WHAT ARE YOU TALKING ABOUT? FOLLOWER CONSTRUAL LEVEL AND COGNITIVE APPRAISALS OF VISIONARY LEADERSHIP

A Dissertation

by

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ABSTRACT

Over the decades, visionary leadership has been considered as the core of successful leadership. On this note, scholars have argued that visionary leadership is generally well-received by followers, overlooking the possibility that visionary leadership can be a demand for followers. Drawing on the transactional theory of stress, I challenge this view and propose a more balanced theoretical model that frames visionary leadership as a unique job demand, which invokes a cognitive appraisal process within followers. Further, I argue that this cognitive appraisal process is influenced by follower construal level. That is, followers high in construal level (i.e., an abstract mindset) are more likely to evaluate visionary leadership as a challenge, which, in turn, leads to enhanced proactivity and adaptivity by high construal followers. In contrast, those low in construal level (i.e., a concrete mindset) are more likely to appraise the same visionary leadership as a hindrance, which leads to subsequent withdrawal by these followers. I tested the hypothesized theoretical model across one correlational study using field data and two experimental studies. Results from Study 1 suggested visionary leadership positively related to leader-rated follower proactivity (via challenge appraisals of visionary leadership) and that these effects were stronger for high construal followers than low construal followers. Moreover, visionary leadership negatively related to follower-rated withdrawal (via hindrance appraisals of visionary leadership), and this negative relationship was stronger for high construal followers than low construal followers. These results were partially replicated in experimental studies. Specifically, Study 2 failed to replicate results from Study 1, whereas results from Study 3 indicated that when leaders communicated a vision, high construal followers appraised it more as a challenge than those low construal followers. However, there was not an interactive effect of leader vision communication and follower construal level on

follower hindrance appraisals. The theoretical model developed and tested in this dissertation contributes to the literature on visionary leadership, the transactional theory of stress, and research on construal level by highlighting the dual mechanisms through which visionary leadership leads to follower proactivity, adaptivity, and withdrawal, and a critical boundary condition.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

"Good business leaders create a vision, articulate the vision, passionately own the vision, and relentlessly drive it to completion."

- Jack Welch, former CEO of General Electric

"…being a visionary manager isn't all it's cracked up to be. It's one thing to see into the foggy future…it's quite another to persuade employees who might not see the changes ahead to line up and work cooperatively to take the company in that new direction."

- Clayton Christensen, Harvard Business School Professor Emeritus

Nowadays, hundreds of new books and assessment tools focused on leadership are published every year. This is, in part, because people argue that new insights into leadership are critical as the business environment becomes increasingly unpredictable (Howard, 1995). Faced with this tidal wave of guidance on how to be a successful leader, many leaders are likely overwhelmed when trying to determine how they can be most effective in their roles. One straightforward solution comes from a group of consultants who, after reviewing several decades worth of leadership articles and interviewing successful leaders working across different industries, concluded that the core of leadership has not changed over these decades (Ashkenas & Manville, 2018). Followers still point to the ability to look ahead and to communicate about the future as one of the most important traits of high-performing leaders (Ashkenas & Manville, 2018; Posner & Kouzes, 2017). This is not surprising when we consider leaders from Martin Luther King Jr. in the 1960s (Shelton, 2010) to Steve Jobs in the 2010s (Kasperkevic, 2015) who are well-known for being visionary leaders.

The importance of visionary leadership—an articulation of an abstract future-state for the collective with the purpose of persuading followers to contribute to its

realization (van Knippenberg & Stam, 2014)—is also highlighted in leadership research (e.g., Carton et al., 2014; Hitt & Ireland, 2002; Kotter, 2007; Rafferty & Griffin, 2004; Stam et al., 2010a, 2010b, 2014; Westley & Mintzberg, 1989). Leadership scholars have shown that visionary leadership positively relates to unit-level outcomes such as organizational performance (Khatri et al., 2001), venture growth (Baum et al., 1998, 2001; Baum & Locke, 2004), organizational innovation (Elenkov et al., 2005), and team financial performance (Greer et al., 2012). Also, visionary leadership also relates to improved follower attitudes such as trust in one's leader (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996), affective commitment (Dvir et al., 2004), commitment to strategy (Ateş et al., 2020) as well as increases in behaviors such as change-oriented behavior (Griffin et al., 2010), support for change (Venus, Stam, et al., 2019), and performance (Kearney et al., 2019).

In short, for decades, visionary leadership has been identified as a hallmark of effective leadership. Not surprisingly, then, leadership scholars have largely assumed that visionary leadership is generally well-received by followers. Although there are not many studies that examine why visionary leadership is effective in motivating followers, limited studies have suggested that visionary leaders mobilize followers by enhancing how followers view themselves (i.e., self-concept) (van Knippenberg & Stam, 2014). For instance, Stam and colleagues (2010a) provided evidence that visionary leadership help followers create an ideal self-image—the desired image of the self. Building on these findings, Stam et al. (2014) explained that the process through which visionary leadership leads to followers' pursuit of that vision is via enhanced perceptions of a possible collective self—a mental representation of the best image of the collective. This

research on self-concepts has contributed to our understanding of some key mechanisms underlying the process of how visionary leadership becomes effective; however, drawing almost exclusively from these theoretical perspectives has also left us with a potentially incomplete picture of this relationship.

In primarily focusing on the positive consequences of visionary leadership, scholars have largely overlooked the possibility that visionary leadership may negatively influence followers. In particular, followers may construe visionary leadership as introducing higher demands to their current work tasks and objectives (Berson et al., 2016; Grant, 2012; Griffin et al., 2010). Visionary leaders articulate an abstract future-state (Stam et al., 2014; van Knippenberg & Stam, 2014), which often involves challenging the status quo and facilitating change (Conger & Kanungo, 1987; Griffin et al., 2010; Venus, Stam, et al., 2019) as well as encouraging followers to pursue the benefit of the collective (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996). Followers may not always feel positive and even disagree about the changes associated with a given vision. For example, pursuit of a leader's vision may seem unrealizable or incompatible with their current work aspirations (Carton, 2018; Grant, 2012; Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996). Further, followers may feel uneasy about challenging the status quo and initiating change (Burnes, 2015; Shimoni, 2017; Venus, Stam, et al., 2019), or uninterested in pursuing collective ends over self-interests (De Cremer, 2002). In this regard, Clayton Christensen noted, "It is one thing to see into the foggy future. But…it's quite another to persuade employees who might not see the changes ahead to line up and work cooperatively to take the company in that new direction" (Christensen, 2010, p. 50).

The purpose of this dissertation is to challenge the dominant perspective that visionary leadership is primarily well-received by followers. Specifically, I propose a theoretical model that builds from the assumption that visionary leadership can elicit perceptions of increased job demands for followers. When job demands (i.e., external stimuli that place demands on individuals) are introduced, individuals interpret whether the introduced demand has a positive or negative impact on their lives (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Drawing on this perspective, I propose that followers may view visionary leadership as a job demand that either creates opportunities for achievement, personal growth, and well-being, or that thwarts their objectives at work (e.g., Boswell et al., 2004; Cavanaugh et al., 2000; J. A. LePine et al., 2005; M. A. LePine et al., 2016; Podsahoff et al., 2007).

Once visionary leadership is perceived as a job demand, it should invoke a cognitive appraisal process for followers. Stress scholars have differentiated job demands (i.e., job stressors) from the interpretation of those demands (i.e., appraisals) and proposed that cognitive appraisals of those demands are key mechanisms that explain why specific job demands lead to work outcomes (M. A. LePine et al., 2016; Mitchell et al., 2019; Ohly & Fritz, 2010; Rosen et al., 2020; Sessions et al., 2020; Webster et al., 2011). Specifically, individuals tend to appraise job demands as either benefiting or thwarting their personal growth, accomplishment, and well-being, and these appraisals, in turn, generate distinct coping behaviors (Carver & Connor-Smith, 2010; Connor-Smith & Flachsbart, 2007). By applying this framework, this dissertation examines when and why followers react positively or negatively to visionary leadership.

In doing so, this paper seeks to shift consensus (Hollenbeck, 2008) around the prevailing assumption that visionary leadership is primarily well-received by followers. In the following section, I develop a theoretical model that explains the process through which visionary leadership leads to both positive and negative follower behaviors.

Theoretical Model

Drawing on the transactional theory of stress (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), I propose a theoretical model that frames visionary leadership as a job demand which invokes the cognitive appraisal process within followers. This is based on the stress literature that suggests work conditions that have the potential to either facilitate or hinder personal growth invoke a cognitive appraisal process (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Given that visionary leadership generally challenges the status quo (Conger & Kanungo, 1987), facilitates change (Venus, Stam, et al., 2019), and directs subordinates to pursue collective interests over self-interests (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996), the communicated vision becomes an external stimulus which can be appraised as either a challenge or a hindrance by followers. That is, for some people, visionary leadership can be perceived as a potential source of personal growth and well-being, whereas, for others, it can be appraised as a stressor that may lead to personal loss or limitations.

When leaders communicate a vision, then, some followers will interpret it as a positive challenge, whereas others will see it as a stressful hindrance (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; M. A. LePine et al., 2016). However, the forces that shape followers' appraisals of the job demands associated with visionary leadership, either positively or negatively, are less clear. I theorize that followers' construal level—the ways that

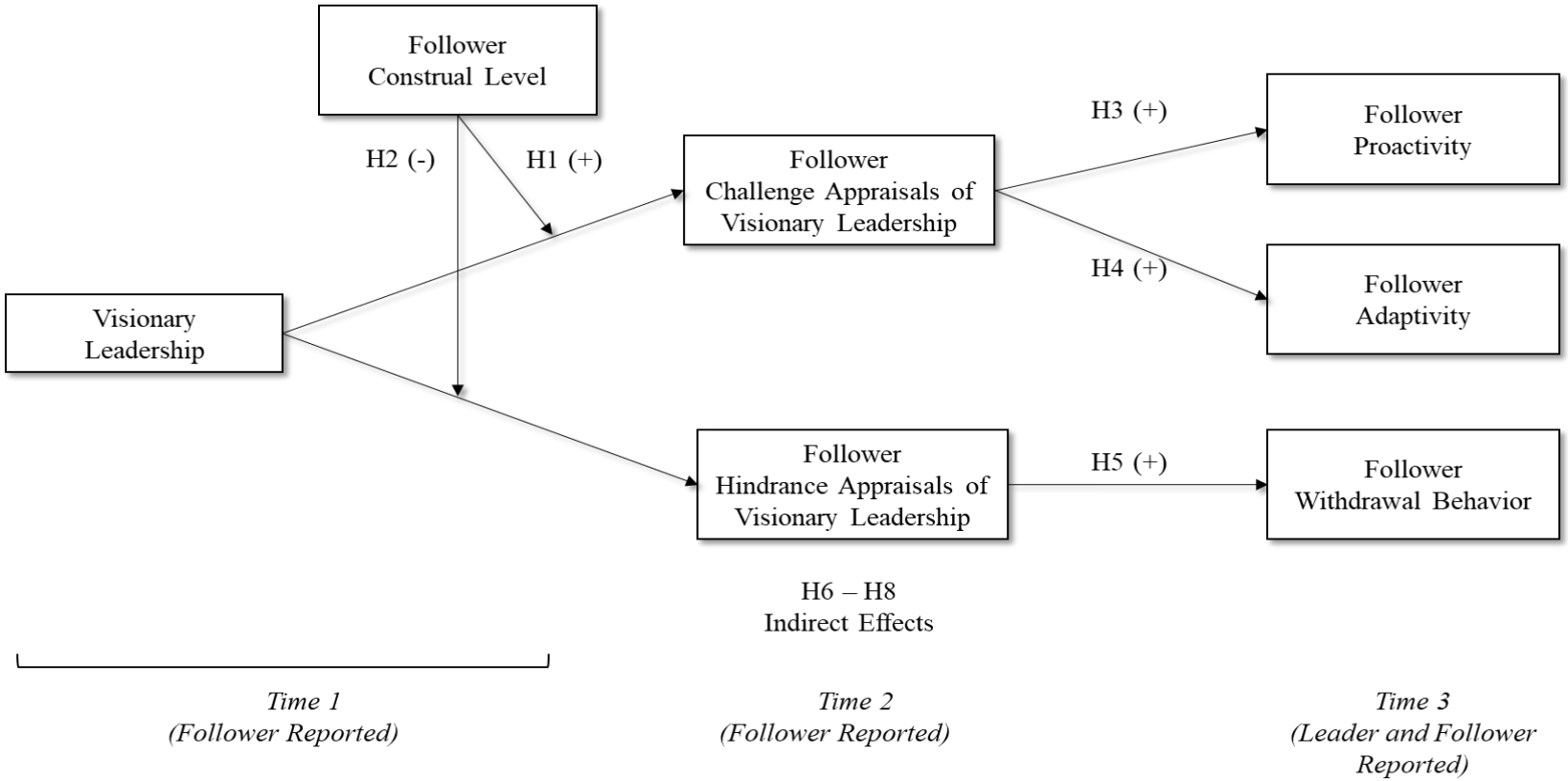
individuals retrieve and process information—plays a critical role in how followers appraise visionary leadership (Trope & Liberman, 2010). Construal level refers to the mental models that individuals apply to targets or entities along a continuum of the level of abstraction (Trope & Liberman, 2010). A high construal level involves mental mindsets that are abstract, schematic, and decontextualized and attends to the superordinate, central characteristics of targets; a low construal level entails mindset that are concrete, detail-oriented, and contextualized and directs attention to subordinate, peripheral features of targets (Wiesenfeld et al., 2017). Specifically, an individual may construe the same job task, such as analyzing a dataset, differently based on their construal level. A person high in construal level may construe this task as "identifying trends," whereas someone with a low construal level will appraise as "comparing numbers." Scholars have shown that high construal level is positively associated with exploratory learning (Reyt & Wiesenfeld, 2015), decisions that maximize joint outcomes (Stillman et al., 2018), and self-control (Fujita et al., 2006). In contrast, low construal level positively relates to making progress on tasks (Gollwitzer, 1999) and providing specific feedback to others (Berson & Halevy, 2014).

Follower's construal level should play a critical role in the appraisal process of visionary leadership because it influences the way individuals retrieve and process the meaning of a leader's vision (M. A. LePine et al., 2016; Steinbach et al., 2019). For instance, on the one hand, followers who tend to apply an abstract mindset will be more likely to appreciate the broad picture and the collective long-term goals of the leader's vision, and should therefore appraise visionary leadership as an opportunity for personal

growth and development (i.e., challenge appraisal). On the other hand, followers who tend to apply a concrete mindset will be more likely to focus on specific plans and short-term goals and should therefore appraise the same leader vision as thwarting their personal growth and well-being (i.e., hindrance appraisal). In sum, follower construal level will influence how visionary leadership is cognitively appraised by followers.

Then, I go on to explain how the cognitive appraisals of visionary leadership lead to different follower behaviors. First, followers who appraise visionary leadership as a challenge will be more likely to engage in problem-solving coping strategies in order to attain the goal articulated by visionary leadership (Carver et al., 1989; Folkman et al., 1986). In contrast, followers who appraise visionary leadership as a hindrance will be more likely to withdraw from their work tasks because hindrance appraisals trigger emotion-focused avoidance-type coping strategies (Carver et al., 1989; Folkman et al., 1986; Zhang et al., 2019). Thus, the proposed theoretical model suggests that visionary leadership will indirectly affect follower proactivity and adaptivity through challenge appraisals of visionary leadership for followers high in construal level. In contrast, the same visionary leadership will indirectly affect follower withdrawal behavior via hindrance appraisals of visionary leadership for followers low in construal level. The proposed model is shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1 Proposed Research Model



Note. Control variables include proactive personality, prosocial motivation, role-breadth self-efficacy, social-exchange relationship with leader, job autonomy, general job demands, and follower demographics (age, gender, and relationship tenure). Visionary leadership, follower construal-level, challenge and hindrance appraisals of visionary leadership, follower adaptivity, follower withdrawal are reported by followers. In contrast, follower proactivity is reported by their direct leader.

The Scope of the Study

There are several aspects that I would like to clarify about the scope of this dissertation. To start, I focus on vision communication[1] by a *leader*. It is possible that visions are delivered *routinely* within a team or organization without a leader (Paul et al., 2001). Indeed, prior studies have shown that visions can exist even without the leader's involvement (e.g., Lynn & Akgunb, 2001; Oswald et al., 1994; van Knippenberg & Stam, 2014). In most cases, however, leaders are the major agents that provide vision within groups (e.g., Ashkenas & Manville, 2018; Newton et al., 2018; Stam et al., 2010a, 2010b, 2014; van Knippenberg & Stam, 2014; Venus et al., 2013; Venus, Johnson, et al., 2019; Venus, Stam, et al., 2019). Moreover, Paul and colleagues (2001) suggested that visions originating from leaders are more effective than those emanating from teams. Thus, the focus of this study is on the effects of a *visionary leadership* rather than on *routinely* communicated shared vision.

Moreover, this study solely focuses on the effects of visionary leadership rather than the effects of transformational leadership (TFL) (van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013). That is, visionary leadership is narrowly defined than TFL. Scholars have confounded visionary leadership with other leader behaviors when examining its influence (van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013; van Knippenberg & Stam, 2014). For instance, leadership researchers have studied visionary leadership as one element of the broader TFL construct, which consists of other elements such as individualized consideration,

[1] Following prior literature on visionary leadership (e.g., Stam et al., 2014; van Knippenberg & Stam, 2014; Venus, Johnson, et al., 2019), I use visionary leadership and leader vision communication interchangeably throughout the dissertation.

intellectual stimulation, and idealized influence (Bass, 1985; van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013). Conceptualizing TFL in terms of all four elements (i.e., inspirational motivation, idealized influence, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration) has been criticized for not having a strong underlying theory (van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013); that is, studies, to date, have examined the effects of a set of positive leader behaviors without compelling evidence as to why these behaviors should be examined together. In addition, van Knippenberg and Sitkin (2013) argued that different elements of TFL should have differential effects on outcomes, which cannot be studied when all behaviors are aggregated into a broad TFL construct. Based on these criticisms, leadership scholars have called for research that examines the nuances of specific leader behaviors, especially for visionary leadership (e.g., Lord et al., 2017; van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013; Zhu et al., 2019). Thus, this study will answer recent calls (van Knippenberg & Stam, 2014) to examine the nature of visionary leadership as opposed to the broader TFL literature.

Finally, I focus on the effects of visionary leadership *itself*, rather than the content of the vision or the way the vision is communicated. van Knippenberg and Stam (2014) suggested that it is important to clarify *the source* that makes the vision effective. For instance, there are research streams that focus on whether the effects of a vision emerge from the content (i.e., specific characteristics of the vision) or the way it is communicated. Specifically, Stam et al. (2010a, 2010b) showed that a vision can be framed with a promotion (prevention) focus, and is more effective when communicated to followers with a congruent regulatory focus. Further, Venus, Stam et al. (2019)

suggested that the continuity in a vision of change leads to follower's support for change. In addition, the effects of leaders' emotional expressions (Venus et al., 2013) and different rhetorical techniques (Carton, 2018; Carton et al., 2014; Naidoo & Lord, 2008) during vision communication have been examined as effective vision delivery methods. As such, scholars have shown that there are various contents and methods that make a leader's vision more or less effective. Different from these studies, however, the focus of this study is to examine differences in how followers react to visionary leadership. In other words, I examine the effects of visionary leadership *per se* without confounding the effects with vision content and communication.

Contributions of the Research

This study makes important theoretical contributions to the leadership literature and to the transactional theory of stress. First, this study contributes to the literature on visionary leadership by providing a more comprehensive view of the effects of visionary leadership. Specifically, this study challenges the dominant perspective that visionary leadership is received in a primarily positive manner by followers (van Knippenberg & Stam, 2014). Indeed, the prevailing assumption in the literature is that visionary leadership is generally well-received by followers because it enhances how they view themselves (Shamir et al., 1993; Stam et al., 2014). Instead, by drawing on the transactional theory of stress (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) and integrating it with construal-level theory (Trope & Liberman, 2010), I contend that visionary leadership represents a job demand to followers, which can lead to positive or negative follower behaviors depending on how followers construe visionary leadership. Specifically, I

suggest that high follower construal level enhances the likelihood of visionary leadership leading to positive follower outcomes, whereas low follower construal level increases the chance of visionary leadership resulting in negative behavior. As such, this study offers new theory to explain how visionary leadership has both bright and dark effects, and when followers will appraise visionary leadership as benefiting or thwarting their personal accomplishment and well-being. In doing so, this paper not only responds to calls to explore the conditions under which visionary leadership negatively influences followers (Ateş et al., 2020; Rafferty & Griffin, 2004), but also provides important guidance to practicing leaders by explaining why articulation of a vision is not always well-received by followers (Tihanyi, 2020).

Second, this study contributes to the leadership literature by introducing novel mechanisms through which visionary leadership affects follower behavior. By explaining the processes underlying the effects of visionary leadership on followers, this paper contributes meaningfully to our theoretical understanding of why visionary leadership is effective (van Knippenberg & Stam, 2014). As Whetten (1989) suggested, answering "why" proposed constructs relate to each other is the building block for theory development. In this dissertation, I suggest that cognitive appraisals of visionary leadership are key to explaining how followers take action in response to such leader behavior. Specifically, I argue that followers appraise visionary leadership as either a challenge or a hindrance (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; M. A. LePine et al., 2016; Webster et al., 2011), depending on how they construe a leader's vision. In short, this study

advances the leadership literature by explaining "why" visionary leadership leads their followers to take actions in a certain way.

In addition, this study advances the stress literature in two important ways. First, I propose visionary leadership as a unique job demand that can be appraised as either a challenge and a hindrance. In general, stress scholars categorize various job demands unilaterally, as *either* a challenge or a hindrance stressor (Boswell et al., 2004; Cavanaugh et al., 2000; J. A. LePine et al., 2005), despite Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) suggestion that a single demand can be simultaneously appraised by some individuals as a challenge and by others as a hindrance. For instance, job demands such as time pressure, complex tasks, and high responsibility are generally categorized as challenge stressors, whereas stressors such as role conflict, role ambiguity, and administrative hassles are identified as hindrance stressors (Boswell et al., 2004; Cavanaugh et al., 2000; J. A. LePine et al., 2004). Further, studies on leadership and stress point to positive (negative) leader behaviors reducing (enhancing) follower burnout or stress (Newton et al., 2018; Skakon et al., 2010; Sosik & Godshalk, 2000), overlooking the possibility that a single leader behavior can be appraised positively and negatively by different followers at the same time. Different from these perspectives, I argue that both challenge and hindrance appraisals can simultaneously emerge from visionary leadership, similar to other dual-natured job demands such as promotion (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), workload (Webster et al., 2011), and performance pressure (Mitchel et al., 2019). In short, this dissertation contributes to the stress literature by introducing a job demand that elicits both positive and negative appraisals to different individuals.

Finally, this study advances the transactional theory of stress (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) by highlighting an understudied influence on individuals' appraisals of job demands: construal level (Trope & Liberman, 2010). In general, scholars have suggested that an individual's ability or belief in controlling the situation (e.g., sense of power, leadership self-efficacy, trait resilience) influences the cognitive appraisal process (Courtright et al., 2014; Mitchell et al., 2019; Sessions et al., 2020). However, these factors do not explain how individuals may interpret the meaning of demands differently (i.e., primary appraisal), rather it focuses on whether they have the ability to control the demanding situation (i.e., secondary appraisal). Shedding light on factors that alter how people interpret job demands is important (M. A. LePine et al., 2016), because the effects of job demand significantly change based on how individuals appraise it. I propose that follower construal level shapes the cognitive appraisal process for visionary leadership. By doing so, this study advances the stress literature by introducing an important boundary condition that enhances our understanding of when the positive or negative effects of visionary leadership will emerge in the cognitive appraisal process (Colquitt & Zapata-phelan, 2007; Whetten, 1989).

In the following chapters, I first review the literature on visionary leadership (van Knippenberg & Stam, 2014), the transactional theory of stress (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), and construal-level theory (Trope & Liberman, 2010). Drawing on these streams of literature and theories, I then develop hypotheses to form the theorized model. Finally, in Chapter 3, I explain my plan to test the proposed theoretical model using a field data from South Korea and two experiments from the United States.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

The purpose of this chapter is to review the literatures and theories relevant to the study and to develop hypotheses indicated in the proposed model (Figure 1). In order to develop hypotheses, I first review the literature on visionary leadership. In doing so, I define visionary leadership and explain how it has been conceptualized and examined in the leadership literature. Then, I describe how job demands have been conceptualized in the stress literature, and explain why visionary leadership represents a job demand to followers. I then review the challenge and hindrance stressor framework, along with the cognitive appraisal processes that individuals experience when faced with job demands. I then turn to construal-level theory to explain why different followers will appraise the same visionary leadership differently.

Based on these streams of literature and theories, I go on to develop the proposed relationships depicted in Figure 1. First, I hypothesize that visionary leadership and follower construal level interact to predict followers' challenge and hindrance appraisals of visionary leadership. Specifically, followers with a high construal level will more likely appraise visionary leadership as a challenge, whereas those with a low construal level will more likely appraise the same leader behavior as a hindrance. Then, drawing upon the stress literature, I propose that challenge appraisals of visionary leadership will positively relate to follower proactivity and adaptivity, and that hindrance appraisals of visionary leadership will positively associate with follower withdrawal. In sum, I propose that follower construal level determines whether visionary leadership triggers

functional or dysfunctional follower behaviors through different cognitive appraisal processes.

Visionary Leadership

Defining Visionary Leadership

The fundamental task for leaders is mobilizing followers to pursue shared objectives (Grant, 2012; van Knippenberg & Stam, 2014; Yukl, 2012). Thus, it is no surprise that leadership effectiveness has been characterized by a leader's ability to influence his or her followers to go beyond the status quo and their self-interest to facilitate change and pursue collective goals (Shamir et al., 1993; van Knippenberg et al., 2004). Over several decades, scholars have identified various leader behaviors that help leaders to successfully accomplish their task (e.g., Bass, 1985; Conger & Kanungo, 1987, 1994; Derue et al., 2011; House & Shamir, 1993; Judge et al., 2004; Judge & Piccol, 2004; Wang et al., 2011). Among the various leader behaviors that have been studied in this literature, visionary leadership directly points to the aspects of what makes a leader effective (van Knippenberg & Stam, 2014). Indeed, leadership scholars have viewed visionary leaders as agents who transform their followers into highly inspired and motivated employees (Conger, 1999).

