmark (1), Oman (4), Thailand (1), Australia (1), and Malaysia (1) total 13 members.

The respondents of this study were dyads of leader and follower. Although the responses from the leaders were not considered in this study, I thought it would be interesting to understand the demographics of the participated leaders, such as age and gender, as described in Table 4.5: Age of the respondents (leader).

TABLE 4.5

Age of the Respondents (Leader)

Leader Age	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
25 to 40	54	52.8	53.3	53.3
41 to 49	22	24.1	24.3	77.6
50 to 59	15	17.6	17.8	95.3
60+	4	4.6	4.7	100.0
Total	95	100.0		

The above table illustrates the age of the leaders who participated in the study. As stated in the above table, more than half, 52.8%, of the leaders are 25 to 40 years of age. Twenty-two leaders accounting for 24.1% of the total leader population, are between the age range 41 to 49. Between the age range of 51 to 59, a total of 15 participants account for 17.6% of the leader population. The most minor four participants were 60+ of age accounting for 4.6%.

The gender of the leader is given in Table 4.6 below.

TABLE 4.6

Gender of the Respondents (Leader)

Leader Gender	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Male	87	88.0	88.0	88.0
Female	8	12.0	12.0	100.0
Total	95	100.0	100.0	

As seen in the table, the maximum leader who participated in the study consists of a male at 88%, and eight female leaders participated in the study comprising 12% in total.

The leader sample included participants working in the education, manufacturing, and IT industries. And the highest numbers belong to the Asian continent, mainly India and Pakistan countries, similar to the follower's data. Thus, the sample includes a wide variety of occupations.

4.1.2 Means, Standard Deviation, and Correlations

Table 4.7 represents means, standard deviation, and correlation amongst the study variables, including control variables.

TABLE 4.7

Descriptive Statistics

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1 Age	32.16	7.22	1								
2 Gender	1.36	0.48	-0.15	1							
3 Actual working hours	38.13	14.49	0.11	-.27**	1						
4 Follower workload	4.56	1.34	0.07	-0.14	0.15	1					
5 Task Complexity	4.77	1.22	0.18	-0.14	.23*	.53**	1				
6 Visionary Leadership	5.58	0.96	-0.15	0.06	-0.05	-0.53	0.10	1			
7 Meaningfulness at work	6.12	1.00	0.07	0.11	-0.16	-0.01	0.13	.27**	1		
8 Commitment to Leader	5.97	1.02	-0.14	-0.01	-.28*	-0.15	-0.12	.52**	.46**	1	
9 Job Satisfaction	5.51	1.14	-0.03	0.06	-0.14	-0.01	-0.05	.42**	.60**	.59**	1
Valid N (listwise)	95										

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

As seen in the table, the correlations between the variables are significant. This table lends support to the suggested study model. The correlation between visionary leadership and followers' job satisfaction is moderately positive, i.e., r=0.42, p<.01. As expected, the correlation between visionary leadership and meaningfulness at work is again positively modest (r=0.27, p<.01), and with a commitment to the leader is positively significant (r=0.52, p<.01). Additionally, meaningfulness at work and commitment to the leader is significantly positively correlated to job satisfaction, which can be seen at (r=0.60, p<.01) and (r=0.59, p<.01), respectively. The control variables did not show any significant correlation with study variables; hence it was not much concern. Therefore, they were not considered for further analysis.

4.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

To investigate the discriminant validity of the measures used in my study, I used confirmatory factor analysis (CFA; Hu & Bentler, 1999). This step would confirm if the measurement model had an adequate fit. This fit was analyzed using Jamovi (Version 2.2) (jamovi project, 2021) based on R (Core Team, 2021). All the variables in my study were rated by single-source, i.e., followers; hence first, I tested the expected four-factor model with visionary leadership, meaningfulness at work, commitment to the leader, and job satisfaction to check the potential common method bias. The results yielded (x2(98) =154; CFI=0.95; RMSEA=0.07; SRMR=0.05) which is an adequate fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999). In total, there were 16 items. In the next step, I conducted a fit for the three-factor model. I combined the items of visionary leadership and meaningfulness at work in one factor, and the analysis yielded the results (x2(101) =345; CFI=0.78; RMSEA=0.15; SRMR=0.15). Further, I tested a two-factor model which exhibited results (x2(103) =501; CFI=0.63; RMSEA=0.20; SRMR=0.12). Comparing the results of these models, it became evident that the four-factor model yielded the best results compared to the three or two-factor models. Hence the results confirm the validity of my presented study model.

4.2.1 Results of the Measurement Model

As discussed earlier in this study, there is a possibility of common method variance (CMV) due to self-report measures. Harman's single factor test was performed using SPSS software to analyze CMV in the collected data (Podsakoff et al., 2003). The results indicated that items loaded onto multiple factors, and the total variance of these factors was 45.3%. The most significant factor

accounted for a 45.3% variance. These numbers indicated that the common method variance was not an issue (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

4.3 Quantitative Analysis

Research question one: What effect do visionary leaders have on the perceived job satisfaction of followers in a direct leader-follower relationship?

The model was tested with PROCESS macro with a bootstrapping procedure that generated a sample size of 5,000 (Hayes, 2009) to address this question designed to operate with SPSS 27. This approach included repeatedly sampling from the data set with replacement to estimate the sampling distribution of the conditional effects and produce confidence intervals for these effects. This effect is considered significant if in case the confidence interval does not include zero in between them. The results are reflected in Tables 4.8 and 4.9 on X's direct and indirect effects on Y, respectively.

Research questions two and three: What impact does meaningfulness at work have on the relationship between visionary leadership and followers' job satisfaction among middle/senior-level managers and subordinates in India and Pakistan's education, manufacturing, and IT industries? And what impact does commitment to the leader have on the relation between visionary leadership and followers' job satisfaction among the millennial age group in the region?

Hypotheses two and three are based on these research questions. To test these hypotheses, I used serial mediation model number six in SPSS. As per the model, visionary leadership is independent variable X, two mediators meaningfulness at work M1 and commitment to the leader M2 and dependent variable job satisfaction Y. Bootstrapping 5000 was used to generate repetitive sampling confidence intervals. The results are illustrated in Table 4.8; visionary leadership and job satisfaction are mediated by meaningfulness at work and commitment to the leader.

Research question four: How do both meaningfulness at work and commitment to the leader interact and affect the relationship between visionary leadership and job satisfaction?

Hypothesis four was based on this question. All the study variables were tested in the model to check if it was a good fit. It was analyzed using Jamovi, an R-based statistical software. As the results confirmed in Table 4.8, a path linking X to M1 to M2 to Y was measured in a time lag study. So, a clear distinction of T1 to T2 to T3 each at a month's lag. The model fit of this study is

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illustrated in Table 4.9 Results of the measurement model, wherein the measured comparative fit index (CFI) is 0.95. Tucker–Lewis index (TLI) measured is 0.94, and the root means the square error of approximation (RMSEA) is 0.08.

In Model one, the total effect (c = 0.50, 95% CI: [0.28, 0.72]) between visionary leadership on job satisfaction without the presence of this study's serial multiple mediators was seen to be significant. In Model two (three-path mediation model), in the presence of multiple serial mediators, meaningfulness at work, and commitment to the leader, there was a drop seen in the direct effect (c′ = 0.16, 95% CI: [-0.04, 0.36]) between perceived visionary leadership and job satisfaction. Hence, Hypothesis H1 is accepted. The individual path coefficients between the constructs are significant since the 95% CI does not contain zero (see Table 4.9 and Figure 4.1). The reduction in the direct effect (c′) and the significant individual paths suggest the indirect impact of visionary leadership on job satisfaction through meaningfulness at work and commitment to the leader.
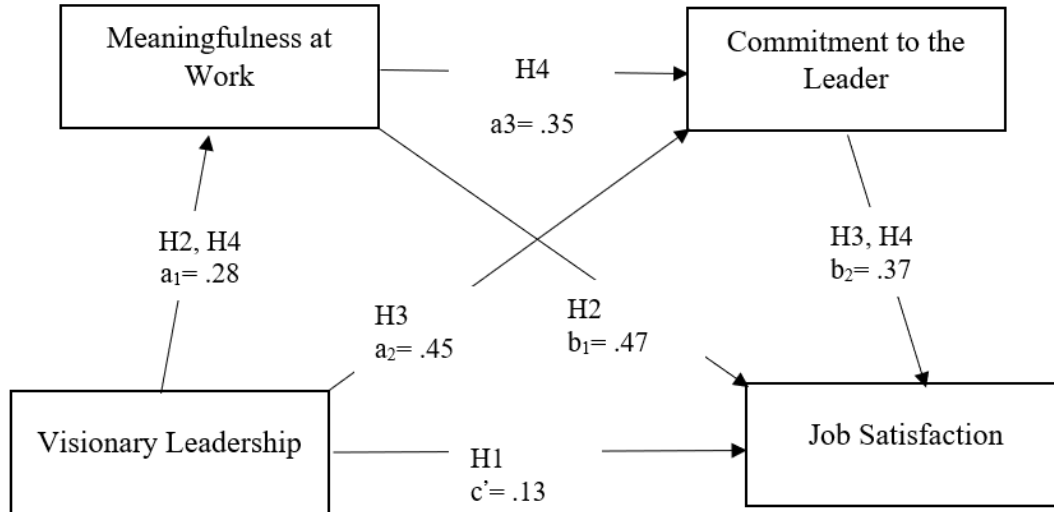
FIGURE 4.1

