

**MEDIATING ROLE OF JOB SATISFACTION IN
LEADERSHIP STYLE AND ORGANIZATIONAL
COMMITMENT RELATIONSHIP: A STUDY IN PESANTREN
DARUNNAJAH, INDONESIA**

BUSTHOMI IBROHIM

UNIVERSITI SAINS ISLAM MALAYSIA

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STYLE AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT
RELATIONSHIP: A STUDY IN PESANTREN DARUNNAJAH,
INDONESIA**

Busthomi Ibrohim

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AUTHOR DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the work in this thesis is my own except for quotations and summaries which have been duly acknowledged.

Date: February 2024

Signature :
Name : Busthomi Ibrohim
Matric No : No. 4172524
Address : Serang Banten Indonesia

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ABSTRAK

Kajian ini dijalankan untuk memahami hubungan antara gaya kepemimpinan, kepuasan kerja, dan komitmen organisasi di dalam konteks *Pesantren* di Indonesia. Secara khususnya, terdapat lima objektif di dalam kajian ini. Pertama, untuk mengenalpasti tahap gaya kepemimpinan karismatik, transformasi dan autokratik di kalangan Kyai di *Pesantren*, Indonesia. Kedua, untuk mengkaji kesan gaya kepemimpinan karismatik, transformasi dan autokratik kepada kepuasan kerja. Ketiga, untuk mengkaji kesan gaya kepemimpinan karismatik, transformasi dan autokratik kepada komitmen organisasi. Keempat, untuk mengkaji kesan kepuasan kerja kepada komitmen organisasi. Kelima, menilai peranan kepuasan kerja sebagai pengantara di dalam hubungan antara gaya kepemimpinan karismatik, transformasi, autokratik dan komitmen organisasi. Kajian ini mengaplikasikan rekabentuk kajian kuantitatif. Data kajian ini dikumpul melalui soal selidik terhadap 556 orang Pendidik dari 4 cawangan Pesantren Darunnajah Indonesia. Responden kajian ini telah dipilih daripada populasi menggunakan teknik persampelan kluster. Soal selidik bagi kajian ini telah dibangunkan berdasarkan soalan yang telah dibangunkan oleh kajian terdahulu. Data kajian ini dianalisis menggunakan analisis regresi beberapa kali untuk menguji hipotesis kajian. Kaedah analisis regresi hierarki pula digunakan untuk menguji hipotesis pengantaraan. Kajian ini mendapati terdapat hubungan yang signifikan antara kepemimpinan karismatik (β : 0.112; t value: 4.318), kepemimpinan transformasi (β : 0.753; t value: 28.012), dan kepemimpinan autokratik (β : 0.082; t value: 3.314) terhadap komitmen organisasi. Di samping itu, kepimpinan karismatik (β : 0.104; t value: 4.275), kepimpinan transformasi (β : 0.769; t value: 30.601), dan kepimpinan autokratik (β : 0.112; t value: 4.832) juga mempunyai hubungan yang signifikan dengan kepuasan kerja. Akhir sekali, kajian ini mendapati kepuasan kerja memainkan peranan sebagai pengantara di dalam hubungan antara kepimpinan karismatik, kepimpinan transformasi, kepimpinan autokratik dan komitmen organisasi. Kajian ini mengembangkan literatur sedia ada berkaitan hubungan antara kepimpinan karismatik, transformasi, autokratik kepuasan kerja dan komitmen organisasi dalam konteks *pesantren* di Indonesia, khususnya peranan kepuasan kerja sebagai pengantara di dalam hubungan tersebut.

ABSTRACT

This study aims to determine the relationships between leadership style, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment within the context of a *pesantren* in Indonesia. In specific, there were five research objectives. First, to determine the level of charismatic, transformational, and autocratic leadership styles among the Kyai. Second, to examine the effects of charismatic, transformational, and autocratic leadership styles on job satisfaction. Third, to examine the effects of charismatic, transformational, and autocratic leadership styles on organizational commitment. Fourth, to examine the effect of job satisfaction on organizational commitment. Fifth, to assess the mediating role of job satisfaction between charismatic, transformational, and autocratic leadership styles with organizational commitment. The quantitative methodology and correlational research design was employed. Research data were collected through a questionnaire from 556 educators from four branches of Pesantren Darunnajah, Indonesia. Respondents were selected using the cluster sampling technique. The questionnaire was developed based on the previously established scales. The data were analyzed using multiple regression analysis to test the hypotheses. Hierarchical regression analysis was applied to test the mediation hypotheses. It was found that there was a significant relationship between charismatic leadership (β : 0.112, t : 4.318), transformational leadership (β : 0.753, t : 28.012), autocratic leadership (β : 0.082, t : 3.314) and organizational commitment. Charismatic leadership (β : 0.104, t : 4.275), transformational leadership (β : 0.769, t : 30.601), and autocratic leadership (β : 0.112; t : 4.832) also had significant relationships with job satisfaction. In addition, job satisfaction had a significant relationship with organizational commitment. Finally, job satisfaction mediated between charismatic leadership, transformational leadership, and autocratic leadership with organizational commitment. This study extends the literature about the relationships between charismatic, transformational, and autocratic leadership styles with job satisfaction and organizational commitment in the context of *pesantren* in Indonesia. It also contributes empirical evidence on the role of job satisfaction as a mediator in the relationships.

الملخص

إن الحاجة ماسة إلى البحث عن أسلوب الرئاسة الرضا الوظيفي والالتزام التنظيمي خاصة لدى المعاهد الإسلامية بإندونيسيا. على وجه التحديد، في هذه الدراسة خمسة أهداف. : أولاً، لدراسة مستوى أسلوب الرئاسة الكاريزمية والتحويلية والاستبدادية لدى مديري المعاهد. ثانياً، دراسة تأثير أساليب الرئاسة الكاريزمية والتحويلية والاستبدادية على الرضا الوظيفي. ثالثاً، دراسة تأثير أساليب الرئاسة الكاريزمية والتحويلية والاستبدادية على الالتزام التنظيمي، رابعاً، دراسة أثر الرضا الوظيفي على الالتزام التنظيمي. خامساً، تقييم دور الرضا الوظيفي كوسيط في العلاقة بين أسلوب الرئاسة الكاريزمية والتحويلية والاستبدادية والالتزام التنظيمي. تطبق هذه الدراسة تصميم البحث الكمي. تم جمع بيانات هذه الدراسة من خلال استبيان على 556 معلماً من 4 فروع لمعهد دار النجاح الإسلامي بإندونيسيا تم اختيار أفراد هذه الدراسة من بين السكان باستخدام تقنية أخذ العينات العنقودية. وقد تم تطوير استبيان هذه الدراسة بناء على الأسئلة التي تم تطويرها من خلال الدراسات السابقة. وقد تم تحليل بيانات هذه الدراسة باستخدام تحليل الانحدار عدة مرات لاختبار فرضية البحث. وأيضاً تم استخدام طريقة تحليل الانحدار الهرمي لاختبار فرضية الوساطة. وقد توصلت الدراسة إلى وجود علاقة ذات دلالة إحصائية بين الرئاسة الكاريزمية ($\beta: 0.112$ ؛ $t \text{ value}: 4.318$) والرئاسة التحويلية ($\beta: 0.753$ ؛ $t \text{ value}: 28.012$) والرئاسة الأوتوقراطية ($\beta: 0.082$ ؛ $t \text{ value}: 3.314$) والالتزام التنظيمي. بالإضافة إلى ذلك، فإن الرئاسة الكاريزمية ($\beta: 0.104$ ؛ $t \text{ value}: 4.275$)، والرئاسة التحويلية ($\beta: 0.769$ ؛ $t \text{ value}: 30.601$)، والرئاسة الاستبدادية ($\beta: 0.112$ ؛ $t \text{ value}: 4.832$) لها أيضاً علاقة مهمة بالرضا الوظيفي. فضلاً عن ذلك، توصلت هذه الدراسة إلى أن الرضا الوظيفي يلعب دوراً وسيطاً في العلاقة بين الرئاسة الكاريزمية والرئاسة التحويلية والرئاسة الاستبدادية والالتزام التنظيمي. تعمل هذه الدراسة على تطوير الأدبيات الموجودة المتعلقة بالعلاقة بين الرئاسة الكاريزمية والتحويلية والاستبدادية والرضا الوظيفي والالتزام التنظيمي في سياق المعاهد في إندونيسيا، وتحديدًا دور الرضا الوظيفي كوسيط في العلاقة. توصلت هذه الدراسة إلى أن الرضا الوظيفي يلعب دوراً وسيطاً في العلاقة بين الرئاسة الكاريزمية والرئاسة التحويلية والرئاسة الاستبدادية والالتزام التنظيمي. تعمل هذه الدراسة على تطوير الأدبيات الموجودة المتعلقة بالعلاقة بين الرئاسة الكاريزمية والتحول والرضا الوظيفي والاستبدادي والالتزام التنظيمي في سياق المدارس الإسلامية الداخلية في إندونيسيا، وتحديدًا دور الرضا الوظيفي كوسيط في العلاقة.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CONTENT	PAGE
AUTHOR DECLARATION	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iii
ABSTRAK	iv
ABSTRACT	v
الملخص	vi
TABLE OF CONTENTS	vii
LIST OF TABLES	xi
LIST OF FIGURES	xv
 CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION	 1
1.1 Introduction	1
1.1.1 <i>Pesantren</i>	2
1.1.2 Elements of <i>Pesantren</i>	3
1.1.2.1 Kiyai	3
1.1.2.2 Pondok <i>Pesantren</i>	4
1.1.2.3 <i>Santri</i>	4
1.1.2.4 Mosque	5
1.1.2.5 Classic Books or <i>Dirasah Islamiyyah</i>	5
1.1.3 Types of <i>Pesantren</i>	6
1.1.3.1 <i>Salafi</i>	6
1.1.3.2 <i>Khalaf</i>	7
1.1.3.3 Comprehensive	7
1.2 Problem Statement	8
1.3 Research Questions	10
1.4 Research Objectives	11
1.5 Significance of the Study	11
1.6 Scope of the Study	12
1.7 Operational Definitions	13
1.8 Chapter Summary	14
 CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW	 15
2.1 Introduction	15
2.2 Concept of Organizational Commitment	15
2.3 Model of Organizational Commitment	16
2.4 Significance of Organizational Commitment	18
2.5 Underpinning Theories	19
2.5.1 Social Exchange Theory	19
2.5.2 Job Demand-Resources Model	20
2.6 Determinants of Organizational Commitment	22
2.6.1 Leadership	23
2.6.1.1 Leadership Theories	23
2.6.1.1.1 Trait Theory	23
2.6.1.1.2 Contingency Theory	24
2.6.1.2 Situational Theory	25
2.6.1.3 Behavioral Theory	26

2.6.1.4	Leadership Style	26
2.6.1.4.1	Charismatic Leadership	26
2.6.1.4.2	Transformational Leadership	30
2.6.1.4.3	Autocratic Leadership	35
2.6.2	Job Satisfaction	39
2.6.2.1	Concept and Determinants of Job Satisfaction	39
2.6.2.2	Model of Job Satisfaction	41
2.7	Hypothesis Development	43
2.7.1	Charismatic Leadership and Job Satisfaction	43
2.7.2	Transformational Leadership and Job Satisfaction	43
2.7.3	Autocratic Leadership and Job Satisfaction	44
2.7.4	Leadership Style and Organizational Commitment	44
2.7.5	Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment	45
2.7.6	Job Satisfaction as A Mediator	45
2.8	Chapter Summary	47
CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY		48
3.1	Introduction	48
3.2	Research Design	48
3.3	Population and Sample	49
3.4	Data Collection Methods and Procedures	51
3.5	Measurement	51
3.6	Data Analysis	57
3.7	Chapter Summary	60
CHAPTER 4: DATA ANALYSIS RESULTS		61
4.1	Introduction	61
4.2	Data Screening	61
4.3	Demographic Profile	62
4.4	Analysis of Assumptions	63
4.4.1	Multicollinearity	63
4.4.2	Outliers	64
4.4.3	Normality	65
4.4.4	Linearity and Homoscedasticity	65
4.5	Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)	67
4.5.1	Charismatic Leadership	68
4.5.1.1	Vision and Articulation	68
4.5.1.2	Personal Risk	69
4.5.1.3	Environmental Sensitivity	70
4.5.1.4	Sensitivity to Members' Needs	71
4.5.1.5	Unconventional Behavior	72
4.5.2	Transformational Leadership	73
4.5.2.1	Idealized Influence	73
4.5.2.2	Inspirational Motivation	74
4.5.2.3	Intellectual Stimulation	75
4.5.2.4	Individualized Consideration	76
4.5.3	Autocratic Leadership	77
4.5.3.1	Determine All Decisions	77
4.5.3.2	Emphasizes the Best Performance	78