In this dissertation, I adopt van Knippenberg and Stam's (2014) definition of visionary leadership as "the verbal communication of an image of a future for a collective with the intention to persuade others to contribute to the realization of that future" (p. 243). Scholars have viewed visionary leadership as essential for maintaining successful groups because, by definition, visionary leaders motivate followers to work

towards collective ends by articulating future-oriented directions and outcomes for groups (Berson et al., 2016; House & Shamir, 1993; Stam et al., 2014). Scholars have also described vision communication as a starting point for initiating change (Awamleh & Gardner, 1999; Griffin et al., 2010; Venus, Stam, et al., 2019), and as a linguistic device that is used to communicate ideal future goals for the unit (Carton et al., 2014; Rafferty & Griffin, 2004).

In the past few decades, visionary leadership has been primarily studied as one element of TFL and charismatic leadership (e.g., Gardner et al., 2010; Lord et al., 2017; Mhatre & Riggio, 2014; Wang et al., 2011; Zhu et al., 2019). This focus has limited our ability to examine the effects of visionary leadership independent from other elements of leadership (van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013). TFL has been studied as a multidimensional construct which consists of individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, idealized influence, and inspirational motivation (Bass, 1985), while charismatic leadership has been researched as a construct that is comprised of inspirational motivation and idealized influence (Conger & Kanungo, 1987, 1994; House & Shamir, 1993; Shamir et al., 1998). Individualized consideration refers to leaders considering follower needs and building relationships with followers. Intellectual stimulation refers to leaders challenging followers to learn and encouraging them to pursue new ways of solving problems. Idealized influence refers to leaders serving as role models that create an impression that their mission is extraordinary. Lastly, inspirational motivation refers to leaders formulating and articulating compelling visions to followers (Bass, 1985).

Studying visionary leadership as one part of other leadership elements (i.e., intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation) is particularly problematic given that these theoretical underpinning of these multidimensional constructs has been heavily criticized (van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013). Indeed, TFL and charismatic leadership research have been criticized as "being riddled with major problems" (van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013, p. 45). Specifically, scholars have operationalized TFL and charismatic leadership using the aggregated form of four leader behaviors without an explanation of why we should examine it this way (van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013). Further, even though it is likely that in some cases each element is associated with different outcomes and mechanisms that are meaningful, examining TFL and charismatic leadership as a multidimensional construct makes it very difficult to examine the effects of these different leadership elements (van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013).

As a result, although visionary leadership is considered as the core of effective leadership (e.g., Bass, 1985; Conger & Kanungo, 1987, 1994; Shamir et al., 1993; van Knippenberg & Stam, 2014), our understanding of such leader behavior is surprisingly limited (Lord et al., 2017; van Knippenberg & Stam, 2014; Zhu et al., 2019). Indeed, Stam et al. (2014) stated visionary leadership has "the dubious honor of being both one of the most crucial and mysterious aspects of leadership" (p. 1172). Similarly, Yukl (2010) asserted, "more research is needed to determine what type of vision is sufficient to guide and inspire major change" (p.310). In this regard, van Knippenberg and Sitkin (2013) called for future research to establish whether and how visionary leadership, by

its own, becomes effective. Thus, to extend our understanding of the effects of visionary leadership, it must be examined in isolation of other leader behaviors (van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013).

Before reviewing the effects of visionary leadership, I should clarify how visionary leadership and leader goal-setting (Locke & Latham, 1990, 2002) behaviors are distinct. These two behaviors are similar in that leaders communicate goals to their followers with the intention to motivate them. In this light, it is understandable to view visionary leadership as setting a goal; however, visionary leadership involves a specific type of goal that is distinct from what is explained as an effective goal in the goal-setting literature (Locke & Latham, 1990, 2002, 2004). Specifically, visions are articulated abstractly in a qualitative manner (Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Venus, Johnson, et al., 2019), whereas effective goals described in the goal-setting literature should be concrete and quantifiable (Locke & Latham, 1990, 2002; van Knippenberg & Stam, 2014). For instance, an example of a vision is "We don't sell flowers, we sell beauty" (Kouzes & Posner, 1987, p.91), whereas that of a goal is "We will sell $100,000 worth of flowers per month this year" (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996). Moreover, visionary leaders articulate higher-level, uncertain, and open-ended goals such as innovation, collective change, and extraordinarily high performance that are long-term focused (Berson, Halevy, et al., 2015; Conger & Kanungo, 1998; van Knippenberg & Stam, 2014). In contrast, effective goals target concrete objectives that can be achieved in a relatively short time period (Locke & Latham, 1990). Thus, leader visions are conceptually distinct from leader goals.

Moreover, in examining the nature of visionary leadership, it is instructive to clarify which aspects of the vision are being studied. Recall that visionary leadership refers to "the verbal communication of an image of a future for a collective with the intention to persuade others to contribute to the realization of that future" (van Knippenberg & Stam, 2014, p. 243). Following this definition as well as prior literature (Ateş et al., 2020; Kearney et al., 2019; Venus, Johnson, et al., 2019; Venus, Stam, et al., 2019), I focus on the degree to which a leader articulates an abstract future state for the collective rather than the content or communication method of the vision.

This clarification is important as leadership scholars have not only studied the effects of visionary leadership per se but also the content of visions (i.e., specific characteristics of a vision) and the way a vision is communicated (i.e., communicated method) (van Knippenberg & Stam, 2014). For example, researchers have examined the effects of visions that incorporates idealized futures (Conger, 1999; Strange & Mumford, 2002), shared values (Carton et al., 2014; Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996), sense of identity (Shamir et al., 1993; Venus, Stam, et al., 2019), and regulatory focus (Stam et al., 2010a, 2010b), and showed that visions that incorporate these contents make a leader's vision more effective. Further, researchers have focused on leaders' communication styles, such as their body gesture, posture, vocal fluency, eye contact (Holladay & Coombs, 1993), charismatic style (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996), strength of message delivery (Awamleh & Gardner, 1999), and emotional expression (Venus et al., 2013), that make vision communication more or less effective. That is, there is certain vision content and certain styles of communication that shape the effectiveness of visionary leadership.

However, these factors are elements that make a vision more or less effective, rather than visionary leadership itself. In this dissertation, I focus on the effects of visionary leadership rather than the content or communication style.

Effects of Visionary Leadership

The effects of visionary leadership have been studied at both organization and individual level, by both leadership and strategy scholars (e.g., Filion, 1991; Hitt & Ireland, 2002; Kotter, 1990; Kouzes & Posner, 1987). Findings from this stream of research have shown that visionary leadership is positively associated with organizational outcomes such as organizational performance, innovation, and venture growth. From a case analysis, Westley and Mintzberg (1989) analyzed how successful organizational leaders in history communicated their visions and proposed various types of visionary leadership in terms of style, process, content, and context on the strategy process. Khatri et al. (2001) also showed that visionary leadership is positively related to perceived unit performance. Moreover, the findings from Elenkov et al. (2005) indicated that an executive's vision has a positive impact on both product-market innovations and administrative innovation, beyond the effects of TFL and transactional leadership.

As visions necessarily articulate the discrepancy between current and future states, they facilitate development and growth. In this regard, the importance of visionary leadership has been extensively associated with venture growth in entrepreneurial contexts. As an example of this research, from a longitudinal sample of both CEOs and employee's within firms, Baum et al. (1998) showed that vision has a positive impact on venture growth, measured by sales growth, average annual

employment growth, and average annual profit growth and that this effect is mediated by the leader vision communication. In an extension of this study, Baum et al. (2001) provided evidence that a CEO's vision conceptualized as organizational motivation predicts venture growth along with organizational strategies and CEO competencies (i.e., industry skill and technical skill). Similarly, the findings from a six-year longitudinal study by Baum and Locke (2004) indicated that entrepreneurs' passion, skills, and tenacity predict venture growth via communication of vision. Further, the findings of Ruvio et al. (2010) suggested that an entrepreneur's vision predicts perceived venture performance and growth through adopting different organizational strategies.

Leadership scholars have also studied the impact of visionary leadership on individual attitudes and behaviors (van Knippenberg & Stam, 2014; Venus, Johnson, et al., 2019) and have shown that visionary leadership, on average, has a positive impact on individual attitudes. The findings of Kirkpatrick and Locke (1996) showed that a leader's vision of high quality is positively associated with followers' trust in a leader as well as favorable perceptions of their leader (i.e., intellectual stimulation, inspiration, and perceived charisma). Further, Khatri et al., (2001) proposed that a leader's vision is different from leader charisma and showed that visionary leadership is positively related to follower motivation, satisfaction, and commitment. Similarly, Dvir et al. (2004) showed that vision formulation, vision content (i.e., socially appealing values), and vision assimilation are associated with higher emotion-focused affective commitment, but unrelated to cognition-focused continuance commitment to the organization. However, findings from Rafferty and Griffin (2004) indicated that, surprisingly,

visionary leadership is unrelated to affective commitment and negatively associated with continuance commitment and role-breadth self-efficacy.

The relationship between visionary leadership and follower behavior has also been closely examined, as the ultimate purpose of such leadership is to mobilize followers to take actions toward collective goals (van Knippenberg & Stam, 2014). First, leadership researchers have shown that visionary leadership is positively associated with follower performance. For instance, the findings of Stam et al. (2010a) indicate that a leader's vision focusing on followers is associated with higher follower performance as it enhances followers' concept of an ideal self, and that this effect was stronger for followers higher in promotion focus. Similarly, Stam et al. (2010b) showed that the effect of visionary leadership on follower performance is higher when the content of the vision and followers' regulatory focus fit together. Specifically, follower performance was higher when a leader's vision was promotion-focused (prevention-focused), and the follower was also high in promotion focus (prevention focus). Further, findings from Kearney et al. (2019) indicated that the interaction effect between visionary leadership and empowering leadership has an impact on follower performance through enhanced role clarity. They showed that follower performance was higher when both visionary and empowering leadership are high.

In addition, as a leader's vision urges followers to challenge status quo (Conger & Kanungo, 1987) and facilitate change (Venus, Stam, et al., 2019), visionary leadership has been studied as an important antecedent of follower change-oriented behaviors (Carpini et al., 2017). The findings from Griffin et al. (2010) indicated that visionary

leadership has a positive relationship with adaptivity in followers high in openness to work role change. Moreover, visionary leadership had a positive effect on proactivity in followers high in role breadth self-efficacy. Similarly, Venus and colleagues (2019) argued that a vision incorporating a sense of continued identity has the advantage of gaining support for change from followers and that such effect is stronger when follower work uncertainty is high. Along these lines, Ateş et al. (2020) suggested that a team leader's visionary leadership is positively related to team members' commitment to change-related strategy when team leaders have a strategic alignment with the CEO.

Collectively, prior studies have shown that visionary leadership, generally, has a positive influence on important outcomes. However, the mechanisms through which visionary leadership becomes effective have been rarely studied in the leadership literature (van Knippenberg & Stam, 2014). Indeed, van Knippenberg and Stam (2014) stated, "With few exceptions, research in visionary leadership does not assess mediating processes." (p.256). This is problematic because knowing "why" contributes to our understanding of boundary conditions (van Knippenberg & Stam, 2014) and is a building block for theory development (Whetten, 1989).

In addition, the few studies that do examine this process rely on theories that suggest visionary leadership influences how followers view themselves. For instance, scholars have argued that visionary leadership helps followers create self- and collective-efficacy (Shamir et al., 1993), ideal self-images (Stam et al., 2010b), and perceptions of a possible collective self (Stam et al., 2014). That is, these studies propose that when a

leader communicates a vision, followers grow confidence about themselves or about the collective, which helps them pursue the leader's vision.

However, an over-reliance on this theoretical perspective has left us with an overly positive picture of the effects of visionary leadership. That is, extent studies on visionary leadership tends to assume that visionary leadership is primarily well-received by followers (Berson et al., 2016) and overlooks the possibility that visionary leadership can elicit negative reactions. Conger and Kanungo (1987, 1998) argued that the source of leadership effectiveness "lies in the attributions that followers make about their leaders" (Mhatre & Riggio, 2014, p. 225). Indeed, the adage "charisma lies in the eye of the beholder" reflects how leader behaviors become effective to followers and how followers react to such leader behaviors (Mhatre & Riggio, 2014). These studies suggest that even when a leader communicates a vision to his or her followers, followers may not react positively to the vision if they do not appraise visionary leadership as effective or meaningful to themselves. In fact, findings of Rafferty and Griffin (2004) and Shamir et al., (1998) show that visionary leadership can be unrelated or can negatively associate with follower perceptions and attitudes (e.g., continuance commitment towards the organization, self-efficacy). These results indicate that visionary leadership may not always have a positive influence on followers. Moreover, prior studies have hinted that the challenge of change and expectations of going beyond the status quo and self-interests incorporated in a leader's vision can be stressful to followers (e.g., Ateş et al., 2020; Griffin et al., 2010; Mhatre & Riggio, 2014; Venus, Stam, et al., 2019)

In short, leadership scholars have only hinted that while visionary leadership is positive to some followers, it may have a negative impact on other followers. Specifically, visionary leadership may have a positive effect to those who appraise visionary leadership as an opportunity to grow and self-develop, whereas the same leader behavior may negatively influence those who interpret the same leader behavior as thwarting growth and well-being. In the next section, I introduce the transactional theory of stress (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) which provides a framework that explains why and to whom visionary leadership may be construed as positive or negative.

Transactional Theory of Stress

Job demands have been studied as a critical concept in the stress literature (Cavanaugh et al., 2000; Karasek, 1979; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Generally, job demands have been conceptualized as environmental features that induce strain. For instance, Karasek (1979) suggested that work conditions such as high workload and time pressure generate mental strain, particularly when individuals have low control over making decisions. In this regard, Demerouti et al. (2001) defined demands as "physical, social, or organizational aspects of the job that require sustained physical or mental effort and are therefore associated with certain physiological and psychological costs (e.g., exhaustion)" (p. 501).

Job demands, however, are conceptualized somewhat differently in the transactional theory of stress (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Specifically, Lazarus and Folkman (1984) suggest that individuals encounter various job demands (i.e., work conditions) which become external stimuli that invoke a cognitive appraisal process.

Lazarus and Folkman (1984) theorize that people appraise job demands based on how these conditions influence their personal growth and well-being. Individuals evaluate job demands as promoting opportunities for growth and gain, or loss and harm (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). In turn, people find various ways to cope with job demands based on their appraisal of the demand (Carver et al., 1989; Carver & Connor-Smith, 2010; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

Stress scholars have emphasized that job demands reflect features in the work environment and are different from stress itself (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; J. A. LePine et al., 2005). Stress is defined as a psychological process that individuals experience when demands from the environment are taxing or exceeding one's resources and therefore harming their well-being (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; M. A. LePine et al., 2016). In other words, job demands are the stimuli that invoke the stress process, and as a result of this process, individuals may experience anxiety, exhaustion, depletion, and burnout (Jex, 1998). In this regard, job demands are also referred to as job stressors in the stress literature (Beehr et al., 2000; J. A. LePine et al., 2005).

Visionary Leadership as a Job Demand

Although visionary leadership has been generally posited in a positive manner, visionary leadership can be appraised as a job demand that elicits both positive and negative follower reactions. Specifically, I argue that visionary leadership can be a unique type of job demand that challenges followers to 1) go beyond the status quo and engage in change-oriented behaviors (Conger & Kanungo, 1987; Griffin et al., 2010; Venus, Stam, et al., 2019) and 2) pursue collective goals over self-interests (Kirkpatrick

& Locke, 1996). In the next section, I explain how and why followers may perceive visionary leadership as a job demand.

Challenging the status quo and engaging in change

Visionary leadership can be appraised as a job demand to followers because communication of a vision by a leader urges followers to challenge the status quo. Leadership scholars have contended that a leader visions, by their very nature, convey the undesirability of the status quo or the current situation (Conger, 1999; Conger & Kanungo, 1987; Naidoo & Lord, 2008; Stam et al., 2010a). Leaders who communicate vision are typically critical of the status quo (Fanelli et al., 2009) and often present shortcomings of the current situation and portray it as unsustainable (Conger & Kanungo, 1987; Gardner & Avolio, 1998). In contrast, the image of the future, by definition, is discrepant from the current state (Galvin et al., 2010; Griffin et al., 2010). Importantly, a critical evaluation of the existing situation makes a compelling starting point for expressing ideal future images and initiating change (Conger, 1999; Stam et al., 2010a).

Visionary leaders are viewed as active agents who seek to change the status quo by urging followers to collectively engage in change-oriented behaviors that help realize the ideal future state (Conger & Kanungo, 1987; Crant & Bateman, 2000; Galvin et al., 2010). That is, since a vision articulates the discrepancy between the undesirable status quo and a better future state, it urges followers to facilitate change to realize the communicated future (Carpini et al., 2017; Griffin et al., 2010). In this regard, Venus, Stam, et al. (2019) suggested that visionary leadership motivates followers to

collectively facilitate change to achieve the long-term goals. On the one hand, for followers, engaging in change can be perceived as an opportunity for self-growth and development as they are required to think and take action outside their comfort zone. On the other hand, however, engaging in change involves dealing with more complexity and uncertainty, which can be appraised as potentially damaging to their well-being.

Pursuing collective objectives over self-interest

Visionary leadership should also be perceived as a job demand by followers because such visions ask followers to go beyond self-interest and pursue collective goals (van Knippenberg et al., 2004). Where social interactions are prevalent such as in organizations or in groups, individuals are often put in situations in which they have to decide whether to pursue their own self-interests or the interest of the collective (Dawes, 1980; Messick et al., 1983). According to the rational choice theorists (e.g., Luce & Raiffa, 1957), individuals do not tend to collectively cooperate to achieve shared goals. This is because, in situations where resource such as time, effort, and monetary incentives are limited, incentives for not cooperating (pursuing self-interest) are greater than that of cooperating with others (De Cremer, 2002). However, when all individuals within a group or an organization do not cooperate, the outcome for everyone is worse than when everyone contributes to the collective goal (De Cremer, 2002). These conflicting forces create a social dilemma for individuals (Dawes, 1980).

Leadership researchers suggest that leadership plays an important role in solving this dilemma (De Cremer, 2002; De Cremer & van Knippenberg, 2002). Specifically, the findings of De Cremer and Van Knippenberg (2002) indicate that self-sacrificing leaders

and procedurally fair organizational systems enhance followers' organizational citizenship behavior through increased group belongingness. Moreover, De Cremer (2002) provided evidence that individuals perceive self-sacrificing leaders as more charismatic, and these leaders are effective in facilitating cooperative behaviors by followers. These studies, together, propose that followers are more likely to cooperate and pursue collective goals when leaders are also self-sacrificing (De Cremer, 2002; De Cremer & van Knippenberg, 2002).

Recall however, that visionary leadership or leader vision communication refers to the articulation of an abstract future state for the collective (van Knippenberg & Stam, 2014). The scope of visionary leadership does not incorporate other leader behavior elements such as idealized influence and self-sacrificing (van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013). Thus, the articulation of a future state for the collective itself will likely not have the same effects as charismatic leadership described in De Cremer (2002) and De Cremer and Van Knippenberg (2002). Rather, the act of setting expectations for followers to pursue collective goals without expressing self-sacrificing behaviors or support from a procedurally fair system will put additional pressure on followers. As a result, for some followers, visionary leadership will be perceived as a threat that thwarts their well-being as it enhances the tension between pursuing self- versus collective-interests, whereas, for others, it will be perceived as an opportunity to develop and grow by working collectively with others.

In short, drawing from previous literature on visionary leadership, I contend that visionary leadership can be perceived as a unique job demand for followers. Because

visionary leaders 1) challenge followers to go beyond the status quo and facilitate change and 2) require them to pursue collective goals over self-interests, followers may perceive visionary leadership as a unique job demand. Specifically, some followers may construe visionary leadership as thwarting their self-growth and well-being (i.e., hindrance appraisals), whereas others may also appraise the same leader behavior as helping them grow (i.e., challenge appraisals). In the next section, I review the challenge and hindrance stressor framework (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) to explain how job demands have been studied in the transactional theory of stress. Then, I focus on the cognitive appraisal processes that emerge when individuals face job demands.

Challenge and Hindrance Stressor Framework

Prior work on organizational stress has shown inconsistent relationships between job demands (i.e., job stressors) and work outcomes (Jex, 1998; J. A. LePine et al., 2004; Sullivan & Bhagat, 1992). In fact, past studies have shown little to no relationship between job demands and work outcomes (Cavanaugh et al., 2000). In an attempt to solve this issue, some scholars argued that the relationship between stress and work outcomes may take the form of an inverted U-shape, suggesting that the effects of stress on outcomes depend on the range of stress experienced by an employee (Quick et al., 1997). This view suggests that individual's positive outcomes would be maximized when there is a moderate amount of stress, whereas insufficient or excessive stress would be detrimental. However, this argument also had limited empirical support (Westman & Eden, 1997).

To clarify the relationship between job demands and work outcomes, Cavanaugh et al. (2000) differentiated job demands based on the type of demands rather than their level. That is, following Selye (1976), the authors contended that job demands are not unidimensional but can be categorized as two separate dimensions—challenge and hindrance stressors. Specifically, Cavanaugh et al. (2000) suggested that certain job demands can be categorized as challenge stressors, which refers to demands that are perceived to promote opportunities for personal accomplishment and learning. These stressors include time pressure, task complexity, and high responsibility. In contrast, Cavanaugh et al. (2000) referred to job demands that are appraised as thwarting personal accomplishments, learning, and well-being as hindrance stressors. Stressors such as role conflict, role ambiguity, administrative hassles, and concerns about job security were identified as hindrance stressors.

From a large sample of managers, Cavanaugh et al. (2000) provided empirical evidence that job demands can be categorized into these two separate dimensions, and that challenge stressors relate positively to job satisfaction and negatively to job search behavior, whereas hindrance stressors negatively relate to job satisfaction and positively to job search behaviors. Later, Boswell et al. (2004) replicated this study with a sample of university employees and provided evidence that challenge stressors positively associate with positive attitudes (i.e., loyalty) and negatively relate to unfavorable attitudes (i.e., intention to quit) and behaviors (i.e., job withdrawal and job search). Moreover, hindrance stressors had a negative association with positive attitudes and a positive relationship with intention to quit and job withdrawal. Further, their findings

suggested that felt challenge mediated the relationship between the two job stressors and employee outcomes. In addition, LePine et al., (2004) proposed that challenge stressors are positively related to learning performance while hindrance stressors are negatively related to the same performance, and that these relationships are partially mediated by exhaustion and motivation to lead.

A series of meta-analyses confirmed these initial findings concerning the two dimensions of job demands and work outcomes (e.g., Crawford et al., 2010; J. A. LePine et al., 2005; N. P. Podsakoff et al., 2007). First, by extending the transactional stress theory (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) and drawing on concepts from expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964), LePine et al. (2005) theorized and found that challenge stressors are positively associated with job performance through enhanced motivation. Specifically, the authors argued that because people tend to believe that the effort of coping with a challenge demand has a higher probability of success in overcoming the demand (i.e., higher expectancy) and overcoming the demand leads to obtaining attractive outcomes (i.e., higher instrumentality and positive valence), challenge stressors would enhance motivation, which, in turn, relates to increased performance. The authors also showed that although challenge stressors are positively associated with higher strain, which has a negative effect on job performance, the indirect effect of challenge stressors on job performance via motivation is stronger than that through strains. Thus, the relationship between challenge stressors and job performance was still positive (J. A. LePine et al., 2005). Moreover, the meta-analytic results suggested that hindrance stressors are

negatively associated with job performance as they reduce motivation and enhance strains (J. A. LePine et al., 2005)

Since then, two additional meta-analytic studies have examined the challenge-hindrance stressor framework. First, findings from Podsakoff et al. (2007) confirmed that challenge stressors generally have a positive relationship with favorable employee attitudes such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment and a negative association with unfavorable attitudes such as turnover intentions and turnover. In contrast, hindrance stressors showed a negative association with favorable attitudes and a positive association with unfavorable attitudes. In addition, they also found that the positive effects of hindrance stressors on turnover and withdrawal behavior, and the negative effects of challenge stressors on turnover and withdrawal behavior are mediated by such employee attitudes.

Second, Crawford et al. (2010) meta-analytically tested the job demands-resources theory (Demerouti et al., 2001) and argued that challenge and hindrance demands should be distinguished in order to clearly examine the effects of demands on employee engagement and burnout. Different from the traditional job demands-resources theory that suggested a positive effect of demands on burnout and a negative effect of demands on engagement, the authors found that the nature of the relationship between demands and engagement and burnout depends on the type of demands (i.e., challenge and hindrance demands). Their findings showed that demands that people appraise as a challenge are positively associated engagement, whereas demands that people appraise as a hindrance are negatively related to engagement.

With meta-analytic findings confirming the two-dimensional stressor framework, this framework has been extensively adopted by stress researchers. For example, using an emotion-based lens with an experience-sampling method (ESM), the findings of Rodell and Judge (2009) indicated that challenge stressors have offsetting indirect effects on citizenship behavior through enhanced attentiveness and anxiety and that these stressors can sometimes lead to higher counterproductive behavior through enhanced anxiety. That is, the authors showed that even good stressors could sometimes spark bad behaviors. Extending Rodell and Judge (2009), Rosen et al. (2020) recently argued that *the pattern* of challenge stressors determines whether the influence of challenge stressors are positive or negative. Specifically, their empirical results indicated that challenge stressors have a positive influence on employee performance and well-being when challenge stressors show a stable pattern across time periods, whereas the same stressors negatively affect outcomes when challenge stressors vary across time periods.

Further, Zhang et al. (2014) proposed a moderated mediation model that suggested that transactional and transformational leadership moderate the effects of challenge and hindrance stressors on job performance. Specifically, the authors suggested that transactional leadership weakens the negative relationship between hindrance stressors and job performance, whereas transformational leadership enhances the positive relationship between challenge stressors and job performance. In sum, Zhang et al., (2014) suggested that leadership can influence how people interpret stressors. Moreover, using a sample of leaders and followers, Courtright et al. (2014) proposed that leader development challenge, which is framed as a challenge stressor for

leaders, is positively associated with both engagement and exhaustion, which, in turn, predicted transformational and laissez-fair leadership, respectively. Moreover, the authors suggested that leaders with high leadership self-efficacy will be more engaged compared to those low in leadership self-efficacy, whereas those with low leadership self-efficacy will be more exhausted than those who are high in leadership self-efficacy.