Three-path Mediation Model

(a) Model 1 – Total Effect Model

(b) Model 2 – Three-path Mediation Model

(a)

Meaningfulness at Work

H4

Commitment to the Leader

a3= .35

H2, H4
a₁= .28

H3, H4
b₂= .37

H3
a₂= .45

H2
b₁= .47

Visionary Leadership

H1
c'= .13
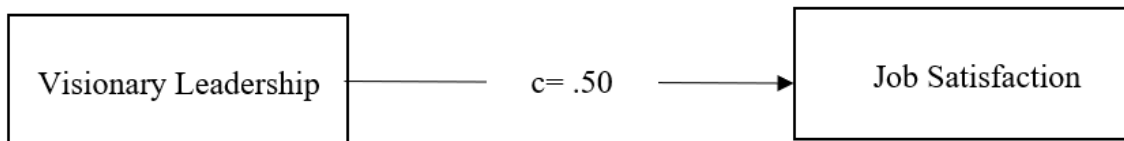
Job Satisfaction

(b)

Notes: ***p < .001, **p < .01 and *p < .05.

H1 = Visionary leadership -- Job satisfaction = c'.

H2 = Visionary leadership -- Meaningfulness at work -- Job satisfaction = a1b1.

H3 = Visionary leadership -- Commitment to the leader -- Job satisfaction = a2b2.

H4 = Visionary leadership -- Meaningfulness at work -- Commitment to the leader-- Job satisfaction = a1a3b2.

The indirect effect of visionary leadership on job satisfaction through meaningfulness at work (H2: a1b1 = 0.13, 95% CI: [0.02,0.28]), and commitment to the leader (H3: a2b2 = 0.17, 95% CI: [0.47, 0.33]), and serial multiple mediation of meaningfulness at work and commitment to the leader (H4: a1a3b2 = 0.04, 95% CI: [0.01, 0.08]) were significant as 95% CI does not include zero (see Table 4.9). The results illustrate a partial mediation effect of multiple serial mediators, meaningfulness at work, and commitment to the leader in the visionary leadership and job satisfaction linkage.

TABLE 4.8

Direct Effects

Relationships	Model 1 **Total effect model** **Effect (t value) [LLCI, ULCI]** $R^2_{JS}= 0.18$	Model 2 **Three path mediation model** **Effect (t value) [LLCI, ULCI]** $R^2_{JS}= 0.51, f^2 =0.67$
VL- JS (H1)	c=0.50***(4.47) [0.28, 0.71]	c'=0.16*** (1.55) [-0.04,0.36]
VL- MW (a_1)		0.28*** (2.72) [0.08, 0.49]
VL- CL (a_2)		0.45*** (4.97) [0.27, 0.63]
MW- CL (a_3)		0.35*** (3.98) [0.17, 0.52]
MW- JS (b_1)		0.47*** (4.98) [0.28, 0.66]
CL- JS (b_2)		0.37*** (3.61) [0.17, 0.58]

Notes: VL – visionary leadership, MW – meaningfulness at work, CL – commitment to the leader and JS – job satisfaction.

R2 – predictive accuracy and f2 – effect size. t values in parentheses.

Bootstrapping 95% CIs in square brackets (based on n = 5,000 subsamples),

***p < .001, **p < .01, *p < .05, ns: not significant [based on t (4,999), two-tailed test)].

t (0.05, 4,999) = 1.96, t (0.01, 4,999) = 2.57 and t (0.001, 4,999) = 3.29.

TABLE 4.9

TABLE 4.9

Indirect Effects

| Indirect path	Indirect effect*	Boot SE	Bootstrap 95% Confidence level	
			Lower	Upper
H2 VL-MW-JS= a_1b_1	0.13	0.06	0.02	0.28
H3 VL-CL-JS= a_2b_2	0.17	0.07	0.05	0.33
H4 VL-MW-CL-JS= $a_1a_3b_2$	0.04	0.02	0.01	0.08

Notes: VL – visionary leadership, MW – meaningfulness at work, CL – commitment to the leader, and JS – job satisfaction.

*Standardized results from PROCESS Macro. Bootstrapped for 5,000 samples, and Boot SE – bootstrapped standard error.

The predictive accuracy or coefficient of determination R^2 of job satisfaction was 0.1769 in the total effect model. In the three-path mediated model (Table 4.8), the R^2 of job satisfaction has increased to 0.51. The effect size, f^2 of the multiple serial mediators on job satisfaction, was calculated manually. The effect size (f^2) is a function of the change in the predictive accuracy of job satisfaction R^2_{JS} in the presence and absence of mediators. As indicated in Table 4.8, the three-path mediation achieved an effect size f^2 of 0.67 is higher than the significant effect threshold of 0.40 (Cohen, 1988). The large effect size illustrates the impact of multiple serial mediators on job satisfaction, confirming the serial multiple mediation Hypothesis H4. Results are summarized in Figure 4.2 Path Diagram as below.

FIGURE 4.2

Path Diagram
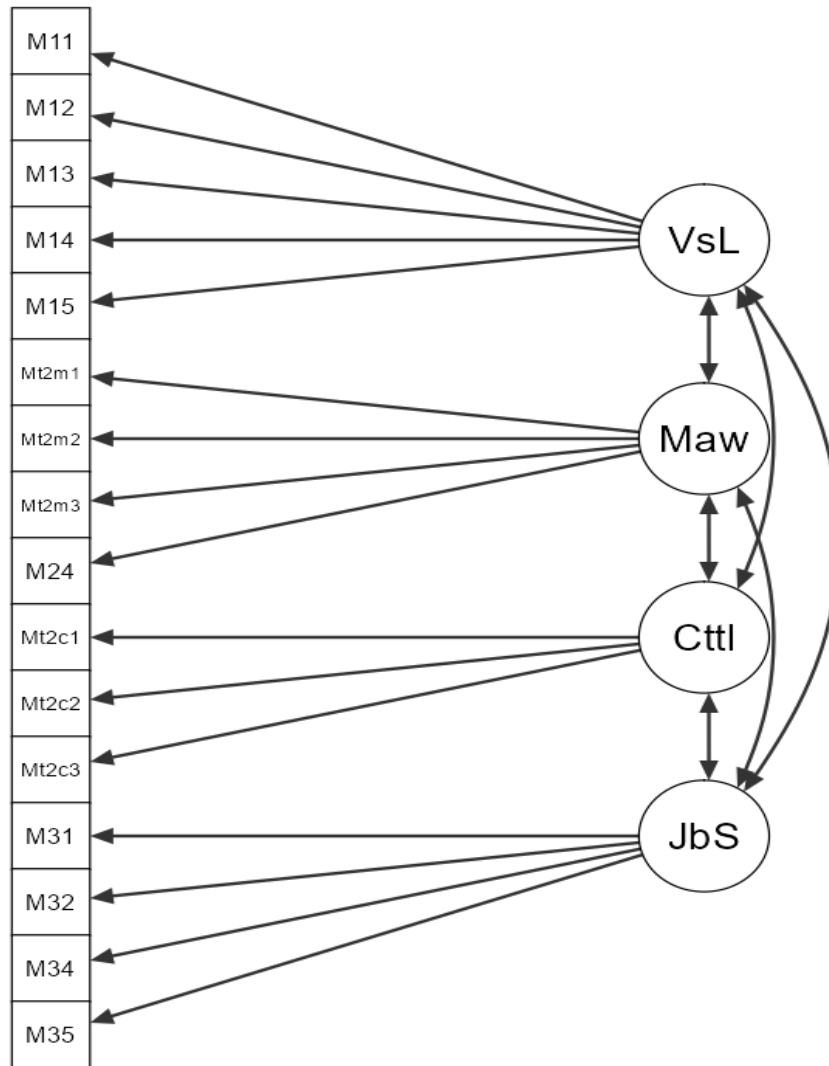
4.4 Summary

This chapter dealt with the serial mediation process in detail and discussed the data presentation, analysis, and interpretation. This chapter describes in detail the effect of visionary leadership on job satisfaction and the mediator's impact on the overall relationship.