4.5.4	Organizational Commitment	80
4.5.4.1	Affective Commitment	80
4.5.4.2	Continuance Commitment	81
4.5.4.3	Normative Commitment	82
4.5.5	Job Satisfaction	83
4.5.5.1	Pay	83
4.5.5.2	Promotion	84
4.5.5.3	Supervision	85
4.5.5.4	Fringe Benefit	86
4.5.5.5	Contingent Rewards	87
4.5.5.6	Operating Condition	88
4.5.5.7	Co-Workers	89
4.5.5.8	Nature of Work	90
4.5.5.9	Communication	91
4.6	Summary of Exploratory Factor Analysis	92
4.7	Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)	93
4.8	Mean, Standard Deviation, and Correlation between Variables	95
4.9	Hypotheses Testing	96
4.9.1	Hypotheses 1–3	96
4.9.2	Hypotheses 4–6	96
4.9.3	Hypothesis 7	97
4.9.4	Hypothesis 8: Job Satisfaction Mediates between Charismatic Leadership and Organizational Commitment	97
4.9.5	Hypothesis 9: Job Satisfaction Mediates between Transformational Leadership and Organizational Commitment	98
4.9.6	Hypothesis 10: Job Satisfaction Mediates between Autocratic Leadership and Organizational Commitment	99
4.9.7	Additional Test to Confirm Mediation	100
4.10	Summary of Findings	101
4.11	Final Research Model	102
4.12	Chapter Summary	102
CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION		103
5.1	Introduction	103
5.2	Focus of This Study	103
5.3	Discussion of Findings	105
5.3.1	Leadership Style of the Kiyai at Pesantren Darunnajah	105
5.3.2	Charismatic Leadership was Positively Related to Job Satisfaction	106
5.3.3	Transformational Leadership was Positively Related to Job Satisfaction	107
5.3.4	Autocratic Leadership was Positively Related to Job Satisfaction	108
5.3.5	Charismatic Leadership was Positively Related to Organizational Commitment	109
5.3.6	Transformational Leadership was Positively Related to Organizational Commitment	110
5.3.7	Autocratic Leadership was Positively Related to Organizational Commitment	111
5.3.8	Job Satisfaction was Positively Related to Organizational Commitment	111

5.3.9	Job Satisfaction as A Mediator	112
5.4	Implications of the Research	114
5.4.1	Theoretical Implications	114
5.4.2	Practical Implications	115
5.5	Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research	116
5.6	Conclusion	117
REFERENCES		118

LIST OF TABLES

Tables	Page
Table 3.1: Number of Educators in Each Darunnajah Branch	50
Table 3.2: Charismatic Leadership Scale	52
Table 3.3: Transformational Leadership Scale	54
Table 3.4: Autocratic Leadership Scale	54
Table 3.5: Job Satisfaction Scale	55
Table 3.6: Organizational Commitment Scale	57
Table 4.1: Number of Returned Questionnaires by Branch	61
Table 4.2: Demographic Profile	62
Table 4.3: Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Matrix	63
Table 4.4: Multicollinearity Assessment based on VIF and Tolerance	64
Table 4.5: Normality Assessment	65
Table 4.6: KMO and Bartlett's Test	68
Table 4.7: Total Variance Explained	69
Table 4.8: Factor Loadings for Vision and Articulation Items	69
Table 4.9: KMO and Bartlett's Test	69
Table 4.10: Total Variance Explained	70
Table 4.11: Factor Loadings for Personal Risk	70
Table 4.12: KMO and Bartlett's Test	70
Table 4.13: Total Variance Explained	71
Table 4.14: Factor Loadings for Environmental Sensitivity Items	71
Table 4.15: KMO and Bartlett's Test	71
Table 4.16: Total Variance Explained	72
Table 4.17: Factor Loadings for Items of Sensitivity to Member Needs	72
Table 4.18: KMO and Bartlett's Test	72

Table 4.19: Total Variance Explained	73
Table 4.20: Factor Loadings for Unconventional Behavior Items	73
Table 4.21: KMO and Bartlett's Test	73
Table 4.22: Total Variance Explained	74
Table 4.23: Factor Loadings for Individualized Influence Items	74
Table 4.24: KMO and Bartlett's Test	74
Table 4.25: Total Variance Explained	75
Table 4.26: Factor Loadings for Inspirational Motivation Items	75
Table 4.27: KMO and Bartlett's Test	75
Table 4.28: Total Variance Explained	76
Table 4.29: Factor Loadings for Intellectual Stimulation Items	76
Table 4.30: KMO and Bartlett's Test	76
Table 4.31: Total Variance Explained	77
Table 4.32: Factor Loadings for Individualized Consideration Items	77
Table 4.33: KMO and Bartlett's Test	78
Table 4.34: Total Variance Explained	78
Table 4.35: Factor Loadings for Items of Determine All Decisions	78
Table 4.36: KMO and Bartlett's Test	79
Table 4.37: Total Variance Explained	79
Table 4.38: Factor Loadings for Items of Emphasize the Best Performance	79
Table 4.39: KMO and Bartlett's Test	80
Table 4.40: Total Variance Explained	80
Table 4.41: Factor Loadings for Affective Commitment Items	81
Table 4.42: KMO and Bartlett's Test	81
Table 4.43: Total Variance Explained	81
Table 4.44: Factor Loadings for Continuance Commitment Items	82
Table 4.45: KMO and Bartlett's Test	82

Table 4.46: Total Variance Explained	83
Table 4.47: Factor Loadings for Normative Commitment Items	83
Table 4.48: KMO and Bartlett's Test	84
Table 4.49: Total Variance Explained	84
Table 4.50: Factor Loadings for Pay Items	84
Table 4.51: KMO and Bartlett's Test	85
Table 4.52: Total Variance Explained	85
Table 4.53: Factor Loadings for Promotion Items	85
Table 4.54: KMO and Bartlett's Test	86
Table 4.55: Total Variance Explained	86
Table 4.56: Factor Loadings for Supervision Items	86
Table 4.57: KMO and Bartlett's Test	87
Table 4.58: Total Variance Explained	87
Table 4.59: Factor Loadings for Fringe Benefit Items	87
Table 4.60: KMO and Bartlett's Test	88
Table 4.61: Total Variance Explained	88
Table 4.62: Factor Loadings for Items of Contingent Rewards	88
Table 4.63: KMO and Bartlett's Test	89
Table 4.64: Total Variance Explained	89
Table 4.65: Factor Loadings for Operating Condition Items	89
Table 4.66: KMO and Bartlett's Test	90
Table 4.67: Total Variance Explained	90
Table 4.68: Factor Loadings for Coworker Items	90
Table 4.69: KMO and Bartlett's Test	91
Table 4.70: Total Variance Explained	91
Table 4.71: Factor Loadings for Nature of Work Items	91
Table 4.72: KMO and Bartlett's Test	92

Table 4.73: Total Variance Explained	92
Table 4.74: Factor Loadings for Communication Items	92
Table 4.75: Summary of Exploratory Factor Analysis	92
Table 4.76: Fitness Index for the Measurement Model	93
Table 4.77: Composite Reliability (CR) and AVE for All Constructs	93
Table 4.78: Discriminant Validity Index Summary	94
Table 4.79: Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Matrix	95
Table 4.80: Level of Mean Score	95
Table 4.81: Multiple Regression Results	96
Table 4.82: Multiple Regression Results	96
Table 4.83: Linear Regression Results	97
Table 4.84: Hierarchical Regression Analysis Results	98
Table 4.85: Hierarchical Regression Analysis Results	99
Table 4.86: Hierarchical Regression Analysis Results	100
Table 4.87: Summary of Findings	101

LIST OF FIGURES

Figures	Page
Figure 2.1: Research Framework	46
Figure 4.1: Scatterplot	64
Figure 4.2: Plot of Standardized Residual	66
Figure 4.3: Scatterplot of the Standardized Residuals	67
Figure 4.4: Sobel Test Calculator for Significance of Mediation	101
Figure 4.5: Final Research Model	102

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

Every organization requires leaders and leadership. The leader is the main determinant of organizational success because he is central to the processes of planning, implementation, motivation, and supervision (Nugraha, 2010). The leader also has an active role and intervenes in every problem relating to the needs of organizational members (Anoraga, 1992).

Leadership can be described as the skills or art of influencing people to do something or to work in a coordinated manner, so that they are moved to accomplish their tasks well based on a planned program to support overall organizational performance (Walid, 2010). According to Zainuddin and Mustaqim (2008), leadership is an activity or art to influence the behavior of people to work towards a goal that is set or desired together.

Leadership is very important to all types of organization, including *pesantren*. *Pesantren* is an Islamic education organization that focuses on developing Muslim cadres. They are expected to become individuals who are devoted to Allah SWT, have deep understanding of the religion (*tafaqquh fi al-dien*), and proselytize Islamic teachings to society (Masyhud, 2003).

Pesantren leadership is usually centered around a Kiyai. The Kiyai is the owner, manager, and teacher at the *pesantren* that he leads (Qodir, 2003). Therefore, to perform his role and function well, a Kiyai must possess wisdom and insight, be skilled in

religious sciences, able to inculcate proper attitudes and views, and become a role model and a good leader.

The Kiyai is often ascribed with supernatural power and considered an ulema (Muslim scholar) who has a close relationship with God (Arifin, 2003). The Kiyai's authority endures as long as the *pesantren* tradition is maintained. The charismatic power of a Kiyai radiates its charm and manifests in the leadership form of a collective Assembly Boarding (Muhajir, 1987). The Kiyai also plays a role in the transformation of modern life, particularly in the *pesantren* context (Dhofier, 1994).

1.1.1 *Pesantren*

The term *pesantren* is taken from the word *santri*, to which the prefix *pe-* and suffix *-an* are added. The term *santri* originated from Tamil, which means a religious teacher (Khozin, 2006). *Santri* may also be derived from the Hindi word *shastri* (Daulay, 1997), which means those who understand the holy book of Hinduism (Alamsyah, 2000). *Pesantren* in its most fundamental meaning refers to a place of learning for students (Dhofier, 1994). A more precise meaning is that it is a place where the *santri* (student) lives and studies Islamic sciences (Effendi, 2008). It is a traditional institution of Islamic boarding school owned and led by a Kiyai.

The historical development of *pesantren* as an Islamic institution in the Indonesian archipelago is still debatable among scholars. According to Federspiel (2016), *Pesantren* emerged in the sixteenth century, when learning centers for the Islamic faithful (*santri*) were established. Lukens-Bull (2008), on the other hand, asserted that *pesantren* emerged earlier around the thirteenth century. In fact, its emergence was nearly as old as Islam in Java itself.

1.1.2 Elements of *Pesantren*

There are five important elements associated with any form of *pesantren*: Kiyai, *pondok pesantren*, *santri*, mosque, and classic books or *dirasah Islamiyyah* (Dhofier, 1985; Law of Pesantren, 2019; Efendi, 2014). Each of these elements are elaborated further below.

1.1.2.1 Kiyai

A Kiyai is the central figure of any *pesantren*, and so it cannot be conceived that a *pesantren* is without a Kiyai (Dhofier, 1994; Masyhud & Khusnuridho, 2003). The Kiyai may even be an extension of the mujtahid (Wijaya, 2011) or "little king" (Bull, 2004). Kiyai gives specific, scheduled lectures on certain topics using classic textbooks (*kitab kuning*) in front of intermediate pupils (van Bruinessen, 1990). Kiyai may be perceived as someone associated with superstition or magic. Kiyai refers to the elderly who are respected by the community. Kiyai can also be described as a person with a wide range of Islamic knowledge. According to Muthohar (2007), the term Kiyai is derived from the Javanese word *kijaji*—a person qualified in religious teachings. The title of Kiyai is not easily gained and cannot be obtained from formal education. It is society's gift to someone who has satisfied several requirements, including knowledge, piety, genealogy (descendants of previous Kiyai), and having many *santri* (Steenbrin, 1986).

A Kiyai and his aides are the only power hierarchy that is explicitly acknowledged in the *pesantren*. This power is absolute, and as such many students throughout their lives feel attached to the Kiyai, at least as a source of inspiration and moral support (Wahid, 1995). This power derives from a combination of traditional Islamic education and the charisma gained and inherited from the previous Kiyai (Rohmaniyah &

Wordwar, 2012). The power that derives from the Kiyai's charisma is his strong persuasion in instilling ideology. This charismatic power is called ideological or normative power (Romas, 2003).

1.1.2.2 Pondok Pesantren

Pondok pesantren is a dormitory where the *santri* lives and studies under the guidance of the Kiyai. The *santri* takes care of his pondok and needs under the supervision of senior students (Dhofier, 2011). There are three reasons why a *pesantren* must provide *pondok* for the *santri*. First, almost all *pesantren* are located in a rural area, where there is no housing to accommodate the *santri*. Therefore, dormitories for *santri* are necessary. Second, there exists a reciprocal relationship between the Kiyai and *santri*. The students see the Kiyai as their own father, while the Kiyai treats his *santri* as a trust from God that must always be protected. This relationship creates a sense of familiarity that requires them to be close to each other (Suparto, 2000). Third, *pondok* enables a *pesantren* to integrate the academic and social activities of the *santri* (Saifullah, 1995).

1.1.2.3 Santri

The third component of a *pesantren* is students or *santri*. Students who live in the pondok are regarded as of similar social background with no privilege of one over the other. All *santri* are under one rule which they must obey. The word *santri* means people who study Islam (The Compilation Team of the Language Center Dictionary, 2008). In the tradition of *pesantren*, *santri* are classified into two groups, namely *santri mukim* and *santri khodim*. *Santri mukim* are students who come from afar and live in the *pesantren* environment. They cover the entire cost of learning in the *Pesantren* by

themselves, including *syahriyah* costs (monthly fees), meals, learning materials, and other fees imposed by the *pesantren*. They oversee the *pondok*'s daily affairs and teach younger students the elementary version of a classic textbook. Meanwhile, *santri khodim* are students whose tuition fees are borne by the *pesantren*. In general, they come from the neighboring area and do not live in the *pesantren*, only attending the *pesantren* according to their learning schedule (Dhofier, 1994).