In sum, stress scholars have supported a challenge-hindrance stressor framework, suggesting that job demands can be categorized into two dimensions based on how individuals appraise the demands. Researchers have largely concluded that both challenge and hindrance stressors are related to higher exhaustion, burnout, and anxiety, however, these dimensions have differential effects on motivational (J. A. LePine et al., 2005), attitudinal (N. P. Podsakoff et al., 2007), emotional (Rodell & Judge, 2009), and performance-based outcomes (J. A. LePine et al., 2005; M. A. LePine et al., 2016; Rosen et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2014). Until recently, however, what has been implicitly assumed in these studies is that a given stressor is consistently appraised as a challenge or a hindrance by all individuals. For instance, researchers have assumed that all individuals appraise challenge stressors as a challenge and hindrance stressors as a hindrance. This perspective, however, overlooks that the appraisal of demands is subjective to individuals (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Webster et al., 2011). That is, the same demands may be appraised as a challenge by some and a hindrance by others. Thus, examining key factors that influence how individuals make interpretations of both challenge and hindrance stressors is critical. Thus, in the following section, I review the

cognitive appraisal process and introduce recent empirical studies that further contributed to the cognitive appraisal process (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

Cognitive Appraisal Processes

The stress process is invoked when job demands exceed the individual's resources to cope with them (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). The challenge and hindrance stressor framework suggest that stress can be cognitively appraised as a challenge and a hindrance to one's personal development and well-being (Cavanaugh et al., 2000; Crawford et al., 2010; J. A. LePine et al., 2005; N. P. Podsakoff et al., 2007). Lazarus and Folkman (1984) theorized that there are two important stages involved in this appraisal process (i.e., primary and secondary appraisals). In the primary appraisal stage, individuals appraise the meaning of stressors. That is, people evaluate whether the stressors that they face will promote opportunities for personal growth, accomplishment, and well-being, or thwart these opportunities. In the secondary appraisal stage, people appraise whether the stressors they are facing are controllable. Based on whether coping strategies are available and controllable or not, individuals appraise the stressors as challenging or hindering. In short, when individuals appraise the stressors as providing opportunities for self-growth and well-being, and they are able to find coping strategies to properly manage the stressors, it is more likely that individuals appraise the stressors they face as challenges. In contrast, when people evaluate the stressors as thwarting chances to develop and harming their well-being, and they are not able to find coping strategies to manage the stressors, people are more likely to appraise the stressors as hindrances.

Applying the challenge and hindrance stressor framework (Cavanaugh et al., 2000), stress scholars have implicitly assumed that all individuals evaluate challenge stressors as a challenge and hindrance stressors as a hindrance. This assumption was partly based on Brief and George's (1995) argument that work contexts have a consistent economic meaning and so those who work in those contexts will interpret and react in a fairly similar manner. In alignment with this conceptualization, with few exceptions (Ohly & Fritz, 2010; Webster et al., 2011), scholars have tended to not directly measure the actual interpretation of the demands (i.e., appraisal) but only measure stressors and outcomes in the challenge and hindrance stressor framework assuming that appraisals happen in between. Theoretically, however, job demands (i.e., job stressors) differ from the interpretation of those demands (i.e., appraisals).

Recently, LePine et al. (2016) validated a cognitive appraisal measure (i.e., challenge and hindrance appraisal) and argued that cognitive appraisals of job stressors are key mechanisms that link job stressors to work outcomes. In response, many studies started to theorize and test challenge and hindrance appraisals as mechanisms that link specific job stressors with work outcomes. For instance, Mitchell et al., (2019) suggested both challenge and threat (i.e., hindrance) appraisals mediate the relationship between performance pressure and employee behaviors such as task proficiency, citizenship behavior, and incivility. Similarly, Sessions et al. (2019) argued that promotive and prohibitive group voice, which are perceived as challenge and hindrance stressor for leaders, respectively, will have differential influences on leader performance as leaders perceive group promotive voice as a challenge (i.e., challenge appraisals of group voice)

and group prohibitive voice as a hindrance (i.e., hindrance appraisals of group voice). More recently, findings of Rosen et al. (2020) indicated that challenge and hindrance appraisals mediate the relationship between the patterns of challenge stressors and employee performance and well-being. Specifically, the authors showed that individuals perceive challenge stressors as a challenge when challenge stressors are stable across time periods, whereas they evaluate those stressors as a hindrance when challenge stressors vary across time periods.

Directly measuring appraisal mechanisms, rather than assuming appraisals happen when individuals face demands, has provided two benefits to the stress literature. First, scholars can examine whether certain stressors can be appraised as both a challenge and a hindrance. Prior studies tended to assume that demands categorized as challenge demands are appraised as a challenge and that categorized as a hindrance are interpreted as a hindrance. In fact, different from how stress scholars have assumed in the dominant challenge-hindrance stressor framework, Lazarus and Folkman (1984, p. 33) stated: "Threat and challenge are not necessarily mutually exclusive." For example, they presented an example of job promotion potentially being a challenge and a hindrance at the same time (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). On the one hand, individuals may perceive job promotions as an opportunity for gains as they provide new knowledge, responsibility, recognition, and financial reward. On the other hand, job promotions entail the risk of dealing with new demands and not performing as well as expected. Building on this notion, Webster et al. (2011) suggested that stressors labeled as challenges (i.e., workload and responsibility) and hindrances (i.e., role conflict and

role ambiguity) can be simultaneously appraised as both challenging and hindering to varying degrees. Similarly, Mitchell et al. (2019) proposed that performance pressure is a unique stressor that can be appraised as both a challenge and a threat at the same time.

In addition, scholars can study various factors that influence the cognitive appraisal process. Indeed, Lazarus and Folkman (1984) contended that the meaning of stressors varies by individual. For instance, Sessions et al. (2019) proposed that supervisors' sense of power affects the degree to which they appraise group voice such that those with a high sense of power will perceive they have sufficient personal resources to control stressful situations. Similarly, Mitchell et al. (2019) theorized and showed that an individual's trait resilience moderates the relationship between performance pressure and cognitive appraisals of performance pressure, suggesting that one's ability to deal with stressful conditions affect whether one appraises the stress as challenging versus hindering. Finally, LePine et al. (2016) argued that followers working with charismatic leaders were able to appraise challenge stressors as more challenging and hindrance stressors as less hindering. That is, charismatic leaders were able to frame stressful situations as more favorable, enabling followers to alter the meaning stressors in a more positive way.

In sum, stress scholars have recently differentiated stressors from the appraisal of stressors, enabling scholars to contribute to the stress research by 1) examining unique stressors that can be simultaneously appraised as both challenge and hindrance (Mitchell et al., 2019; Webster et al., 2011) and 2) exploring various factors that may influence the primary appraisal process (what the stressor means to the individual). In the next section,

I review construal level theory, which I propose as an individual difference that has the potential to explain why and how followers may appraise visionary leadership as a challenge versus a hindrance.

Construal-level Theory

Construal level theory (Trope & Liberman, 2010) is particularly effective in explaining how individuals differ in how they construe given situations, and how these different construals shape their subsequent behaviors (e.g., Lennard et al., 2019; Reyt & Wiesenfeld, 2015; Rosen et al., 2016; Steinbach et al., 2019). Social psychologists have asserted that mental representations are constructed along a continuum from a high construal level where mindsets are more abstract to a low construal level where mental representations are more concrete (Wiesenfeld et al., 2017). High construals are abstract, schematic, and decontextualized and attend to the superordinate, central characteristics of targets, whereas low construals are concrete, detail-oriented, and contextualized and direct attention to subordinate, peripheral features of targets (Wiesenfeld et al., 2017). For example, an individual may construe the same task "Preparing a report" differently based on their construal level. A person with a high construal level may construe the task as "compiling information," whereas someone with a lower construal level will view the same task as "showing progress."

A high construal level helps individuals connect to the broader purpose, the "why" of the situation (i.e., why actions are taken), and more distal future-oriented goals (Wiesenfeld et al., 2017). Therefore, in the context of the workplace, employees with a high construal level easily attend to far-reaching, timeless, abstract goals (e.g.,

promoting health and healing in the world) (Carton, 2018). In contrast, a low construal level directs employee attention to the details, the "how" of the situation (i.e., how actions are taken), and temporally proximal goals (Reyt & Wiesenfeld, 2015; Wiesenfeld et al., 2017). Thus, employees with a low construal level tend to engage in day-to-day work and make progress (e.g., reaching monthly sales goals) (Carton, 2018). The adage that "it is hard to see the forest for the trees" reflects that it is difficult for individuals with a low construal level to attend to the broader picture and purpose (Reyt & Wiesenfeld, 2015).

Construal level has received limited attention in leadership research. First, scholars have examined the effects of leader construal level on leaders' subsequent behaviors. For instance, Venus and associates (2019) examined how a leader's construal level shapes the communication of vision to their followers. Specifically, the findings of Venus, Johnson et al. (2019) indicated that, on a daily basis, leaders tend to communicate vision when they are high in both construal level and leader identity. Moreover, van Houwelingen et al. (2015) showed that a leader's construal level influences how leaders discipline followers after followers transgress moral norms. The authors provided evidence that leaders high in construal level are more likely to enforce moral norms to followers after followers transgressed moral norms, whereas leaders low in construal level are less likely to discipline followers after such transgressions. This is because leaders high in construal level are more likely to attend to higher-level moral norms. Moreover, Steinbach et al. (2019) suggested that an executives' construal level influences their information processing of the business environment. They proposed the

concept of construal shifts and construal flexibility and argued that executives can develop the ability to modify how they process information to meet changing demands.

Second, researchers have examined contexts that shape a leader's construal level and subsequent communication styles. For example, Joshi and Wakslak (2014) argued that audience characteristics frame a leader's communication style. Specifically, leaders communicated more abstractly when talking to large audiences. Similarly, Joshi et al. (2016) proposed that people used abstract communication when communicating with (physically) distant others.

Finally, many studies have examined the effects of construal level fit. Berson and Halevy (2014) proposed the concept of construal level fit and argued that the difference in the hierarchical position between leaders and followers determines the effectiveness of those leaders' communication style. The authors suggested that abstract communication style (i.e., vision communication) is more effective in enhancing employee attitudes (e.g., job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and social bonding) when the hierarchical position between the leader and followers is great (i.e., high construal), whereas concrete communication style (i.e., evaluative feedback) is more effective when the hierarchical position between leaders and followers is small (i.e., low construal). Similarly, Berson and colleagues (2015) examined how leaders should construct their messages to motivate followers. They argued that the effects of leader communication on follower motivation is enhanced when the message matched the situation. Specifically, the authors proposed that visions that incorporate hypothetical and long-term desirable goals are effective in enhancing follower motivation when the

psychological distance (i.e., social and spatial distance) between leaders and followers is also great. Relatedly, Vanderstukken et al. (2019) tested the propositions suggested by Berson et al. (2015) and showed that the effects of leader vision communication on leader effectiveness are higher when the social distance between leaders and followers is great, whereas the effects of goal setting on leader effectiveness are higher when the social distance between leaders and followers is small.

In sum, construal-level theory (Trope & Liberman, 2010) proposes that the construal level plays a critical role in the relationship between leader and followers, suggesting that scholars should pay more attention to the cognitive and mental representations in this context (Wiesenfeld et al., 2017). Particularly, in this study, I focus on the possibility that follower's construal level may influence how they interpret visionary leadership by affecting which aspect of information that the individual directs attention to and the way they interpret it. This argument is in line with the primary appraisal process emphasized in the transactional theory of stress by Lazarus and Folkman (1984).

Now, based on the literature on visionary leadership (van Knippenberg & Stam, 2014), transactional theory of stress (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), and construal level theory (Trope & Liberman, 2010), I turn to hypothesis development. First, I contend that follower construal level influences how followers appraise leader vision communication, which is framed as a job demand in our model. Specifically, based on the construal level, followers would appraise the leader's vision as a challenge or a hindrance, which, in turn, would likely lead to different coping strategies.

Hypothesis Development

Challenging the prevailing assumption in the visionary leadership literature, I argue that visionary leadership is a unique job demand that can be simultaneously appraised as either a challenge or a hindrance. Drawing on the transactional theory of stress (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) and integrating it with construal-level theory (Trope & Liberman, 2010), I propose that visionary leadership invokes a cognitive appraisal process for followers as visionary leaders challenge the status quo (Conger & Kanungo, 1987), facilitate change within groups (Venus, Stam, et al., 2019), and ask followers to pursue collective objectives above individual interests (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996). That is, visionary leadership alone (i.e., without other positive leader behaviors such as idealized influence and self-sacrifice) (De Cremer & van Knippenberg, 2002) may be perceived as introducing demands to employees' current work tasks and objectives (Grant, 2012; Griffin et al., 2010). Thus, on the one hand, visionary leadership can be appraised as an opportunity for personal growth and development as it challenges followers to think and act in new ways. On the other hand, however, visionary leadership can be appraised as thwarting followers' growth and well-being as their leader's vision enhances complexity and uncertainty in their work lives.

Interactive Effects of Visionary Leadership and Follower Construal Level on Cognitive Appraisals of Visionary Leadership

According to the transactional theory of stress (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), the meaning of job demands is interpreted in the appraisal process (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; M. A. LePine et al., 2016). In this process, Lazarus and Folkman (1984) suggest

that certain individual differences can influence the appraisal process by altering how individuals appraise job demands. Specifically, the meaning of job demands can be altered when individual differences influence which aspect of information should be filtered and processed (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). In this regard, Mitchell et al. (2019) proposed that trait resilience, which helps individuals to disregard and reject information about negative stressors and attend to positive aspects (Florian et al., 1995), assists employees to effectively deal with performance pressure. Specifically, their findings suggested that employees with high trait resilience appraised performance pressure as a challenge, whereas those with low trait resilience interpreted the same pressure as a hindrance (Mitchell et al., 2019).

In this regard, construal-level theory is well suited for explaining how individuals cognitively appraise the faced job stressors. Specifically, construal level deals with the lens with which people construe information; it has a significant influence on how individuals retrieve and process information (Steinbach et al., 2019; Wiesenfeld et al., 2017). Indeed, Liberman and Trope (2008) stated construal level explains how individuals "make predictions, evaluations, and choices with respect to [their] construal of objects rather than the objects themselves" (p. 1204). That is, construal level influences information processing by enabling individuals to effectively filter information in line with their construal level and interpret that information in a manner that aligns with such level. For instance, Barreto and Patient (2013) and Steinbach et al. (2019) proposed that an executive's construal level shapes the information filtering process when construing the business environment.

The critical role that construal level plays in filtering and processing information relates to what has been described as the primary appraisal process in the transactional theory of stress (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Lazarus and Folkman (1984) asserted that individuals vary in how they interpret the meaning of job demands. Similarly, construal-level theory (Trope & Liberman, 2010) positions construal level as an individual's mental mindset that alters information from one's environment. Specifically, followers high in construal level attend to the broad, abstract picture, and open-ended, long-term goals, while filtering out concrete, detailed information (via selective perception). Also, they tend to interpret filtered information based on why certain actions are taken (Liberman & Trope, 2008; Steinbach et al., 2019). In contrast, followers low in construal level direct attention to concrete, detailed information, and short-term goals while filtering out abstract, open-ended, long-term goals. Moreover, they appraise filtered information based how actions could be taken. In sum, individuals facing the same job demand may appraise it differently based on their level of construal.

I theorize that visionary leadership and follower construal level will interact to predict cognitive appraisals of visionary leadership that then influence their behaviors. Specifically, I argue that followers with a high construal level will be more likely to appraise visionary leadership as a challenge, whereas those with a low construal level will be more likely to appraise the same leader behavior as a hindrance.

The Interactive Effect of Visionary Leadership and Follower Construal Level on Challenge Appraisals of Visionary Leadership

Followers may feel challenged by visionary leadership as visions ask followers to move beyond the status quo (Conger & Kanungo, 1987) and participate in changing their

current workplace (Venus, Stam, et al., 2019). Moreover, visions motivate followers to pursue collective interests over self-interests (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996). Thus, when faced with these demands, followers may perceive visionary leadership as an opportunity for personal development within the unit. However, not all followers may appraise visionary leadership as an opportunity for growth.

Followers with a high level of construal should be more likely to react favorably to visionary leadership, appraising it as an opportunity for personal growth and development. When leaders communicate a vision, which incorporates abstract, open-ended, long-term goals, followers with a high-level of construal are likely to see the importance of these visions and connect their daily work with it (Carton, 2018). This is because followers high in construal level attend to superordinate, open-ended, timeless features of visionary leadership; they are able to see the link between their work and the far-reaching goals as well as understand the purpose of the message (Berson, Halevy, et al., 2015; Vanderstukken et al., 2019).

The concept of "construal fit" proposed by Berson and Halevy (2014) helps further explain this process. According to Trope and Liberman (2010), psychological distance—in terms of time, space, social distance, and hypotheticality—entails mental construal. For example, they argue that as oneself being a referent point, moving from here (or now) to there (or that time point) constitutes different distance dimensions, and show that psychological distance is positively associated with construal level. In this regard, construal fit puts construal level into a context and suggests that the effects of construal level are greater when it is matched with a congruent situation (i.e., a high

psychological distance) (e.g., Fujita et al., 2008; Kim et al., 2009). For instance, an abstract communication style might be more effective when the difference of status between a speaker and a listener is large (i.e., social distance), and when talking about a distant future (i.e., temporal distance) or an object that is physically far away (i.e., physical distance). In contrast, concrete communication may be more effective when talking about a near future with a person in a similar status or someone who is physically closer.

Most importantly, construal fit has been shown effective in the leadership context. For instance, Berson and Halevy (2014) suggested that a leader's communication is most effective when the communication style (i.e., communication of a vision vs. evaluative feedback) of the leader and the psychological distance fit with each other. Specifically, they proposed that follower attitudes are enhanced when a leader with a high status communicate abstract, open-ended, and long-term goals rather than concrete, detailed, and short-term goals. In this vein, Berson et al. (2015) also proposed that follower motivation will be highest when a leader's communication style matches with the social and spatial distance between leader and followers. Similarly, Vanderstukken et al. (2019) empirically supported the concept of construal fit, showing that the effects of visionary leadership are most effective when the social distance between the leader and followers are high.

Taken together, both theory and empirical findings suggest that followers high in construal level are able to successfully understand and manage the demands incorporated in the leader's vision, enabling followers to positively cope with expectation of

challenging status quo (Conger & Kanungo, 1987), facilitating change (Venus, Stam, et al., 2019), and pursuing collective interests (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996). Specifically, followers with a high level of construal will appraise a leader's expectation to challenge the status quo and facilitate change within groups as an opportunity to develop themselves by thinking and taking action outside their comfort zone. Indeed, Berson, Da'as, et al. (2015) suggested that followers working with visionary leaders are more motivated to explore and learn, and further stimulate a learning climate. Moreover, these followers will construe collective objectives as aligning with self-interests (De Cremer, 2002; De Cremer et al., 2008; De Cremer & van Knippenberg, 2002).

In contrast, followers with a low construal level are less likely see the value of pursuing change and the collective interests incorporated in a leader's vision. As a result, they are less likely to appraise visionary leadership as providing opportunity for personal development and well-being, appraising visionary leadership as a challenge. Overall, a visionary leadership will more likely be appraised as a challenge for followers high in construal level but less likely for followers low in construal level. Thus, I suggest:

> *H1. Visionary leadership and follower construal level will interact to influence follower challenge appraisals of visionary leadership such that the relationship will be positive when follower construal level is high, and will not exist when follower construal level is low.*

The Interactive Effect of Visionary Leadership and Follower Construal Level on Hindrance Appraisals of Visionary Leadership

At the same time, visionary leadership can be appraised as a hindrance by followers because a leader's vision requires followers to challenge the status quo and

initiate change within the workplace (Conger & Kanungo, 1987; Venus, Stam, et al., 2019). Moreover, followers may feel uneasy about their leader's vision as it enhances the tension between collective and self-interests (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996). In short, followers may perceive visionary leadership as thwarting their personal development and well-being. This relationship, however, will be stronger for followers who are low in construal level.

Followers with a low level of construal are more likely to react unfavorably to a leader's communicated vision, appraising it as thwarting personal growth and well-being. Because followers low in construal level tend to direct attention to concrete, time-constrained, short-term goals, a leader's vision which includes abstract, open-ended, long-term goals will not be processed as meaningful in the cognitive appraisal process (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Steinbach et al., 2019). Further, followers with a low level of construal may not understand or agree with the purpose of visions as they are focused on "how" to get things done rather than understanding "why" things should be done (Berson, Halevy, et al., 2015). In sum, followers low in construal level will less likely see the purpose underlying the leader's vision.

Moreover, for followers low in construal level who tend to attend to specific, short-term goals, visionary leadership may be perceived as introducing obstacles into processing day-to-day work tasks, which is most manageable when they are time-constrained and narrowly defined (Locke & Latham, 2002). These followers may struggle to see the connection between their daily responsibilities and their leader's vision (Boswell & Boudreau, 2001; Carton, 2018). This is troubling, as Carton (2018)

suggests that visions that are disconnected from daily work not only has a detrimental influence on motivation but also becomes a source of disillusionment.

Further, followers low in construal level, who tend to be blind to long-term and open-ended goals, are less likely to manage the demands that they face. First, visionary leadership requires employees to question, revise, or discard what they have done and adapt to old routines (Vanderstukken et al., 2019). It is more likely that followers who do not see the value of change are more likely appraise a leader's articulation of an undesirable status quo and the leader's message to facilitate change as a hindrance to their personal growth and well-being. Indeed, scholars have suggested that individuals resist change and feel threats from organizational change (e.g., Dent & Goldberg, 2016; Fugate et al., 2008; Fugate & Soenen, 2018; Whitford & Moss, 2009). Moreover, Griffin et al. (2010) showed that change could be threatening and stressful to followers when leaders communicate vision. In addition, visionary leadership, without self-sacrificing behavior by a leader or a procedurally fair system (De Cremer & van Knippenberg, 2002), may enhance the tension between pursuing self- and collective-interests (i.e., social dilemma) for followers who do not see the value of the vision (Dawes, 1980; Messick et al., 1983).

In contrast, however, followers high in construal level are more likely to see the value of change and the purpose incorporated in the vision. Moreover, they may not feel complexed about pursuing collective interests. In this case, they are more likely to value visionary leadership and appraise it as less threatening or hindering for them. Overall,

visionary leadership will more likely be appraised as a hindrance for followers low in construal level but less likely for followers high in construal level. Thus, I propose:

H2. Visionary leadership and follower construal level will interact to influence follower hindrance appraisals of visionary leadership such that the relationship will be positive when follower construal level is low and will not exist when follower construal level is high.

Effects of Cognitive Appraisals on Subsequent Behaviors

The transactional theory of stress (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) suggests the way individuals appraise a stressor can elicit different coping processes. Job stressors appraised as a challenge provide potential opportunities for self-accomplishment and growth from the demand (Cavanaugh et al., 2000). In contrast, job demands perceived as hindrances thwart personal development and well-being (Cavanaugh et al., 2000). The stress literature has shown that these two appraisals motivate very different behaviors: challenge appraisals facilitate functional behaviors, and hindrance appraisals cause dysfunctional behaviors (Bliese et al., 2017; J. A. LePine et al., 2005).

I have explained how and why followers with varying levels of construal level will appraise leader vision communication differently. Specifically, I proposed that followers high in construal level will be more likely to appraise a visionary leadership as a challenge, whereas followers low in construal level will more likely interpret visionary leadership as a hindrance. Next, I go on to explain how the two cognitive appraisals of leader vision (i.e., challenge and hindrance appraisals of leader vision) should relate to subsequent follower coping strategies, respectively.

In doing so, I draw on the stress literature that suggests cognitive appraisals of job demands trigger certain coping behaviors. Stress scholars have identified various coping strategies that individuals display (e.g., Carver et al., 1989; Carver & Connor-Smith, 2010; Connor-Smith & Flachsbart, 2007; Zhang et al., 2019). Coping behaviors are defined as "the cognitive and behavioral efforts made to master, tolerate, or reduce external and internal demands and conflicts among them" (Folkman & Lazarus, 1980, p. 223). Perhaps the most commonly used structure for classifying coping behaviors categorizes them as either active/problem-solving or passive/emotion-based (Folkman & Lazarus, 1980). Active/problem-focused coping refers to behaviors intended to reduce or manage the demands, and it includes devoting effort and perseverance, developing plans to meet demands, and confronting demands (Carver et al., 1989; Folkman et al., 1986), whereas passive/emotion-based coping refers to behaviors aimed to minimize negative emotions generated by the demands (Carver & Connor-Smith, 2010) and includes withdrawing from the situation, handling emotional distress, and venting of emotion (Carver et al., 1989; Folkman et al., 1986; Zhang et al., 2019). Challenge stressors trigger active/problem-solving coping as these job stressors are appraised as having the potential for personal growth and gain (J. A. LePine et al., 2005). In contrast, hindrance stressors trigger passive/emotional-based coping because these stressors are appraised as thwarting personal growth and well-being (J. A. LePine et al., 2005).

Effects of Follower Challenge Appraisals of Visionary Leadership on Follower Proactivity and Adaptivity

Following prior literature on coping behaviors (e.g., Carver & Connor-Smith, 2010), I contend that follower challenge appraisals of visionary leadership will stimulate

active/problem-focused coping behaviors among followers. Stress scholars have argued that individuals tend to cope with stressors with an active/problem-solving mode when they appraise the confronted demand as an opportunity for self-growth and enhanced well-being (e.g., J. A. LePine et al., 2005; F. Li et al., 2018; Ohly & Fritz, 2010; Perrewé & Zellars, 1999). Active/problem-focused coping is functional because it attends to directly resolving the confronted demands (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; J. A. LePine et al., 2005; Wallace et al., 2009). Specifically, Lepine et al. (2005) suggested that the appraisal process can be explained by expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964). That is, challenge stressors are aligned with the belief that the level of effort expended to cope with the stressor is more likely to be successful, and the success in coping with the demand is more likely to lead to positive outcomes. Similarly, Perrewé and Zellars (1999) suggested that individuals cope with active/problem-focused behaviors when stressors are perceived as a challenge. Accordingly, I expect that challenge appraisals of visionary leadership will drive followers to adopt active/problem-focused coping behaviors rather than passive/emotion-based coping behaviors.

Proactive and adaptive behaviors are active/problem-focused coping strategies that are relevant to visionary leadership and are likely triggered by challenge appraisals of visionary leadership (Frese et al., 1997; Griffin et al., 2010). These two behaviors reflect primary and secondary control described in the coping literature (Morling & Evered, 2006). Primary control is defined as "attempts to change the world so that it fits the self's needs" (Rothbaum et al., 1982, p. 8). In contrast, secondary control refers to attempts by individuals to "flexibly adjust themselves to fit in with existing realities"

(Morling & Evered, 2006, p.269). In this regard, proactive behavior highlights the self as an active agent who actively change themselves or the environment, whereas adaptive behavior emphasizes adapting oneself to the uncertainty of initiated change. Although proactive and adaptive behaviors are slightly different in the ways they tend to cope with demands, they are both active means to cope with the stressors (Carpini et al., 2017; Griffin et al., 2007, 2010).