In this chapter, I presented the results of my empirical study. In the discussion part, I made an attempt to relate the results of the data analysis and prove the hypotheses. The results reflected

that there is a direct positive relation between visionary leadership and job satisfaction with serial mediation from meaningfulness at work and commitment to the leader. Finally, the findings indicated that with improvement in leadership style and with the help of the use of mediators such as meaningfulness at work and commitment to the leader, higher job satisfaction in employees can be achieved.

The next chapter presents the summary of the study, discussion, and recommendations. In this final chapter, I will deal with the general summary, discussion, and recommendations for the study. In this chapter, I will discuss the results of my research conducted in a detailed manner. Additionally, I summarize the findings of all the hypotheses of the study along with theoretical support. Mainly in this final chapter, I also focus on the limitations of the current research and future study recommendations.

5 DISCUSSION

5.1 Summary of Study

The main aim of this study was to identify the relationship between the study variables visionary leadership and job satisfaction and assess the effect of mediators meaningfulness at work and commitment to the leader. The general objective of this study was to investigate and describe the role of visionary leadership in an organizational setting and find ways in how positive visionary leadership can improve job satisfaction in followers. The study was conducted in three waves. In the first wave study, the data was collected about followers' perceptions of the visionary leadership practiced in the organization. After one month, in the second wave, the data on the follower's perception of meaningfulness at work and commitment to the leader was collected from the same dyad of the leader and followers. But from only those who had completed the first study survey. Lastly, in the third wave, the data on followers' perceptions about job satisfaction were collected.

The initiation of this study was with the quest to learn in detail about the study variables with the help of a thorough literature review and find out the causal relationship between them. This study recognized minimal exposure and interrelation, especially in terms of the mediators meaningfulness at work and commitment to the leader. It identifies and responds to the recent call for work around this area. Furthermore, the study was motivated by the challenges employees face with their managers/leaders in the organization, challenges with low commitment, low satisfaction, or lower meaning perceived at work. These challenges are prevalent in organizations at all levels; I reflected on this by analyzing my past and present experience and by observations regarding leadership and management in multiple countries where I worked.

The following primary research questions guided this study:

1. What effect do visionary leaders have on the perceived job satisfaction of followers in a direct leader-follower relationship?
2. What impact does meaningfulness at work have on the relationship between visionary leadership and followers' job satisfaction among middle/senior-level managers and subordinates in India and Pakistan's education, manufacturing, and IT industries?

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3. What impact does commitment to the leader have on the relation between visionary leadership and followers' job satisfaction among the millennial age group in the region?

4. How do both meaningfulness at work and commitment to the leader interact and affect the relationship between visionary leadership and job satisfaction?

To find satisfactory answers to the questions above, I take support from the JDR theory. The JDR theory explains the model and concept of work engagement-related factors such as performance, motivation, and job satisfaction (Albrecht et al., 2015). The JDR theory proposed by Bakker et al. (2014) is the most cited in this field. It discusses how job resources such as leadership, supervisor support, meaning at work, etc., and personal resources such as commitment, self-efficacy, etc., directly influence work engagement and job satisfaction, which in turn affects organizational outcomes and financial gains. These resources vitalize work engagement, as defined by Schaufeli et al. (2006, p. 702): "A positive, full feeling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption."

I employed a quantitative approach using the survey method to carry out this study. Data gathering was done with the help of a questionnaire in a three-wave study. Each wave was planned one month apart. The independent variable was measured in the first wave, and both the mediators in the second wave and the dependent variable were measured in the last wave.

Accordingly, in Chapter one: the introduction and background of the study were presented. The statement of the problem, the significance of this study, and definitions of basic terms studied in the study were presented. Subsequently, the research model of my study was developed, research questions were formulated, and the organization of this study was presented.

Chapter two: deals with the theoretical background of the researched problem. The research model based on combined JDR and broaden-and-build theories is explained in detail. The hypotheses are structured in this chapter along with the existing literature review; the emergence and development of the concept of visionary leadership, meaningfulness at work, commitment to the leader, and job satisfaction were discussed. Moreover, this chapter discussed the existing theory and link associated with study variables and the reasoning for choosing these variables for the study. The chapter also assessed the research conducted by prominent scholars.

Chapter three: highlights the research design and methodology employed in this study. Moreover, procedures for data analysis, measures, and ethical considerations were treated in this chapter.

Chapter four: presented the analysis of the quantitative data collected by questionnaire. The presented data were analyzed using SPSS quantitative data analysis software and Jamovi, an R-based qualitative data analysis software. The different types of analyses and correlations between the study variables were presented.

Chapter five: is the final chapter, comprising a summary of the study and a discussion around each assumed hypothesis. My study's contributions to the field and existing literature are discussed, along with practical contributions directly related to different stakeholders like leaders, HR professionals, management, and researchers. Finally, suggestions for further study with focus areas to be researched were identified for those interested in exploring this field.

5.2 General Discussion

The objectives of this study were first to be able to find the relationship between visionary leadership and job satisfaction and second to test the mediator role of meaningfulness at work and commitment to the leader in a serial mediation model.

The first hypothesis stated that visionary leadership would positively predict job satisfaction. This hypothesis was confirmed, as results disclosed a positive and significant link between visionary leadership and job satisfaction. These results are consistent with the previous research on visionary leadership in the workplace, which harmoniously illustrated a substantial relationship with job satisfaction (Lok & Crawford, 2004; Medley & Larochelle, 1995). In this respect, this study adds to the existing literature on visionary leadership and reconfirms these assumptions.

Nanus (1992) suggested four pivotal roles that visionary leaders must perform as a leader. The first is the 'direction setter' role. In this role, the leader's vision that leader has needed to be communicated to the followers in such a way that they are convinced with the idea, get motivated towards it, and together help achieve the vision, supporting the followers by giving them direction to go and deliver remains the most important task. Second, being the 'change agent.' In the external environment, there are continuous changes such as political, economic, social, and technological.

An effective leader needs to adapt to the change rapidly and even predict the potential changes to get the followers ready to cope with it. The forward-thinking ability and flexibility of the leader play a decisive role here. The third is the 'spokesperson.' Communication is the key at all levels in the organization, especially in the case of leaders, as they need to use all forms of communication to get the message out. An effective leader can motivate the followers by conveying the message in the most exciting, beneficial, and comforting way internally and externally to project the organization's plans. Fourth, the 'coach.' Effective leaders are good coaches, and they impart the knowledge to their 'players' to cooperate and perform by optimizing their potential. It is also essential to build trust, hope, and direction to reach the final goal (Nanus, 1992). As per Avery (2004), the concept of visionary leadership is established on positive emotion and, most importantly, shared vision.

Visionary leadership provides a high amount of autonomy to the followers, and this style is more effective than the transactional leadership style; this was earlier claimed by Bass (1985) and later proved in a meta-analysis by Wang et al. (2011). Essentially, the effects of visionary leadership were studied on important diverse outcomes such as job satisfaction (Emery & Barker, 2007; Braun et al., 2013); for financial performance (Idris & Ali, 2008; customer satisfaction (Chuang et al., 2012); staff tenure (Tse et al., 2013); and on SME performance (Engelen et al., 2015). Visionary leaders have the ability to perform and make decisions under pressure or great uncertainty in challenging situations (Foss & Ishikawa, 2007; Siqueira & Bruton, 2010). These individuals are mainly goal-oriented, innovative, proactive, risk-takers, and possess excellent communication skills (Rowe, 2001; Westley & Mintzberg, 1989).

Efficient, visionary leaders have a reputation for outperforming in adverse conditions and remain focused and committed to their visions (Tellis, 2006; Tellis & Golder, 1996). They are masters at building trust, demonstrating empathy, and endlessly innovating the targets, strategies, policies, structures, etc., along with aligning the organizational visions and goals (Sashkin & Rosenbach, 1998; Tarabishy et al., 2005). They are competent decision-makers. In short, Kahn (2002) summarizes that visionary leaders have the ability and competence that translates into future success. Visionary leaders instill self-confidence in their followers and empower them to achieve goals while transforming the organization to capture higher success (Sashkin & Rosenbach, 1999). Sashkin (1996) argued that "visionary leadership is both a matter of degree and an area in which one's basic potential may be greater than one's current assignment requires" (p. 28). Pugh (1998)

suggests that visionary leadership is a process that develops a long-term strategic plan on how the organization should look in the future with the help of its vision. First, the vision is just an idea, but with their efforts and by effectively communicating the vision and enabling the organizational members, they bring the vision into reality.