1.1.2.4 Mosque

The mosque has multiple functions to support the learning activities in the *pesantren*. In addition to being a place to pray five times a day and Friday prayers, the mosque also functions as a place to study manuscripts and *santri* development activities (e.g., Friday sermon, Barzanji prayer, and *Muhadoroh*) (Maksum, 1999). The mosque is thus the main resource and space in which the Kiyai carries out his obligation to educate and train his *santri* on the performance of worship, teach Islamic textbooks, and conduct social activities (Zarkasyi, 2009). In addition, the mosque reflects the togetherness of the community (Suparto, 2000), as can be clearly seen in the performance of the five daily prayers in congregation. The teachers and students, and at times locals, perform those prayers together, uniting the community in a ritual of submission to Allah the Almighty. The mosque is therefore not only beneficial for the *pesantren* but also for Muslims in general.

1.1.2.5 Classic Books or *Dirasah Islamiyyah*

In Islamic intellectual tradition, there are two categories of scientific works. The first category is called classic manuscripts (*al-kutub al-qadimah*), while the second is called modern manuscripts (*al-kutub al-'ashriyah*) (Wahid, 1999). In the *pesantren*

context, these books are known as *kitab kuning* (yellow manuscript) or *kitab gundul* (bare (lit. bald) manuscript). These are the textbooks, references, and curriculum in the *pesantren* education system (Aly, 2011). As van Bruinessen (1995) and Dhofier (2011) explained, these classic manuscripts are the main sources of knowledge construction and development of the *santri* in the *pesantren*.

According to Mukhtar (2001), classic books are commonly thought to be Arabic religious scriptures or scripts and as the thoughts of classical clerics written in a pre-modern format. However, as Mas'udi (1988) explained, this is untrue. He explained that there are two common characteristics of the classic books. First, they were written by Arabs but are hereditary references made by Indonesian scholars. Second, some of the books were also written by Indonesian scholars as an independent work or as a commentary or translation of the work of an Eastern cleric who used Arabic (Malay Arabic). According to Nata (1999), a classic book is that which discusses Islamic sciences and written or printed in the Arabic script in Arabic, Malay, Javanese, Sundanese, or other languages.

1.1.3 Types of *Pesantren*

In general, there are three types of *pesantren* in Indonesia: *salafi*, *khalaf*, and comprehensive (Malik, 2008). They are described below.

1.1.3.1 *Salafi*

The *salafi pesantren* still applies the traditional madrasah system as its education system (Haedari, 2004, Noor, 2006). This *pesantren* only offers religious and character development education. Therefore, the *salafi pesantren* has been regarded as the best—or at least the most traditional—religious education. The *pesantren* is based on the

Shafi'i school of jurisprudence (*madhab*), the traditional jurisprudential school in Indonesia. The *salafi pesantren* is a boarding school that only teaches books written by clerics in the 15th century using Arabic. Instruction is given in a *halaqah* pattern, which means carrying out discussion to understand the contents of the book, not to question whether it contains the right or wrong teachings but to understand what it is trying to teach. The students believe that the Kiyai will never teach them wrong things, and they are sure that the contents of the book that they learn are true (Bakhtiar, 1990).

1.1.3.2 *Khalaf*

Khalaf pesantren promotes *ijtihad* (independent interpretation) as opposed to the *taqlid* of *salaf pesantren*. Most *pesantren* today are considered “integrated” because they engage with traditional religious education and modern educational needs. Learning classic books is no longer a core activity. In fact, in some schools, they have been subordinated to complementary classes, thus religion will regress with the variety and complexity of Indonesia's current social development (Dhopier, 1994). *Khalaf pesantren* is more flexible and receptive to novel ideas and innovations (Malik, 2008). This type of *pesantren* seeks to modernize traditional Islamic education to keep up with the modernization brought by European colonizers (Madjid, 2010).

1.1.3.3 Comprehensive

A comprehensive *pesantren* combines the *salafi* and *khalaf pesantren* models (Bahri, 2011). It coordinates religious education and develops the skills of its students in agriculture, marine, technology, or other areas (Ghozali, 2003).

1.2 Problem Statement

Committed employees are the key success factors of any organization. But most organizations, including *pesantren*, found it difficult to maintain the high commitment of their employees. Wulandari and Priantini (2019) found that *pesantren* employees have a moderate level of organizational commitment. In Pesantren Darunnajah, Ibrahim et al. (2023) found that the organizational commitment of its 556 employees is moderate. Therefore, there is a need to conduct a study to examine the determinants of organizational commitment of *pesantren* employees in Indonesia, particularly in Pesantren Darunnajah.

Leadership is a critical element of *pesantren* in Indonesia. Traditionally, the leadership in *pesantren* is held by a Kiyai, who is also its founder. The development and sustainability of a *pesantren* depends a lot on the Kiyai's expertise, skills, and depth of knowledge (Hasbullah, 1999). The Kiyai is also an absolute source of power and authority in the *pesantren* environment (Dhofier, 1994). Therefore, leadership in *pesantren* is centered on the Kiyai, and the leadership of the Kiyai is attached to his personal qualities (Nugraha, 2010).

However, there is an inconsistent perception about the leadership style of *pesantren* leaders in the literature. For instance, Nugraha (2010) and Rachmawati (2009) argued that the *pesantren* leader applies the charismatic dominant leadership style. On the other hand, Prabowo (2016) noted that the leadership at *pesantren* tends to be an individual, limiting the roles and initiatives of subordinates. Abdullah et al. (2008) and Anchok and Suroso (2005) indicated that leadership in *pesantren* generally follows the religious leadership style. These inconsistent arguments justify further examination into the leadership style of the Kiyai.

There are also other issues related to *pesantren* leadership. First, decision-making is centered on the Kiyai, who produces authoritative decisions based on his level of reasoning and understanding. Second, some *pesantren* are unable to try new development patterns or innovations because they are not approved by the Kiyai. Third, there is no clear and systematized leadership succession plan. Fourth, the Kiyai as the sole leader of the *pesantren* often cannot keep up his leadership quality as the scope of influence of the *pesantren* grows (Wahid, 2010).

The problems abovementioned are closely related to leadership style in *pesantren*, and they may influence the organizational commitment and job satisfaction of its employees. There is some empirical evidence on the link between leadership style, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction. For instance, Wardianto dan Hendrati (2014) found a positive and significant relationship between leadership style and organizational commitment. Azim (2019) and Siddiq and Sudin (2013) showed that leadership style is positively related to employee job satisfaction. This study will extend the current body of knowledge by empirically examining the effect of three leadership styles (i.e., charismatic, transformational, autocratic) on job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Simultaneously examining three leadership styles can generate significant knowledge about which leadership style influences organizational commitment and job satisfaction.

This study further argues that job satisfaction could mediate the relationships between charismatic, transformational, and autocratic leadership style with organizational commitment. Evidence for these relationships is still lacking in the literature. There are three reasons to support the potential role of job satisfaction as a mediator in these relationships. First, leadership style is positively related to job satisfaction (Azim, 2019; Siddiq & Sudin, 2013). Second, job satisfaction has a positive

effect on organizational commitment (Mwesigwa, Tusiime & Ssekiziyivu, 2020). Third, job satisfaction can mediate between relationships, as has been shown in previous studies. For instance, Chan and Ao (2019) indicated that job satisfaction mediates the effect of pay satisfaction and work family conflict on turnover intention. Similarly, Riyadi and Soeling (2019) showed that job satisfaction mediates between leadership and employee performance.

This study was conducted to address the previous gaps. To be precise, this study examines the effects of charismatic, transformational, and autocratic leadership styles on organizational commitment and job satisfaction in the *pesantren* context. This study also examines the role of job satisfaction as a mediator in the relationships between charismatic leadership, transformational leadership, autocratic leadership, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. In addition, this study examines the level of charismatic, transformational, and autocratic leadership styles among the Kiyai.

Previous research directions extend the discussion about the factors that may influence organizational commitment in the context of this study, which is the *pesantren* in Indonesia. The findings from this study contribute meaningful implications to the *pesantren* on how to increase their employees' organizational commitment from moderate (Wulandari & Priantini, 2019; Ibrohim et al., 2023) to high.

1.3 Research Questions

- 1) What is the level of charismatic, transformational, and autocratic leadership styles among the *pesantren* Kiyai?
- 2) Do charismatic, transformational, and autocratic leadership styles influence the job satisfaction of *pesantren* employees?

- 3) Do charismatic, transformational, and autocratic leadership styles influence the organizational commitment of *pesantren* employees?
- 4) Does the job satisfaction of *pesantren* employees influence their organizational commitment?
- 5) Does job satisfaction mediate the relationships between charismatic, transformational, and autocratic leadership styles with organizational commitment?

1.4 Research Objectives

- 1) To determine level of charismatic, transformational, and autocratic leadership styles among the *pesantren* Kiyai.
- 2) To examine the effects of charismatic, transformational, and autocratic leadership styles on the job satisfaction of *pesantren* employees.
- 3) To examine the effect of charismatic, transformational, and autocratic leadership styles on the organizational commitment of *pesantren* employees.
- 4) To examine the effect of job satisfaction of *pesantren* employees influence their organizational commitment.
- 5) To assess the role of job satisfaction as a mediator in the relationship between charismatic, transformational, and autocratic leadership styles with organizational commitment.

1.5 Significance of the Study

First, the empirical findings of this study could enrich the extant literature on the determinants of organizational commitment. In specific, this study contributes new findings about the relationships between charismatic, transformational, and autocratic leadership styles with organizational commitment in the context of *pesantren* in

Indonesia. There is a paucity of research that examines the simultaneous effects of these leadership styles on organizational commitment. Current studies mostly assess the effects of those leadership styles on organizational commitment separately and in different contexts (Malik, Javed & Hassan, 2017; Adadevoh, 2003).

Second, this study incorporates a mediating factor, specifically job satisfaction. It then contributes empirical evidence to the literature about the mediating role of job satisfaction between charismatic, transformational, and transactional leadership styles with organizational commitment. Several studies have highlighted the role of job satisfaction as a mediator to explain different relationships (Chan & Ao, 2019; Riyadi & Soeling, 2019).

Third, the findings could also shed light on the leadership style of the Kiyai. This issue should be examined further because current findings have been unclear (Nugraha, 2010; Rachmawati, 2009; Prabowo, 2016; Abdullah et al, 2008; Anchok & Suroso, 2005).

1.6 Scope of the Study

This study was conducted to examine three issues. First, the leadership style of Kiyai at the *pesantren* in Indonesia. Second, the effects of charismatic, transformational, and autocratic leadership styles on job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Third, the mediating role of job satisfaction in the relationship between charismatic, transformational, and autocratic leadership styles with organizational commitment. The research data were collected from employees of Pesantren Darunnajah in Indonesia.

1.7 Operational Definitions

Charismatic leadership refers to a leader who espouses the five characteristics specified by Conger, Kanungo, Menon and Mathur (1997). First, the leader formulates a strategic vision that is constantly presented in an inspiring way (strategic vision and articulation). Second, the leader assesses the environment to uncover growth opportunities for the organization (sensitivity to the environment). Third, the leader carefully evaluates his/her followers' needs (sensitivity to members' needs). Fourth, the leader provides a role model by demonstrating personal risk. Fifth, the leader provides a role model by demonstrating unconventional behavior to his/her followers.

Transformational leadership refers to a leader who espouses four characteristics (Bass & Avolio, 2010): (i) idealized influence, (ii) inspirational motivation, (iii) intellectual stimulation, and (iv) individualized consideration. Idealized influence means that the leader demonstrates reliability and a strong model, resulting in reverence from the followers, as he directs them towards the organization's vision and mission (Teymournejad & Elghaei, 2017). Inspirational motivation means that a leader serves as a model for followers to achieve organizational goals, and the leader clearly and confidently communicate his vision optimistically and enthusiastically (Jyoti & Dev, 2015). Intellectual stimulation means that the leader encourages followers to question the values, way of thinking, and beliefs of themselves and their leader (Jyoti & Dev, 2015). Individualized consideration means that the leader recognizes the differences among followers and provide individualized attention to motivate followers to exercise authority in decision-making (Ghadi et al., 2013; Teymournejad & Elghaei, 2017). Autocratic leadership refers to a leader that has two characteristics (Cheng et al., 2000): to determine all decision and to emphasize the best performance.

Job satisfaction refers to employee's happiness towards the nine aspects of work, which are pay, promotion, supervisor, fringe benefit, contingent reward, operating condition, co-workers, nature of work, and communication (Weiss, Dawis, England & Lofquist, 1967).

Organizational commitment is defined by three aspects (Meyer & Allen, 1990, 1991): affective commitment, normative commitment, and continuance commitment. Affective commitment describes the employee's perception on the desire to stay with the organization (emotional attachment). Normative commitment describes the employee's feeling of obligation to stay with the organization (moral attachment). Continuance commitment describes the employee's need to stay with the organization (consequences of leaving are too high).

1.8 Chapter Summary

This chapter has discussed the research background and presented the problem statement. It has also explained the research questions and objectives, as well as its significance and scope. Finally, it provides the operational definitions for each research variable. Chapter 2 will review relevant theoretical and empirical literature.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews the literature related to organizational commitment. Specifically, it explains the concept, theories, models, and significance of organizational commitment. Then, it explains the underpinning theories and the factors that influence organizational commitment. Following this, the chapter develops the hypotheses based on previous studies. It then purposes the research framework and ends with a summary.