First, proactivity is a change-oriented behavior that is often used when workplace uncertainty is prevalent (e.g., Carpini et al., 2017; Griffin et al., 2007, 2010; Parker et al., 2006). Griffin et al. (2007) differentiated proactivity from proficiency to contend that different from task proficiency, proactivity is important in settings where work requirements cannot be clearly specified using job descriptions. Proactive behaviors incorporate various types of self-initiated behaviors examined in the management literature such as taking charge (Morrison & Phelps, 1999), personal initiative (Bledow & Frese, 2009; Frese et al., 1997), and proactive problem solving (Crant, 2000). In sum, these behaviors are all characterized as self-starting future-oriented behaviors that go beyond what is formally required. When followers feel challenged by visionary leadership, they will be more likely engaged in actively initiating change to realize an ideal future state that is incorporated in a leader's vision.

Second, adaptivity refers to the degree to which individuals cope with and constructively respond to changes that affect individual roles (Griffin et al., 2007). Similar to proactivity, adaptivity has become increasingly critical in the rapidly changing business environment (Carpini et al., 2017; Griffin et al., 2007; Ilgen & Pulakos, 1999).

That is, successfully adjusting to an uncertain situation is also very important. In this dissertation, for instance, followers who adjust well to new procedures and routines that a visionary leader initiates would be an excellent example of adapting well to a leader's vision. When followers are challenged by a leader's articulation of vision, they will be more motivated to adapt to changes incorporated in visionary leadership.

In sum, prior studies have shown that challenge appraisals of job demands trigger active/problem-focused coping (J. A. LePine et al., 2005; Perrewé & Zellars, 1999). As such, followers who appraise a visionary leadership as a challenge would be more likely to engage in two types of active/problem-solving coping behavior: proactivity and adaptivity. This is because proactivity and adaptivity are representative problem-focused coping strategies that are congruent with carrying the expectations communicated by a leader's vision. In this regard, Li et al. (2018) showed that challenge appraisals of a reward for creativity is positively related to active/problem-focused coping, which, in turn, leads to higher creative performance. Similarly, the findings from Ohly and Fritz (2010) showed that challenge appraisal has a positive effect on both creativity and proactive behavior. Moreover, Fugate and Soenen (2018) argued that challenge appraisal is positively associated with both compliance and championing with change. Thus, based on the aforementioned theory and empirical findings, I suggest:

H3. Follower challenge appraisals of visionary leadership will be positively related to follower proactivity.

H4. Follower challenge appraisals of visionary leadership will be positively related to follower adaptivity.

Effects of Hindrance Appraisals of Visionary Leadership on Follower Withdrawal

Different from challenge appraisals, hindrance appraisals trigger passive/emotion-based coping strategies because individuals who appraise a job demand as thwarting their personal growth and well-being will more likely feel negative emotions such as fear and anxiety (e.g., Carver & Connor-Smith, 2010; J. A. LePine et al., 2005; F. Li et al., 2018). In turn, people experiencing negative emotions engage in passive/emotion-based coping strategies to reduce and manage the negative emotions (J. A. LePine et al., 2005). Passive/emotion-based coping behaviors, however, are typically dysfunctional because they involve passive and avoidant strategies such as disengaging from problems rather than solving confronted demands (Carver et al., 1989; Folkman & Lazarus, 1980; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Wallace et al., 2009).

Specifically, stressors appraised as hindrances trigger passive/emotion-based coping behaviors that drives individuals to withdraw (or disengage) from their work (Carver et al., 1989; Folkman et al., 1986). Prior studies indicate that individuals distance oneself from the work in order to avoid undesirable aspects of job (Bruning & Campion, 2018; Hulin & Hanisch, 1991; Johns, 2001). These behaviors include psychological withdrawal (Hulin & Hanisch, 1991; Lehman & Simpson, 1992), absenteeism (Johns, 2001), intention to quit, and voluntary turnover (Fugate et al., 2008, 2012).

As such, visionary leadership appraised as hindering personal growth and well-being should elicit follower withdrawal behavior. This prediction aligns with meta-analytic evidence indicating at hindrance stressors are positively associated with

employee withdrawal behavior (Podsakoff et al., 2007). Similarly, Webster et al. (2011) showed that stressors appraised as a hindrance triggers emotional exhaustion, job dissatisfaction, and turnover intentions. Moreover, Fugate and his colleagues (2008; 2012) suggested that a negative appraisal of an organizational change is positively related quit intentions, absenteeism, and voluntary turnover. Relatedly, Rafferty and Restubog (2017) argued that employees are more likely to leave the organization when they appraise a history of change within an organization as a threat or a harm to themselves. When followers appraise visionary leadership as a hindrance, they will likely withdraw from their work rather than actively engaging in behaviors that aim to solve the problem. Thus, I propose:

H5. Follower hindrance appraisals of visionary leadership will be positively related to follower withdrawal behavior.

Conditional Indirect Effects of Visionary Leadership on Follower Proactivity, Adaptivity, and Withdrawal Behavior

In this dissertation, I have theorized that follower construal level moderates the relationship between visionary leadership and cognitive appraisals of visionary leadership, which, in turn, generates different employee behaviors. On the one hand, the relationship between visionary leadership and challenge appraisals of visionary leadership will be positive to follower's high in construal level. In turn, followers who feel challenged by visionary leadership will respond to visionary leadership by not only adapting well but also actively initiating change incorporated in a leader's vision. Thus, the indirect effects of visionary leadership on follower proactivity and adaptivity (via

challenge appraisals of visionary leadership) will be positive at high follower construal level. On the other hand, the relationship between visionary leadership and hindrance appraisals of visionary leadership will be positive to follower's low in construal level. In turn, followers who appraise visionary leadership as a hindrance will more likely respond by distancing and withdrawing from work. In short, the indirect effects of visionary leadership on follower withdrawal behavior (via hindrance appraisals of visionary leadership) will be positive at low follower construal level. In sum, I suggest:

H6. Follower challenge appraisals of visionary leadership will mediate the interactive effect of visionary leadership and follower construal level on follower proactivity such that the indirect effect will be positive when follower construal level is high and will not exist when follower construal level is low.

H7. Follower challenge appraisals of visionary leadership will mediate the interactive effect of visionary leadership and follower construal level on follower adaptivity such that the indirect effect will be positive when follower construal level is high and will not exist when follower construal level is low.

H8. Follower hindrance appraisals of visionary leadership will mediate the interactive effect of visionary leadership and follower construal level on follower withdrawal behavior such that the indirect effect will be positive when follower construal level is low and will not exist when follower construal level is high.

Research Question: Trait vs State Construal Level

This dissertation suggests that the effects of visionary leadership, which has been generally seen as a positive leader behavior, on cognitive appraisals of visionary

leadership will be contingent on follower construal level. In other words, the dissertation posits follower construal level as a key factor that determines whether visionary leadership is appraised as a challenge or a hindrance by followers. However, in examining the influence of follower construal level on the cognitive appraisal process of such leader behavior, it is important to note that construal level has been conceptualized as both a state- (Steinbach et al., 2019; Venus, Johnson, et al., 2019; Wiesenfeld et al., 2017) and a trait-like (Lennard et al., 2019; Reyt & Wiesenfeld, 2015; Rosen et al., 2016) construct.

On the one hand, scholars have treated construal level as malleable compared to a trait (e.g., Steinback et al., 2019; Venus, Johnson, et al. 2019; Wiesenfeld et al., 2017). For example, Venus et al. (2019) conceptualized leader construal level as fluctuating on a daily basis and found that daily construal level of a leader positively affects their communication of vision particularly when leader identity is high. Similarly, Steinbach et al. (2019) developed two new constructs—construal shifts and construal flexibility—which suggest individual construal level change over time. They argued that these two capacities play an important role for executives in managing complex strategic situations. Also, many studies have manipulated construal level in an experimental setting, assuming that construal level can be primed with a simple activity (Burgoon et al., 2013; Fujita et al., 2008; Reyt et al., 2016; Stillman et al., 2018; Wiesenfeld et al., 2017).

On the other hand, recent studies have conceptualized construal level as being more consistent over time (Lennard et al., 2019; Rosen et al., 2016). For instance, Rosen

and his colleagues (2016) treated individual construal level as a stable personal factor that moderates the relationship between self-control and instigated incivility. That is, while reduced self-control was positively associated with instigating incivility, this relationship was not significant for those who are generally high in construal level. Similarly, Lennard et al. (2019) conceptualized individual construal level as a stable attribute and found that person-level construal level moderates the daily relationship between surface acting and emotions.

Since construal level has been conceptualized as both a state- (Steinbach et al., 2019; Venus, Johnson, et al., 2019; Wiesenfeld et al., 2017) and trait-like (Lennard et al., 2019; Reyt & Wiesenfeld, 2015; Rosen et al., 2016) construct in the prior literature, it is important to consider the influence of construal level in both a trait- and state-like form in my theoretical model. This is because examining whether a state construal level will have the same influence as a trait construal level is not only of theoretical importance but also adds significant practical implications. Specifically, if leaders can change followers' cognitive mindset to be more receptive to their vision, it would provide a lot of meaningful guidance to organizations. Thus, while I do not expect that the influence of construal level will differ based on its form (i.e., state- vs. trait-like), I pose a following research question: Is the influence of individual construal level in the cognitive appraisal process of visionary leadership different based on whether construal level is measured as a state or a trait?

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY & RESULTS

The purpose of this chapter is to describe three studies designed to test my proposed theoretical model—one correlational study conducted with field data and two experimental studies—and report the results of these tests. First, I provide an overview of the design and purpose of each study. Then, I describe the sample characteristics, measures, analytic strategies, and results for the correlational study (Study 1) that tests the entire theoretical model with field data. In describing the results of this study, I also report tests of supplemental models to examine the robustness of the findings of Study 1 and to explore possible alternative models that may stem from my theoretical model. Finally, I explain the procedures, sample characteristics, and measures, and report the results of Studies 2 and 3, in which I test the interactive effect of leader vision communication and construal level on cognitive appraisals of leader communication.

Overview of Three Studies

To test the proposed model, I conducted a correlational study (i.e., Study 1) involving both leaders and their followers from a conglomerate organization operating in a service industry in South Korea. I collected surveys at three different time points in order to minimize common method issues (N. P. Podsakoff et al., 2013; P. M. Podsakoff et al., 2003). Thus, Study 1 provides a test with strong external validity by utilizing a survey methodology in a field setting.

Field settings, however, typically introduce some threats to internal validity (P. M. Podsakoff & Podsakoff, 2019). Therefore, the primary purpose of Studies 2 and 3 is

to provide a rigorous test of the interactive effect proposed in the theoretical model using a design with high internal validity (Cook & Campbell, 1979; Shadish et al., 2002). Scholars have highlighted the key benefits of using experiments in management research being that they allow for robust tests of causality as well as provide a valid means of ruling out alternative explanations (Antonakis, 2017; Colquitt, 2008; Podsakoff & Podsakoff, 2019). I conducted two experimental studies (i.e., Studies 2 and 3) using a sample of full-time working adults in the United States from Prolific, an online platform that provides a recruitment service. Prior evidence has shown that the quality of the sample from Prolific is superior to other online samples (e.g., MTurk) (Peer et al., 2017). Accordingly, recent studies have used this online sample source to test research models (e.g., Carton & Lucas, 2018; Miron-Spektor et al., 2018; Wu et al., 2018). Together, these experimental studies also enhance the generalizability of my theoretical model by utilizing participants from the United States (Study 2 and 3), in combination with those from South Korea (Study 1).

In Studies 2 and 3, the experimental design allowed me to test the predicted effects of visionary leadership compared to a control condition. In these studies, I chose leader goal-setting behavior, a common leadership behavior which possesses theoretically opposite characteristics from visionary leadership (van Knippenberg & Stam, 2014), as a control group to clearly assess the effects of visionary leadership. Effective goals described in the goal-setting literature are generally concrete, are typically applied to specific individuals, and are defined as quantifiable targets that are achievable in the near future (Locke & Latham, 1990). In other words, goals described in

the goal-setting literature is different from those described in the visionary leadership literature where visions are conceptualized as abstract, open-ended, and qualitative long-term goals. These different characteristics of goals specified in each leader vision communication and leader goal-setting condition further suggest that individuals with varying levels of construal level would interpret such leader communication differently. That is, high construal individuals would appraise vision communication by their leader as more as an opportunity for themselves to grow and less as hindering, whereas low construal individuals would appraise leader goal-setting behavior as more as positively influencing them and less as thwarting their well-being. Thus, using leader goal-setting behavior as a control group in Studies 2 and 3 not only helps clarify the effects of different goal types but also shows how they differently interact with construal level. That is, leader goal-setting behavior is a theoretically relevant to be used as a control group condition in testing the proposed theoretical model.

In Study 2, participants began by reporting their trait construal level. After being randomly assigned to a treatment or a control group, they read a vignette of a leader communicating his/her vision (or goals). Specifically, participants in the treatment group read about a leader communicating an abstract image of the future of his/her organization, and those in the control group read about a leader communicating concrete goals, as described in the goal-setting literature (Locke & Latham, 1990). I ensured that the two vignettes were similar in form and length besides the key distinguishing factors of vision and goal setting (see Appendix B). Following a manipulation check,

participants rated the extent to which they appraised the leader's communication as a challenge or a hindrance.

Study 3 followed the same procedures as in Study 2. However, instead of having participants report their trait construal level, it was manipulated. The purpose of Study 3 was to replicate Study 2, and also examine the interaction of visionary leadership and state construal level. Researchers have shown that although individuals' construal level in a specific context tends to be consistent (i.e., trait-like; Lennard et al., 2019; Reyt & Wiesenfeld, 2015; Rosen et al., 2016), it can also be malleable and shift over time (i.e., state-like; Steinbach et al., 2019; Venus, Johnson, et al., 2019; Wiesenfeld et al., 2017). If Studies 1 and 2 provide support for the proposed model and show that construal level affects how followers react to leader vision communication, a question of practical importance becomes whether or not follower construal level is malleable. If so, examining whether leaders can enable followers to switch from a low to a high construal level for them to be more receptive to a leader's vision is not only of theoretical importance, but its practical implications are noteworthy as well.

In addition to practical implications of examining the malleability of follower construal level in Study 3, this experiment's design also allows a test of Hypothesis 1 and 2 that rules out an alternative explanation that visionary leadership affects follower construal level. That is, it is possible that follower construal level shifts from low to high when leaders communicate long-term, abstract goals. In a field setting, it is difficult to rule out this possibility. Thus, by manipulating both leader vision communication and construal level and examining how participants randomly assigned to different groups

appraise leader vision communication differently, Study 3 ruling out an alternative explanation related to visionary leadership affecting follower construal level.

Study 1

Participants and Procedures

Leaders and followers from a large conglomerate in South Korea were recruited to participate in the study. Leaders held middle-manager positions within the organization, and they had two or more followers working for them. Leaders and followers held jobs in a variety of areas within the organization, including marketing, human resources management, customer services, and information technology. Initially, a senior HR manager sent an email to all employees to explain the purpose of the study and to invite them to participate in the study. Then, the senior HR manager provided a list of all employees, which included 124 leaders and 932 followers. I then emailed a link to an initial Qualtrics-based survey to these followers.

This initial survey served as Time 1 in a three-wave data collection. More specifically, data were collected across three time points from followers and once (Time 3) from leaders. In order to minimize common method variance, these time points were separated by at minimum two-week intervals (P. M. Podsakoff et al., 2003). At Time 1, followers were surveyed on their own construal level and their perceptions of visionary leadership, which serve as predictor variables in my theoretical model. Followers also responded to an open-ended question that asked specifically about their leader's vision communication after rating the visionary leadership measure. Moreover, control variables including proactive personality, prosocial motivation, role-breadth self-

efficacy, social-exchange relationship with the leader, job autonomy, general job demands (e.g., work intensity, work demands, conflicting demands), and demographic information (i.e., gender, age, and relationship tenure) were including in the Time 1 survey. Two weeks later, at Time 2, I collected follower ratings of challenge and hindrance appraisals of visionary leadership. Three weeks after Time 2[2], at Time 3, I collected ratings of follower proactivity from leaders and ratings of follower adaptivity and withdrawal behavior from followers. See Table 1 for a summary of all study variables.

At time 1, 706 completed measures of visionary leadership, their own construal level, and control variables, and at time 2, 639 completed measures of cognitive appraisals of visionary leadership. Finally, at time 3, 647 followers completed their own adaptivity and withdrawal, while 113 managers rated follower proactivity in the survey. Following recommendations from past research (e.g., Koopman et al., 2019; Singer & Willett, 2003), I did not include 4 follower responses when only one or two followers in a work unit responded. That is, in my final sample, I only utilize data from work groups wherein at least two followers responded. Also, since followers were asked to appraise their leader's vision communication, participants' appraisals of visionary leadership would not be accurate if a leader had not communicated vision at all. Thus, I excluded 15 participants who indicated in an open-ended question that their leader does not

[2] I was not able to collect Time 3 data after two weeks due to organization's work schedule. However, I do not expect that a three-week time separation between Time 2 and Time 3 would have influenced the results in any way.

communicate any vision[3]. As a result, the final sample consisted of 496 followers (53% final response rate) nested within 116 managers[4] (94% final response rate), for an average of 4.28 followers per leader. Of the followers, 74.6 % were male, their average age was 35.1 years (*SD* = 7.84), and their average organizational tenure was 6.2 years (*SD* = 6.73). Of the leaders, 81.9% were male, their average age was 45 years (*SD* = 4.76), and their average organizational tenure was 15.3 years (*SD* = 6.03).

[3] Fifteen followers indicated that their leader does not communicate vision at all. I analyzed the data with and without these participants included in the model. Results of the study did not significantly change as a result of including them in the model.

[4] This indicates the number of managers rated by followers at time 1.

Table 1 Study Variables (Study 1)

Time	Variable	Reference	Rater
Time 1	• Visionary leadership	Ateş et al. (2020)	Follower
	• Follower construal level	Venus, Johnson, et al. (2019)	
	• Proactive personality	Bateman & Crant (1993)	
	• Prosocial motivation	Grant & Sumanth (2009)	
	• Role-breadth self-efficacy	Parker (1998)	
	• Social exchange quality	Colquitt et al. (2014)	
	• Job demands	Karasek (1979)	
	• Job autonomy	Hackman & Oldham (1980)	
	• Demographic variables (gender, age, and relationship tenure with leader)		
Time 2	• Challenge appraisals of visionary leadership • Hindrance appraisals of visionary leadership	LePine et al. (2016)	Follower
Time 3	• Proactivity	Griffin et al. (2007)	Leader
	• Adaptivity	Griffin et al. (2007)	Follower
	• Withdrawal	Lehman & Simpson (1992)	

Measures

Appendix A lists all items for Study 1. I utilized the translation-back translation method (Brislin, 1970) to translate the items into Korean.

Independent Variable

***Visionary Leadership* (T1).** Follower perceptions of visionary leadership was measured on a seven-point scale (1= *Strongly disagree* to 7 = *Strongly agree*) using a three-item measure adapted from Rafferty and Griffin (2004), and recently used in Ateş et al. (2020). Following procedures from Kearney et al. (2019), I removed positive adjectives such as "inspiring," "optimistic," or "compelling" from the original items (e.g., Podsakoff et al., 1990; Sully De Luque et al., 2008) because these adjectives reflect followers' positive perceptions of leader behavior rather than the behavior itself (see van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013). Items include "In general, my leader has a clear understanding of where we are going," "has a clear sense of how our team has to change," and "has no idea where we are going" (reverse). Coefficient alpha was .77.

Following suggestions from prior leadership research (e.g., Barrick et al., 2015; Colbert et al., 2008; Courtright et al., 2014; Kirkman et al., 2009), I averaged the ratings of visionary leadership across followers nested within the same leader to obtain an aggregated measure of visionary leadership for each leader. To test the appropriateness of this aggregation, I computed r_{wg}, ICC(1), and ICC(2) (LeBreton & Senter, 2008). The $r_{wg(j)}$ for visionary leadership was .70, indicating strong within-group agreement on visionary leadership, since r_{wg} values above .70 suggest strong evidence of within-group agreement (LeBreton & Senter, 2008).

ICC(1) assesses the extent to which individual ratings are attributable to group membership, as typically indicated by values between .05 and .20 (Bliese, 2000). The ICC(1) value for visionary leadership was .12, representing a moderate level of support for aggregation (LeBreton & Senter, 2008). ICC(2) indicates the extent to which the variable of interest can be distinguished across groups. The value of ICC(2) for visionary leadership was .36. Even though this value is somewhat small relative to values reported in other studies, small ICC(2) values are not uncommon when the average group size is relatively small (Bliese, 2000) and when the variable of interest is collected from the same organization (Biemann et al., 2012; Courtright et al., 2014). In sum, the results of r_{wg}, ICC(1), and ICC(2) support the aggregation of visionary leadership.

Moderating Variable

***Follower trait construal level* (T1).** Traditionally, researchers have used the behavior identification form (BIF) to assess whether a specific action is abstractly or concretely represented (Vallacher & Wegner, 1989). The BIF presents non-work activities (e.g., "eating"), each accompanied by a choice representing a low level of construal (e.g., "chewing and swallowing") and a choice representing a high level of construal (e.g., "getting nutrition"). Participants choose which description they feel best represents the behavior for each activity. While this measure has been extensively used in past research (Lennard et al., 2019; Rosen et al., 2016), it was not appropriate for this study mainly because the activities used in the measure are not relevant to the work domain (e.g., "Toothbrushing," "Washing clothes," "Picking an apple"). Indeed, the HR Manager of the firm requested that this scale not be used because of this lack of

organizational relevance. This issue, combined with the substantial length of the BIF, led me to seek out an alternative measure of construal level.

I assessed follower trait construal level with the three context-independent item measure developed and validated by Venus and colleagues (2019). Participants responded to the items on a seven-point scale (1= *Strongly disagree* to 7 = *Strongly agree*). The items are "In general, I focus on the big picture rather than on details," "In general, I care more about central characteristics of my actions rather than specifics," and "In general, I focus on the general meaning or overall effect of my work." Coefficient alpha was .86.

Mediating Variables

***Challenge and hindrance appraisals of visionary leadership* (T2).** Followers rated challenge and hindrance appraisals of visionary leadership using two three-item measures developed by LePine and colleagues (2016). The items were adapted to capture followers' challenge and hindrance appraisals of the vision communicated by their leader on a seven-point scale (1 = *Strongly disagree* to 7 = *Strongly agree*). Following Sessions et al. (2019), the following lead-in instructions were provided to followers: "The items on this page refer to your experience when your direct leader/supervisor [Name] communicates his/her vision to change things at work." Sample items of challenge appraisals of visionary leadership include "Working to fulfill the demands of my leader's vision improves my personal growth and well-being" and "I feel the demands of my leader's vision challenge me to achieve personal goals and accomplishment." Coefficient alpha was .94 for challenge appraisals of visionary

leadership. Sample items of hindrance appraisals of vision communication are "Working to fulfill the demands of my leader's vision thwarts my personal growth and well-being" and "I feel the demands of my leader's vision constrain my achievement of personal goals and development." Coefficient alpha was .96 for hindrance appraisals of visionary leadership.

Dependent Variables

The dependent variables in my model were three follower behaviors – proactivity, adaptivity, and withdrawal. Follower proactivity was rated by leaders because proactive behaviors such as initiating change are easily observable by leaders. However, follower adaptivity and withdrawal are less observable by leaders, leaving followers as a better rater source of this behavior (Berry et al., 2012). Therefore, consistent with prior literature (Griffin et al., 2007, 2010), follower adaptivity and withdrawal were rated by followers.

***Follower proactivity* (T3).** Follower proactivity was assessed by leaders with a three-item scale developed by Griffin et al. (2007). Leaders assessed how often their followers engaged in work-related proactive behaviors during the past three weeks on a seven-point scale (1 = *Not at all*/*Very little* to 7 = *A great deal*). Representative items for proactivity include "[Employee name] initiated better ways of doing core tasks" and "[Employee name] came up with ideas to improve the way in which core tasks are done." Coefficient alpha was .95.

***Follower adaptivity* (T3).** Follower adaptivity was self-reported by followers with three items adapted from Griffin et al. (2007). Followers were asked to describe

how often they had adapted to the change initiated by their leader's vision during the past three weeks on a seven-point scale (1= *Not at all/Very little* to 7 = *A great deal*). Sample items include "I responded constructively to change" and "I learned new skills to adapt with changes." Coefficient alpha was .93.

***Follower withdrawal behavior* (T3).** Withdrawal behavior was self-reported by followers using a 12-item withdrawal behavior scale developed by Lehman and Simpson (1992). Followers reported how often they engaged in such behaviors during the past three weeks on a seven-point scale (1 = *Not at all/Very little* to 7 = *A great deal*). Sample items include "I thought of being absent" and "I chatted with co-workers about nonwork topics." Coefficient alpha was .90.

Control Variables

I controlled for a number of variables that have the potential to influence followers' theorized cognitive appraisal process as well as their responses to such appraisals (Carlson & Wu, 2012). These variables include proactive personality (Parker et al., 2006), prosocial motivation (Grant & Sumanth, 2009), role-breadth self-efficacy (Parker, 1998), social exchange quality with the leader (Colquitt et al., 2014), job autonomy (Hackman & Oldham, 1980), general job demands (e.g., work intensity, work demands, conflicting demands) (Karasek, 1979), and demographic information (i.e., gender, age, and relationship tenure). All control variables were assessed by followers at Time 1.

First, at the individual level, I controlled for proactive personality (Parker et al., 2006, 2010), prosocial motivation (Grant & Sumanth, 2009), and role-breadth self-

efficacy (Parker, 1998). Proactive personality was controlled because it refers to the individual tendency to engage in proactive behavior and meta-analytic findings suggest proactive personality as a predictor of proactivity (Fuller & Marler, 2009; Tornau & Frese, 2013). Proactive personality was assessed with a six-item measure, which is a shortened version of the scale developed by Bateman and Crant (1993). The shortened version of this scale has been used in prior studies (e.g., Li et al., 2010; Parker, 1998) and has been shown to highly correlate with the original scale (Claes et al., 2005). Responses ranged from 1 = *Strongly agree* to 7 = *Strongly agree*. Sample items include "If I see something that I don't like, I fix it" and "I am looking for better ways to do things." Coefficient alpha was .79. Prosocial motivation was controlled because previous studies have shown that individuals with high prosocial motivation are more likely to take initiative at work (Grant & Mayer, 2009). Prosocial motivation was assessed with a five-item measure used in Grant and Sumanth (2009) with responses ranging from 1 = *Strongly agree* to 7 = *Strongly agree*. Sample items include "I do my best when I'm working on a task that contributes to the well-being of others," and "I like to work on tasks that have the potential to benefit others." Coefficient alpha was .92. Third, role-breadth self-efficacy, which refers to the self-belief that one can engage in proactive tasks, was assessed using an adapted ten-item measure from Parker (1998), with responses ranging from 1= *Not at all confident* to 7 = *Very confident*. Representative items include "Analyzing a long-term problem to find a solution" and "Representing your work area in meetings with senior management." Coefficient alpha was .94. In addition to these variables, follower gender, tenure, and relationship tenure were

controlled at the individual level as research has shown demographics may influence stress appraisals, proactivity, and withdrawal (Bohlmann & Zacher, 2020; Bonanno et al., 2007; Ng & Feldman, 2013; Scott & McClellan, 1990).