Job satisfaction is an amalgamation of employees' positive and negative feelings towards their work. Simultaneously employees working in business organizations have expectations related to needs, desires, and the experience they bring with them to carry out the job. Job satisfaction is also the fulfillment or dismissal of these expectations. If the expectations are fulfilled, the job satisfaction is higher and otherwise low. It is closely linked to the individual's behavior in the workplace (Davis et al., 1985). In the same working environment, the extent of job satisfaction level is varied in a set of employees as the personal feelings and beliefs also account for job satisfaction in addition to job attitude. Employees have attitudes towards several aspects of the job, including the job itself, their supervisor, coworkers, pay, etc. (George et al., 2008). If they have a positive and pleasant feeling about these aspects, their attitude toward work can be termed job satisfaction. Otherwise, in case of negative and unpleasant feelings at work is job dissatisfaction. Vroom (1962), one of the early scientists studying this phenomenon, suggested that job satisfaction has seven factors leading to it such as their compensation, supervisor, colleagues, working environment, job content, promotion opportunities, and the organization itself.

Job satisfaction is an emotional phase by assessing the pleasant and positive aspects of work and a person's experiences at work (Susanty et al., 2013). Job satisfaction is also a response of employees toward the work conditions and situations; this response can be positive (feeling of satisfaction) or negative (feeling of dissatisfaction) (Sopiah, 2008). Job satisfaction has two significant aspects extrinsic (working conditions etc.) and intrinsic (the actual job, assignment, etc.) (Voon et al., 2011). The levels of job satisfaction vary for individuals based on their salary and incentives, perceived promotion opportunities, working and social conditions, leadership, etc. (Parvin & Kabir, 2011). According to Ahmad et al. (2010), job satisfaction is measured by the time and intention of the employee to stay in an organization.

The second hypothesis stated that meaningfulness at work would be a positive mediator in the relation between visionary leadership and job satisfaction. This hypothesis was also established, as results indicated that meaningfulness at work plays a crucial role in

explaining the effect of visionary leadership on job satisfaction. These results support the notion that visionary leadership could facilitate positive emotions such as meaningfulness at work which could, in turn, according to the broaden-and-build theory (Fredrickson, 2003), promote performance-related behaviors leading to job satisfaction.

A key aspect of empowering visionary leadership is to share power and allocate more autonomy and responsibility to followers. This process enhances follower participation in decision making, confidence, and in turn, meaningfulness at work for the followers (Ahearne et al., 2005; Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014; Arnold et al., 2000; Sims et al., 2009; Strauss, 1963). A high-quality relationship between leader and follower has also been shown to improve the perceived meaningfulness at work (Tummers & Bronkhorst, 2014), mainly through better organizational identify cation (Zhang et al., 2012). Within teams, when there is a culture of setting schedules, planning, and standards, sharing resources and responsibilities of work, such teams experience meaningfulness at work (Kirkman & Rosen, 1997). In situations where leaders can articulate the vision, exhibit charisma, and are in a position to elaborate on the impact of achieving the vision together, the followers have been found to experience meaningfulness at work (Banks et al., 2017).

Meaningfulness at work is an experience that employees feel at work about their daily work and responsibilities showcasing broader importance (Rosso et al., 2010). Meaningfulness at work has been found to be the most critical feature for employee well-being than income, career development opportunities, and job security (Cascio, 2003; Carton, 2018). Meaningfulness at work has also been associated with broader personal experiences that are individual-specific such as life satisfaction, work enjoyment, etc. It is challenging for employees whose responsibilities are fixed and primarily based on managerial dictates, such as in restaurants or the logistic sector, to see the meaningfulness at work (Carton, 2018). In such cases, formalization provides flexibility, reasonable autonomy, respect at work, enabling coordination, and a developing sense of purpose can lead to meaningfulness (Carton et al., 2014). It has been earlier researched the team itself is an essential source of meaning for team members in some cases, as the support and encouragement found within teams provide a sense of pride and significance in the daily tasks (Barrick et al., 2013; Dimitrov, 2011). The evidence exists on the crucial role of meaningfulness at work being a pivotal element in various other work outcomes (Carton, 2018). The organizational leaders need to ensure to enhance it. It was found that teams experience a positive linkage between daily work significance and experienced meaningfulness depending on the distance from the coworkers (Cohen, 2011).

However, there has been less focus on the impact of leadership outside of working life in search of meaningfulness (Steger, 2012). Empowering leaders foster meaningfulness by focusing on employees' strengths and helping them develop their weak areas (van Dierendonck et al., 2010). When employees receive the chance to participate and contribute to developing and attaining their goals, it motivates them, and engaging them enhances their meaningfulness at work (Khan et al., 2015).

Meaning in life is a critical concern that drives human behavior. Individuals are in search of meaning throughout their lives in personal as well as professional settings (Steger, 2012). Meaningfulness has been researched by many scholars so far. It can be traced back to Maslow's need theory (1971), where meaningfulness is a vital theme of the self-actualization process. Meaningfulness is a complex phenomenon as it could have many aspects, and it could derive from various domains in life (Rosso et al., 2010), providing significance, coherence, and purpose (Martela & Steger, 2016), bringing meaning in life (Krause & Hayward, 2014). The degree of meaningfulness is different for different individuals. It is determined by the amount of significance an individual perceives in tasks and responsibilities (Pratt & Ashforth, 2003). General meaning in life is identified through various aspects of life, such as balance and integration of several aspects of life (Grady & McCarthy, 2008). It is important to note that we spend a significant portion of our lives at work in paid employment. Hence, the mindfulness we experience at work becomes an integral portion of our lives' general purpose and meaning (Baumeister & Vohs, 2002). In other words, for most people, 'meaning' in their life is through their work (Steger & Dik, 2009). Work influences the sense of purpose in one's life (Ryff & Singer, 2002), assisting individuals in identifying their overall purpose and significance (Seligman, 2002). It is reassuring for the employees to achieve a sense of meaning through their leaders, community, organizations, or the customers they work with (Chalofsky & Krishna, 2009). When employees feel their actions have an enormous impact on the world, it creates a sense of purpose and significance in their lives (Martela & Ryan, 2015).

Kahn's (1990) theory (on psychological conditions and meaningfulness at work) was tested and found that meaningfulness had a substantial impact on employee engagement along with a positive impact on job enrichment and job role fit (May et al., 2004). Meaningfulness has been studied less in organizational behavior studies. There have been studies conducted on it in clinical psychology (Noble, 1961; Simon & Feigenbaum, 1964; Underwood & Schulz, 1960) and the

religious context (Wright et al., 1993). However, the importance of meaningfulness at work and subsequent studies around finding the antecedents and descendants of meaningfulness from organizational context was highlighted in 2016, when making organizations more meaningful was announced as a theme of the meeting of the American Academy of Management.

The third hypothesis stated that commitment to the leader would be a significant and positive mediator in the relation between visionary leadership and job satisfaction. This hypothesis was also confirmed, as results indicated that visionary leadership exerted its effect on job satisfaction through commitment to the leader. It is a relatively newer concept differentiating from organizational commitment or personal commitment. This new direction, in line with commitment, opens new possibilities for research, especially in organizational studies.

Commitment refers to "a force that binds an individual to a target … and a course of action of relevance to the target" (Meyer et al., 2006, p. 666). Shamir et al. (1993) suggested leadership behavior acting as a role model in impacting the commitment levels of followers. Authentic leadership behavior was found to be strongly related to followers' commitment to the organization (Leroy et al., 2012). Employee commitment and job satisfaction levels are essential workplace attitudes (Maier & Brunstein, 2001). Organizational commitment is the degree to which employees feel emotionally attached to the organization, whereas job satisfaction is the level at which individuals like their job (Spector, 1997). Employees' commitment and satisfaction levels are a direct indicator of the quality of work and work environment (Webster et al., 2014). There is past evidence that reflects that transformation leadership enhances employee's organizational commitment levels (Avolio et al., 2004; Bono & Judge, 2003; Dvir et al., 2002; Van Dierendonck et al., 2014), and further organizational outcomes such as work engagement (Van Dierendonck et al., 2014; Zhu et al., 2009); (intrinsic) motivation (Charbonneau et al., 2001; Judge & Piccolo, 2004).