2.2 Concept of Organizational Commitment

Monday et al. (1982) defined organizational commitment as an individual's relative strength of identification with and involvement in a particular organization. Adding to this definition, Zeinabadi (2010) explained that organizational commitment is characterized by a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values (value commitment), as well as readiness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization and to remain a member (commitment to stay). Recent studies (e.g., Robbins & Judge, 2018) defined organizational commitment as the degree to which an employee identifies with the organization and its goals and wishes to continue as its member. In addition, Scandura (2019) defined organizational commitment as a psychological situation that describes an employee's relationship with their organization and a propensity to continue the relationship with the organization.

Meyer and Allen (1997) defined organizational commitment as a three-dimensional construct of affective, continuance, and normative commitment. Affective commitment refers to the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization. Put differently, affective commitment represents the feelings that an individual has by being connected to an organization. Continuance commitment refers to commitment based on the costs that the employee associates with leaving the organization. In other words, continuance commitment represents the understanding of investment loss, or the costs associated with voluntarily leaving an organization. Normative commitment occurs when employees feel a sense of obligation to the organization, even if they are unhappy in their role or if they want to pursue better opportunities. Employees feel that they should stay with the organization because it is the right thing to do.

2.3 Model of Organizational Commitment

Meyer and Allen (1991) developed the three-component model of organizational commitment, integrating the unidimensional organizational commitment concepts. It is a dominant research framework for organizational commitment (Cheng & Stockdale, 2003). The model defines the mindset that characterizes the components of commitment using the terms continuance, affective, and normative (Powell & Meyer, 2004). Each component represents how commitment is developed and has important job behavior implications (Powell & Meyer, 2004).

Affective commitment refers to the emotional attachment of employees to the organization, which can influence organizational performance (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Pattnaik & Sahoo, 2019). Employees have high emotional attachment to the organization because they want to achieve their social and physical needs and goals

(Mowday et al., 1979). Socially, individuals want to be respected as members of a group (organization). Physically, they want their efforts to be exchanged with certain benefits, such as salary and rewards. When employees obtain both needs, they will identify with that organization (Pattnaik & Sahoo, 2019). In addition, Chevalier et al. (2019) argued that when employees show emotional attachment with their organization, they will be more motivated and willing to make extra effort towards the organization.

Continuance commitment refers to commitment based on the costs that an employee will incur when leaving the organization or deciding to join another organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Alshanti, 2017; Pattnaik & Sahoo, 2019). In other words, continuance commitment results from the employee's recognition of possible losses (i.e., salary, seniority, promotions, other benefits) if they decide to leave the organization. Employees will be more committed when they are highly aware of such losses if they decide to leave the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Sayadi & Hayati, 2014). The association between employees and their organization is based primarily on the benefits that they receive from the organization. If the benefits offered by the organization are not attractive, then the employees may leave the organization if they find better benefits in other organizations.

Normative commitment refers to an employee's feeling of obligation to remain with or loyal to an organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Normatively committed employees stay in an organization because they feel that they should do so. Normative commitment is often reinforced by organizational support; the organization allows employees to participate and interact positively not only in work procedures or work implementation, but also contributing towards the development of goals and plans and policymaking for the organization. An individual's commitment and obligation to

remain with the organization may also stem from his personal values and principles before or after entering the organization (Alshanti, 2017).

2.4 Significance of Organizational Commitment

Zeinabadi (2010) described organizational commitment as the extent to which an individual identifies with and is involved in a particular organization. This is characterized by a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values (value commitment), along with readiness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization and to remain a member (commitment to stay). Organizational commitment reflects the strength with which employees identify with and are involved in a particular organization (Güteryüz et al., 2008). The identification aspect means that employees have accepted the values and goals of the organization (Jahangir et al. 2004). Their involvement aspect means their readiness to exert effort in order to promote organizational effectiveness, even though this behavior may not result in any incentive or reward (Bogler & Somech, 2004). Chong and Eggleton (2007) added that employees with high organizational commitment put organizational interests before their own interests. For this reason, organizational performance will increase in terms of profitability, productivity level, and competitiveness (Law & Ngai 2008).

Wardiyanto (2016) found that the high normative commitment of *pesantren* administrators has a stronger influence than extrinsic rewards, such as salaries and facilities. Similarly, organizational commitment influences the job performance of the teaching staff in state and private universities in Surakarta (Wahyudi, 2015).

2.5 Underpinning Theories

There are two underpinning theories in this study: the Social Exchange Theory (SET) and the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model. SET underpins the relationship between leadership style (charismatic, transformational, autocratic) and organizational commitment, as well as the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Meanwhile, the relationship between leadership styles and job satisfaction is underpinned by the JD-R Model. The following sections further elaborate upon the two theories.

2.5.1 Social Exchange Theory

SET is the most appropriate theory when examining the feelings of an employee towards his organization; loyalty, commitment and discretionary effort are all seen as forms of social reciprocation of employees towards a good organization (Saks, 2006). Social exchanges tend to be voluntary actions between two or more parties. When a person volunteers to do a favor for another, he expects to get some return in the future. This form of return is often unclear in terms of form and time; it is the discretion of the one who returns the favor (Blau, 1964; Wayne, Shore & Liden, 1997; Gould-Williams & Davies, 2005).

Obligations are generated through a series of interactions between parties who are in a reciprocal interdependent state, and they often take some time until they are returned. According to Saks (2006), the fundamental principle of social exchange is that the relationship between two or more parties develop over time into trust, mutual commitments, and loyalty as long as these parties abide by certain rules of exchange. Kahn (1990) argued that when employees receive economic and socioemotional exchange resources from their organization, they feel obliged to reciprocate the

organization with greater levels of engagement and performance. Eisenberger and Huntington (1986) argued that when employees perceive that their organization values their effort, recognizes their contributions, is committed to them, invested in them, and cares about their wellbeing, they will feel obligated to reciprocate them through positive attitude and behavior and more effort to help their organization to achieve its objectives (Eisenberger et al., 2001).

2.5.2 Job Demand-Resources Model

The Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model, built off of the well-known Job Demands Control model (Karasek, 1979) and Effort Reward Imbalance (ERI) model (Siegrist, 1996), describes the process by which health and well-being are related to the combination of one's resources and job demands (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). The JD-R model proposes two broad job characteristics that independently influence employee wellbeing. First, job demands are defined as job aspects that require sustained effort and that are associated with physiological and psychological costs. Second, job resources are defined as factors functional in achieving work goals, reducing job demands, or stimulating personal growth and development (Bakker & Demerouti, 2014).

Job demands are those aspects of the job that involve substantial physical, cognitive, or emotional effort. Some examples of job demands are time pressure, work overload, work-home interference, job insecurity, and conflict with coworkers (Bakker, Hakanen, Demerouti & Xanthopoulou, 2007). Job demands are related negatively to individual performance. They are not aggravators but may become stressors when sustained elevated effort is required to meet work-related demands and when health recovery is inhibited (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011). The general idea is that job demands

drive negative well-being outcomes, such as burnout or stress (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

Job resources are defined as “initiators of a motivational process” (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011, p. 1) that can act as motivators. Accordingly, job-related factors at the levels of organization, interpersonal or social relations, task, and organization of work (e.g., role clarity) can be understood as job resources. These include, for example, organizational and social support, growth and career advancement opportunities, autonomy, role clarity, or performance feedback (Bakker et al., 2005; Barkhuizen et al., 2014; Boyd et al., 2011; Rothmann & Jordaan, 2006). Critical job resources include social support, pay, and benefits (Bakker et al., 2003; Dwyer & Fox, 2006). Job resources may play an extrinsic and intrinsic motivational role because they foster learning and personal growth and are instrumental in accomplishing tasks (Deci & Ryan, 1985). According to the JD-R model, job resources are assumed to have motivational potential, which leads to high performance through low cynicism and high engagement (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). In other words, job resources increase engagement through energy, involvement, and efficacy, thereby enhancing individual performance (Demerouti et al., 2001). Job resources may also mitigate the negative effects of job demands and increase motivation when job demands are high.

In conclusion, the JD-R model is a very influential framework for establishing job performance antecedents (Bakker & Demerouti, 2016; Demerouti & Bakker, 2011). The JD-R model provides a flexible theoretical tool for conceptualizing key aspects of the work environment, explaining and predicting a wide range of work-related outcomes, including stress, burnout, work engagement, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, or productivity (Bakker, 2011). Specifically, the JD-R model explains and predicts employee well-being and job performance in all work environments.

2.6 Determinants of Organizational Commitment

Numerous determinants of organizational commitment have been identified in the literature. This study focuses on leadership because it is critical to the *pesantren* in Indonesia (Nugraha, 2010). In addition, only a few studies have examined simultaneously the effects of various leadership styles on organizational commitment, particularly in the context of *pesantren*. Previous studies have largely investigated a specific leadership style on organizational commitment. For instance, Patiar and Wang (2016) focused on the link between transformational leadership and organizational commitment, while Mwesigwa et al. (2020) only examined the relationship between transactional leadership and organizational commitment. Zawawi et al. (2019), meanwhile, examined the laissez faire leadership style on organizational commitment. As a result, it is unclear which leadership style influences organizational commitment in a specific context.

Another determinant of organizational commitment included in this study is job satisfaction. Job satisfaction was assigned as a mediator between leadership styles (charismatic, transformational, autocratic) and organizational commitment. There is minimum empirical evidence on the mediating role of job satisfaction between these three leadership styles and organizational commitment. Previous studies have regarded job satisfaction as a mediator only between transformational leadership and organizational citizenship behavior (Ahmad & Jameel, 2020), safety climate and turnover intention (Balagun, Andel & Smith, 2020), conflict and job performance (Ye, Liu & Gu, 2019), and bullying in the workplace and job performance (Arifin, Nirwanto & Manan, 2019). The following section provides more detail on leadership, and the subsequent section describes job satisfaction further.

2.6.1 Leadership

Leadership is indispensable for all types of organization to successfully promote a culture of innovation (Guzman et al., 2020). The leader is the main determinant of organizational success because he is central to the processes of planning, implementation, motivation, and supervision (Nugraha, 2010). The leader also has an active role and intervenes in every problem relating to the needs of organizational members (Anoraga, 1992).

Borkowski et al. (2011) argued that effective leadership defines the success of any organization. Leadership is the process of influencing others to recognize and agree on what needs to be done and how to do it, as well as the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives (Yukl, 2010; Ying, 2009; Northouse, 2001). In a different perspective, leadership means the way to create a clear vision, filling subordinates with self-confidence, created through coordination and communication to detail (McDermott, 2011). Leadership has the ability to shape and influence followers' values, attitudes, and behaviors through a dyadic relationship (Diggele et al., 2020).

2.6.1.1 Leadership Theories

Experts have proposed several leadership theories. In general, there are four core leadership theories categorized based on traits, behavior, contingency, and power influence.

2.6.1.1.1 Trait Theory

The trait theory ignores the assumption about whether leadership traits are genetic or acquired. Jenkins identified two traits as a fundamental component of leadership: (1)

emergent traits, i.e., those which are heavily dependent upon heredity, such as height, intelligence, attractiveness and self-confidence; and (2) effectiveness traits, i.e., those emerging from experience or learning, such as charisma (Ekvall & Arvonen, 1991). This initial focus on intellectual, physical, and personality traits that distinguish non-leaders from leaders resulted in research that maintains only minor differences exist between followers and leaders (Burns, 2003).

2.6.1.1.2 Contingency Theory

Contingency theory explains that a leader adjusts appropriately according to the situation at hand. Fiedler (1964) developed contingency theory by studying the styles of leaders who worked in different contexts, primarily military organizations. After analyzing the styles of hundreds of good and bad leaders, Fiedler et al. (1964) were able to make empirically grounded generalizations about which styles of leadership were best and which styles were worst for a given organizational context. The situations that a leader may be in are level of power, structure of work group, and relationship orientation of the leader. Contingency theory represents a shift in leadership research, from focusing on the leader to looking at the leader in conjunction with the situation in which he works (Fiedler, 1978). To measure leadership style, a personality measure called the least preferred coworker (LPC) scale is used.

Contingency theory is backed by a considerable amount of research and is one of the first leadership theories to emphasize the impact of situations on leaders. The weakness of this theory is that it has not adequately explained the link between styles and situation and relies too heavily on the LPC scale (Rice, 1978). Furthermore, the contingency theory may not be easily used in organizations and may not fully explain how organizations can use its results in different situations.

Contingency theory suggests that a leader's effectiveness depends on how well the leader's style fits with the context. To understand the performance of leaders, it is essential to understand situations in which they lead. Effective leadership is contingent on matching a leader's style to the right setting (Fiedler, 1978). The LPC assesses situations in which leaders work and whether they are effective. Contingency theory is widely used in organizations and gets mixed reviews from users and theorists, as it does not explain how a leader develops or can develop followers to achieve high performance through growth-yielding innovative solutions.

2.6.1.2 Situational Theory

While a leader's traits and behaviors have a strong influence on leadership effectiveness, the contribution of situation and role should not be dismissed (Bass, 2008; Farrow, Valenzi & Bass, 1980). Vroom and Jago (2007) explained that situational leadership is a variable in which the traits and behaviors of leaders mediate between organizational culture and/or construct. Other scholars and theorists have constructed models based on the level of concern for people and productivity (Blake & Mouton, 1975; Blake & McCanse, 1991) and situational leadership lifecycles, whereby leaders match their behavior with the performance needs of followers (Blanchard & Hersey, 1996). Yukl (1981) argued that situational leadership research needs to look more at the macro environment, such as the type of organization and/or culture, not just specific situations.