Second, at the relational level, I controlled for follower social exchange quality with the leader using a four-item scale developed by Colquitt et al. (2014). Scholars have suggested that followers who have good social exchange relationships with their leaders tend to go above and beyond their duties (Dulebohn et al., 2012). Responses for this scale ranged from 1= *Not at all* to 7 = *Extremely*, and they indicated the extent to which the relationship with their leader is characterized by "mutual obligation," "mutual trust," "mutual commitment," and "mutual significance." Coefficient alpha was .96.

Finally, two characteristics of the job—job autonomy and job demands—served as control variables. Prior studies have suggested that job autonomy is a predictor of proactive behavior (Marinova et al., 2015; Parker et al., 2006, 2010; Rank et al., 2007). Job autonomy was assessed with a three-item measure adapted by Morgeson et al. (2005) with responses ranging from 1= *Strongly disagree* to 7 = *Strongly agree*. Sample items include "I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job" and "I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work." Coefficient alpha was .90. Also, since work conditions other than visionary leadership may influence followers' cognitive appraisals as well as their behavior, I controlled for job demands using a seven-item measure developed by Karasek (1979) with responses ranging from 1= *Strongly disagree* to 7 = *Strongly agree*. Followers assessed the extent to which their jobs reflect the

proposed demanding work conditions such as excessive work and being required to work fast. Coefficient alpha was .93.

Analytical Strategy

Multilevel Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Since my data include multiple followers nested within leaders, I conducted all analyses with Mplus 8 (Muthén & Muthén, 2017). In testing the model, I utilized a full-information maximum likelihood (FIML) estimation. Unlike a listwise deletion approach, FIML estimation directly analyzes incomplete datasets to yield unbiased parameter estimates and accurate standard errors (Newman, 2014). In other words, FIML estimation produces more robust results compared to the listwise deletion approach (Newman, 2014).

Before beginning hypothesis tests, I conducted a multilevel confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to assess whether the theorized model fit the data well. Accounting for the nested nature of the data, aggregated visionary leadership was modeled at Level 2 (between-workgroups), whereas follower trait construal level, challenge and hindrance appraisals of visionary leadership, proactivity, adaptivity, and withdrawal were modeled at Level 1 (within-workgroups). Here, the comparative fit index (CFI), root mean squared error of approximation (RMSEA), and the standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) were reported. In general, CFI values above .90; RMSEA and SRMR values below .10 indicate acceptable model fit (Williams et al., 2020). Then, to ensure that the theorized model fit the data better than alternative models, the fit of this model was compared to that of a four-factor model in which the two mediators loaded onto a

single factor and the three dependent variables loaded onto a single factor (i.e., Factor 1: visionary leadership; Factor 2: follower trait construal level; Factor 3: challenge appraisals and hindrance appraisals of visionary leadership; Factor 4: proactivity, adaptivity, withdrawal), and a two-factor model in which all within-workgroup variables loaded onto a single factor (i.e., Factor 1: visionary leadership; Factor 2: follower trait construal level, challenge and hindrance appraisals of visionary leadership, proactivity, adaptivity, withdrawal).

Hypothesis Testing: Multilevel Path Analysis

I conducted a multilevel path analysis to test my hypotheses. Hypothesis 1 and 2 predicted that visionary leadership and follower construal level interact to predict cognitive appraisals of such leader behavior. Following prior research (e.g., Aguinis et al., 2013; Enders & Tofighi, 2007), I group-mean centered the Level-1 variables and grand-mean centered the Level-2 predictor variable. Then, following suggested procedures in testing multilevel interactions (e.g., McClean et al., 2020; M. Wang et al., 2011), Hypotheses 1 and 2 were tested using random slopes, while controlling for other variables at Level 1 using fixed slopes.

Hypotheses 3 and 4 proposed that challenge appraisals of visionary leadership positively relate to follower proactivity and adaptivity. These hypotheses were tested by examining the effects of challenge appraisals of visionary leadership to follower proactivity and adaptivity, while controlling for the effects of hindrance appraisals of visionary leadership on these variables. Hypothesis 5 suggested a positive relationship between hindrance appraisals of visionary leadership and follower withdrawal. This

hypothesis was tested by examining the relationship between hindrance appraisals of visionary leadership and follower withdrawal, while controlling for the effects of challenge appraisals of visionary leadership on the same follower behavior.

To test the conditional indirect effect hypotheses (i.e., Hypotheses 6 - 8) which predict a moderating effect of follower construal level on the indirect effects of visionary leadership on follower behavior (via appraisals of such leadership), I utilized parametric bootstrapping (Preacher et al., 2010; Selig & Preacher, 2008). Specifically, I estimated the indirect effects using a Monte Carlo simulation with 20,000 replications to generate bias-corrected confidence intervals (CI) around the indirect effects of visionary leadership on follower behaviors through follower cognitive appraisals of visionary leadership at high (+1SD) and low (-1SD) levels of follower construal level. Prior studies have suggested that the conditional indirect effects are significant when the bias-corrected CI of the difference between high and low indirect effects exclude zero (Preacher et al., 2007).

Results

As discussed in Chapter 3, Study 1 tested the entire theoretical model in a field setting with a sample of followers nested within leaders. In this section, I first provide results from a multilevel CFA, and then report results from multilevel path analysis. Finally, I test supplemental analyses to enhance the robustness of my findings and to explore models that may further extend my theorized model.

Table 2 reports the means, standard deviations, and correlations of the variables collected from the field setting. Before testing hypotheses, I conducted a multilevel CFA

to test the overall fit of the hypothesized model to the data and to compare this fit against alternative models. Visionary leadership was modeled at Level 2, and follower construal level, challenge and hindrance appraisals of leader vision, proactivity, adaptivity, and withdrawal were modeled at Level 1. The results of this model indicated acceptable fit ($\chi^2(309) = 441.10$, $p < .001$; RMSEA = .029; CFI = .978; $SRMR_{within}$ = .044; $SRMR_{between}$ =.000). As reported in Table 3, using Satorra-Bentler-scaled chi-squared difference tests (Satorra & Bentler, 2001), this model was compared to two alternative models (described in Chapter III, Study 1, Analytical Strategy). As shown in this table, the full model showed significantly better fit compared to the four-factor model ($\chi^2(321) = 2600.93$, $p < .001$; RMSEA = .120; CFI = .628; $SRMR_{within}$ = .117; $SRMR_{between}$ =.000; $\Delta \chi^2 = 2159.83$*) and the two-factor model ($\chi^2(324) = 4326.13$, $p < .001$; RMSEA = .158; CFI = .347; $SRMR_{within}$ = .159; $SRMR_{between}$ =.000; $\Delta \chi^2 = 3885.02$*).

Table 2 Descriptive Statistics and Correlations among Study Variables (Study 1)

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
Level 1																		
1. Relationship tenure	2.51	2.01	-															
2. Gender	.75	.44	-.05	-														
3. Age	35.1	7.84	.27*	.15*	-													
4. Proactive personality	5.34	.79	-.06	.20*	-.05	(.79)												
5. Prosocial motivation	5.13	.75	-.10*	.11*	-.09	.48*	(.92)											
6. Role self-efficacy	5.46	.88	.02	.29*	.13	.59*	.39*	(.94)										
7. Social exchange relationship	5.99	1.17	-.13*	.08	-.04	.25*	.40*	.24*	(.96)									
8. Job autonomy	5.44	1.10	.05	.09*	.05	.32*	.28*	.41*	.27*	(.90)								
9. Job demands	4.31	1.13	.09	-.03	.12	-.06	.01	-.01	-.15*	-.06	(.93)							
10. Challenge appraisals	5.37	1.25	-.05	.20*	-.01	.34*	.43*	.35*	.65*	.30*	-.12*	(.94)						
11. Hindrance appraisals	2.32	1.32	.02	-.11*	.00	-.27*	-.37*	-.30*	-.57*	-.29*	.26*	-.63*	(.96)					
12. Trait construal level	5.89	.83	.00	.22*	.06	.57*	.49*	.58*	.39*	.36*	-.04	.48*	-.41*	(.86)				
13. Proactivity	5.24	1.23	.10*	-.09*	-.09	.06	.10*	.08	.08	.16*	.10*	.12*	-.01	.08	(.95)			
14. Adaptivity	5.65	.91	-.07	.17*	-.01	.42*	.34*	.56*	.19*	.23*	.00	.30*	-.25*	.43*	.10*	(.93)		
15. Withdrawal	1.79	.68	.07	-.14*	.13	-.36*	-.31*	-.36*	-.22*	-.20*	.15*	-.30*	.37*	-.34*	-.01	-.47*	(.90)	
16. Visionary leadership	5.59	.63	.07	.29*	-.03	.25*	.28*	.12	.68*	.39*	-.32*	.67*	-.61*	.24*	.30*	.02	-.20*	(.77)

Notes: Level 1 n = 482-496, depending on missing data across time points; Level 2 n = 116. Gender: Female = 0, Male = 1. Correlations among the Level-1 variables are within-group mean centered correlations. Level-1 variables were aggregated to Level-2 to analyze correlations with visionary leadership. Reliabilities are reported along the diagonal.
*$p < .05$.

Table 3 Multilevel Confirmatory Factor Analysis (Study 1)

	$\chi 2$	*df*	CFI	RMSEA	$SRMR_{within}$	$SRMR_{Between}$	$\Delta \chi 2$
Study 1 (Level 1, N=496; Level 2, N=116)							
Seven-Factor Model [a]	441.10	309	0.98	0.03	0.04	0.00	
Four-Factor Model [b]	2600.93	321	0.63	0.12	0.12	0.00	2159.83*
Two-Factor Model [c]	4326.13	324	0.35	0.16	0.16	0.00	3885.02*

[a] (1) Visionary Leadership, (2) Follower Construal Level, (3) Challenge Appraisals of Leader Vision, (4) Hindrance Appraisals of Leader Vision, (5) Proactivity, (6) Adaptivity, (7) Withdrawal

[b] (1) Visionary Leadership, (2) Follower Construal Level, (3) Challenge Appraisals of Leader Vision, Hindrance Appraisals of Leader Vision, (4) Proactivity, Adaptivity, Withdrawal

[c] (1) Visionary Leadership, (2) Follower Construal Level, Challenge Appraisals of Leader Vision, Hindrance Appraisals of Leader Vision, Proactivity, Adaptivity, Withdrawal

Next, I proceeded to test the hypotheses. The multilevel path analytic results are presented in Table 4. Hypothesis 1 stated that the interaction of visionary leadership and follower construal level predicts challenge appraisals of visionary leadership, such that the relationship is positive at high levels of follower construal level, and will not exist at low levels of construal level. As shown in Table 4, the interactive effect of visionary leadership and follower construal level on challenge appraisals of visionary leadership was significant ($\gamma = .227$, $p = .012$). Figure 2 depicts the interaction plot that shows the interactive effect between visionary leadership and follower construal level on challenge appraisals of visionary leadership at high (+1 SD) and low (-1 SD) levels of follower construal level (Cohen et al., 2003). As shown here, the relationship between visionary leadership and challenge appraisals of visionary leadership at both high (slope = .979, $p = .000$) and low levels (slope = .653, $p = .000$) of follower construal level was positive and significant, which slightly differs from the hypothesized relationship. Specifically, the results indicated a significant interactive effect of visionary leadership and follower construal level predicting challenge appraisals of visionary leadership, and the pattern of this interaction was such that there was a significant positive relationship between visionary leadership and challenge appraisals of visionary leadership for not only high construal followers, but for low construal followers as well (albeit weaker). Thus, Hypothesis 1 was partially supported.

Hypothesis 2 stated that the interaction of visionary leadership and follower construal level predict hindrance appraisals of visionary leadership, such that the relationship is positive when follower construal level is low and nonexistent when

follower construal level is high. Similar to Hypothesis 1, results showed that the interactive effect of visionary leadership and follower construal level on hindrance appraisals of visionary leadership is significant (γ = -.202, p = .046). Figure 3 depicts the interaction plot that shows the effect of visionary leadership on hindrance appraisals of visionary leadership at high and low levels of follower construal level (Cohen et al., 2003). Simple slope tests indicated that the relationship between visionary leadership and hindrance appraisals of leader vision is negative at both high (slope = -.880, p = .000) levels and low (slope = -.591, p = .000) levels of follower construal level. Moreover, the negative relationship between visionary leadership and hindrance appraisals of visionary leadership was significantly weaker for low construal followers compared to those high. In sum, while the results indicated a significant interactive effect of visionary leadership and follower construal level on hindrance appraisals of visionary leadership, the pattern of this interaction slightly differed from that predicted in Hypothesis 2. Specifically, the effect of visionary leadership on hindrance appraisals of that leader behavior was negative (not positive, as predicted in Hypothesis 2) for low construal followers, and also negative (rather than nonsignficant, as predicted in Hypothesis 2) for those high in construal level. In other words, the hypothesized pattern of the relationship between visionary leadership and follower hindrance appraisals was much more negative than anticipated. Thus, Hypothesis 2 was partially supported.

Table 4 Multilevel Path Analytic Results (Study 1)

	Challenge Appraisals		Hindrance Appraisals		Proactivity		Adaptivity		Withdrawal	
	γ	*SE*	*γ*	*SE*	*γ*	*SE*	*γ*	*SE*	*γ*	*SE*
Control Variables										
Intercept	5.11*	.09	2.47*	.10	5.31*	.11	5.61*	.07	1.86*	.06
Relationship tenure	.02	.02	-.04	.02	.06*	.03	-.03	.02	.01	.02
Gender	.24*	.10	-.11	.12	-.20	.12	.02	.08	-.06	.08
Age	.00	.01	.00	.01	-.02*	.01	-.01	.01	.01*	.00
Proactive personality	.01	.08	.07	.08	-.06	.08	.11	.06	-.12*	.05
Prosocial motivation	.14*	.07	-.17*	.08	.05	.08	.08	.06	-.06	.04
Role self-efficacy	.05	.07	-.07	.09	.06	.09	.48*	.07	-.14*	.05
Social exchange quality	.55*	.06	-.48*	.07	.02	.06	-.03	.05	.04	.06
Job autonomy	.04	.05	-.08	.06	.14*	.06	-.02	.04	.00	.03
Job demands	-.04	.04	.23*	.05	.09	.05	.02	.04	.04	.03
Study Variables										
Visionary leadership	.82*	.10	-.74*	.12	.44*	.09	.12	.08	-.13*	.06
Trait construal level	.23*	.08	-.20*	.09						
Interaction	.23*	.09	-.20*	.10						
Challenge appraisals					.13*	.06	.06	.06	-.02	.05
Hindrance appraisals					.10	.07	-.02	.04	.13*	.04
Pseudo-R^2	.54		.45		.09		.33		.26	

Notes: Level 1 *n*=482-496, depending on missing data across time points; Level 2 *n*=116. Gender: Female = 0, Male = 1. Unstandardized coefficients reported.
*$p < .05$.

Figure 2 Interactive Effect of Visionary Leadership and Follower Trait Construal level on Challenge Appraisals of Visionary Leadership (Study 1)

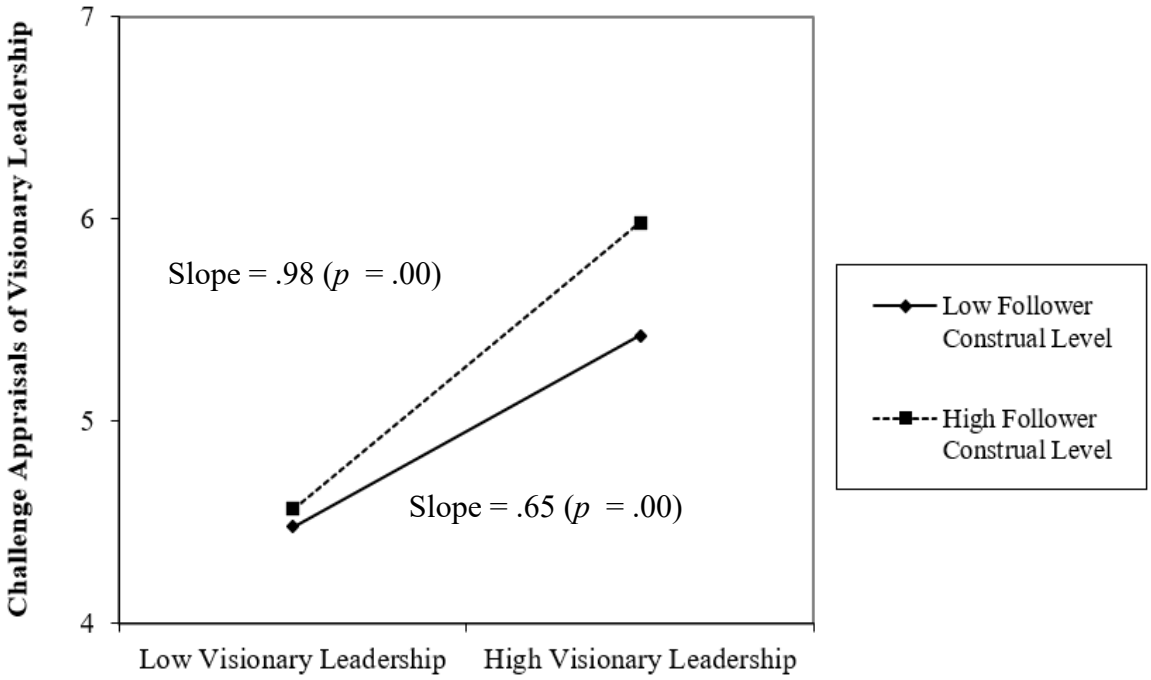
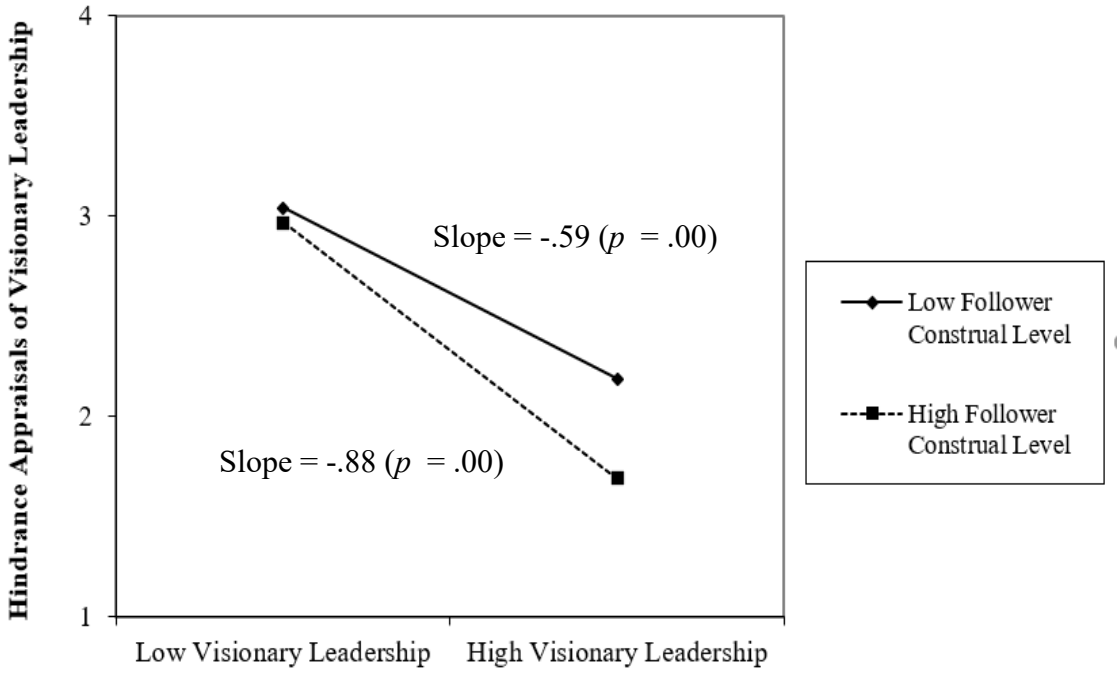


Figure 3 Interactive Effect of Visionary Leadership and Follower Trait Construal level on Hindrance Appraisals of Visionary Leadership (Study 1)



Next, I went on to test the effect of cognitive appraisals of visionary leadership on follower behaviors. Hypothesis 3 predicted that challenge appraisals of visionary leadership would positively associate with follower proactivity. As shown in Table 4, challenge appraisals of visionary leadership were positively and significantly associated with leader-rated follower proactivity ($\gamma = .127$, $p = .035$), supporting Hypothesis 3.

Hypothesis 4 proposed that challenge appraisals of visionary leadership would be positively associated with follower adaptivity. Results indicated that challenge appraisals of visionary leadership were not positively associated with self-rated follower adaptivity ($\gamma = .063$, $p = .257$). Thus, Hypothesis 4 was not supported. Finally, Hypothesis 5 posited that hindrance appraisals of visionary leadership would be positively associated with follower withdrawal. As shown in Table 4, results indicated that hindrance appraisals of visionary leadership were positively associated with follower withdrawal ($\gamma = .126$, $p = .001$). Thus, Hypothesis 5 was supported.

Next, I tested whether the indirect effects of visionary leadership on follower proactivity, adaptivity, and withdrawal through cognitive appraisals of visionary leadership are moderated by follower construal level. Hypothesis 6a predicted that follower challenge appraisals of visionary leadership mediate the interactive effect of visionary leadership and follower construal level on follower proactivity, such that the indirect effect of visionary leadership on follower proactivity via challenge appraisals of visionary leadership is positive when follower construal level is high and does not exist when follower construal level is low. As shown in Table 5, the indirect effect of visionary leadership on follower proactivity via challenge appraisals of visionary

leadership was positive and significant at high levels of construal level (estimate = .124, 95% CI [.015, .257]), while the indirect effect was also positive at low levels of follower construal (estimate = .083, 95% CI [.008, .184]). Moreover, the CI of the difference between the indirect effects at high and low levels did not include zero (estimate = .041, 95% CI [.005, .113]), indicating that visionary leadership is positively associated with follower proactivity through challenge appraisals of visionary leadership and that this relationship is significantly more positive for high than for low construal-level followers. However, given that the indirect effect of visionary leadership on follower proactivity via challenge appraisals of such leader behavior was positive and significant (rather than nonsignificant) for low construal level followers, Hypothesis 6a was partially supported.

Hypothesis 6b posited that follower challenge appraisals of visionary leadership mediate the interactive effect of visionary leadership and follower construal level on follower adaptivity, such that the indirect effect is positive at high levels of follower construal level and does not exist at low levels. Results showed that the indirect effect of visionary leadership on follower adaptivity via challenge appraisals of visionary leadership is positive at both high (estimate = .062, 95% CI [-.043, .173]) and low (estimate = .041, 95% CI [-.028, .122]) levels of follower construal. However, neither indirect effect was significant as the CIs at both levels included zero. Moreover, the CI of the indirect effect difference between high and low levels of follower construal level included zero (estimate = .021, 95% CI [-.009, .074]). In other words, the indirect effect of visionary leadership on follower adaptivity via challenge appraisals of visionary leadership was not significant at either high or low follower construal levels, and

follower construal level did not moderate the indirect effect of visionary leadership on follower adaptivity. Thus, Hypothesis 6b was not supported.

Finally, Hypothesis 6c proposed hindrance appraisals of visionary leadership mediate the interactive effect of visionary leadership and follower construal level on follower withdrawal, such that the indirect effect is positive at low levels of follower construal and does not exist at high levels. The indirect effect of visionary leadership on follower withdrawal via hindrance appraisals of visionary leadership was negative at both high (estimate = -.111, 95% CI [-.198, -.046]) and low (estimate = -.074, 95% CI [-.143, -.030]) levels of follower construal level. Moreover, the CI of the indirect effect difference at high and low levels excluded zero (estimate = -.036, 95% CI [-.097, -.004]), indicating that visionary leadership is negatively associated with follower withdrawal for both high and low construal-level followers and that this effect is more negative for high construal followers than for low construal followers. Given that the indirect effect of visionary leadership on follower withdrawal via hindrance appraisals of visionary leadership was negative and significant (rather than nonexistent) for high construal-level followers and also negative and significant for low construal-level followers (rather than positive), Hypothesis 6c was partially supported.

Table 5 Summary of Hypothesized Conditional Indirect Effects (Study 1)

	Indirect Effect	**Conditional Indirect Effect**
Visionary leadership → Challenge appraisals → Follower proactivity	**.104 [.010, .216]**	
Follower trait construal level		
High (+1 SD)		**.124 [.015, .257]**
Low (-1 SD)		**.083 [.008, .184]**
Difference		**.041 [.005, .113]**
Visionary leadership → Challenge appraisals → Follower adaptivity	.051 [-.039, .144]	
Follower trait construal level		
High (+1 SD)		.062 [-.043, .173]
Low (-1 SD)		.041 [-.028, .122]
Difference		.021 [-.009, .074]
Visionary leadership → Hindrance appraisals → Follower withdrawal	**-.093 [-.165, -.040]**	
Follower trait construal level		
High (+1 SD)		**-.111 [-.198, -.046]**
Low (-1 SD)		**-.074 [-.143, -.030]**
Difference		**-.036 [-.097, -.004]**

Notes: Unstandardized coefficients are reported. 95% bias-corrected CI is shown. Conditional indirect effect hypotheses are supported when the CI of the difference between the high and low levels of follower construal level exclude zero.

Supplemental Analyses

I conducted several post-hoc analyses to explore the robustness of my findings. Specifically, I retested Hypotheses 1 and 2 using an alternate measure of follower construal level, and I retested Hypothesis 4 using a leader-rated follower adaptivity measure instead of a follower-rated adaptivity measure. In addition, I investigated whether the relationship between visionary leadership and cognitive appraisals of visionary leadership is curvilinear, and whether future temporal focus could serve as a moderator in the theorized model. Each of these tests is explained below.