Commitment to employees is not only an attitude that defines employee loyalty to the organization but also it is a process or way through which employees voice their concerns for the organization. It is an employee's level of devotion and attachment to the organization, teams, processes, products, etc. (Shanker, 2013). Bateman and Strasser (1984) described the organizational commitment as one's devotion to the organization and readiness to adapt and work hard for the organization. They further added that the employee commitment level depends on the

nature of the job as well as a leadership style. Additionally, a few personal aspects are involved, such as character, age, and involvement with the organization (Bateman & Strasser, 1984). Transformation leadership affects employees' commitment and contextual performance levels (Pradhan & Pradhan, 2015).

Transformational leaders are capable of securing employees' commitment to the organizational goals and working towards achieving them (Popper et al., 1992). There have been multiple studies confirming that transformational leadership translates employee motivation to higher commitment levels (Avolio et al., 2004; Mert et al., 2010; Tseng & Kang, 2008). Pradhan and Pradhan (2015) confirmed that when employees feel committed to the organization, they look beyond their interests and demonstrate behaviors that positively impact the organizational performance. Also, transformational leaders have been seen to build trust in their followers, which has shown to positively impact organizational commitment (Zhu et al., 2005). During the 1960s to early 1980s, organizational commitment was extensively studied as part of leadership studies. Organizational commitment is an exchange between followers and the organization in several contexts (Becker, 1960). Porter et al. (1974) were the first four scholars who researched the impact of organizational commitment; they redefined organizational commitment and presented it as a follower believing in the value and goals of the organization, exerting energy to perform, and being a devoted organizational member. Another line of research suggested that the organization's commitment was related to the level of education, employee's age, the duration of the job, and the career locations. (Shoemaker et al., 1977). Wiener (1982) also found a link between organizational commitment and employees' value system, which highlights the rewards and punishment system. Generally, commitment has been classified into affective, continuance, and normative commitment, but it is unclear which part affects employee satisfaction and engagement (Jena et al., 2017; Nazir & Islam, 2017). Earlier quantitative studies have confirmed a strong correlation between commitment, relationships within teams, and autonomy at work leading to job satisfaction (Hill, 1986; Yang, 2010). However, there have been various arguments if commitment is the antecedent or descendant of job satisfaction, as there have been studies that found that unsatisfied employees can still be committed and stay with the organization for a longer time (Eslami & Gharakhani, 2012; Mathieu & Babiak, 2016; Nagar, 2012; Srivastava, 2013).

The fourth hypothesis states that there is a serial mediation with mediators' meaningfulness at work and commitment to the leader in a relationship between visionary

leadership and job satisfaction. This hypothesis was also confirmed as there was a positive serial mediation established with the mediator's meaningfulness at work and commitment to the leader in the relationship between visionary leadership and job satisfaction. Similarly, assessed through the broader lens of the Job Demands-Resources model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017) and broaden-and-build theory (Fredrickson, 2001), the results support the proposition that visionary leadership behaviors in the workplace could be considered as an important behavior that stimulates personal/job resources development, meaningfulness and commitment and helps counteract the adverse effects of job demands, leading to job satisfaction (Bakker & Van Woerkom, 2018; van Woerkom et al., 2016; 2016a; 2016b). Further research in a similar line can be conducted to understand the in-dept processes involved in these relations.

The importance of job satisfaction is highlighted multiple times in organizational behavior studies. It is an essential factor and most relevant in the current environment, with constant organizational changes affecting most industries. Hence, it is imperative to study job satisfaction and its characteristics (Smith, 1992). Job satisfaction is a positive emotion that an individual feels because of their job (Locke, 1976). Mottaz (1988) added that job satisfaction effectively responds to the work situation. It was argued that job satisfaction results from values and rewards at work (Vroom, 1964; Kalleberg, 1977). Previous studies have highlighted that transformational leadership is shown to have higher job satisfaction levels in employees than non-transformational leadership style (Bass & Riggio, 2006, Dumdum et al., 2002; Lowe et al., 1996).

Elton Mayo was one of the first researchers to study job satisfaction and measure its levels in employees. In the 1920s, these studies were conducted named Hawthorne studies, which revealed the complexity of human behavior. Work and work relationships are impacted by attitude, meaning, and feeling individuals feel toward their work (Denhardt et al., 2009). Shull et al. (2014) stated, "What all their experiments had dramatically and conclusively demonstrated was the importance of employee attitudes and sentiments. It was clear that the responses of workers to what was happening about them were dependent on the significance these events had for them" (p. 35-36). Job satisfaction has been seen to be related to the working environment (Zhao et al., 1999). Job satisfaction is a feeling of reward after work for employees. Zhao et al. (1999) mentioned that "job satisfaction appears to be intrinsic to an employee's work environment" (p. 167).

The transformational leadership style emphasizes intrinsic motivation, leading to follower development and higher job satisfaction levels in followers (Bass & Riggio, 2006). It has been previously studied that higher job satisfaction leads to lower turnover and vice versa (Griffeth et al., 2000; Hofaidhllaoui & Chhinzer, 2014; Palich et al., 1995). Locke (1969) stated job satisfaction as "a complex emotional reaction to the job" (p. 314); he further defined job satisfaction and dissatisfaction as "a function of the perceived relationship between what one wants from one's job and what one perceives it as offering or entailing" (Locke, 1969, p. 316). Specifically, job satisfaction was evaluated on nine dimensions scale such as promotion, pay, rewards, fringe benefits, teams, nature of work, work conditions, satisfaction with supervisor, and with the communication flow (Spector, 1985). Scarpello and Vandenberg (1987) highlighted the importance of satisfaction with an immediate supervisor, which they coined to be different from satisfaction with the work or work environment. It is essential to study job satisfaction as it is a crucial phenomenon in understanding employee outcomes, i.e., turnover and productivity (Johnsrud et al., 2000). Job satisfaction is a perceived emotion and hence can be an individual-specific experience in a respective organization (Federici & Skaalvik, 2012). Zeinabadi (2010) argued that job satisfaction is correlated to a specific job, task, or work environment. However, commitment is an attitude that develops over time as an employee creates a relationship with the organization. Hence job satisfaction can grow faster than the commitment to the organization (Zeinabadi, 2010).

There has been a long-time debate among scholars about the causal relationship existing between job satisfaction and commitment, and some scholars argue that job satisfaction is an antecedent to organizational commitment (Anari, 2012; Eslami & Gharakani, 2012; Zehir et al., 2012). However, some have argued that these two are separate concepts and are independently influenced by a set of variables (Aghdasi et al., 2011; Bushra et al., 2011; De Gieter et al., 2011). Despite this disagreement in the literature, I decided to follow the line of thought where commitment is an antecedent to employee job satisfaction. Considering the complexity of the two variables, I attempt to find the relationship existing between them. Caricati et al. (2014) argued that job satisfaction usually depends upon intrinsic factors such as the desire for recognition, career advancement, etc., as well as extrinsic factors such as benefits, compensation, work environment, etc.

Moreover, my study integrates two theoretical approaches (i.e., JDR theory and broaden-and-build theory). The study extends the research concerning visionary leadership and employee-related outcomes (meaningfulness at work, commitment to the leader, and job satisfaction) by investigating the distinct mechanism of mediators meaningfulness at work and commitment to the leader with the help of broaden-and-build theory and JDR as an overarching theory explaining the effect of visionary leadership on job satisfaction. In doing so, it adds to the theoretical development by integrating JDR theory and broaden-and-build theory with visionary leadership and how it fosters meaningfulness at work, commitment to the leader, and job satisfaction.

As per the JDR model, job resources leading to engagement are job characteristics, and job demands are the ones that nullify this positive effect, such as stressful work putting the burden on employees (Van den Broeck et al., 2008). Bakker and Demerouti (2007) stated that the job resources elevate the satisfaction level of basic needs leading to job engagement. The job resources energize and activate the motivational processes in employees, which act as engagement sources (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Loughlin & Murray, 2013). JDR is the most famous framework that is used in engagement studies (Crawford et al., 2010). In JDR, job characteristics are classified as resources that elevate energy or demands that deplete energy (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). This means that the job demands take away or reduce the energy levels of employees and hence act as a hindrance to engagement (Van den Broeck et al., 2010). In contrast to this, job resources supply support and energy, encouraging employees to be more engaged at work (Demerouti et al., 2001). Hence previous research confirms using the JDR model that the job resources elevate levels of engagement (Biggs et al., 2014; Hakanen et al., 2006; Hu et al., 2011). And the opposite is that the job demands decrease the levels of engagement (Crawford et al., 2010; Hakanen et al., 2006; Taipale et al., 2011). Fredrickson's broaden-and-build theory of positive emotions suggests "that positive emotions broaden an individual's mindset and worldview, which consequently promotes their desire to approach novel experiences and engage with new opportunities" (Fredrickson, 2005).