The situational approach provides a model that suggests a leader should give attention to the demands of a particular situation. The situational model describes how different leadership styles can be applied to subordinates who have varying work experience. Effective leadership occurs when the leader accurately diagnoses the

development level of the subordinates in a task situation and then uses a leadership style that matches the situation (Blanchard, Zigarmi, & Nelson, 1993).

2.6.1.3 Behavioral Theory

Behavioral theory assumes the opposite of the trait theory, that great leaders are made, not born. The behavioral theory argues that an individual can be trained to be a leader and does not have to have inherent characteristics (Russell et al, 2002). Fleishman et al. (1991) identified 65 distinct classifications of leader behavior, and subsequent reviews have only further highlighted the proliferation of leader behavior typologies and theories (Avolio et al., 2003; Pearce et al., 2003). One consistent theme in the literature is that behaviors can be fit into four categories: task-oriented, relational-oriented, change-oriented, and passive leadership.

2.6.1.4 Leadership Style

Leadership style is a set of behavior patterns that occur during constant organizational work (Vigoda-Gadot, 2007). Researchers have identified at least three primary leadership styles: charismatic, transformational, and autocratic (Cherry, 2017).

2.6.1.4.1 Charismatic Leadership

2.6.1.4.1.1 Concept of Charismatic Leadership and Its Characteristics

Charismatic leaders are those individuals who are set apart from ordinary people through their exceptional powers and qualities (Judge et al., 2006). Charismatic leaders can also be described as those who communicate a realistic vision of the future that can be shared by their followers (Waldman et al., 2001). In general, there are at least three characteristics of charismatic leaders. First, they have high emotional sensitivity.

Second, they are able to influence others in an extraordinary manner. Third, they are not easily influenced by others (Conger, Kanungo, Menon & Mathur, 1997).

Charismatic leaders enhance followers' identification with and trust in the leader (Shamir et al., 1993). This means that followers of charismatic leaders are willing to engage in discretionary behavior because of their favorable perception of the leader brought about by their trust, loyalty, and obedience to the leader (Sosik, 2005). Charismatic leaders also enhance followers' identification with their task or role by stimulating their self-worth, self-perception, intrinsic motivation, and willingness to commit themselves to performing the task successfully (Dvir, Eden, Avolio & Shamir, 2002; Shamir et al., 1993). In addition, charismatic leaders put emphasis on the collective identity of the group or unit. They strengthen the followers' relationship collectively, increasing their identification with the group and attachment to it (De Cremer & Van Knippenberg, 2002). Moreover, charismatic leaders are visionary, showing high energy and action orientation (Lussier & Achua, 2004).

Conger and Kanungo (1998) described five behavioral attributes of charismatic leaders: (1) vision and articulation, (2) sensitivity to the environment, (3) sensitivity to members' needs, (4) personal risk-taking, and (5) performing unconventional behavior. Riggio (2010) identified the elements of personal charisma, such as emotional expressiveness (ability to express one's feelings spontaneously and genuinely); emotional sensitivity (ability to read and decode other's non-verbal communication); emotional control (ability to regulate emotional displays); social expressiveness (verbal communication skill to engage others in social interaction); social sensitivity (skill to read and interpret social situations and how to listen to others); and social control (ability to fit in and connect with all sorts of people).

2.6.1.4.1.2 Theory or Model of Charismatic Leadership

Conger and Kanungo (1998) developed a model of charismatic leadership that focuses on three stages of the leadership process. In the first stage, the leader assesses the environment for any growth opportunities for the organization (sensitivity to the environment) and carefully evaluates the needs of followers (sensitivity to members' needs). In stage two, the leader formulates a strategic vision which is constantly presented in an inspiring way (strategic vision and articulation). In the third and final stage, the leader provides a role model by demonstrating personal risk and unconventional behavior to followers.

2.6.1.4.1.3 Significance of Charismatic Leadership

Charismatic leaders are able to induce organizational change by creating a more committed workforce (Kahtani, 2013). Charismatic leadership is also capable of delivering remarkable changes in the organization's systems (Kakavogianni, 2009). Empirical evidence suggests that charismatic leaders are able to make their followers to trust and identify with them (Bass, 1991; Judge & Piccolo, 2004). Charismatic leadership is also positively related to organizational citizenship behavior and perception of job security (Wang, Zhou & Wen, 2014). More importantly, a charismatic leader is able to yield a greater impact on the organization's members (Lubatkin, Simsek, Ling, & Veiga, 2006) and the transformational process (Appelbaum, Berke, Taylor & Vazquez, 2008; Griffith-Cooper & King, 2007).

Karim (2020) found that the efforts for leaders to be a charismatic person are by having God's glory and God's blessings, obedience to God, prayer efficacy, being able to hide themselves away, self-confidence, and having the ability to predict/forecast the future. More than that, charismatic leaders make radical social changes

(Abbasiyannejad et al., 2015) and shape a regulative and assertive society's compliance (Ziemek, 1986). According to Abbasiyannejad et al. (2015), charisma cannot function without social relationships.

The charismatic leader has extraordinary power that can be felt, seen, trusted, and believed by those closest to them (Rohmah, 2020). Mulyadi (2017) found that the openness of a charismatic leader will lead to the development of effective leadership through clear and routine communication; explanation of the goal, mission statement and mission implementation in detail; involving subordinates in setting the destination or goal; giving authority to subordinates and building their responsibility; being responsible for any consequence of the policy undertaken; and being trustworthy and expanding trust to subordinates.

Charismatic leadership has also been found to be significant in the context of *pesantren*. Satwika and Himam (2014) stated that charismatic leadership would create horizontal accountability between the leaders and *pesantren* members. The *pesantren* would thus become an efficient, effective, and accountable educational institution that is responsive to the aspirations and interests of its members, for instance teachers, the *santri*, parents, and even society.

In Pesantren Harsallakum Al-Quran in Bengkulu, the charismatic leadership has allowed employees to evaluate their work processes. This has increased the effectiveness of its leadership and created trust between the leaders and followers. Consequently, the Pesantren has become one of the best in Bengkulu (Mulyadi, 2017).

Charisma emerges when there is a social crisis. A leader comes up with a radical vision that offers a solution to the crisis. The leader also attracts followers who believe in that vision and strive to achieve it. Followers can also trust that leader as a person with exceptional power. Charismatic leaders can be born because they receive God's

gift to maintain authority (Mardiyah, 2015). Dr. KH Ahmad Musthofa Kamal is a Kyai who, since his youth, has had a high charisma. As a result, the people in Pesantren Bidayatul Hidayah Pasuruan follows him passionately and is committed to him (Toyib, 217).

2.6.1.4.2 Transformational Leadership

2.6.1.4.2.1 Concept of Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership can be defined as the process of persuading major changes in the attitudes, beliefs, and values of followers to a point where the goals of an organization and the vision of the leader are internalized. As a result, followers achieve performance beyond expectation (Bass, 1985; Yukl, 1999a; 1999b). Transformational leadership consists of four components: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration.

Idealized influence has been associated with an increased sense of connectedness with others (Zdaniuk & Bobocel, 2015). Feizi, Ebrahimi, and Beheshti (2014) suggested that idealized influence corresponds to the leader's charisma and the impression followers have about the leader's abilities. Idealized influence describes the reliability and strong model that a leader displays that result in the followers' reverence of the leader as he directs them toward the organization's vision and mission (Teymournejad & Elghaei, 2017). Idealized influence means that a leader models the achievement, values, and behavior that followers perceive as having the potential to advance their careers (Joo & Lim, 2013). The leader also sets self-interest aside to build follower loyalty, devotion, and identification (Ghadi et al., 2013). This model describes the extent to which the followers trust in, respect, and identify with the leader (Prasad & Junni, 2016). Jyoti and Dev (2015) suggested that leaders demonstrating idealized

influence focus on how their values, beliefs, and mission shape the decisions that they make and the actions that they take. Stempel, Rigotti, and Mohr (2015) posited that the factors of idealized influence have more to do with the impression followers have than on any characteristic of the leaders themselves.

Inspirational motivation leaders serve as a model for followers to achieve organizational goals, and they clearly and confidently communicate their vision optimistically and with enthusiasm (Jyoti & Dev, 2015). Inspirational motivation means that the leaders inspire motivation in followers by focusing on their emotions as opposed to daily interactions (Teymournejad & Elghaei, 2017). Through optimism and excitement, leaders displaying inspirational motivation lead followers toward the goals of the organization and give followers a reason to reach higher performance (Prasad & Junni, 2016). Inspirational motivation relays extraordinary expectations about performance, resulting in the acceptance of the important role employees play in contributing to the organization and in achieving their own career goals (Joo & Lim, 2013). Inspirational motivation promotes the participation of followers in the organization by creating an appealing vision (Ghadi et al., 2013). Inspirational motivation means that leaders use discussions and negotiations and emphasize a positive perspective of the future vis-à-vis the current state to encourage followers to support a common vision (Feizi et al., 2014).

Through intellectual stimulation, leaders encourage followers to question the values, way of thinking, and beliefs of themselves and their leader (Jyoti & Dev, 2015). They also encourage employees to question assumptions, think non-traditionally, innovate, be risk-takers, and display intellectual stimulation (Ghadi et al., 2013). Joo and Lim (2013) suggested that intellectual stimulation behaviors motivate employees

to seek out demanding assignments, new knowledge, skills, abilities, and balance in their personal and professional lives.

Individualized consideration means that leaders recognize the differences among followers and provide individualized attention that motivates them to exercise authority in their decision-making (Ghadi et al., 2013; Teymournejad & Elghaei, 2017). The leader recognizes followers as individuals, attends to their needs, shows concern for their feelings, and motivates followers to take responsibility for developing themselves (Jyoti & Dev, 2015; Prasad & Junni, 2016; Teymournejad & Elghaei, 2017). Leaders also provide practice, education, and training opportunities to followers to allow them to discover their capabilities and potential (Feizi et al., 2014). Joo and Lim (2013) suggested that leaders give attention to their employees to encourage them to find value in learning and develop their careers.

2.6.1.4.2.2 Theory or Model of Transformational Leadership

Bass developed the theory of transformational and transactional leadership. The transformational leadership concept was first coined by Downton in *Rebel Leadership*, published in 1973 (Bass & Avolio, 1994). It emerged as an important approach to leadership, as evidenced by the classic work of political sociologist James MacGregor Burns in 1978 entitled *Leadership* (Hughes, Ginnet & Curphy, 1999). Burns' theory laid a solid foundation for the work of other scholars regarding this perspective on leadership theory (Conger & Kanungo, 1998). Bass (1985) therefore built upon the earlier ideas of Burns (Engelbrecht, 2002; Yukl, 1998), although his theory is not necessarily consistent with Burns' (Northouse, 2001).

Bass identified four transformational leadership behaviors which represent four basic components or "I's" of transformational leadership (Avolio, 1999; Bass & Avolio,

1992). The four basic components are idealized influence, individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, and inspirational motivation. Idealized influence arouses strong emotions from followers and identification with, and emulation of, the leader (Bass & Avolio, 2001; Yukl, 1998). Individualized consideration involves providing support, encouragement, coaching (Avolio, 1999; Bass, 1998; Yukl, 1998), delegation, advice, and feedback for use in the personal development of followers (Bass & Avolio, 1992). Intellectual stimulation increases awareness of problems and influences followers to view problems from a new point of view (Yukl, 1998). Inspirational motivation includes developing and communicating an appealing vision (Avolio, 1994).

2.6.1.4.2.3 Significance of Transformational Leadership

Thomson et al. (2016) found positive associations between transformational leadership and organizational citizenship, culture and vision, in addition to employee empowerment, satisfaction, trust, self-efficiency, beliefs, motivation. In contrast, transformational leadership is negatively associated with voluntary turnover. Mathew and Gupta (2015) indicated that the transformational leadership style is one that drives the emotions of followers and influences them to go beyond expectations. In addition, McCaffrey and Reinoso (2017) suggested that transformational leadership motivates people to desired changes using a strong vision, inspirational guidance, and intellectual stimulation. In other words, transformational leaders are associated with new idea creation, fundamental change in complex situations, and conflict resolution (McCaffrey & Reinoso, 2017).

Recent studies reported that this leadership style has a positive effect on the performance of employees (Kahai, Sosik & Avolio, 2000) and groups (Parry & Proctor & Thomson, 2003). Jung et al. (2003) believed that transformational leaders can

positively influence organizational creativity. Effelsberg, Solga, and Gurt (2014) suggested that transformational leadership is positively related to employees' willingness to display selfless pro-organizational behavior. Morton et al. (2010) suggested that transformational leadership is linked to higher employee self-efficacy, self-determination, and commitment.

Chan and Mak (2014) found that transformational leadership influences affective and normative organizational commitment. Empirical evidence has also shown significant positive relationships between idealized influence, inspirational motivation, and organizational commitment (e.g., Mehar et al., 2015; Feizi et al., 2014; Ioannouz, 2016; Ibrahim et al., 2014; Rai & Sinha, 2000; Aydin et al., 2013). Idealized influence is positively related to career satisfaction (Joo & Lim, 2013) and job involvement (Rana et al., 2016). The transformational style positively influences followers' performance (Dumdum et al., 2002). Transformational leaders also frequently give solutions to problems (Lawler, 2003).