Alternative Measures

First, I tested Hypotheses 1 and 2, which stated that visionary leadership and follower construal level interact to predict cognitive appraisals of visionary leadership, using an alternate operationalization of follower construal level . Specifically, I examined these hypotheses using Reyt and Wiesenfeld's (2015) construal-level measure, for two reasons. First, Reyt and Wiesenfeld's (2015) measure is shorter than the traditional BIF scale (Vallacher & Wegner, 1989), which has been often used to measure construal level (e.g., Lennard et al., 2019; Rosen et al., 2016). Second, unlike the BIF, the items in this measure capture work-relevant activities. In developing the work-based construal level measure, Reyt and Wiesenfeld (2015) selected 18 job tasks from the US Department of Labor and developed high and low-level activity descriptions of each task. For instance, an individual may view a specific job task (e.g., "using a computer") in high-level terms (e.g., "processing information") versus low-level terms (e.g., "typing on a keyboard"). Another job task (e.g., "analyzing a dataset") may be construed either

in high-level terms (e.g., “identifying trends”) or in low-level terms (e.g., “comparing numbers”). High and low-level activity descriptions were stated on opposite sides of the anchors along a six-point scale. Followers indicated the point along that scale that best describes how they view the stated work activity. The coefficient alpha was .86. Using this alternate measure of follower construal level, I tested Hypothesis 1 and 2. Specifically, I tested whether visionary leadership interacts with follower construal level to predict followers’ cognitive appraisals of visionary leadership. Results initiated that the interaction was not significant in predicting either challenge appraisals of visionary leadership ($\gamma = .078$, $p = .371$) or hindrance appraisals of visionary leadership ($\gamma = .039$, $p = .764$).

One potential reason for this non-significant result may be the low correlation between the two construal-level measures (Reyt & Wiesenfeld, 2015; Venus, Johnson, et al., 2019). Specifically, the correlation between Reyt and Wiesenfeld's (2015) measure and Venus and colleague's (2019) measure was significant but relatively low (average r = .29, $p < .05$). Given the difference in how the two scales are measured, the low correlation between the measures may not be too surprising. Specifically, while both measures are work-related, Reyt and Wiesenfeld’s (2015) measure indirectly captures construal level by asking raters to evaluate a certain behavior and their personal interpretation (i.e., whether they focus on the core meaning or superficial behavior) of such behavior, whereas Venus and colleague’s (2019) measure directly asks individuals to assess what they focus on at work. Because Reyt and Wiesenfeld’s (2015) scale takes an indirect approach in measuring construal level, whereas Venus and colleagues’

(2019) scale is more direct in asking questions related to the definition of construal level, it is arguable that Venus and colleagues' (2019) scale is more content valid (Colquitt et al., 2019) than Reyt and Wiesenfeld's (2015) measure. However, future research should examine the convergent and discriminant validity of existing construal level measures to clearly measure individual construal level.

Second, I retested Hypothesis 4, which predicted that challenge appraisals of visionary leadership have a positive association with follower adaptivity, using leader-rated adaptivity rather than follower-rated adaptivity. In the main model, challenge appraisals of visionary leadership did not show a significant relationship with follower-rated adaptivity ($\gamma = .063$, $p = .257$). However, even though adaptivity may be less observable by others, and thus, may be best rated by oneself (Griffin et al., 2007), some prior studies that have used other-ratings of adaptivity (e.g., Eldor & Harpaz, 2016; Solberg & Wong, 2016). Interestingly, the correlation between self- and leader-rated adaptivity was significant but relatively low (average r = .16, $p < .05$). When leader-rated follower adaptivity was included in the model instead of follower-rated adaptivity, challenge appraisals of visionary leadership showed a significant relationship with follower adaptivity ($\gamma = .105$, $p = .039$). This relationship was significant while controlling for the effect of hindrance appraisals of visionary leadership ($\gamma = .084$, $p = .083$). However, one potential limitation with using leader-rated adaptivity and proactivity in one model is their high correlation ($r = .76$, $p < .05$), between leader-rated proactivity and adaptivity. The high correlation between the two measures leaves questions about the distinctiveness of these two measures. To test the distinctiveness

between leader-rated proactivity and adaptivity, I ran a CFA. As a result, a two-factor model $\chi^2(8) = 17.95$, $p < .05$; RMSEA = .05; CFI = .988; $SRMR_{within} = .023$) that treated proactivity and adaptivity as a separate factor showed significantly better fit compared to the one factor model ($\chi^2(9) = 255.33$, $p < .001$; RMSEA = .238; CFI = .705; $SRMR_{within} = .078$; $\Delta \chi^2 = 237.38$*), suggesting the distinctiveness of the two measures.

Exploratory Post-hoc Analyses

I conducted additional analyses for exploratory purposes. First, I tested whether there is a curvilinear effect of visionary leadership on both challenge and hindrance appraisals of leader vision. Based on prior research that suggests too little or too much of certain job demands can negatively impact employee attitudes (Quick et al., 1997), it is possible that too little or too much visionary communication from leaders may be seen as less challenging and more hindering at the same time. Thus, I tested the curvilinear effect of visionary leadership on challenge and hindrance appraisals of visionary leadership by adding a second-order term of visionary leadership. However, post-hoc results provided no evidence of a curvilinear effect of visionary leadership on either challenge ($\gamma = -.127$, $p = .335$) and hindrance ($\gamma = .191$, $p = .157$) appraisals of visionary leadership.

Second, I tested whether follower future temporal focus (Shipp et al., 2009; Shipp & Cole, 2015) serves as a boundary condition of visionary leadership. Temporal focus represents the attention that individuals devote to thinking about the past, present, and future (Shipp et al., 2009). Since visionary leaders communicate long-term goals, it is possible that followers' future temporal focus influences the appraisal process of such

leader behavior. That is, visionary leadership could be perceived as an opportunity for self-growth and well-being for followers who attend to the future. Thus, followers who tend to focus on the future may appraise leader vision, which communicates about long-term goals, as more as beneficial to themselves and less as hindering their growth and well-being than those who tend to focus on the present or past. However, when I tested the interactive effect between visionary leadership and follower future temporal focus on both challenge appraisals (γ = .078, p = .329) and hindrance appraisals of visionary leadership (γ = -.122, p = .189), neither was significant.

Study 2

Study 2 examines whether followers' construal levels influence how they appraise visionary leader communication, using an experimental design that manipulates visionary leadership. In doing so, the purpose of Study 2 is to test the first-stage of my theoretical model with a study design that is more internally valid than a correlational study conducted with field data and with a sample from a different country than Study 1. In doing so, Study 2 has the potential to bolster the internal and external validity of the findings from Study 1.

Participants and Procedures

I recruited 200 participants via Prolific. To be included in the study, participants were required to have a full-time job (work 30 or more hours per week), and to reside in the United States. Of the 200 participants, 12 failed to pass an attention check embedded within the survey that asked them about what happened in the vignette that was used as

the manipulation in the study (Meade & Craig, 2012). Specifically, the vignette included a leader communicating about implementing a new technology in the organization. The attention check asked what kind of change happened to the company in the vignette, and only those who chose the correct answer (i.e., "A new technology was introduced") were included in the analysis. As a result, final analyses were based on a sample of 188 participants. Of these participants, 54.3% were male and their average age was 33 years old (*SD* = 9.63). Their average current organizational tenure was 4.76 years (SD = 4.50). Participants were 72.3 % White, 16% Asian, 5.9% Hispanic, and 5.8% of other ethnicities.

After agreeing to participate, participants completed a scale assessing their trait construal level. Then, they were introduced to a scenario. To make the situation realistic and consistent with Study 1, this scenario was based on an organizational context similar to that of the firm from which data were collected in Study 1. Participants were randomly assigned to one of two groups: a vision group and a control group. In both conditions, participants were told to imagine that they work for a service-oriented company that was suffering from budget deficits, and as a result, the company was implementing new plans to overcome the current crisis. Then, participants read an e-mail message sent from their leader. Two versions of the e-mail message were created to manipulate vision communication and leader goal-setting behavior. Each vignette was drawn from existing definitions of visionary leadership and leader goal-setting behavior as well as measures used in previous studies (e.g., Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996; Locke & Latham, 1990; Naidoo & Lord, 2008; Stam et al., 2010a; Vanderstukken et al., 2019).

Specifically, those in the vision group were told to imagine that their leader delivered a message in which he or she communicated a vision. In contrast, those in the control group were told to imagine that their leader delivered a message in which he or she communicated a goal (Vanderstukken et al., 2019). Specifically, to successfully differentiate the effects of leader vision communication from leader goal-setting behavior, participants in the vision group read a scenario of a leader communicating long-term, abstract goals to followers. In contrast, participants in the control group read a scenario of a leader communicating short-term, concrete goals to followers. Following a manipulation check, participants completed scales assessing whether they appraised the leader's communication as a challenge or a hindrance.

Study Materials and Measures

Independent Variable

Visionary leadership manipulation. As explained in the prior section, I manipulated leader communication using vignettes. One e-mail message focused on a leader communicating vision, whereas the other captured goals communicated by a leader (Bass, 1990). In both scenarios, leaders expressed the challenge that the organization is currently facing and emphasized the importance of followers going beyond the status quo. In the vision condition, leaders articulated long-term, abstract, qualitative images about the future of the organization. For instance, statements that reflect broad long-term goals such as "offer our customers better service quality," "be the leading organization in the industry," and "continuous innovation" were included in the vision scenario. In contrast, in the goal-setting (control) condition, leaders stated

specific expectations and concrete goals to be achieved in the short-term. For example, participants read statements such as “regain 70% of sales by end of the year,” “utilize new technology by next month,” and “25% of the training is completed per week over the next four weeks.” The full vignettes appear in Appendix B.

After developing the vignettes, I conducted a pilot study to assess whether leader vision communication (versus leader goal-setting behavior) could be distinguished by respondents as intended. First, I recruited 57 participants via Prolific, one of which was ultimately excluded for failing to pass an attention check. Of the 56 participants, 66.1% were male, they were 35.8 years old (SD = 9.42), and had worked at the current organization for 6.7 years (SD = 6.94), on average. Participants were randomly assigned to one of the two conditions (n = 28 for each condition) and were asked to read the scenario associated with each condition. Then, they completed a three-item vision communication measure (alpha = .86) and a goal-setting behavior measure (alpha = .81) (Vanderstukken et al., 2019). A sample item for visionary leadership was “this leader strives to inspire others with his/her plans for the future” and for goal-setting behavior was “this leader clarifies what is expected from me.” The items were rated on a five-point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*). Results of a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) indicated that participants assigned to the vision condition perceived leader communication as more visionary (M = 3.50, SD = .89) than those assigned to the goal-setting condition (M = 2.94, SD = 1.15), F (1,54) = 4.17, $p <$ .05. Also, those assigned to the goal-setting condition perceived the leader communication as setting goals (M = 3.56, SD = .88) rather than communicating vision

(M = 2.82, SD = .84), F (1,54) = 10.38, p < .05. These results provide support for the scenario's efficacy in manipulating visionary leadership.

Moderating Variable

Follower trait construal level. Before being randomly assigned to a condition and reading the assigned scenarios, participants trait construal level were assessed with the same three-item scale used in Study 1 (Venus, Johnson, et al., 2019). Responses ranged from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*. Coefficient alpha was .62.

Dependent Variables

Challenge and hindrance appraisals of visionary leadership. Participants rated how they appraised the message communicated by the leader using the same three-item measures of challenge and hindrance appraisals of leader communication as in Study 1 (M. A. LePine et al., 2016). Responses ranged from 1 = *Strongly disagree* to 7 = *Strongly agree*. Coefficient alphas were .99 and .87, respectively.

Manipulation check. To ensure that participants in each condition perceived leader communication as intended, participants were asked to rate the extent to which they perceived each leader communication as visionary or goal-oriented. A manipulation check was conducted using the same measures and analysis that were used in the pilot study (Vanderstukken et al., 2019).

Analytical Strategy

Hypothesis 1 and 2 predicted that visionary leadership and follower construal level interact to predict cognitive appraisals of such leader behavior. Specifically, Hypothesis 1 proposed that followers high in construal level will appraise leader vision

communication as more challenging than leader goal-setting behavior. Also, even though not specifically hypothesized, my theorizing suggested that followers low in construal level would appraise leader goal-setting behavior as more challenging than leader vision communication. Moreover, Hypothesis 2 predicted that followers low in construal level will appraise leader vision communication as more hindering than leader goal-setting behavior. My theorizing also suggested that those high in construal level would appraise leader goal-setting behavior as more hindering than leader vision communication. To test these Hypotheses (Hypothesis 1 and 2), leader communication conditions were coded as 1 = vision group, 0 = goal-setting group. Then, using Mplus 8 (Muthén & Muthén, 2017), this condition was interacted with follower construal level to predict both challenge and hindrance appraisals of such communication.

Results

The primary purpose of Study 2 was to test whether followers with different construal levels appraise leader vision communication differently in an experimental design. Specifically, by testing the interaction between leader communication and follower construal level in an experiment, Study 2 tests the interactive effect examined in Study 1 (i.e., Hypotheses 1 and 2) with a design that is more internally valid (Shadish et al., 2002). Also, by testing the theoretical model with participants from the United States, Study 2 adds generalizability across two cultures (Shadish et al., 2002). In addition, another important purpose of Study 2 was to examine the incremental validity of vision communication beyond leader goal-setting behavior. As previously discussed, studying visionary leadership only with a survey-based method is limited because the

measure conflates the level (i.e., the degree) and content (i.e., abstract image vs. concrete goals) of the communicated vision. In this regard, Study 2 supplemented Study 1 by testing the effects of vision communication (vs. concrete goal setting) on followers.

In Study 2, two conditions—leader vision communication and leader goal setting—were manipulated using validated vignettes and compared to one another. Thus, before testing Hypotheses 1 and 2, I conducted a manipulation check with measures used in Vanderstukken et al. (2019) to ensure that leader communication was perceived as intended. Results indicated that participants assigned to the vision condition perceived leader communication as more visionary ($M = 3.46$, $SD = .94$) than those assigned to the goal-setting condition ($M = 2.90$, $SD = .99$), F (1,186) = 15.73, $p < .05$. Moreover, participants assigned to the goal-setting condition perceived leader communication as more goal-oriented ($M = 3.44$, $SD = .88$) than vision-oriented ($M = 2.55$, $SD = 1.17$), F (1,186) = 34.62, $p < .05$.

Next, I tested the interactive effect of leader vision communication and follower construal level on follower appraisals of vision communication. Table 6 reports the means, standard deviations, and correlations of the Study 2 variables. Hypothesis 1 stated that the interactive effect between leader vision communication and follower construal level predicts challenge appraisals of leader vision communication, such that the effect is positive when follower construal level is high, and nonexistent when follower construal level is low. Results showed that the interactive effect of the leader communication manipulation and follower construal level on challenge appraisals of

leader vision communication was not significant (β = .031, p = .880). Thus, Hypothesis 1 was not supported.

Hypothesis 2 posited that the interactive effect between leader vision communication and follower construal level predicts hindrance appraisals of leader vision communication, such that the relationship between leader vision communication and hindrance appraisals of leader communication is positive when follower construal level is low, and nonexistent when follower construal level is high. The results indicated that the interactive effect of leader communication and construal level on hindrance appraisals of leader communication was not significant (β = -.009, p = .969). Thus, Hypothesis 2 was not supported.

Table 6 Descriptive Statistics and Correlations among Study Variables (Study 2)

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4
1. Vision communication condition	.49	.50	-			
2. Trait construal level	4.69	.93	.09	-		
3. Challenge appraisals	4.44	1.32	-.10	.15*	-	
4. Hindrance appraisals	3.26	1.53	.03	.17*	-.43*	-

Notes: n=188. Vision communication condition: 0 = goal-setting behavior, 1 = vision communication.
*$p < .05$.

Study 3

The purpose of Study 3 was to extend and supplement Studies 1 and 2 by manipulating both construal level and leader communication in an experimental setting. The key difference between this study and Study 2 is that in this study, individual construal level was manipulated rather than measured. In other words, Study 2 measured trait construal level and Study 3 measured state construal level. I utilized a 2 (visionary leadership vs. goal setting) × 2 (high state construal level vs. low state construal level) design to examine the interactive effects between leader vision communication and follower construal level on cognitive appraisals of such communication.

Participants and Procedures

Similar to Study 2, I recruited 201 participants via Prolific. The screening criteria were the same as those used in Study 2 (i.e., employment status and language proficiency). Of 201 participants who completed the survey, 19 participants failed an attention check that screened out careless responders (Meade & Craig, 2012). Specifically, this attention check required participants to enter a specific word (i.e., "elephant") into an open-ended field (Oppenheimer et al., 2009), and those who failed to do so were excluded from my analyses. As a result, the final analysis was based on 182 participants, 56% of whom were male. Participants were 32.7 years old (SD = 16.03) and had 5.69 years (SD = 5.29) of current organizational tenure, on average. They were 74.7% White, 11.5% Asian, 9.3% African American, and 4.5% others.

In Study 3, both leader communication and construal level were manipulated, and participants were randomly assigned to one of the four conditions. First, participants were asked to participate in an activity that served as the construal-level manipulation. Specifically, they were randomly assigned to an activity that was intended to manipulate participants' mindset to either high or low construal level. After conducting the activity, participants completed a construal level manipulation check. Then, participants were, again, randomly assigned to either leader vision communication or goal-setting condition. In manipulating leader communication, the same vignettes used in Study 2 were used. After reading the scenario, participants assessed the extent to which leader communication is appraised as a challenge or a hindrance.

Study Materials and Measures

Independent Variable

Visionary leadership manipulation. The same vignettes used in Study 2 were utilized to manipulate leader communication. The vignettes are shown in Appendix B.

Moderating Variable

Construal level manipulation. Follower state construal level was manipulated based on a previously validated activity designed to manipulate construal level (Burgoon et al., 2013; Fujita et al., 2006). Specifically, I primed an abstract or concrete mindset in participants using an activity developed by Freitas et al. (2004) for this purpose. Participants were randomly assigned to either a high or low construal level condition. In both conditions, the manipulation activity consisted of answering four questions that required them to focus on the why (high construal) or how (low construal) a stated

behavior was conducted. For example, participants assigned to the high construal-level condition were presented with the statement, “Learning new technology at work.” Participants were, then asked to answer, “*Why* would you learn new technology at work?” After inserting their first answer, they were asked to immediately answer *why* they would engage in the initial response. For instance, a participant might have answered to the first question, “*Why* would you learn new technology at work” as “To do well at work.” Then the following question asked participants “*Why* would you do well at work?” After answering this question, participants were directed to answer *why* they would engage in the second response. Participants were asked to provide four responses in this manner.

In contrast, participants assigned to the low construal-level condition were asked to answer, “*How* would you learn new technology at work.” Similar to the high construal level condition, then, participants were asked *how* they would engage in their initial response. For example, participants may answer to the first question, “*How* would you learn new technology at work?” as “Use training materials.” The following question then asked, “*How* would you use training materials?” On completing this response, participants were asked to answer *how* they would engage in their second response. As with the high construal-level condition, participants were asked to provide four answers in this manner.

Before administering this activity to manipulate state construal level in Study 3, I conducted a pilot study to assess its efficacy. I recruited 42 working participants via Prolific, two of whom failed an attention check and were excluded. Of the 40

participants, 65% were male, their average age was 35 years old (SD = 11.63), and they had worked at the current organization for 6.1 years (SD = 6.36). After being randomly assigned to each condition and completing the activity, participants completed two scales assessing their current construal level. The first scale was the same three-item measure (Venus, Johnson, et al., 2019) as in Studies 1 and 2. Results from ANOVA indicated that participants assigned to the high construal condition reported significantly higher ratings of construal level (M = 3.45, SD = .54) than in the low construal condition (M = 2.87, SD = .87), $F(1,38) = 6.74$, $p < .05$. The second construal-level scale was comprised of six items adapted from Burrus and Roese's (2006) Rating of a Life event. This scale was used in previous studies (e.g., Reyt et al., 2016; Reyt & Wiesenfeld, 2015) as a construal-level manipulation check. Participants were asked to report how they perceived themselves at the moment. Higher ratings represented a low construal level, whereas lower ratings represented a high construal level. On a continuum ranging from -5 to +5, the following statements were presented on opposite sides of the anchors, preceded by "At this moment…,": "I am focused on 'why' things are done" versus "I am focused on 'how' things are done," "I am focused on the big picture" versus "I am focused on the details," "I find work to be meaningful" versus "I find work meaningless," "I am focused on important tasks" versus "I am focused on unimportant tasks," "I am focused on long-term goals" versus "I am focused on short-term goals," and "I am focused on high-priority tasks" versus "I am focused on low-priority tasks." The score for each item s was then reverse-coded so that higher ratings represented higher construal level and lower ratings represented low construal level. Then, the six

scores were aggregated to assess one's construal level. A one-way ANOVA indicated that participants assigned to the high construal condition reported significantly higher ratings of construal level (M = 1.53, SD = 1.71) compared to those assigned to the low construal condition (M = .07, SD = 1.80), F (1,39) = 6.85, $p < .05$.

Dependent Variables

Challenge and hindrance appraisals of visionary leadership. The same procedures as in Study 2 were used to measure the cognitive appraisals of leader communication. Participants assessed the extent to which they appraised the message as a challenge or a hindrance (M. A. LePine et al., 2016) on a seven-point scale (1 = *Strongly disagree* to 7 = *Strongly agree*).

Manipulation checks. I conducted manipulation checks to test the effectiveness of both the state construal level and leader communication manipulations. First, to check the state construal-level manipulation, I used the same measures as in the pilot study (Burrus & Roese, 2006; Venus, Johnson, et al., 2019). Second, I used the same measure as in Study 2 as a leader vision communication manipulation check (Vanderstukken et al., 2019).

Analytical Strategy

Hypothesis 1 and 2 proposed that the relationship between vision communication and cognitive appraisals of such leader behavior will be contingent upon follower construal level. Specifically, Hypothesis 1 predicted that leader vision communication will be appraised as more challenging than leader goal-setting behavior for followers with high construal levels compared to those with low construal levels. Moreover,

Hypothesis 2 proposed that leader vision communication will be appraised as more hindering than leader goal-setting behavior for followers with low construal levels compared to those high construal levels. To test these Hypotheses, I coded leader communication conditions as 1 = visionary leadership condition, 0 = leader goal-setting condition and state construal level as 1 = high state construal level, 0 = low state construal level. Then, two-way ANOVA was conducted with STATA to examine the differences in cognitive appraisals of leader communication across the manipulated conditions. The results from STATA were confirmed by testing group differences using Mplus 8 (Muthén & Muthén, 2017).

Results

The purpose of Study 3 was to extend and supplement Studies 1 and 2 by manipulating both follower construal level and leader vision communication. Specifically, by manipulating construal level, Study 3 tested the interactive effect of visionary leadership and follower *state* construal level on cognitive appraisals of leader communication. In doing so, Study 3 rules out an alternative explanation that visionary leadership influences the construal level of recipients.

In Study 3, both state construal level and leader vision communication were manipulated. Thus, before testing hypotheses, I conducted two manipulation checks to ensure that these variables were manipulated as intended. First, the state construal level manipulation was checked using two measures of construal level. Using the three-item measure from Venus, Johnson, et al. (2019), results indicated that participants assigned to the high construal condition reported significantly higher state construal level (*M* =

4.13, *SD* = .83) compared to those assigned to the low construal condition (*M* = 3.86, *SD* = 1.05), *F* (1,180) = 3.89, *p* = .05. Using the Burrus and Roese (2006) six-item measure, results showed that participants assigned to the high construal level condition reported significantly higher state construal level (*M* = .78, *SD* = 2.63) than those assigned to the low construal level condition (*M* = -.18, *SD* = 2.35), *F* (1,180) = 6.73, *p* < .05. These findings converge to indicate that state construal level was successfully manipulated.

Second, as in Study 2, the leader vision communication manipulation was checked using measures from Vanderstukken et al. (2019). Results of an ANOVA showed that participants assigned to the vision condition perceived leader communication as significantly more vision-oriented (*M* = 3.61, *SD* = .96) than those assigned to the goal-setting condition (*M* = 3.30, *SD* = 1.08), *F* (1,180) = 4.08, *p* < .05. Moreover, participants assigned to the goal-setting condition perceived leader communication more as goal-oriented (*M* = 3.78, *SD* = .76) than vision-oriented (*M* = 2.90, *SD* = 1.04), *F* (1,180) = 42.13, *p* < .05. These findings suggest that leader vision communication was successfully manipulated.

Table 7 displays the means, standard deviations, and correlations among study variables in Study 3. Hypothesis 1 proposed that the interactive effect between leader communication and state construal level predicts challenge appraisals of leader vision communication, such that followers at a high state construal level appraise leader vision communication as more as an opportunity for self-growth and well-being than those at low. The results of an ANOVA showed that neither a main effect of vision communication, *F*(1, 179) = .30, *p* > .05, nor a main effect of state construal level, *F*(1,

179) = .32, $p > .05$, predicted challenge appraisals of leader vision communication. However, there was a significant interactive effect between leader communication and state construal level in predicting challenge appraisals of leader communication, $F(1, 178) = 5.73$, $p < .05$). As shown in Figure 4, when leader communication was vision-oriented, followers at a high state construal level ($M = 5.09$, $SE = .20$) appraised the communication as significantly more challenging than those with a low state construal level ($M = 4.49$, $SE = .21$), diff = .60, $SE = .28$, $p < .05$. Moreover, when leader communication was goal-oriented, followers at a low state construal level ($M = 5.09$, $SE = .21$) appraised the communication from leaders as more challenging than those at a high state construal level ($M = 4.72$, $SE = .20$). However, the difference between the two conditions was not statistically significant (diff = -.38, $SE = .29$, $p = .19$). In sum, Hypothesis 1 was supported.

Hypothesis 2 stated that the interactive effect between leader communication and construal level predicts hindrance appraisals of leader vision communication, such that followers with a low state construal level appraise leader vision communication as more hindering than those with a high state construal level. Results indicated no significant main effect of vision communication, $F(1, 179) = .01$, $p > .05$, or main effect of state construal level, $F(1, 179) = .39$, $p > .05$ on hindrance appraisals of leader vision communication. The interactive effect of leader communication and state construal level on hindrance appraisals of vision communication was also not significant ($F(1, 178) = .00$, $p > .05$). For exploratory purposes, I plotted the group differences from this analysis, and they are displayed in Figure 5. These plots indicated that when leader

communication was vision-oriented, participants at low levels of state construal level (M = 3.48, SE = .26) appraised leader communication as more hindering compared to those at high (M = 3.32, SE = .24). However, the mean difference was not statistically significant (diff = -.16, SE = .35, $p < .05$). Moreover, when leader communication was goal-oriented, those at a high state construal level (M = 3.46, SE = .26) appraised leader communication as more hindering than those at low construal level (M = 3.31, SE = .24). The group difference between these two conditions was also not significant (diff = -.15, SE = .35, $p > .05$). Thus, Hypothesis 2 was not supported.