As Fredrickson (2004) described it best, "Positive emotions broaden an individual's momentary thought-action repertoire: joy sparks the urge to play, interest sparks the urge to explore, contentment sparks the urge to integrate, and love sparks a recurring cycle of each of these urges within safe, close relationships… by broadening an individual's momentary thought-action repertoire—whether through play, exploration or similar activities—positive emotions promote

discovery of novel and creative actions, ideas and social bonds, which in turn build that individual's resources; ranging from physical and intellectual resources to social and psychological resources… that can be drawn on later to improve the odds of successful coping and survival" (p. 1367). This theory focuses on the mindset of the individual and relates to the "fight or flight" response in situations.

Fredrickson and Branigan (2005) elaborated that negative emotions can solve the purpose and be beneficial for a short period due to their adaptive nature. Still, positive emotions resulting from a more expansive thought-action repertoire would be constructive and adaptive over a long period. These positive emotions are not only crucial for the health and well-being of people but also for continued and prolonged wellness (Fredrickson, 1998, 2001). Especially in stressful situations when the mind and body easily or automatically go to the narrow mindset mode, Fredrickson (2004) argued that the individuals who have been exposed to positive emotions evoking a more expansive thought-action repertoire are well prepared to handle the stressors with the help of personal resources. To summarize, the broaden-and-build theory posits that the positive emotions initiate the "ripple effect," which sparks the individual's desire to experience novel engagement mentally, physically, socially, and emotionally resulting in interpersonal and personal growth through effectively strengthening the personal resources (Tugade & Fredrickson, 2004).

The broaden-and-build theory has received extensive empirical evidence on the linkage between positive emotions experienced and positive employee outcomes. Such positive emotions have been directly and indirectly associated with a wide range of psychosocial benefits along with psychological well-being (Fredrickson, 2001; Fredrickson & Losada, 2005; Livingstone & Srivastava, 2012). Additionally, long-term exposure to positive emotions has shown to have a positive effect on creativity levels in several life domains such as social, academic/work, and family (Isen et al., 1987). The impact of positive emotions has been seen to produce higher levels of social connectivity, wellbeing, self-esteem, and social support (Livingstone & Srivastava, 2012).

5.3 Theoretical Implications of Study
5.3.1 Contributions to the Literature

My study attempts to address multiple gaps and, in the process, makes four critical contributions to the existing literature. The first contribution highlights the mediating mechanism. The study adds to the literature by further explaining the process through which visionary

leadership impacts job satisfaction. Meaningfulness at work has been studied explicitly in psychological literature and has gained less focus in business management literature. Similarly, the case of the construct commitment to the leader. There have been multiple studies found in the literature on commitment (primarily organizational commitment), but the research on a commitment to the leader is at a nascent stage. My research adds to the literature on both these constructs in the business management area.

Additionally, the use of mediators' meaningfulness at work and commitment to the leader can be justified with the help of the broaden-and-build theory (Fredrickson, 2001, Fredrickson & Joiner, 2002). The finding aligns with the broaden-and-build theory that postulates that when people experience positive emotions, it broadens their thought and action capabilities. With time, this broadening improves personal resources such as higher engagement and stronger relationships. These enhanced personal resources, in turn, lead to better and higher outcomes across several realms of life, including the work environment as well.

Second, my study adds to the literature on visionary leadership. These results are in line with the previous research and contribute to the literature. I argued that visionary leadership positively impacts meaningfulness at work and commitment to the leader, which in turn results in positive job satisfaction among followers. The results reflect that visionary leadership can lead to improved followers' job satisfaction with the help of mediators meaningfulness at work and commitment to the leader. In other words, the leader who tries to develop an interactive and meaningful work environment for the followers creates more positive and satisfied followers at the workplace. This finding aligns with the JDR theory, which theorizes that job resources pave the way for personal resources (Bakker & Demerouti, 2014, 2017).

Moreover, the findings follow previous research (Amunkete & Rothmann, 2015; Du Plessis & Boshoff, 2018; Munyaka et al., 2017). The previous research confirms that visionary leadership has a significant solid positive linkage with employee satisfaction (Cheema et al., 2015). Additionally, another study built on a similar foundation confirms that visionary leadership has a strong significant positive relationship with employee perceptions of job satisfaction and leadership/organizational effectiveness (Hater & Bass, 1988).

Third, the study adds to the literature by answering the calls for research on assessing the effect of visionary leadership behavior as a phenomenon on employee outcomes (Baum et al., 1998;

Kirkpatrick et al., 2002; van Knippenberg & Stam, 2014). Specifically, it caters to the request to detect the mediating mechanism of leadership behavior on employee outcomes (Brown & Mitchell, 2010; Judge et al., 2006; Wang & Xu, 2019). Moreover, the review of previous literature on meaningfulness is seen to be positively linked to several employee outcomes. However, there is little knowledge on the antecedents of factors that help develop meaningfulness at work (Demirtas et al., 2017; Wang & Xu, 2019). Categorically, there have been calls to study the linkage between leadership behavior/style and meaningfulness at work in the private as well as public domain (Demirtas et al., 2017; Rosso et al., 2010; Steger et al., 2012; Tummers & Knies, 2013).

Fourth, my study focuses on Asia as a region. The leadership literature specifically on this region is nascent. As per Koo & Park (2017), Asia can bring its unique context in its perceived leadership styles, and it would be interesting for western countries to see the results it exhibits. In summary, my study responds to the calls for empirical studies on the Asian region to better understand the contextual differences in leadership behavior that may manifest between Western and Asian countries (Koo & Park, 2017; Lam et al., 2012). In addition, there have been calls to examine the association between situational variable (i.e., visionary leadership in this study) and personal variable (i.e., commitment to the leader in this study) (Anderson et al., 2014; Zhou & Hoever, 2014).

Fifth, my study provides a test for amalgamation for JDR and broaden-and-build theory in a system-based approach. Recently the combination of JDR and broaden-and-build theory was used in a few leadership and engagement studies, e.g., Çop et al. (2021); Hong et al. (2021); Lebares et al. (2021); Shaheen et al. (2019). My current study adds to the literature by testing these two theories and presenting a model based on and taking support from both JDR and broaden-and-build theory. These theories were tested using a three-wave study, and the results extended support to both JDR and broaden-and-build theory explaining the relation between visionary leadership and job satisfaction with the mediation effect of mediators meaningfulness at work and commitment to the leader.

5.3.2 Contributions to the Theory

The study provides two contributions to the theory first by enriching the theory and offering empirical support for the proposed model. The theoretical lens for this study is the JDR theory which supports the explanation of the proposed relationship between visionary leadership and job

satisfaction. To explain the mediation with meaningfulness at work and commitment to the leader to foster the relationship between visionary leadership and job satisfaction, I take support from the broaden-and-build theory.

Second, my study contributes to the theory by providing a well-integrated model on job satisfaction that draws upon a linkage between two theories, i.e., JDR and the broaden-and-build theory of resource building (Fredrickson, 1998; 2001). Both theories have been widely studied, and various extensions have been presented. My study integrated the latest version of the two, where both the theories have conceptual and theoretical relevance to positive work resources (i.e., meaningfulness at work and commitment to the leader in the case of my study) by associating employee perceived leadership behavior and employee perceived job satisfaction in a positive relationship. Although previously, these two theories, i.e., JDR and broaden-and-build theory, have been integrated by scholars and have signaled the synergies between them (García-Buades et al., 2020; Reijseger et al., 2012; Shantz et al., 2013; Sharma, & Nambudiri, 2020), none to my knowledge have associated them in the similar construct model as provided in my study with empirical testing.

According to the JDR theory, the job resources instigate a motivational process within employees, and this means that a higher level of job resources produces higher motivation towards work, leading to a more committed, engaged, and productive work environment (Schaufeli, 2017). In the JDR framework, the job resources consist of the job elements that support the goal attainment, reducing strain and thereby fostering the growth of the employee (Schaufeli, 2017). One of the recent versions of JDR suggests that the aspects of daily life, either personal or professional, might affect employees' perceived job resources (Schaufeli, 2017). Such elements are in personal dimensions traits and characteristics (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007; 2009; Schaufeli, 2017), and in organizational dimensions leadership styles, organizational support, etc. (Albrecht & Andreetta, 2011; Schaufeli, 2015; 2017; Tuckey et al., 2017). Specifically, the broaden-and-build theory deals with positive emotions and how it affects the broadened thought-action pattern. I draw support from this theory to reason the use of mediators meaningfulness at work and commitment to the leader in my research model. I argue that the leadership style (i.e., visionary leadership in my study) creates long-lasting positive emotions in employees' minds, sparking employees perceived meaningfulness at work and commitment level to the leader, leading to their job satisfaction. It is in line with the previous research, where it was conceptualized that the broadening

effect of the broaden-and-build theory Fredrickson's (1998; 2001) influences the perceived meaningfulness at work (personal resource), leading to better engagement (Soane et al., 2013). The perceptions about meaningful work in employees broaden the cognitive and affective processes, which leads to interest in the overall context of work (Compton, 2001).