Transformational leaders are likely to have members with a high levels of commitment, loyalty, and job satisfaction since they are inspired and stimulated and their individual potential has been developed (M. Bass & Riggio, 2006). In one *pesantren*, it was found that teachers do not consider the Kyai's transformational leadership as a determinant of their commitment to the *pesantren*. This is likely because the Kyai has a small role in managing technical issues, e.g., job assignment and academic supervision (Falaha, Alifahb & Rizal, 2021). The transformational leadership of a Kyai is positively related to Islamic organizational culture and Islamic work ethics, as perceived by teachers in a modern *pesantren*. These findings collectively support past evidence related to transformational leadership and organizational culture (Pratama, Sunaryo, & Yusnita, 2020; Schein, 2010; Jaskyte, 2004).

Umiarso and Muhith (2019) found that transformational leadership effectively influences a *pesantren*'s organizational culture development and ultimately improves its employees' performance and work outcome, specifically organizational commitment. Suradi and Surahman (2020) found that the Kyai of a *pesantren* in Banyuasin, Bengkulu, implements the transformational leadership style. Mahrum, Hajar, and Yusnita (2021) found that the Kiyai at Mafazah Modern Boarding School obtained good scores in the dimensions of individual consideration and inspirational motivation.

2.6.1.4.3 Autocratic Leadership

2.6.1.4.3.1 Concept of Autocratic Leadership

Nwakwo (2001) and Enoch (1999) described the autocratic style as a leadership style in which production is emphasized at the expense of any human consideration, and where decisions are made exclusively by the leader. Autocratic leadership also refers to the behavior of a leader to implement strong control over subordinates and require their unconditional obedience (Cheng et. Al., 2004). In other words, only one person has full authority and power over followers or employees (Adair, 2005). Farh and Cheng (2000) also argued that authoritarian leadership refers to a leader's behavior of asserting strong authority and control over subordinates and demanding unquestioned obedience from them.

According to Milgron and Holmstrom (1991), the autocratic style clearly defines the division between leaders and workers. Dawson (2002) stated that the autocratic style may show great results in the short term. However, excessive use of authority will hamper productivity in the long term. In addition, the autocratic leadership style promotes a one-sided conversation, restricting the creativity and leadership skills of

employees and causing their daily work to be repetitive (Ittner & Larcker, 2002). Under the autocratic leadership style, all decision-making powers are centralized in the hand of leaders (Heneman & Gresham, 1999). The followers of autocratic leaders have a low level of job satisfaction because they assert absolute power and influence (Afshinpour, 2014). The followers perform because of punishment for non-compliance (Burke et al., 2006; Rad & Yarmohammadian, 2006).

Autocratic leaders make decisions without the consent of team members. This style of leadership is usually applied when a quick decision is to be taken and team agreement is not important for successful results (Boehm, Dwertmann, Bruch, & Shamir, 2015). Few opportunities are given to staff and team members to make suggestions, even if it is in the best interest of the team or organization (Amanchukwu, Stanley, & Ololube, 2015). An autocratic leader mostly makes a decision on the basis of his own judgments and ideas, rarely including followers' advice, and the leader has absolute control over the group (Zareen, Razzaq & Mujtaba, 2015). According to Iqbal, Anwar, and Haider (2015), autocratic leaders give orders without explaining the reasons or future intentions.

Authoritarian leaders make all the important decisions in their teams and demand their subordinates to achieve the best performance (Wang et al., 2013; Zhang & Xie, 2017). Authoritarian leaders also typically enhance followers' sense of identity as group members, which further motivates employees to perform at a high level (Schaubroeck et al., 2017). As Rast III et al. (2013) argued, authoritative leaders are more likely to provide a clear, unambiguous, and direct prototype to their subordinates. They usually require subordinates to obey their rules completely and punish them if they do not follow their orders (Chan et al., 2013). As a result, employees could gain a better understanding of what they should do and should not do as team members. Prior

research also suggests that authoritarian leaders offer a better sense of what it means—in terms of identity, attitudes, and behavior—to be a member of the team (Rast III et al., 2013; Schaubroeck et al., 2017). Authoritarian leaders are uniquely effective in this respect because they offer an unambiguous identity to their team members (Rast, 2015).

2.6.1.4.3.2 Theory/Model of Autocratic Leadership

The basis of leadership theory is Douglas McGregor's (1957) Theory X and Theory Y. A Theory X leader typically exhibits an autocratic leadership style and permits little, if any, staff involvement in decisions (Shahzad, Rehman & Abbas, 2010). Theory X states that an average worker does not want to work and will avoid work if he can. Therefore, he must be forced to work using threats and punishment. Theory Y, on the other hand, states that employees for the most part are not lazy; they enjoy working and seeking responsibility. In addition, Theory Y states that most employees are creative and imaginative; some employees may not show interest in their workplace because of management's inability to provide suitable and enabling working environment (McGregor, 1957).

2.6.1.4.3.3 Significance of Autocratic Leadership

Authoritarian leaders usually set high performance standards and expectations for their subordinates (Aycan, 2006). Chen et al. (2017) argued that authoritarian leaders demand their subordinates to achieve the best performance by exercising strict control, setting clear rules, establishing job responsibilities, and issuing punishment and rewards. Consequently, employees are motivated to perform strongly and deliver excellent quality. Huang et al. (2015) also claimed that authoritarian leaders—who

emphasize discipline, obedience, and unity—are likely to achieve performance by fostering a highly centralized decision-making structure.

Authoritarian leadership may strengthen subordinates' learning goal orientation. Authoritarian leaders are highly competitive and set very high expectations for their teams (Wang et al., 2013; Zhang & Xie, 2017). Authoritarian leaders emphasize that their team members must have the best performance of all the teams in the organization (Cheng et al., 2000). Once the employees identify the gap between their performance and their leaders' expectations, they will build up their competence and pursue self-development by acquiring skills and accomplishing tasks (Gong et al., 2017).

Bhargavi and Yaseen (2016) suggested that the autocratic leadership style has a positive impact on organizational performance. This leadership style is more suitable when a project is to be completed within provided deadlines (Bhargavi & Yaseen, 2016). Igbaekemen and Odivwri (2015) also found the positive impact of the authoritarian leadership style on organizational performance.

Authoritarian leadership has also been applied in Islamic boarding schools. According to Rachman (2021), the Kyai of *Pesantren* Blok Agung, *Pesantren* Tebuireng, and *Pesantren* Paciran have autocratic leadership characteristics, in addition to other leadership characteristics. Arifin (2017) found three sources of traditional authority in the leadership of *Pesantren* Temboro: (1) the tradition of *pesantren* education, (2) the tradition of Jamaah Tabligh, and (3) the tradition of the Naqsyabandiyah-Khalidiyah congregation.

2.6.2 Job Satisfaction

2.6.2.1 Concept and Determinants of Job Satisfaction

According to Khalid (2010), job satisfaction means one's positive attitude towards work. Amah (2009) argued that job satisfaction is dependent on the employee's interaction opportunities with others in the workplace. Empirical evidence has shown that better relationships with co-workers will improve the job satisfaction of employees (Choo & Bowley, 2009). According to Rauter (2012), social relationships are an important part of the social climate in the workplace and provide a setting where employees can experience meaning and identity. In other words, a cohesive work group tends to be more effective, making work more enjoyable. An opposite situation would negatively affect the job satisfaction of employees. Luthans (2009) also argued that friendship at work is associated with higher job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and job involvement, in addition to lower turnover intention.

Working condition is another determinant of employee satisfaction (Luthans, 2009; Moorhead & Griffin, 2009). According to Luthans (2009), a person who works in a clean and environmentally friendly place will find it easier to come to work. Otherwise, he will find it difficult to complete tasks. Vorster (2011) also stated that working condition has a significant impact on job satisfaction, especially when the working condition is very good. Working conditions include the physical working environment, lighting, temperature and humidity, noise level, and storage of hazardous materials (Moorhead & Griffin, 2009). Other organizational aspects that can affect job satisfaction is reward for employee performance; opportunities provided by the organization for employees to develop their career; harmonious relationships with co-workers; good relationship with leaders; ability to complete high workload; constant

guidance from superiors; and payment of salaries and incentives according to employee expectations (Agustini, 2013).

The nature of work performed by employees has a significant impact on the level of job satisfaction (Joarder, 2010). As Nasrudin (2011) argued, the most important influence on someone's job satisfaction is the nature of work assigned to him. In other words, if the job is challenging and requires the employees to use a range of abilities and skills, they will likely feel satisfied with their job. Similarly, according to Luthans (2009), employees gain satisfaction from work that is interesting, challenging, and provides them with a job status. Task variety can also facilitate job satisfaction (Choo & Bowley, 2009). This is based on the view that the greater the variety of skills that the employees can make use of in their work, the higher their level of satisfaction (Khan, 2010). Another specific nature of work that can influence employee job satisfaction is job security. Chen and Wang (2010) found that job security is the most important factor of job satisfaction for managers.

Pay is also an important determinant of job satisfaction. Pay refers to the amount of financial compensation that individuals receive in return for their services. Rauter (2010) argued that monetary compensation is one of the most important predictors of job satisfaction. Taylor and West (2009) found that pay level affects job satisfaction. In other words, one's pay satisfaction (or dissatisfaction) leads to different output behavior (i.e., job satisfaction) (Crawford, 2010).

Supervision is another determinant of job satisfaction. Supervision is defined as a process to set performance measures in taking action that can support the achievement of expected results according to the specified level (Bilgin & Demires, 2009). Mathis and Jackson (2009) stated that supervision is a process of monitoring employee

performance based on performance measurement standards to ensure top quality performance assessment. Good supervisors treat subordinates fairly.

Opportunities for promotion are also likely to influence job satisfaction. Robbins (2009) stated that promotion gives opportunity for personal growth, increases responsibilities, and enhances social status. Bull (2009) postulated that many people experience satisfaction when they believe that their prospects are good (opportunities for progress and growth in their current place of employment). Similarly, according to Scott (2009), the satisfaction of employees depends on several factors, including the likelihood that employees will be promoted. In fact, James (2009) indicated that opportunities for promotion were found to be the best and only common predictor of job satisfaction at child welfare, mental health, community, and family service agencies.

2.6.2.2 Model of Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is a multidimensional construct that describes the emotional evaluation of an employee regarding his expectations and how they are met. Spector (1994; 1997) defined job satisfaction in nine dimensions: pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating conditions, co-workers, nature of work, and communication. Other scholars view job satisfaction as a two-dimensional construct of intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction (Locke 1996; Kim & Han, 2013). Schnake (1983) conceptualized job satisfaction as a three-dimensional construct of intrinsic, extrinsic, and social satisfaction.

The intrinsic dimension of job satisfaction emphasizes psychological and emotional aspects. The sources of intrinsic satisfaction are a person's characteristics, such as attitude towards specific aspects (Petrescu & Simmons, 2008; Bentley, Coates, Dobson, Goedegebuure & Meek, 2013; Höhle & Teichler, 2013), ability to use skills to

achieve the task, the nature of work itself (e.g., challenging, difficulty, and importance), and the employee's opportunity to accomplish something worthwhile.

Sources of extrinsic satisfaction are situational and depends on the environment, such as organizational climate. Extrinsic sources of motivation are based primarily on the work of economists (Petrescu & Simmons, 2008) because this extrinsic dimension emphasizes the reward aspect of work. Bentley et al. (2013) and Höhle and Teichler (2013) view extrinsic satisfaction as the satisfaction of an employee with work environment, the amount of pay and fringe benefits that he receives from an organization, and additional benefits provided by the organization.

Social satisfaction is an individual channel of assessment of the psychosocial aspects of his relationships, in which interactions with other partners are easy, gratifying, fulfilling and satisfactory (Geyskens & Steenkamp, 2000). According to this definition, an organizational member is satisfied with the results of social relationships, appreciates and communicates with his partner on a personal level, and loves to work together as a team because he believes this partner has the interest, respect, and willingness to interact and exchange ideas with others. Social satisfaction refers to the extent to which social relations in the workplace—such as the friendly treatment of individuals, the warmth and favor from management and co-workers, and the importance of respect and appreciation—are necessary in an employee's social and professional interactions with others (Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins & Klesh, 1983; Venkataramani, Labianca & Grosser, 2013). When an individual occupies a central position in the network of the work group, this means that he receives more attention and appreciation from other members in the work group because of his experience, knowledge, or personal characteristics. The central position of any network links is

associated with greater social prestige because it serves as the main link to many other group members.

2.7 Hypothesis Development

2.7.1 Charismatic Leadership and Job Satisfaction

Javidan and Waldman (2003) stated that most theoretical and empirical research on charismatic leadership suggests its positive effects, such as higher employee performance and motivation. The study also indicated that charismatic leadership could improve employee satisfaction. Similarly, Nguni et al. (2006) found that charismatic leadership has a significant influence on teachers' job satisfaction. According to Latif (2011), charismatic leaders may improve the satisfaction of their followers since their needs are fulfilled and they feel valued. In addition, the characteristics of charismatic leaders, including their educational background, length of tenure, gender, and culture, could influence employees' perception of job satisfaction (Amburgey, 2005). The following hypothesis was thus proposed:

H1: Charismatic leadership is positively related to job satisfaction.