Table 7 Descriptive Statistics and Correlations among Study Variables (Study 3)

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4
1. Vision communication manipulation	.53	.50	-			
2. State construal level manipulation	.51	.50	.01	-		
3. Challenge appraisals	4.85	1.39	-.03	.04	-	
4. Hindrance appraisals	3.39	1.68	.01	-.05	-.16*	-

Notes: n=182. Vision communication manipulation: 0 = goal-setting behavior, 1 = vision communication; State construal level manipulation: 0 = low construal level, 1 = high construal level
*$p < .05$.

Figure 4 Interactive Effect of Leader Vision Communication and Follower State Construal level on Challenge Appraisals of Vision Communication (Study 3)

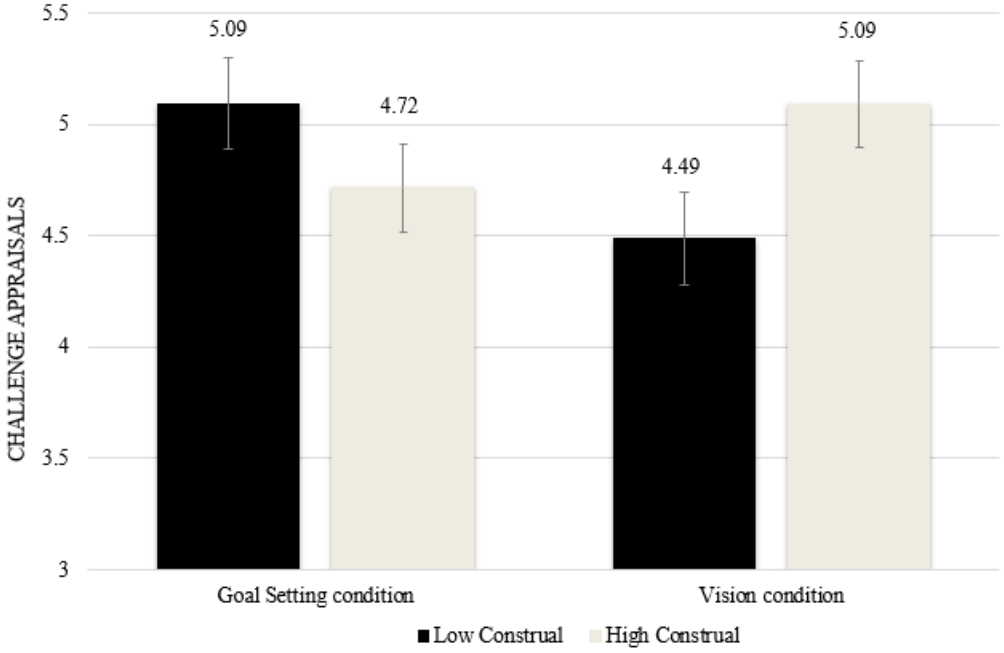
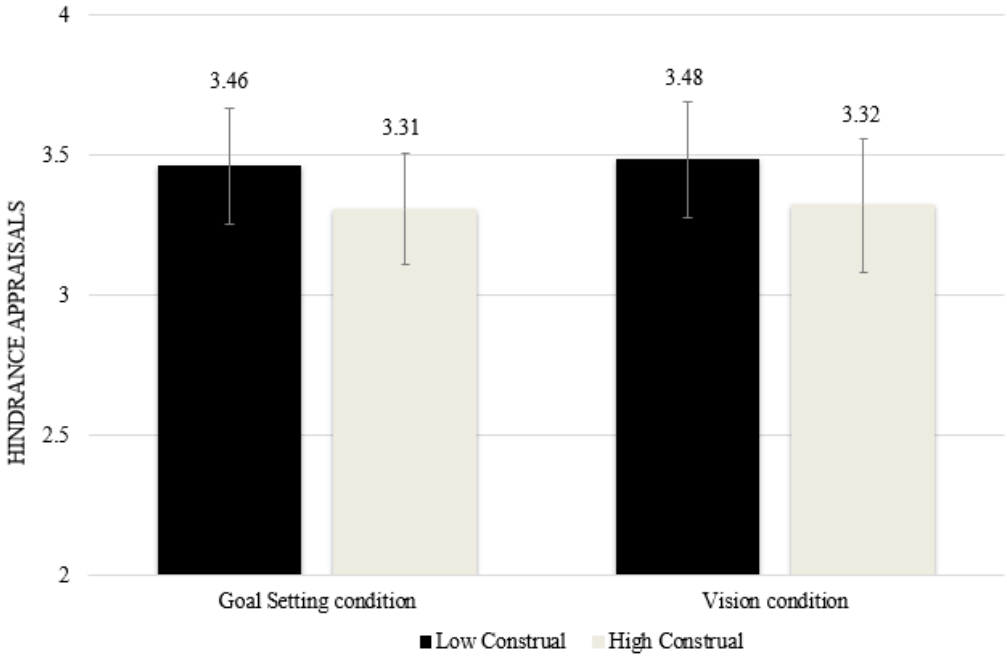


Figure 5 Interactive Effect of Leader Vision Communication and Follower State Construal level on Hindrance Appraisals of Vision Communication (Study 3)



CHAPTER IV

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Discussion

Based on theories that suggest that visionary leadership enhances followers' self-concepts (Stam et al., 2010b, 2014), leadership scholars, to date, have almost universally assumed that visionary leadership has a positive effect on followers (e.g., Hitt & Ireland, 2002; Kotter, 2007; Rafferty & Griffin, 2004; Stam et al., 2010b; Westley & Mintzberg, 1989). While this theoretical perspective has been useful for understanding the positive consequences of visionary leadership, it obscures the reality that in some cases, followers may not experience visionary leadership in a positive manner. As such, the prior literature on visionary leadership may have created an overly rosy picture of the consequences of visionary leadership. In this dissertation, I drew on the transactional theory of stress and construal level theory to examine the process through which, and the conditions under which, visionary leadership may negatively influence followers (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Specifically, given that a leader's vision may introduce demands that seem incompatible with followers' work tasks and objectives (Burnes, 2015; Venus, Stam, et al., 2019), followers may feel uneasy about, or uninterested in, the message communicated in that leader's vision (Carton, 2018). Following this logic, I theorized that visionary leadership is likely to have meaningful consequences on follower behavior (i.e., proactivity, adaptivity, and withdrawal) through how followers appraise visionary leadership, and that these appraisals are contingent upon how followers retrieve and process information. To test my hypotheses, I conducted one

correlational study with data collected from a service-oriented company in South Korea and two experimental studies using working participants from the United States via Prolific. In the following sections, I describe the main findings of these studies and then discuss the theoretical and practical implications, limitations, and ideas for future research stemming from my research.

Summary of Findings

Interactive Effects of Visionary Leadership and Construal level on Challenge Appraisals of Visionary Leadership

First, I hypothesized that visionary leadership would interact with follower construal level to predict challenge appraisals of such leadership, such that the relationship between visionary leadership and challenge appraisals of visionary leadership will be positive for high construal-level followers and will not exist for low construal-level followers (Hypothesis 1). In the correlational study (Study 1) in which I measured trait construal level and in one experimental study (Study 3) in which I measured state construal level, my findings supported this prediction.

In Study 1, results indicated that the relationship between visionary leadership and challenge appraisals of visionary leadership is positive and significant for followers with high trait construal level. However, contrary to my prediction, the effect of visionary leadership on challenge appraisals of visionary leadership was also positive and significant (rather than nonsignificant) for low construal followers. This positive relationship between visionary leadership and challenge appraisals of such leader behavior for low construal followers may be a result of a strong main effect of visionary

leadership on challenge appraisals of visionary leadership. While both high and low construal level followers appraised visionary leadership as a challenge for themselves, this effect was significantly stronger for high construal followers than those low. That is, the findings of Study 1 indicate that visionary leadership, in general, tends to be appraised by followers as an opportunity for growth and well-being, and that follower trait construal level influences how followers make challenge appraisals of their leaders' visionary behavior. Specifically, followers with high trait construal level are more likely to appraise visionary leadership as an opportunity for self-growth and well-being than those with low trait construal level.

This finding was replicated in an experimental setting in which both construal level and leader vision communication were separately manipulated. In Study 3, results indicated that when a leader's communication is vision-oriented, those assigned to the high construal condition appraised leader vision communication as more of an opportunity for self-growth and well-being than those assigned to the low construal condition. In contrast, when a leader's communication was goal-oriented, participants assigned to the low construal condition appraised leader communication as more of a challenge than those assigned to the high construal-level condition; however, this difference was not significant. In sum, Study 3 provided further evidence that follower state construal level also plays a critical role in the challenge appraisal process of visionary leadership. Specifically, followers assigned to a high construal condition (high state construal level) appraise vision communication as more of an opportunity for self-

growth and well-being than those assigned to a low construal condition (low state construal level).

Interactive Effects of Visionary Leadership and Construal level on Hindrance Appraisals of Visionary Leadership

I proposed that visionary leadership and follower construal level would jointly predict hindrance appraisals of visionary leadership, such that the relationship between visionary leadership and hindrance appraisals of visionary leadership will be positive for low construal-level followers and will not exist for high construal-level followers (Hypothesis 2). This hypothesis was partially supported in the correlational field study (Study 1) but not supported in the two experimental studies (Studies 2 and 3).

First, in Study 1, visionary leadership and follower construal level showed a significant interactive effect in predicting hindrance appraisals of visionary leadership, such that the effect of visionary leadership on hindrance appraisals of such leader behavior were positive for low construal-level followers but did not exist for those high in construal level. Specifically, results showed that the relationship between visionary leadership and hindrance appraisals of visionary leadership was negative for both high and low construal level followers but that this relationship was significantly more negative for high construal-level followers than those who are low in construal level. That is, while the interaction effect itself was significant, the pattern of the interaction was different from what I hypothesized. In sum, findings from Study 1 indicated that visionary leadership, in general, is negatively associated with hindrance appraisals of such leader behavior, while the negative relationship is more pronounced for high construal followers than for low construal followers. In other words, followers with high

trait construal level are less likely to appraise visionary leadership as hindering their self-growth and well-being than those with low trait construal level.

The results of the two experiments (Studies 2 and 3) did not provide support for the hypothesized interactive effect between visionary leadership and construal level on hindrance appraisals. In both studies, leader communication was manipulated with vignettes designed to manipulate leader vision communication and goal-setting behavior. In Study 2, construal level was measured as a trait; in Study 3, construal level was manipulated as a state. In both Studies 2 and 3, findings indicated no support for the interactive effect of leader communication manipulation and follower construal level on hindrance appraisals of leader communication.

Effects of Follower Challenge Appraisals of Visionary Leadership on Follower Proactivity and Adaptivity

I predicted that follower challenge appraisals of visionary leadership is positively associated with follower proactivity (Hypotheses 3) and adaptivity (Hypothesis 4). I tested these predictions in Study 1 and found that challenge appraisals of visionary leadership positively related to follower proactivity. That is, followers who appraised visionary leadership as contributing to their self-growth and well-being (i.e., challenge appraisal) were more likely to engage in proactive behaviors.

Results further showed mixed findings to my prediction that followers' challenge appraisals of visionary leadership positively associate with follower adaptivity. Specifically, challenge appraisals of visionary leadership were not significantly associated with follower-rated adaptivity. However, in a post-hoc analysis, I examined the association between challenge appraisals of visionary leadership and follower

adaptivity reported by their leader and found that challenge appraisals of visionary leadership positively related to leader-rated follower adaptivity.

Effects of Follower Hindrance Appraisals of Visionary Leadership on Follower Withdrawal

I went on to test the relationship between hindrance appraisals of visionary leadership and follower withdrawal in Study 1 (Hypothesis 5). I found support for my hypothesis that hindrance appraisals of visionary leadership are positively associated with follower withdrawal. Results suggested that to the extent that followers appraised visionary leadership as a hindrance they were more likely to withdraw from work.

Conditional Indirect Effects

Taking the above relationships together, I predicted that the indirect effects of visionary leadership on follower proactivity, adaptivity, and withdrawal (via cognitive appraisals of visionary leadership) are contingent on follower construal level (Hypotheses 6 - 8). I tested these predictions in Study 1. Regarding the challenge appraisal path, I tested whether follower challenge appraisals of visionary leadership mediate the interactive effects of visionary leadership and follower construal level on follower proactivity and adaptivity. Results generally support the interactive effect of visionary leadership and follower construal level on follower proactivity via challenge appraisals of visionary leadership. Specifically, the indirect effect of visionary leadership on follower proactivity (via challenge appraisals of visionary leadership) was positive and significant for both high and low levels of follower construal level, and this indirect effect was more positive for high construal-level followers than low construal-level followers. That is, compared to low construal followers, high construal followers were

more likely to be proactive as a result of leader vision communication as they appraised such leader behavior as an opportunity for self-growth and well-being.

Second, when adaptivity was self-reported by followers, the conditional indirect effect of visionary leadership on follower-rated adaptivity (through challenge appraisals of visionary leadership) moderated by follower construal level was not significant. However, this conditional indirect effect was significant when follower adaptivity was rated by leaders. That is, the indirect effect of visionary leadership on follower (leader-rated) adaptivity via challenge appraisals of visionary leadership was positive and significant for both high and low construal-level followers, and this indirect effect was more positive for high construal-level followers than those low in construal level. In other words, compared to followers with low construal level, followers with high construal level were more likely to be adaptive to change as a result of their leader communicating vision because they appraised such leader behavior as a challenge.

Finally, regarding the hindrance appraisal path, I theorized and tested the interactive effect of visionary leadership and follower construal level on follower withdrawal through hindrance appraisals of visionary leadership. Findings generally supported this indirect, interactive effect. Specifically, the relationship between visionary leadership and follower withdrawal via hindrance appraisals of visionary leadership was both negative for high and low construal-level followers, and this relationship was significantly more negative for high construal-level followers than those low in construal level. That is, compared to low construal followers, high construal followers were less likely to withdraw from work as a result of visionary leadership

because they less likely appraised visionary leadership as thwarting their self-development and well-being.

Table 7 Summary of Results across Studies

	Study 1	Study 2	Study 3
Hypothesis 1	Partially Supported	Not Supported	Supported
Hypothesis 2	Partially Supported	Not Supported	Not Supported
Hypothesis 3	Supported	-	-
Hypothesis 4	Partially Supported[a]	-	-
Hypothesis 5	Supported	-	-
Hypothesis 6a	Partially Supported	-	-
Hypothesis 6b	Partially Supported	-	-
Hypothesis 6c	Partially Supported	-	-

[a] Hypothesis was not supported using follower-rated adaptivity, but was supported when using leader-rated adaptivity.

Theoretical Contributions and Implications

The theoretical model developed in this dissertation, and the results stemming from the three empirical tests of it (1) contributes to the visionary leadership literature, (2) the transactional theory of stress and the broad stress literature, and (3) research on construal level in meaningful ways. Below, I explain these contributions in detail.

Contributions to the Visionary Leadership Research

This dissertation extends the visionary leadership literature by examining the conditions under which visionary leadership can be more or less effective (Ateş et al., 2020; Rafferty & Griffin, 2004) as well as unpacking the mechanisms through which visionary leadership affects follower behavior (van Knippenberg & Stam, 2014). First, this dissertation theorizes and finds that follower construal level is key in understanding the effects of visionary leadership on follower outcomes. Drawing on the transactional theory of stress and integrating it with construal level theory, this dissertation suggests that the effects of visionary leadership on follower outcomes are influenced by follower construal level. To date, past studies on visionary leadership have exclusively focused on the bright side of visionary leadership, guided by the consensus that visionary leadership is generally well-received by followers (Shamir et al., 1993; Stam et al., 2014). This is not surprising as prior studies have shown that visionary leadership enhances followers' positive self-concepts (Stam et al., 2010b, 2014). However, as Christensen noted, "It is one thing to see into the foggy future. But…it's quite another to persuade employees who might not see the changes ahead to line up and work cooperatively to take the company in that new direction" (Christensen, 2010, p. 50). That is, followers may view

visionary leadership as introducing higher demands that are incompatible with current work and objectives (Berson et al., 2016; Carton, 2018). In this regard, leadership scholars have called for researchers to take a more balanced approach in examining the effects of visionary leadership and to explore the boundary conditions of the effects of visionary leadership (Ateş et al., 2020; van Knippenberg & Stam, 2014).

Findings across three empirical studies suggested slightly different results from my theorizing. Specifically, my hypotheses proposed that the effect of visionary leadership on challenge appraisals of such leader behavior will be positive for high construal-level followers and not exist for those low in construal level, and that the effect of same leader behavior on hindrance appraisals will be positive for low construal-level followers and not exist for high construal-level followers. While results indicated that the interactive effect of visionary leadership and follower construal level on both challenge and hindrance appraisals of visionary leadership was significant, the hypothesized interaction pattern showed a generally positive relationship between visionary leadership and challenge appraisals and a negative relationship between visionary leadership and hindrance appraisals for both high and low construal level followers. In other words, visionary leadership was generally appraised as an opportunity for self-growth and well-being and less as hindering their personal growth, regardless of follower construal level; however, this effect was more pronounced for followers high in construal level than those low in construal level. While these findings do not fully support my predictions, they provide clear evidence that follower construal level functions as a boundary condition of the effects of visionary leadership.

There are several possible explanations for why the results differ slightly from my predictions. Results indicated that followers generally appraise visionary leadership as helping rather than thwarting their self-growth and well-being regardless of their construal level. First, the overall positive effects of visionary leadership on follower appraisals of job demands found in Study 1 may suggest that visionary leadership will only be appraised as a negative job demand in certain situations. Drawing from the transactional theory of stress (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) and construal-level theory (Trope & Liberman, 2010), I theorized that an individual difference (i.e., construal level) is a key moderator that influence the effects of visionary leadership on follower appraisals of job demands. However, there may be contextual factors that also play a key role in shaping the effects of visionary leadership on followers. For instance, visionary leadership may seem more daunting and as thwarting one's growth and well-being when employees feel overloaded by their day-to-day work. That is, when employees do not have the capacity to take on new challenges, they will likely also feel unable to incorporate their leader's long-term vision. Therefore, future studies should examine how the effects of visionary leadership are shaped by contextual factors.

Second, visionary leadership may tend to be viewed positively by followers because followers may hold expectations that leaders are supposed to talk about the future and provide guidance on how to change (Lambert et al., 2012; Tepper et al., 2018). Indeed, followers expect leaders to guide them through uncertain situations and communicate future plans (Bass, 1990; Shamir et al., 1993;). In this regard, Berson and colleagues (2015) argued that visionary leadership should be more effective when

communicated by higher-level leaders. If so, followers may have appraised visionary leadership as more challenging and less hindering not because the demands communicated from leaders' vision were universally helpful but because they expected leaders to be visionary and guide them through uncertain situations. That is, even when visionary leadership initiates change and challenges status quo, followers may appraise the leader behavior as meeting the expectations they have for people who inhabit leadership roles. This tendency could have been more salient in Study 1 since the sample was collected from an organization in South Korea, where both organizations and the country have hierarchical cultures. In these environments, leaders hold more responsibility and followers expect leaders to provide guidance for the future (Schaubroeck et al., 2007; Yuan & Zhou, 2015). Furthermore, the fact that data collection of Study 1 was conducted during the COVID-19 pandemic may have influenced followers' appraisals on visionary leadership as the pandemic has provided an uncertain situation where more structure and future guidance is sought from leaders (Bass, 1990; Carton et al., 2018).

This dissertation provides another important contribution to the visionary leadership literature by explaining the processes underlying the effects of visionary leadership. Specifically, recent reviews have noted that the reasons why followers behave the way they do in response to leader vision communication is unclear and thus, called for future research that addresses this issue (e.g., Lord et al., 2017; van Knippenberg & Stam, 2014; Zhu et al., 2019). Extending our understanding of visionary leadership, this dissertation theorizes and finds that the appraisals about visionary

leadership that followers make explain why such leader behavior generates certain follower behavior. Specifically, my findings suggest that visionary leadership enhances follower proactivity because followers appraise visionary leadership as an opportunity for personal growth and well-being, whereas visionary leadership may lead to follower withdrawal because followers construe visionary leadership as thwarting their self-growth and well-being (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; M. A. LePine et al., 2016; Mitchell et al., 2019; Sessions et al., 2020). As a result, this dissertation advances the visionary leadership literature by explaining why and when visionary leadership shapes follower behavior (Whetten, 1989).

Contributions to the Transactional Theory of Stress

My dissertation has important implications for the transactional theory of stress, and more broadly the stress literature. In particular, I advance the stress literature by introducing a unique dual-natured job demand and by highlighting an important individual factor that influences the cognitive appraisal process. First, this dissertation advances the stress literature by introducing visionary leadership as a unique job demand that can be appraised as *both* a challenge *and* a hindrance. Stress scholars have argued that a given job demand should be categorized as *either* a challenge *or* a hindrance stressor (e.g., Boswell et al., 2004; Cavanaugh et al., 2000; N. P. Podsakoff et al., 2007), and have assumed that challenge and hindrance stressors are only appraised as either a challenge and a hindrance, respectively (J. A. LePine et al., 2005). However, this perspective is somewhat different from Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) explanation of job demands. Lazarus and Folkman (1984) suggested that unique job demands such as

job promotion can be simultaneously appraised as a challenge and a hindrance. Drawing from this perspective, researchers have recently begun to highlight the dual-nature of certain job demands such as workload (Webster et al., 2011) and performance pressure (Mitchell et al., 2019). In line with this stream of research, this dissertation suggests visionary leadership, which has been generally conceptualized positively in the leadership literature, can actually be conceptualized as a job demand that may be appraised both in a positive and negative manner to people with different characteristics. Specifically, I argue that because visionary leadership involves initiating change and challenging status quo to mobilize followers, followers' appraisal of such leader communication may vary. In this way, this dissertation adds to this nascent stream of research by introducing a counterintuitive and unique job demand—visionary leadership—that can elicit both positive and negative appraisals in followers.

Finally, in highlighting the influence of individual construal level in appraising visionary leadership (Trope & Liberman, 2010), this dissertation extends the transactional theory of stress (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Researchers to date have focused on individual abilities and beliefs related to one's perceived controllability of demands. For instance, leadership self-efficacy (Courtright et al., 2014), leader sense of power (Sessions et al., 2020), and individual trait resilience (Mitchell et al., 2019) have been shown to influence how individuals appraise a given job demand. Specifically, these factors are known to influence the secondary appraisal process, in which individuals appraise whether the demand is controllable. While examining these factors have meaningfully advanced the stress literature, the stress literature suggests that

factors related to altering the meaning of job demands may also influence the cognitive appraisal process. Specifically, in the primary appraisal process, individuals appraise whether a given situation is a challenge or a hindrance rather than appraising whether the demand is controllable or not. In this regard, I identified one theoretically-grounded factor (i.e., construal level) that mostly alters the primary appraisal process. That is, I propose construal level as an individual attribute that influence how individuals appraise the meaning of visionary leadership. In other words, by examining a unique follower attribute—construal level—that influences the primary appraisal process, this dissertation makes a meaningful contribution to the stress literature that has generally focused on factors that influence the secondary appraisal process.

Contributions to the Research on Construal-level

This dissertation advances the research on construal level not only by examining its moderating effects on follower appraisals of leader communication, but also by doing so in a novel way. Specifically, in this dissertation, I operationalized construal level in the form of both a trait and a state, and found effects using both methods. That is, some researchers have treated construal level as more like a trait that tends to be consistent over time (Lennard et al., 2019; Reyt & Wiesenfeld, 2015; Rosen et al., 2016), while others have conceptualized the same construct as more malleable and that shifts over time (Steinbach et al., 2019; Venus, Johnson, et al., 2019; Wiesenfeld et al., 2017). Combining these perspectives, I theorized and tested construal level as both a trait and a state. In Studies 1 and 2, I measured trait construal level to test my predictions, while in Study 3, I manipulated state construal level to test my hypotheses. The significant

findings in Studies 1 and 3 provide further support for my theorizing that both trait and state forms of construal level can function as boundary conditions of the effects of visionary leadership.

Practical Implications

The theorizing and findings in this dissertation have meaningful implications for both organizational leaders and employees at lower levels of the organizational chart. My theoretical model suggests that the effect of visionary leadership on follower behavior is not the same for all employees, mainly because the way followers retrieve and process visionary leadership is different. Specifically, my findings indicate that visionary leadership will be seen as more beneficial by followers who tend to think at a more abstract level and in terms of long-term goals (compared to those who tend to focus on details and short-term goals). That is, visionary leadership is particularly likely to be appraised as an opportunity for self-growth and well-being, and less likely to be seen as hindering one's self-growth and well-being particularly in high construal followers relative to those low in construal level. My results further suggest that followers' appraisals of visionary leadership affect their subsequent behavior. These results have important implications to both leaders and followers.

First, when leaders communicate their vision, they should recognize that it may not affect all followers in the same way. Leaders often communicate their vision for their group when they try to initiate change and mobilize their followers toward a specific direction (Griffin et al., 2010; Stam et al., 2014; van Knippenberg & Stam, 2014). For instance, Steve Jobs's vision of changing the world by making tools that help realize

people's dream has contributed to the success of Apple (Kasperkevic, 2015), while John F. Kennedy's vision of putting a man on the moon was realized by NASA (Carton, 2018). However, while vision communication is widely known as a best practice for leaders (Ashkenas & Manville, 2018), my theorizing and findings suggest that visionary leadership may be much more effective for some followers than others. Indeed, followers vary in how they retrieve and process information, with some focusing on the core purpose (i.e., the *why*) of work and attending to long-term goals, and others focusing on *how* to get daily work done and prioritize short-term goals. This dissertation finds that the effects of visionary leadership depend on how followers appraise a leader's vision and these appraisals are contingent on follower construal level. Thus, when leaders use visionary leadership to initiate change, they should recognize that some followers will view the vision as a positive challenge, whereas others will not.