The JDR model has been developed as "a heuristic model that specifies how employee well-being may be reproduced by two specific sets of working conditions" (Bakker et al., 2007). Job demands are the social, psychological, physiological, or organizational arenas of the job (Bakker, 2015), and job resources are factors that help individuals at the workplace, such as support, commitment, etc. (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). JDR theory proposes that job demands and resources interact and depend on each other in such a way that it affects the work experiences and well-being of employees. There is support found for using the JDR model in prior research (see Schaufeli, 2017; Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). Additionally, Lewig and Dollard (2003) found in an empirical study that emotional demands in call center employees were related to job satisfaction within the theoretical frameworks of the job demand resources model. Yucel (2021) argued that the JDR model focuses on job demands and resources but does not account for home demands. Using the JDR model, his study conceptualized work to family conflict and family to work conflict as job and home demands, respectively. Using the broaden-and-build theory (Fredrickson, 2001) as a framework, in this study, I propose that the independent variable visionary leadership can enhance positive emotions such as meaningfulness at work and commitment to their leaders, which in turn can lead to positive dependent variable job satisfaction. Hence the positive emotions of meaningfulness and feeling of commitment are considered the mediators in the study.

There are several present studies available supporting the use of the broaden-and-build framework. In his research, Macaskill (2012) confirmed that resilient individuals proactively cultivate positive emotions to deal with stress. Leisure coping mediates the relationship between resilience and well-being outcomes, and the model was explained by him using the broaden-and-build theory.

In another study, results confirmed using broaden-and-build theory as the base that the negative and positive affect at work was seen to mediate the linkage between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction (Kafetsios, & Zampetakis, 2008). Lavy and Littman-Ovadia, (2017) suggested a multiple mediation model with mediators positive affect and engagement in the relationship

between strength at work and job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, and productivity.   The results confirm the predictions of the theoretical model that specified meaningfulness at work and commitment to the leader as mediators of the interactive effects of visionary leadership on follower job satisfaction.

The JDR model states that the job factors can be divided into two classifications: job demands and job resources. This classification can be relevant for any occupational setting (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Bakker et al., 2005; Demerouti et al., 2001). This classification was confirmed in several studies consisting of almost 42 occupational settings and regions that supported that the job demands led to burnout and job resources led to work engagement (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). In some cases, the job demands were also found to be positively related to work engagement (Schaufeli et al., 2008). It is essential to study the ambiguity in these relationships as engagement is a critical factor leading to positive employee outcomes such as performance and satisfaction. (Rich et al., 2010). Thus, I suggest that the JDR theory provides an overarching framework for the proposed model explaining the antecedents of job satisfaction and mediation mechanism steaming from visionary leadership. From the JDR perspective, job satisfaction is an extremely valuable resource that is also assumed to diminish the effects of negative job demands.

As per Locke (1969), the concept of job satisfaction is the perception that the employees have about their job in achieving the expected values. Job satisfaction is a psychological need. In practice, the perception of fulfilling the intrinsic psychological needs of employees acts as personal resources. Job satisfaction is the personal resource that negates the effects of job demands, and hence in the context of JDR, job satisfaction decreases the turnover intentions of employees. Additionally, job satisfaction has been shown to largely influence the elements of the work environment, such as the nature of the work, support at work, etc. (Lambert et al., 2001). The higher the levels of job resources, the more vital job satisfaction is found (Tims et al., 2013). Previous studies have examined the causal mechanisms explained in the JDR through job satisfaction along with, job demands and job resources, and well-being in employees (e.g., Hakanen et al., 2008; Xanthopoulou et al., 2009). These studies heavily indicate that the increase in job resources leads to better satisfaction and engagement levels, increasing the well-being of employees. Support from the supervisor is a vital aspect of the work environment. It leads to a better commitment by the employee to the organization and the supervisor itself, leading to negative stress levels and higher organizational outcomes (e.g., Breevaart, & Bakker, 2018; Harris et al., 2008).

The JDR model clearly distinguishes between job demands and job resources and illustrates the processes that invoke burnout and engagement (Demerouti et al., 2001). Demands are the elements of the job that require efforts which can lead to burnout, and resources are the elements of the job that support and help the employees to achieve organizational tasks and enable personal growth (Demerouti et al., 2001). In a larger context, Hobfoll (1989) defined resources as "objects, personal characteristics, conditions, or energies that are valued by the individual or that serve as a means for the attainment of these objects, personal characteristics, conditions, or energies" (p. 516). Job resources lead to motivational processes achieving engagement in employees. Job resources are motivational processes facilitating the optimal states in employees. These optimal states can be meaningfulness, responsibility, etc. (Demerouti et al., 2001). One highly important aspect of the JDR model is its universality. JDR model is found to be valid across organizations and regions (Liorens et al., 2006).

There has been extensive support in the literature to confirm that, as per JDR, the job resources lead to work engagement. Personal resources also play a crucial role and may help explain the linkage between organizational resources and engagement. Personal resources are the individual-specific aspects that enable the person to survive through obstacles and challenges (Hobfoll et al., 2003). So far, very few studies have attempted to add personal resources within the JDR model, such as Llorens et al., 2007; Xanthopoulou et al., 2007. My current study will expand this literature and attempt to contribute to the theory by examining personal resources such as meaningfulness and commitment to the leader with organizational factors such as visionary leadership and job satisfaction examining the intervention present in them. I propose that personal resources such as meaningfulness at work and commitment to the leader will serially mediate the relationship between visionary leadership and job satisfaction.

Personal resources are defined as the individual's ability to have an impact or control the environment from a work context (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007). Some of the personal resources studied in the past are self-efficacy, optimism, self-esteem, etc. Similarly, previously measured organizational resources are autonomy, supervisor's coaching, social support, professional development, etc. In this study, I focus on meaningfulness at work and commitment to the supervisor as my study's personal resources. Additionally, I categorize visionary leadership as the job resource that helps and supports the employee to achieve higher satisfaction levels.

The broaden-and-build theory (Fredrickson, 1998, 2001) asserting on positive emotions provides a foundation that can be used to predict the effect of positive emotions at work on employee outcomes, health, and wellbeing (Cohn et al., 2009; Fredrickson & Branigan, 2005; Fredrickson & Joiner, 2002; Tugade & Fredrickson, 2004; Tugade et al., 2004). Positive emotions are essential in human life and everyday lives, including at work. These positive emotions such as interest, joy, happiness, and hope uplift the mood and spirit of an individual to manage through the challenges and problems. As per the broaden-and-build theory, whenever a person experiences positive emotion, they experience broadened thinking and broadened actions, which allows them to be more creative and flexible to be able to build and cope with adversity and stress. This process further leads to happiness and higher productivity, the continuity in this process results in continuous success and positive outcomes. Further studies in this regard have confirmed that higher exposure to positive emotions is beneficial in the present and for long-term results (Fredrickson, 2013; Fredrickson & Branigan, 2005; Fredrickson & Joiner, 2002). Hence it is essential to understand the effects of positive emotions at work and identify the mechanism it can be optimized, especially at work, for positive results.

It was studied that positive emotions have a more substantial effect on the emotional states of the employees compared to neutral or negative impact (Fredrickson & Branigan, 2005; Wadlinger & Isaacowitz, 2006). Positive emotions have been shown to increase flexibility and creativity, enabling people to approach problem-solving with a 'think out of the box' mentality and be open to a wide range of ideas/thoughts (Ashby & Isen, 1999). Specifically, positive emotions not only help in generating many solutions to a particular problem but also innovative solutions obtained (Isen et al., 1987). Additionally, the broaden-and-build theory proposes that positive emotions broaden the thinking capacity enabling more comprehensive thoughts and action. This process further leads to gathering resources such as cognitive, psychological, social, and physical (Fredrickson, 1998, 2001).

The study based on the results of the broaden-and-build theory confirmed the outcomes. The study conducted daily surveys on undergraduate students. The study demonstrated that the daily exposure to positive emotions in these students illustrated higher satisfaction levels after one month (Cohn et al., 2009). In another study, the effect of positive emotions reflected in working professionals reported was not only love, joy, satisfaction, and amusement but also personal resources such as wellbeing, social support, optimism, etc. (Fredrickson et al., 2008).