2.7.2 Transformational Leadership and Job Satisfaction

The relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction has been well established in previous studies (e.g., Koh et al, 1995; Bass, 1998; Ejimofor, 2007; Yusof & Shah, 2008; Laohavchien, 2009; Albion & Gagliardi, 2007; Shibru & Darshan, 2011; Omar, 2011). This relationship has been verified in various contexts, such as Norway (Hetland & Sandal, 2003), Cyprus (Mine, 2008), Libya (Zahari, 2012), India (Gill et al., 2010), Pakistan (Bushra et al., 2011), and Taiwan (Chi et. al., 2009). In addition, it has been empirically verified in various sectors, such as public (Parry &

Proctor-Thompson, 2003), education (Mine, 2008), private (Hetland & Sandal, 2003), oil (Zahari, 2012), healthcare (Nielsen et al., 2009), banking (Bushra et al., 2011), non-profit organization (Chi et. al., 2009) and restaurant (Gill et al., 2010). Voon et al. (2011) indicated that the transformational leadership style has a stronger relationship with job satisfaction. Transformational leadership explains 46.8 percent of variance in job satisfaction (Sarwar et al., 2015). Thus, the following hypothesis was proposed:

H2: Transformational leadership is positively related to job satisfaction.

2.7.3 Autocratic Leadership and Job Satisfaction

Bhatti et al. (2012) surveyed teachers at public and private schools and found the significant effect of autocratic leadership style on job satisfaction. A similar result was found in Turkey by İnandi, Uzun, and Yeşil (2016). Autocratic leadership has the second highest effect on employee job satisfaction in the retail project environment context (Zhang, 2018). Based on these findings, the following hypothesis was proposed:

H3: Autocratic leadership is significantly related to job satisfaction.

2.7.4 Leadership Style and Organizational Commitment

Leadership style is considered an antecedent of organizational commitment (Sabir, Sohail, & Asif Khan, 2011). A strong and positive relationship exists between leadership style and organizational commitment (Ekaterini, 2010; Sabir et al., 2011). Recent studies showed that charismatic (Mangundjaya, 2021), transformational (Khaola & Rambe, 2021), and autocratic (Ibrahim Radwan, 2020) leadership styles have a direct and significant impact on organizational commitment. Thus, the following hypotheses were proposed:

H4: Autocratic leadership is significantly related to organizational commitment.

H5: Charismatic leadership is positively related to organizational commitment.

H6: Transformational leadership is positively related to organizational commitment.

2.7.5 Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment

The effect of job satisfaction on organizational commitment has been established by previous studies (Oyebi & Abubakar, 2012; Swarnalatha & Sureshkrishna, 2012; Fu & Deshpande, 2014; Neubert & Halbesleben, 2014). This relationship has been empirically verified in various sectors, such as retail (Pepe, 2010), health care (Redfern et al., 2002), restaurant (Kim et al., 2005), and high technology (Luthans, 2002). Based on these findings, the following hypothesis was proposed:

H7: Job satisfaction is positively related to organizational commitment.

2.7.6 Job Satisfaction as A Mediator

Based on the discussion in Sections 2.7.1–2.7.5, there is a possibility that job satisfaction mediates between leadership styles (charismatic, transformational, autocratic) and organizational commitment. The discussion in those sections indicates that there is a strong potential link between leadership styles and job satisfaction. The discussion in Section 2.7.4 also suggests the potential link between leadership styles and organizational commitment. In addition, the discussion in Section 2.7.5 indicates the potential link between job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Job satisfaction has been verified as a mediator in recent studies. Recent studies showed that job satisfaction mediates between transformational leadership and organizational citizenship behavior (Ahmad & Jameel, 2020); between safety climate and turnover intention (Balogun, Andel & Smith, 2020); between safety climate and turnover intention (Balagun, Andel & Smith, 2020); between conflict and job

performance (Ye, Liu & Gu, 2019); and between bullying in the workplace and job performance (Arifin, Nirwanto & Manan, 2019). Therefore, job satisfaction can potentially mediate between leadership styles and organizational commitment. This relationship has not been examined in the literature. Thus, the following hypotheses were proposed:

H8: Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between charismatic leadership and organizational commitment.

H9: Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and organizational commitment.

H10: Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between autocratic leadership and organizational commitment.

2.7 Research Framework

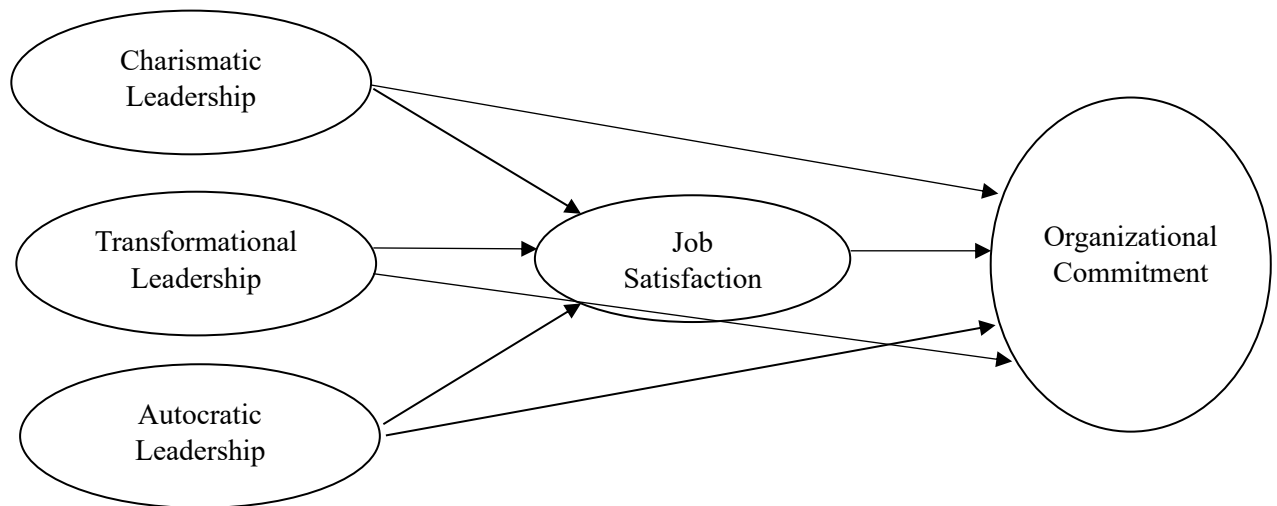


Figure 2.1: Research Framework

Figure 2.1 illustrates the research framework that was developed based on the proposed hypotheses. It incorporates five variables. The independent variables are charismatic leadership, transformational leadership, autocratic leadership, and job

satisfaction, while the dependent variable is organizational commitment. Job satisfaction is assigned as the mediator. The research framework illustrates four paths. The first path is the factors (charismatic leadership, transformational leadership, autocratic leadership) that influence job satisfaction. The second path is the factors (charismatic leadership, transformational leadership, autocratic leadership) that influence organizational commitment. The third path is the effect of job satisfaction on organizational commitment. The fourth path shows job satisfaction as a mediator between charismatic, transformational, and autocratic leadership styles with organizational commitment.

2.8 Chapter Summary

This chapter has reviewed the literature related to organizational commitment, covering its concept, theories, and significance. Then, the chapter explains the underpinning theories and the determinants of organizational commitment. It has also developed the research hypotheses based on previous studies. Finally, the chapter illustrates the proposed relationships with a research framework. Chapter 3 provides a detailed discussion about the methodological aspect of this study.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the methodological aspects of this study, covering the research design, population and sample, data collection methods and procedures, measures, and finally data analysis methods and procedures.

3.2 Research Design

This study employed the quantitative research methodology. This methodology provides a quantitative or numeric description of trends, attitudes, or opinions of a population by studying its sample (Cresswell, 2009). According to Babbie (2010), quantitative research can be described as the collection of numerical data and linking theory and research through a deductive and objectivist conception of social reality. An advantage of using the quantitative methodology is the examination of variables and the generalizability of the results from a sample to a larger sample or population (Chintaman, 2014).

A form of quantitative research design is correlational research. This design aims to test research hypotheses in cases where it is not possible or desirable to experimentally manipulate the independent variable of interest. It also allows the investigation of behavior in naturally occurring situations. Correlational methods range from analysis of correlations between a predictor and an outcome variable to multiple regression (Stangor, 2011).

Correlational research has several advantages. First, correlations are a quick and easy way to see whether there is a relationship between two variables. Pre-existing data can be used, and if a correlation is found it may be worth investigating why there is a correlation. Second, correlational design can describe the strength of a relationship. A correlation coefficient is a simple and objective way to describe the strength of a relationship between two variables. Expressing it as a precise number makes it clear and easy to understand. Third, correlational design can be used to assess behavior as it occurs in people's everyday lives. Fourth, the predictor variables cannot be manipulated (Stangor, 2011).

The study employed simple regression analysis to test the effects of the independent variables on the dependent variable. This study also applied hierarchical regression analysis to test the mediation effect based on Baron and Kenny's (1986) four-step approach.

3.3 Population and Sample

Krieger (2012) defined population as all members of any well-defined class of people, events, or objects. According to Sekaran (2003), population refers to a group of people that a researcher wants to investigate. The research population was 1,028 educators at Pesantren Darunnajah. Pesantren Darunnajah is a private (non-government) Islamic educational institution. This Islamic boarding school was established on 1 April 1974 by the late KH. Abdul Manaf Mukhayyar and his colleagues, the late KH. Qomaruzzaman and KH. Mahrus Amin. The *Pesantren* implements an integrated curriculum system, which consist of boarding education and intensive Arabic and English instruction. It offers eight levels of education: playgroup/early childhood education, kindergarten, *Madrasah Diniyah*, Islamic

Elementary School, *Tarbiyatul Mu'allimin/Mu'allimat Islamiyah*, Islamic Junior High School, Islamic Senior High School (two streams: Social and Religious and Science), Kindergarten Teacher Education, and Islamic College (STAI).

Pesantren Darunnajah has four branches in Jakarta, West Java, Banten, and outside Java. Table 3.1 shows the distribution of educators in each branch. There are 424 educators at the Jakarta branch, 360 educators at West Java, 183 educators at Banten branch, and 61 educators outside of Java.

Table 3.1: Number of Educators in Each Darunnajah Branch

No.	Branch	Number of Educators
1	Jakarta	424
2	West Java	360
3	Banten	183
4	Outside Java	61
	Total	1028

A sample is a set of individuals or participants selected from a larger population for the purpose of a survey (Salant & Dillman, 2004). The sample size was calculated based on Krejcie and Morgan's (1970) sampling table. Therefore, the minimum sample size for this study was 278 respondents. A cluster sampling technique was applied to select the sample. In this sampling technique, each member of the population has an equal chance of being selected (Wimmer & Dominick, 2006). Cluster sampling is a probability sampling method in which the population is divided into clusters, such as districts, and the participants are then randomly selected from these clusters. As shown in Table 3.1, the population was clustered into the four branches of Pesantren Darunnajah. Respondents were then selected randomly from each branch.

3.4 Data Collection Methods and Procedures

The data were collected through a questionnaire. Questionnaire is a valid way to collect data. O'Leary (2014) listed some obvious strengths of questionnaires. First, they can reach a large number of respondents. Second, they can represent an even larger population. Third, they allow for comparisons. Fourth, they can generate standardized, quantifiable, and empirical data. Fifth, they are confidential and even anonymous.

Approval from the management of Pesantren Darunnajah was obtained before the questionnaires were distributed to the selected respondents. Following this approval, the name and email addresses of the respondents were requested from the human resources department. The sample was selected randomly from the list. The questionnaire was administered to the selected respondents in person. Bell and Waters (2014) explained that administering a questionnaire personally enables the researcher to explain the purpose of the study and increases the probability of receiving completed questionnaires. The questionnaire was also administered to the selected respondents via personal email. Online questionnaire was adopted because of its low cost and swiftness in sending and returning information (Stacks, 2010).

3.5 Measurement

The questionnaire was developed based on measures from previous studies. It was constructed in English and then translated into Bahasa Indonesia because the respondents were native Indonesians. The translated questionnaire was sent to a Professor in the Faculty of Economics and Business of Universitas Islam Negeri Syarif Hidayatullah, Jakarta, to check its accuracy, make amendments or adjustments if needed, and improve the translation.

After finalizing the translated version, the Indonesian questionnaire was pre-tested on a small group to ensure that the questions are unambiguous and clear. This process helped to correct any issues before the questionnaire was administered to the main sample, reducing the likelihood of errors (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016; Sarstedt & Mooi, 2019). Thirty respondents were involved in the pre-test. They were employees of Pesantren Darunnajah and not included in the main sample. All measurements showed an acceptable value of Cronbach's alpha (> 0.70). The measurements used in this study are described below. All items were measured on a five-point Likert scale, from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree.

3.1.1 Charismatic Leadership

Charismatic leadership was measured with a 20-item scale adapted from Conger, Kanungo, Menon, and Mathur (1997) (see Table 3.2). The scale consists of five dimensions: vision and articulation, environmental sensitivity, unconventional behavior, personal risk, and sensitivity to member needs. The measurement has been found to have acceptable reliability and validity in diverse contexts (Conger et al., 1997).