These findings also suggest that leaders should find tactics to make low construal level followers more receptive to their vision. Fortunately, the findings from Study 3 provide important guidance to leaders in this regard. In Study 3, construal level was successfully manipulated in both the pilot study and the main study. Also, Study 3 results replicated the findings of Study 1 showing that the effects of visionary leadership on cognitive appraisals of such leader communication depend on the receiver's construal level. Specifically, the fact that construal level can be primed or manipulated for a short period of time has important implications for practice. These results provide evidence that organizations can develop different tactics for employees to shift from low- to high-construal level before leaders communicate a vision. For example, as how construal

level was primed in Study 3, in a company-wide meeting in which the CEO plans to announce her vision for the future, the meeting could begin by communicating why certain changes are inevitable to their organization and explain how specific stages or daily work fit into the big picture.

The benefits of the construal level manipulation used in Study 3 are not limited to vision communication. That is, being able to manipulate employee construal levels provides other benefits beyond making employees more receptive to leader vision. For instance, low construal level has its own benefits, such as being positively associated with making progress (Gollwitzer, 1999). In a situation where progress is needed, organizational leaders may use tactics to lower followers' construal levels, which may, in turn, facilitate work progress. Relatedly, since construal level can be manipulated for short periods of time, selecting employees based on a certain trait construal level may not be effective. For example, if an organization selects all employees who are high in trait construal level, that group may be relatively slow in making progress and also not perform well in detail-oriented work. Instead, if leaders can successfully manipulate employee construal level depending on the situation, they may be able to adapt employees' levels of construal depending on business needs.

In addition, this dissertation provides important guidance to followers. Prior studies in followership suggest that the role of followers is essential in shaping effective leadership and group performance (Ahmad et al., 2020; Uhl-Bien et al., 2014). Specifically, the theorizing and findings of this dissertation suggest that low construal followers should recognize that they might experience more difficulty working for

visionary leaders, relative to their peers who are high in construal level. That is, when working with visionary leaders, additional effort should be taken by low construal followers to be open minded to the leader's vision and understand it. Given that construal level can be manipulated, followers should be aware that they can engage in activities that can help them switch from low to high construal levels, particularly in situations where they are working with leaders who frequently communicate visions. In addition, in cases where tactics to manipulate construal level is not an option, low construal followers should try to work with leaders who emphasize detail-oriented work or short-term goals rather than those who communicate big picture, abstract plans.

Taken together, this dissertation helps to identify when and how organizational leaders and their followers can enhance the effectiveness of visionary leadership. Visionary leadership will be particularly effective when working with high construal followers. Followers with high construal level may also find it easier to work with visionary leaders. However, if followers are low in construal level, leaders may use various tactics to train employees to think about high-level, long term-goals.

Limitations of the Current Research

Although this dissertation has notable strengths, such as testing hypotheses using both field data collected across three-time points from both leaders and followers and two experimental study designs that replicated some of the findings from the correlational study in a field setting, it is not without limitations. Below, I describe these limitations in order.

First, the field data in Study 1 were collected only from middle managers, and some have proposed that visionary leadership, in general, is primarily communicated by top managers (e.g., Baum et al., 2001; Hitt & Ireland, 2002; Kotter, 2007; Rafferty & Griffin, 2004). Moreover, some studies hint that visionary leadership is more effective when it is communicated by top managers, whereas leader goal-setting behavior is more effective when performed by direct managers (Berson, Halevy, et al., 2015; Berson & Halevy, 2014). Although these are legitimate concerns, there are several reasons that suggest that they are not a threat to the validity of my findings. First, Ashkenas and Manville (2018) argued that visions are communicated by leaders at all levels. Their argument is also consistent with prior research that have studied visionary leaders at both top- (Baum et al., 1998; Baum & Locke, 2004) and middle-levels of the organization (Ateş et al., 2020; Griffin et al., 2010). Second, in Study 1, followers answered an open-ended question asking about the specific content of leader vision. Among participants who completed the survey, only 15 employees (2.9% of followers) indicated that their direct leader did not communicate any type of vision to their team. In other words, the majority of followers in my sample indicated that their leader communicated some kind of vision to them. For instance, some managers had translated the company's vision and tried to implement it on their team, while others created and communicated their own vision for their team.

Another potential limitation of Study 1 relates to using cognitive appraisals of visionary leadership as the main mechanism linking leader vision communication to follower behavior. In this study, after responding about visionary leadership at Time 1,

at Time 2, followers were asked to rate the extent to which they appraised their leader's visionary leadership as a challenge and a hindrance. Therefore, followers who worked with a non-visionary leader may not be able to form an appraisal of leader vision because their leader did not provide them with a vision to appraise. However, if leaders did not communicate a vision, participants' answers about the appraisals of visionary leadership should not be accurate. To resolve this issue, when analyzing Study 1, I excluded cases in which participants indicated that, in this open-ended question, their leader had not communicated any vision. A post-hoc analysis showed that the results did not significantly change whether these participants were included or excluded. In addition, the design of Study 3 helped mitigate this concern as well, given that in this study, participants appraised leader vision communicated through vignettes and the findings replicated those of Study 1.

Third, in Study 1, the correlation between study variables was relatively high. For instance, the correlation between challenge and hindrance appraisals of visionary leadership was -.61, and the between-level correlation between aggregated visionary leadership and challenge and hindrance appraisals of visionary leadership was .67 and -.62, respectively. While the high correlation between study variables may be evidence of a lack of distinctiveness between them, this concern was partially allayed by the results of the multilevel CFA that suggested these variables are empirically distinct from each other. Moreover, the correlations between study variables found in Studies 2 and 3 were significantly lower than those found in Study 1. Specifically, in Studies 2 and 3, the correlation between challenge and hindrance appraisals of leader communication was -

.43 ($p < .05$) and -.15 ($p < .05$), respectively. Moreover, the correlations between manipulated vision communication and challenge and hindrance appraisals of such communication were -.10 ($p > .05$) and .03 ($p > .05$) in Study 2, and -.03 ($p > .05$) and .01 ($p > .05$) in Study 3.

Finally, across studies, the correlation between different measures of construal level was not as strong as expected. For instance, in Study 1, I measured work-related construal level measures developed by Reyt and Weisenfeld (2015) and Venus, Johnson et al., (2019). The correlation between these two variables was significant but relatively weak ($r = .29$, $p < .05$). Moreover, Venus and colleagues' (2019) measure was a significant moderator in the theorized model; however, Reyt and Weisenfeld's (2015) measure did not show significant results when used as a moderator in this model. In addition, in Study 3, I collected two measures of construal level developed by Burrus and Roese (2006) and Venus, Johnson, et al. (2019) for manipulation check purposes. The correlation between these two measures was relatively high ($r = .50$, $p < .05$), but still not high as .70. The relatively low correlation between different measures of construal level in Study 1 and 3 (Burrus & Roese, 2006; Reyt & Wiesenfeld, 2015; Venus, Johnson, et al., 2019) probably stems from how each measure captures the construct. While the measure developed by Venus and colleagues (2019) and Burrus and Roese (2006) directly captures whether individuals focus on the big picture (versus details), long-term goals (versus short-term goals), and purpose of work (versus how things are done), the measure developed by Reyt and Weisenfeld (2015) indirectly assumes that an individual will choose a certain description of an activity that matches

their construal level. For instance, Reyt and Weisenfeld's (2015) measure assumes that a person is at a high construal level if he/she views "analyzing a dataset" as "identifying trends," while one is at a low construal level if he/she perceives the same behavior as "comparing numbers." Even though prior studies have extensively measured construal level using this method (e.g., Vallacher & Wegner, 1989), the low correlation between the different measures of construal level in this dissertation raise questions about the content validity of this measure (Colquitt et al., 2019), which may significantly limit our interpretation of results found in the prior studies. Thus, future studies should examine ways to effectively capture construal level.

Future Directions

In extending the findings of this dissertation, I focus on four key future directions—dual appraisals of leader behaviors, other possible moderators, the role of construal level, and other potential follower outcomes of visionary leadership—for future research. First, researchers should explore when and why other leader behaviors beyond visionary leadership can elicit both challenge and hindrance appraisals of such leader behavior. This dissertation provides initial evidence that the effectiveness of leader behavior lies in the eye of the beholder. That is, based on how followers view a leader behavior, followers may appraise such behaviors as an opportunity for self-growth and enhanced well-being, or a demand that hinders one's personal growth. The results from this dissertation suggest that other leader behaviors may also be appraised differently based on how followers perceive such leader behaviors. For instance, empowering leadership, in which leaders share power and responsibility with followers

(Cheong et al., 2019; Sharma & Kirkman, 2015), may be perceived by some followers as an opportunity to develop themselves, and by others as hindering one's self-growth and well-being. In other words, leader behaviors that are generally known to be positive may generate different responses based on how followers perceive such leader behaviors. Thus, future research should examine when and why certain leader behaviors could be appraised both positively and negatively.

Second, future research should examine additional moderators that might shape the effects of visionary leadership on followers. Leader visions are, in general, abstract, long-term oriented, and qualitative (van Knippenberg & Stam, 2014). Thus, followers who are able to see the value of the vision and are able to connect their daily work with it are more likely to appraise visionary leadership as an opportunity for self-development (Carton, 2018). While my findings indicate that follower construal level plays an important role in helping followers to see the value of leader vision, other follower characteristics likely also influence this cognitive appraisal process. For example, even though my supplemental analysis did not indicate a significant influence of follower future temporal focus on the effect of visionary leadership on follower appraisal of such leader behavior, theory suggests that followers who attend to the future (rather than the current or the past) may appraise visionary leadership as a challenge and less as a hindrance (Shipp et al., 2009). In a similar manner, follower characteristics such as self-efficacy (Courtright et al., 2014) and resilience (Mitchell et al., 2019) may also influence the cognitive process of visionary leadership since these characteristics help followers to

react positively to job demands. Thus, future research should explore additional follower characteristics that may influence how followers appraise visionary leadership.

Third, future research should also consider how the match or mismatch of follower construal level and leader construal level affects the behavior of both parties. That is, at the dyadic level, the construal-level congruence between a leader and follower may have implications on both leader and follower outcomes. In other words, whether the level at which a leader and a follower retrieve and process information is congruent influence their relationship (e.g., leader-member exchange), stress levels, and other outcomes because (in)congruence of construal level could imply a (mis)match of working styles. Thus, future studies should examine how and why an (in)congruence of construal level between leader and followers affect both leader and follower outcomes at work.

Moreover, at the team level, future research could examine how composition of construal level affects team processes and outcomes (J. A. LePine et al., 2008; Mathieu et al., 2008, 2014, 2017). Scholars, to date, have attempted to find how certain team composition affects team processes (e.g., conflict) and outcomes (e.g., performance), and found that compositions of certain personality traits and ability are positively associated with higher team productivity (e.g., Barrick et al., 1998; Bradley et al., 2013; Courtright et al., 2017; Gonzalez-Mulé et al., 2014). Similarly, a certain composition of construal level may have an influence on team processes and outcomes. The construal-level theory suggests that both high and low level of construal has its benefits. While high construal individuals may see the forest and direct the team in a certain direction (Venus, Johnson,

et al., 2019), low construal people may make the progress towards the guided direction (Gollwitzer, 1999). These findings indicate that teams with all low construal level followers may be better at making progress in some situations, whereas a certain mix of construal level among teammates may lead to better outcomes. Thus, future studies may benefit by examining the ideal composition of construal level in a team context.

Although this dissertation found largely positive effects of follower construal level on appraisals of leader vision communication, future studies should also examine the negative aspects of construal level. Because leaders are required to retrieve and process information at a high level of construal (Venus, Johnson, et al., 2019), big picture thinkers may more likely be selected as a leader or leaders may be trained to think at that high level. While leaders with a high construal level tends to communicate more vision, benefitting the group they are leading (Venus, Johnson, et al., 2019), in some cases, they may make wrong decisions. For instance, Koenig et al. (2011) found that individuals high in construal are more likely to make stereotyped decisions compared to those who are low because high construal individuals tend to put targets into more broad and inclusive categorization. The findings from Koenig et al. (2011) raise the question how organizations can help leaders, who are in positions to make important decisions, to make unbiased decisions, while leading at a high level. Thus, future studies should highlight the potential negative impact of high construal level.

Finally, researchers could examine other follower behaviors that stem from effective leader vision communication. This dissertation theorized and tested follower proactivity, adaptivity, and withdrawal as outcomes of visionary leadership because they

were representative forms of active/problem-focused coping and passive/emotion-based coping (Carver et al., 1989; Carver & Connor-Smith, 2010), respectively, and the change-oriented nature of these follower behaviors is what leaders intend when communicating a vision (Griffin et al., 2010). However, the way employees cope with a given job demand (e.g., visionary leadership) varies (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), and not all of which are captured by proactivity, adaptivity, and withdrawal. For instance, in response to leader vision communication, followers may go out of their duty and help other teammates (Williams & Anderson, 1991), promote the company to others (i.e., loyal boosterism) (Moorman & Blakely, 1995), and speak up to improve work practices and procedures within the team (i.e., voice behavior) (Liang et al., 2012), but at the same time, engage in deviant acts (Stewart et al., 2009) and unethical behavior (Hegarty & Sims, 1978; Umphress et al., 2010). In other words, future research could highlight other important follower outcomes of visionary leadership.

Conclusion

Leadership scholars to date have focused on the positive effects of visionary leadership (Stam et al., 2014), overlooking the possibility that, at times, visionary leadership may not be well-received by followers. Drawing on the transactional theory of stress (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) and integrating it with construal-level theory (Trope & Liberman, 2010), this dissertation challenges the dominant perspective in the visionary leadership literature and suggests that the effects of visionary leadership are contingent upon the level at which followers retrieve and process information (i.e., construal level). Specifically, I hypothesized and found that visionary leadership is

positively related to follower proactivity and adaptivity through challenge appraisals of visionary leadership and negatively related to follower withdrawal via hindrance appraisals of visionary leadership. These effects were stronger for high construal level followers than for those low in construal level. This dissertation meaningfully contributes to our current understanding of the consequences of visionary leadership, the stress-based ways in which employees cognitively appraise job demands, and the influence of employee construal level on organizational functioning. In doing so, it also offers paths for researchers seeking to further advance these practically important streams of research.

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APPENDIX A

MEASURES FOR STUDY 1

Time 1 – Follower Survey

Visionary leadership (Podsakoff et al., 1990; Venus et al., 2019)

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements ABOUT YOUR [DIRECT SUPERVISOR].

In general, my direct supervisor…

1. has a clear understanding of where we are going.
2. has a clear sense of how our team has to change.
3. has no idea where we are going (reverse coded).

Construal-level (Venus et al., 2018 JOM)

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements ABOUT YOURSELF at work.

4. I am focused on the big picture rather than on details
5. I am focused on the general meaning or overall effect of my work
6. I care more about central characteristics of my actions rather than specifics

Construal-level (Reyt & Wiesenfeld, 2016 AMJ)

Instructions: Any behavior can be described in many ways. For example, one person might describe a behavior as "writing a paper," while another person might describe the same behavior as "pushing keys on the keyboard." Yet another person might describe it as "expressing thoughts." This form focuses on your personal preferences for how a number of different behaviors should be described.

Imagine yourself performing the following work activities, and indicate on the continuum (the verbal descriptions represent endpoints) the description that best describes each activity for you: High and low-level activity descriptions are opposite anchors of six-point scales. **[bar graph 1- 6]**

1 2 3 4 5 6

7. Preparing a report
   Compiling information----------Showing progress

8. Using a computer
   Typing on a keyboard----------Processing information

9. Filling out a business form

Filling in blanks with information----------Following work protocol

10. Obtaining information from someone
Asking relevant questions----------Gaining knowledge

11. Making a presentation
Presenting relevant material----------Communicating knowledge

12. Assigning work to someone
Telling someone what to do----------Getting things done

13. Communicating information to someone
Sending an email or talking to someone----------Keeping someone informed

14. Analyzing a dataset
Comparing numbers----------Identifying trends

15. Attending a meeting
Being present and paying attention----------Staying up to date

16. Developing a procedure
Writing down step-by-step instructions----------Increasing work efficiency

17. Writing business correspondence
Composing an email----------Maintaining a good business relationship

18. Hiring someone
Interviewing candidates----------Maintaining staff level

19. Developing a budget
Listing expenses and revenues----------Managing funds

20. Proofreading a document
Reading carefully for errors----------Ensuring accuracy

21. Training someone
Showing someone how to do things----------Increasing someone's productivity

22. Analyzing an operational report
Reviewing information----------Ensuring smooth operation

23. Orienting a new worker
Showing a new worker around----------Acclimating a new worker

24. Evaluating someone's performance
Reviewing quality of work----------Providing feedback

Proactive personality (Bateman & Crant, 1993; Parker, 1998, Li et al., 2010)

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements ABOUT YOURSELF.

25. If I see something I don't like, I fix it.
26. No matter what the odds, if I believe in something, I will make it happen.
27. I love being a champion for my ideas, even against others' opposition.
28. I excel at identifying opportunities.
29. I am always looking for better ways to do things.
30. If I believe in an idea, no obstacle will prevent me from making it happen

Prosocial Motivation (Grant & Sumanth, 2009 JAP)

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements ABOUT YOURSELF.

31. I get energized by working on tasks that have the potential to benefit others
32. It is important to me to have the opportunity to use my abilities to benefit others
33. I prefer to work on tasks that allow me to have a positive impact on others
34. I do my best when I'm working on a task that contributes to the well-being of others
35. I like to work on tasks that have the potential to benefit others

Role-breadth self-efficacy (Parker, 1998)

Please indicate the extent to which you are confident with the following statements ABOUT YOURSELF at work. *Not at all confident – Very confident*

36. Analyzing a long-term problem to find a solution
37. Representing your work area in meetings with senior management
38. Designing new procedures for your work area
39. Making suggestions to management about ways to improve the working of your section
40. Contributing to discussions about the company's strategy
41. Writing a proposal to spend money in your work area
42. Helping to set targets/goals in your work area
43. Contacting people outside the company (e.g., suppliers, customers) to discuss problems
44. Presenting information to a group of colleagues
45. Visiting people from other departments to suggest doing things, differently

Social Exchange with leader(Colquitt et al., 2014 JAP)

Below are several terms that can be used to describe a work relationship. For each, please indicate whether that term accurately describes your relationship with YOUR LEADER/DIRECT SUPERVISOR.

My relationship with my leader/direct supervisor is characterized by:

46. Mutual obligation
47. Mutual trust
48. Mutual commitment
49. Mutual significance

Job Autonomy (adapted from Hackman & Oldham, 1980; Morgeson et al., 2005)

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements about your job.

50. I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job
51. I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work
52. I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job

Job Demands (Karasek, 1979 ASQ)

Please indicate the extent to which your job represents the following statements.

Strongly disagree to *Strongly agree*.

My job…

53. requires working fast
54. requires working hard
55. requires great deal of work to be done
56. Not enough time
57. Excessive work
58. No time to finish
59. Conflicting demands

PA/NA (Watson et al., 1988)

Below are a number of words that describe different feelings and emotions. Read each item and indicate to what extent you feel this way IN GENERAL.

60. Enthusiastic/Interested/Determined/Excited/Inspired/Alert/Active/Strong/Proud/Attentive
61. Scared/Afraid/Upset/Distressed/Jittery/Nervous/Ashamed/Guilty/Irritable/Hostile

Demographics

Your Age: _____

Gender: 1) Male 0) Female
How long have you worked for your organization? Years _____ Months _____
How long have you worked, in total? Years _____ Months _____
Job Title: _____
Education a. High School Graduate or below. b. University Graduate. c. Master's Degree d. PhD.
How long have you been working with your supervisor? Years _____ Months _____
How many hours per day (on average) do you interact with your supervisor? _____

Time 2 – Follower Survey

Challenge appraisals of visionary leadership (M. A. LePine et al., 2016)

The items on this page refer to your experience when your direct supervisor communicated his or her vision to change things at work. With this vision in mind, p**lease indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements.**
During the past two weeks…

1. Working to fulfill the demands of ***my leader's vision*** improved my personal growth and well-being
2. I feel the demands of ***my leader's vision*** challenged me to achieve personal goals and accomplishment
3. In general, I feel that ***my leader's vision*** promoted my ability to work toward my personal accomplishment

Hindrance appraisals of visionary leadership (Drach-Zahavy & Erez, 2002; M. A. LePine et al., 2016)

The items on this page refer to your experience when your direct supervisor communicated his or her vision to change things at work. With that vision in mind, please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements. *Strongly disagree* to *Strongly agree*.
During the past two weeks…

4. Working to fulfill the demands of ***my leader's vision*** thwarted my personal growth and well-being
5. I feel the demands of ***my leader's vision*** constrained my achievement of personal goals and development
6. In general, I feel that ***my leader's vision*** hindered my personal accomplishment

Emotional Exhaustion (Maslach & Jackson, 1981, JOB)

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements ABOUT YOURSELF.

7. I feel emotionally drained from my work
8. I feel used up at the end of the workday
9. I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job
10. Working with people all day is really a strain for me
11. I feel burned out from my work

12. I feel frustrated by my job
13. I feel I'm working too hard on my job
14. Working with people directly puts too much stress on me
15. I feel like I'm at the end of my rope

Engagement (Rich et al., 2010)

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements ABOUT YOURSELF at work.

16. worked with high intensity at work.
17. Exerted full effort at work
18. devoted a lot of energy at work
19. put emotions into what we do.
20. were emotionally connected.
21. put feelings into my work.
22. gave full attention to my job.
23. concentrated completely.
24. mind was focused on the work that I do.

Time 3 – Follower Survey

Proactivity (Griffin et al., 2007)

Please indicate how often you engaged in the following behaviors over past three weeks.

1. I suggested ways to make my work unit more effective.
2. I developed new and improved methods to help my work unit perform better.
3. I improved the way my work unit does things.

Adaptivity (Griffin et al., 2007)

Please indicate how often you engaged in the following behaviors **over past three weeks.**

4. I responded constructively to change
5. I dealt effectively with change
6. I learned skills or took new roles to cope with change

Withdrawal behavior (Lehman & Simpson, 1992 JAP; Scott & Barnes, 2011 AMJ)

Please indicate how often you engaged in the following behaviors over past three weeks. *Very little – A great deal*

7. I thought of being absent
8. I chatted with co-workers about nonwork topics
9. I left work for unnecessary reasons
10. I was daydreaming
11. I spent work time on personal matters
12. I put less effort into job than should have
13. I thought of leaving current job
14. I let others do my work
15. Left work early without permission
16. Taken longer lunch or rest break than allowed
17. Taken supplies or equipment without permission
18. Fallen asleep at work

Behavioral support for change (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002 JAP)

19. Active resistance – passive resistance – compliance – cooperation - championing

Time 3 – Leader Survey

Task proficiency (Griffin et al., 2007)

Please indicate how often [Subordinate Name] engaged in the following behavior over past three weeks.

1. carried out the core parts of his/her job well.
2. completed core tasks well using the standard procedures.
3. ensured his/her tasks are completed properly.

Proactivity (Griffin et al., 2007; Wu et al., 2018)

Please indicate how often [Subordinate Name] engaged in the following behavior over past three weeks.

4. suggested ways to make work unit more effective.
5. developed new and improved methods to help work unit perform better.
6. Improved the way our work unit does things.

Adaptivity (Griffin et al., 2007)

Please indicate how often [Subordinate Name] engaged in the following behavior over past three weeks.

7. responded constructively change
8. dealt effectively with change
9. learned skills or took new roles to cope with change

Production Deviance (adapted from Stewart et al., 2009)

Please indicate how often [Subordinate Name] engaged in the following behavior over past three weeks.

10. Put little effort into their work.
11. Intentionally worked slower than they are capable of.
12. Spent too much time fantasizing or daydreaming instead of working.
13. Taken additional or longer break than is acceptable at the workplace.
14. Left their work for someone else to finish.
15. Worked on a personal matter instead of work for my organization.
16. Came in late to work without permission

Demographics

Your Age: _____

Gender: 1) Male 0) Female
How long have you worked for your organization? Years _____ Months _____
Job Title: _____
Education a. High School Graduate or below. b. University Graduate. c. Master's Degree d. PhD.

APPENDIX B

STUDY MATERIALS FOR STUDY 2 AND STUDY 3

Visionary Leadership Condition

Dear employees,

For many years, our organization has offered high-quality rent-a-car service that is regarded as one of the best in the United States. The organization is currently suffering from budget deficits, however, which necessitates us to reevaluate our service. The theme of this letter, therefore, concerns the future of our organization.

Due to recent decrease in sales, our budget this year will be reduced substantially. To somewhat mitigate the negative effects of this, we need to make operational changes. These changes will take place gradually over a year. I hope this will allow us to keep the losses to a limited extent. More information will be provided about this later. Much more important, though, is that there will also be changes in the way we provide service.

Next month a new digital technology, which enables us to offer our customers better service quality, will be introduced to our organization. The new technology will be completely different from what we are used to, and will therefore require adjustment. In short, changes are inevitable. But do not forget: Learning this new digital technology will help us "Create a Better Life" for our customers. We will be the leading organization in the industry as a result of your support for this change. I am certain that we could collectively overcome this challenge through making continuous innovation.

Currently further details are being determined. You will be kept informed about these changes. We will remain responsible for the change process as it will allow us to stay in line with our vision to "Create a Better Life" for our customers.

We believe in these plans and have confidence in a smooth transition. Professionalism, innovation, and teamwork—core values within our programs—will remain visible in the future. We ask you to accept and support these change plans. Without your support and collaboration, these plans cannot be realized.

Leader Goal-setting Condition

Dear employees,

For many years, our organization has offered high-quality rent-a-car service that is regarded as one of the best in the United States. The organization is currently suffering from budget deficits, however, which necessitates us to reevaluate our service. The theme of this letter, therefore, concerns the future of our organization.

Due to recent decrease in sales, our budget this year will be reduced substantially. To somewhat mitigate the negative effects of this, we need to make operational changes. These changes will take place gradually over a year. I hope this will allow us to keep the losses to a limited extent. More information will be provided about this later. Much more important, though, is that there will also be changes in the way we provide service.

Next month a new digital technology, which enables us to provide contact-free service to customers, will be introduced to our organization. We expect this new technology to help us regain 70% of our sales by end of the year. The new technology will be completely different from what we are used to, and will therefore require adjustment. However, changes are inevitable. Thus, all employees should learn how to utilize this new technology by next month. You will be able to find how to learn the technology through our employee portal training website. Your learning procedures should be planned to be completed in such a way that 25% of the training is completed per week over the next four weeks. In other words, 100% of the training should be completed by end of next month.

At each stage, you are expected to report your progress directly to me. It is critical to comply with these deadlines. If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to contact me.

Currently, further details are being determined. You will be kept informed about these changes. We will remain responsible for the change process.

We believe in these plans and have confidence in a smooth transition. We ask you to accept and support these change plans. Without your support and collaboration, these plans cannot be realized.