The thought-action repertoire mentioned by Fredrickson was tested in a study in which the broadened thinking pattern and behavior were tested in various emotional states such as positive, negative, and neutral after seeing movie clips evaluating the attention and thought-action repertoire (Fredrickson & Branigan, 2005). Fredrickson et al. (2008) further tested if positive emotions also produce a rise in personal resources and found positive results. The broaden-and-build theory provides a frame that helps us understand life satisfaction and psychological resilience (Cohn et al., 2009; Tugade & Fredrickson, 2004, 2007). The broaden-and-build theory also aligns those positive emotions with improving the coping mechanism for stress (Folkman, 2008; Lyubomirsky, 2010; Tugade & Fredrickson, 2004; Tugade et al., 2004). Positive emotions are significantly related to broadened behaviors and thoughts, which support enhancing problem solving and creative thinking skills leading to a rise in adaptive responses to the surroundings such as social, physical, and intellectual (Ashby et al., 1999; Isen et al., 1987). The broaden-and-build theory provides a process to help individuals achieve resilience and wellbeing (Cohn et al., 2009).

Furthermore, the theory confirms that the experience of positive effects can broaden and widen thought and action, resulting in more substantial positive personal outcomes (Fredrickson, 2001). The theory focuses mainly on experiencing positive emotion, which produces a positive effect and higher the reserve of an individual's psychological resources (Fredrickson, 2001). As per previous research, positive emotion can contribute to even enhancing a person's relationships, creativity, and overall success in life (Moran & Nemec, 2013).

5.4 Practical Implications of Study

The gathered data and analyzed results provide support to growing research on organizational behavior, highlighting the importance of a positive environment at work. The foundation of this study is based on JDR theory and broaden-and-build theory, both focusing on the positive resources (personal and professional). These resources are in line with the efforts of organizations to create a positive work environment, which is an essential practical consequence (Luthans, 2002; Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). Empirical work in this area signifies the positive effect of the constructs used in this study, such as visionary leadership (Groves, 2006), meaningfulness at work (Allan et al., 2018; Allan et al., 2019; Steger & Dik, 2009; Steger et al., 2012), commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990), job satisfaction (Judge & Larsen, 2001). This research provides a powerful rationale for businesses to support HR initiatives to enhance a positive work

environment. The positive impact of employee job satisfaction and organizational outcomes has been well researched in the literature. While the vision formation and communication process, organizations need to consider employee satisfaction as an essential factor. This process will help organizations to create a win-win situation. Primarily visionary leaders should focus on fundamental human resource practices that could help elevate employee job satisfaction and, in turn, enhance performance, techniques such as training and development, competitive compensation and benefits system, etc.

Another practical implication of my study is to bring emphasis on the proactiveness of management styles in organizations. This style includes bringing awareness and helping employees to see how their work fits in the broader perspective or organizational goals and elevating the perception of meaningful work (Lips-Wiersma & Morris, 2009). Improved visibility and an increased number of dialogues with the leadership can be vital elements of this process (Truss et al., 2006; Van Schalkwyk et al., 2010). Broadening the traditional work boundaries and functionalities can prove to be helpful practice (Cartwright & Holmes, 2006). Creating a healthy work environment that mutually benefits the organization and employees should be a long-term goal (Wright et al., 2007). The strategic priority of HR partners should be more focusing on enhancing the engagement levels, thereby yielding better company outputs (Alfes et al., 2010). My research could assist HR strategic partners in understanding the key factors driving engagement and satisfaction leading to development.

The organization can even look at improving the practices of visionary leadership, and this can be done either by imparting skills and training to the leaders or organizations can devise a plan to recruit the managers with traits that predict transformational/visionary leadership (Rank et al., 2009). Visionary leaders can be advised to conscientiously consider their visions and action plans to be motivating towards the employees, taking into consideration the findings of this study. Visionary leaders can always keep highlighting the meaning of work performed by their followers, which spark the process of commitment towards the leader. This process then followed by leading to elevation in job satisfaction at work.

I suggest that for the managers/ leaders in the organizations, it will be an exciting finding through this study. In learning to enact the visionary leadership behaviors, leaders may follow to keep these mentioned objectives in mind. When leaders practice visionary behaviors, they should

work on finding ways to motivate followers to carefully consider not only the vision but also the implicative meaning of their work, i.e., to take ownership of the vision, exhibit perceived meaning at work, etc. Leaders posit positive emotions at work, leading to a commitment to the leader by the follower. Although, in my opinion, some leaders will be naturally adapting to these situations and can be quickly successful in gaining higher job satisfaction from their followers, most leaders may require repeated practice. The relatively high mean score of visionary leadership in the sample and the interdependence with the meaningfulness at work, commitment to the leader, and followers' job satisfaction confirm that many leaders can adapt to these behaviors. The main challenge for the leaders might then be to expand further the degree to which they showcase visionary leadership and thus increase meaningfulness and commitment with time and eventually positively impact the job satisfaction of employees.

5.5 Recommendation and Future Research

It is common for empirical studies to have some limitations. This study is not alone and suffers from limitations, as listed below.

First, there are some limitations related to sampling and data collection. The data was collected from dyads of leaders and followers, and the finding presented included the responses from only followers. Although collecting data from two sources can indeed reduce the chance of getting common method variance from the data of proposed relationships (Podsakoff et al., 2003). But the data presented in this study is from the same source, which suggests that there is a chance that the same source bias may inflate the relationship. However, analysis was conducted to check if it exists and found little concern (see results section). Moreover, with data collection, not everyone who was invited to participate in the study chose to participate. If people who chose not to participate had a different relationship between their work attitudes and behaviors such as meaningfulness at work, commitment to the leader, or job satisfaction than those who participated, such a difference was not captured in the data. However, the participants who completed the data at T1 were only invited to participate in T2 and then to T3. Therefore, it was much less of a concern. In future studies, more advanced models and follower-leader responses can be considered in a model, making it more robust.

Second, although my research draws on multi-level analyses of longitudinal data, the model does not allow strong causal conclusions. Considering the dynamism of employee perceived job

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satisfaction as a construct (Chen et al., 2011), my study could be further tested in an improved design of job satisfaction spread over a long period (e.g., Liu et al., 2012).

Third, the findings of my study are based on nationwide, multi-industry, cross-sectional data from a relatively small sample size. Although the time-lagged quantitative style design is enough and offers a deep understanding of the linkages amongst the study variable, there is a probability that a larger sample could give a possibility of more extensive representation and complex analyses. Future studies can replicate the

Fourth, this study has focused on intrinsic factors that are more responsible for employees' job satisfaction, such as meaningfulness at work and commitment to the leader. Further additional studies can be conducted by concentrating on several other variables which will be relevant to the study. It will be equally interesting to see how extrinsic factors can have an impact on job satisfaction in employees of these sectors.

There were some extra measures and strong positives of the study that delimits some of the limitations of the study. First, the strength of this study is that it is one of the first studies explicitly combining research on visionary leadership and job satisfaction with mediating processes via meaningfulness at work and commitment to the leader in a serial mediation model, with all the participants in this sample were in a leader-follower relation for more than one year working in business organizations. Moreover, the participants in this sample were from a broad array of organizations and jobs. Furthermore, the study conducted was a three-wave time study. The data was collected at a regular interval of one month each for three months, representing a causal study.

Second, I would like to encourage researchers further to pursue multilevel modeling in the area of visionary leadership. In this study, the represented nature of relationships is at the individual level, primarily at the follower's level, which means there was no group assessment. Either considering the same variable at two different levels, leader and follower, constant variables at different levels can emerge into exciting models, or future research can be based on gathering data from the groups. It could be interesting to see how the leader reacts in a group or team setting, and the results change in these settings (Braun et al., 2013; Wang & Howell, 2010; Yammarino et al., 2012). Additionally, in the future, further studies could test other styles of leadership behavior (such as ethical leadership, compassionate leadership, etc.) or a combination of leadership

behaviors (e.g., Visionary and empowering leadership styles) and test the model to check the effectiveness of various other leadership behaviors.

Third, I would recommend extending this study using a larger sample with a more balanced representation in terms of industry or geography, or the sector of an organization such as private or public will be relevant to evaluate these findings for the particular segment.

5.6 Concluding Remarks

The principal intention of this study was to identify the relationship between visionary leadership and job satisfaction and evaluate the effect of mediators meaningfulness at work and commitment to the leader in a serial mediation model. The findings revealed that visionary leadership is directly related to job satisfaction with the serial mediation effect shown by the mediators meaningfulness at work and commitment to the leader. The study illustrated the integration of two theories, i.e., JDR and broaden-and-build theory, to support the proposed model. The chapter discussed the contributions of my research towards the literature and theory along with its practical implications of it in business organizations. It also summarizes the limitations and recommendations for further studies.

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