Table 3.2: Charismatic Leadership Scale

No	Item
Dimension 1: Vision and articulation	
1	Kiyai has vision; often brings up ideas about possibilities for the future
2	Kiyai provides inspiring strategic and organizational goals
3	Kiyai consistently generates new ideas for the future of the organization
4	Entrepreneurial; Kiyai seizes new opportunities in order to achieve goals
5	Kiyai readily recognizes new environmental opportunities (favorable physical and social conditions) that may facilitate achievement or organizational objectives
6	Kiyai able to motivate by articulating effectively the importance of what organizational members are doing
7	Kiyai is an exciting public speaker

Table 3.1, continued

No	Item
Dimension 2: Personal risk	
1	In pursuing organizational objectives, Kiyai engages in activities involving considerable personal risk
2	Kiyai takes high personal risk for the sake of the organization
3	Kiyai often incurs high personal cost for good of the organization
Dimension 3: Environmental sensitivity	
1	Kiyai readily recognizes constraints in the physical environment (technological limitations, lack of resources, etc.) that may stand in the way of achieving organizational objectives
2	Kiyai readily recognizes constraints in the organization's social and cultural environment (cultural norms, lack of grass roots support, etc.) that may stand in the way of achieving organizational objectives
3	Kiyai recognizes the limitations of other members in the organization
4	Kiyai recognizes the abilities and skills of other members in the organization
Dimension 4: Sensitivity to member needs	
1	Kiyai shows sensitivity for the needs and feelings of other members in the organization
2	Kiyai influences others by developing mutual liking and respect
3	Kiyai often expresses personal concern for the needs and feelings of other members of the organization
Dimension 5: Unconventional behavior	
1	Kiyai engages in unconventional behavior in order to achieve organizational goals
2	Kiyai uses non-traditional means to achieve organizational goals
3	Kiyai often exhibits very unique behavior that surprises other members of the organization

Source: Conger et al. (1997)

3.1.2 Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership was measured with 12 items adapted from the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (Bass & Avolio, 1990) (see Table 3.3). MLQ consists of four dimensions: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Bass & Avolio, 2010). Each dimension consists of three items. MLQ scales have excellent internal consistency with alpha coefficients of $> .80$ (Bass & Riggio, 2006). In addition, MLQ shows acceptable reliability test with a Cronbach's alpha of .953 (Kieres, 2012; Yavirach, 2012).

Table 3.3: Transformational Leadership Scale

No	Item
Dimension 1: Idealized influence	
1	Kyai makes other people around feel comfortable
2	Others have complete faith with Kyiai
3	Others are proud to be associated with Kyiai
Dimension 2: Inspirational motivation	
1	Kyai expresses with a few simple words what we could and should do
2	Kyai provides an interesting description of what we can do
3	Kyai helps others find meaning in their work.
Dimension 3: Intellectual stimulation	
1	Kyai enables others to think about old problems in new ways
2	Kyai gives others a new way of seeing things that are confusing
3	Kyai gets others to rethink ideas that they had never questioned before
Dimension 4: Individualized consideration	
1	Kyai helps others to develop themselves
2	Kyai lets others know how he thinks they are doing
3	Kyai gives personal attention to others who seem rejected

Source: Bass and Avolio (1990)

3.1.3 Autocratic Leadership

Autocratic leadership was measured with nine items adapted from Cheng et al. (2000). The measure consists of two dimensions: determining all decisions and emphasizing the best performance. Table 3.4 lists the items.

Table 3.4: Autocratic Leadership Scale

No	Item
Dimension 1: Determining all decisions	
1	Kyai asks me to obey the instructions completely
2	Kyai determines all decisions in the organization whether they are important or not
3	Kyai always gives the last vote in the meeting
4	Kyai always behaves in a bossy manner in front of employees
5	I feel pressured when working with Kyiai
Dimension 2: Emphasizing the best performance	
1	Kyai exercises strict discipline over assistants
2	Kyai scolds us when we can't accomplish the tasks
3	Kyai emphasizes that a group must have the best performance of all the units in the organization
4	We have to follow the supervisor's rules to get things done. If not, he/she punishes us severely

Source: Cheng et al. (2000)

3.1.4 Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction was measured using the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) (Table 3.5). The scale was developed at the University of Minnesota Industrial Relations Center as part of the Work Adjustment Project to measure satisfaction under specific aspects of work and work environments (Weiss, Dawis, England & Lofquist, 1967). The scale consists of 36 items and nine dimensions, including pay, promotion, supervisor, fringe benefit, contingent reward, operating condition, co-workers, nature of work, and communication. The MSQ was used because it is a well-regarded measure of job satisfaction and has been widely used in academic research for over 30 years (Thomas et al., 2002).

Table 3.5: Job Satisfaction Scale

No	Item
Dimension 1: Pay	
1	I feel paid enough for the work I do
2	Salary increases are too few and distant
3	I feel appreciated by the organization when I think about what they pay me
4	I feel satisfied with my chances for salary increases
Dimension 2: Promotion	
1	There are very few opportunities for promotion in my work
2	Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted
3	People progress as fast as they do anywhere else
4	I am satisfied with my chances for promotion
Dimension 3: Supervision	
1	My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job
2	My supervisor is unfair to me
3	My supervisor shows too little interest to employee
4	I like my supervisor
Dimension 4: Fringe benefit	
1	I am not satisfied with the benefits I receive
2	The benefits we receive are as good as what most other organizations offer
3	The benefit package we have is equitable
4	There are benefits we do not have which we should have
Dimension 5: Contingent rewards	
1	When I do a good job I receive recognition for it that I should receive
2	I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated
3	There are few rewards for those who work here
4	I don't feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be

Table 3.5, continued

No	Item
Dimension 6: Operating condition	
1	Many of the rules and procedures make it harder to do a good job
2	My efforts to do a good job rarely hinders bureaucracy
3	I have too much to do at work
4	I have too much paperwork
Dimension 7: Co-workers	
1	I like the people I work with
2	I find I have to work harder because of the incompetence of people I work with
3	I enjoy my co-workers
4	There is too much problem at work
Dimension 8: Nature of work	
1	I sometimes feel my job is meaningless
2	I like doing the things I do at work
3	I feel a sense of pride in doing my job
4	My job is enjoyable
Dimension 9: Communication	
1	Communication seems good within this organization
2	The goals of this organization are not clear to me
3	I often feel that I do not know what is going on with the organization
4	Work assignment are not fully explained

Source: Weiss et al. (1967)

3.1.5 Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment was measured using the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) (Meyer & Allen, 1990, 1991). It contains 18 items and three dimensions: affective commitment, normative commitment, and continuance commitment (see Table 3.6). Affective commitment describes the employee's perception on whether they want to stay with the organization (emotional attachment). Normative commitment describes the employee's feeling of obligation to stay with the organization (moral attachment). Continuance commitment refers to the employee's need to stay with the organization (consequences of leaving are too high). Each dimension consists of six items.

Krishnaveni and Ramkumar (2008) revalidated the three-component conceptualization model of Meyer and Allen (1997) in the Indian context and found it to be suitable for future research. The three dimensions, as measured using Cronbach's

alpha, were acceptable: affective commitment (0.847), continuance commitment (0.706), and normative commitment (0.756) (Tikare, 2016). The overall reliability was also acceptable with $\alpha = .953$ (Kieres, 2012) and $\alpha = .807$ (Yavirach, 2012).

Table 3.6: Organizational Commitment Scale

No	Item
Dimension 1: Affective commitment	
1	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this organization
2	I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own
3	I do not feel like "part of my family" at this organization
4	I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization
5	This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me
6	I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to this organization
Dimension 2: Continuance commitment	
	It would be very hard for me to leave my job at this organization right now even if I
1	wanted to
2	My life will be disrupted too much if I leave my organization
	Right now, staying with my job at this organization is a matter of necessity as much as
3	desire
4	I believe I have too few options to consider leaving this organization
	One of the few negative consequences of leaving my job at this organization would be
5	the scarcity of available alternatives elsewhere
	One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would
6	require considerable personal sacrifice
Dimension 3: Normative commitment	
1	I do not feel any obligation to remain with my organization
2	Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave
3	I would feel guilty if I left this organization now
4	This organization deserves my loyalty
5	I would not leave my organization right now because of my sense of obligation to it
6	I owe a great deal to this organization

Source: Meyer and Allen (1990, 1991)

3.6 Data Analysis

The collected data were analyzed using SPSS through the following steps. Firstly, the demographic variables of the respondents were analyzed, covering gender, age, working experience, and work status. Frequency shows the rate of survey responses, while percentage distribution shows the proportion of observations for each data point or group of data points.

Secondly, checking the validity of the instrument using an exploratory factor analysis (EFA). In multivariate statistics, EFA is a statistical method used to uncover

the underlying structure of a relatively large set of variables. EFA is a factor analysis technique whose overarching goal is to identify the underlying relationships between the measured variables (Norris & Lecavalier, 2010). EFA is commonly used when developing a scale and serves to identify a set of latent constructs underlying a battery of measured variables. It should be used when the researcher has no prior hypothesis about the factors or patterns of the measured variables (Finch & West, 1997).

There are several procedures when conducting EFA. The first is to verify the suitability of the data for factor analysis. According to Pallant (2011) and Leech, Barrett, and Morgan (2005), data are considered suitable for factor analysis if the variables in the correlation matrix table shows at least some correlation, with a correlation coefficient of 0.30 or greater. If the Bartlett's test of sphericity is statistically significant, this means that the variables are correlated highly enough to provide reasonable basis for factor analysis. Additionally, according to Leech, Barret and Morgan (2005), the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value should be 0.50 and greater. The second is to determine the number of components to extract. At this stage, the researcher looked at the total variance explained in the respective table to determine how many components to extract. The researcher was only interested in components that have an eigenvalue of 1.0 and above and see how much this component explains the total variance (Pallant, 2011). Third is assessing the item loadings on each factor. At this stage, the researcher observed the component matrix in the table to check the item loadings on each factor. The researcher was only interested in items with a loading of greater than 0.30. The communalities table was also presented to gather the amount of variance explained by each item. A low loading (< 0.30) could indicate that the item does not fit well with the other items in its component. The EFA results were validated through confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using the AMOS-SEM software.

Thirdly, assessment of the reliability of each variable based on Cronbach's alpha. Cronbach's alpha measures the internal consistency or average correlation of items in a survey instrument, indicating its reliability. Cronbach's alpha ranges from 0 to 1. The higher the score, the more reliable the generated scale is. Nunnally (1978) suggested that an alpha of 0.70 and above indicates reliability.

Fourthly, conducting a descriptive analysis to check the mean and standard deviation of each variable. The correlation between variables was also examined. If the correlations between the variables are less than 0.90, this means that there is a low probability of multicollinearity (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

Fifthly, testing the hypotheses. A regression analysis was conducted to test the proposed hypotheses. Regression analysis estimates the strength and direction, either positive or negative, of relationship between variables, as well as the significance of this relationship. The procedure proposed by Baron and Kenny (1986) was followed to test the mediation effect. Baron and Kenny (1986) proposed a four-step approach to test for mediation:

- Step 1: Conduct a simple regression analysis between the independent variable (X) and dependent variable (Y).
- Step 2: Conduct a simple regression analysis between the independent variable (X) and mediator (M).
- Step 3: Conduct a simple regression analysis between the mediator and dependent variable.
- The purpose of steps 1–3 is to establish the presence of zero-order relationships among the variables. If one or more of these relationships are non-significant, researchers usually conclude that mediation is not possible or likely. Assuming there are significant relationships from steps 1 to 3, one proceeds to step 4.

- Step 4: if the relationship between X and Y is no longer significant when M is controlled, the finding supports full mediation. If the relationship between X and Y is still significant when M is controlled, the finding supports partial mediation. In addition, the Sobel test was conducted to confirm the result of Baron and Kenny's mediation procedure.

3.7 Chapter Summary

This chapter has described the research methodology, covering the research design, population and sample, data collection methods and procedures, measurements, and finally the data analysis methods and procedures. Chapter 4 will present the data analysis results.

CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALYSIS RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter analyzes the demographics of the respondents, covering gender, age, education, and length employment. The chapter then explains the EFA results for each variable. Following this, it assesses the reliability of each variable based on Cronbach's alpha. The descriptive analysis results are also presented. Finally, the chapter presents the hypotheses testing results.

4.2 Data Screening

As mentioned in Chapter 3, the questionnaires were delivered personally to the selected respondents, i.e., employees of four Pesantren Darunnajah branches in Indonesia. The questionnaires were distributed from early November 2021 to December 2021 to 600 respondents (see Table 4.1). The completed questionnaires were collected after two weeks. A total of 556 (93%) questionnaires were returned. There were 229 respondents from the Jakarta branch, 195 respondents from the West Java branch, 99 respondents from the Banten branch, and 31 respondents from the outside Java branch.

Table 4.1: Number of Returned Questionnaires by Branch

No.	Darunnajah Branch	Number of Respondents
1.	Jakarta	229
2.	West Java	195
3.	Banten	99
4.	Outside Java	31
	Total Respondents	556

4.3 Demographic Profile

Table 4.2 summarizes the demographic profile of the 556 respondents. Around 50 percent ($n = 283$) of the employees were male and 49.10 percent ($n = 273$) were female. In terms of age, most of the respondents were young, as they were largely from the under 20 years old (24.63%) and 21–30 years old (37.05%) age groups. The subsequent age groups gradually became smaller, with only 1.26 percent ($n = 7$) of the sample in the ≥ 61 years old age group. In terms of education, the respondents were largely split between secondary education (44.06%) and bachelor's (47.3%). Forty-one respondents had a master's degree, while only seven have a doctorate. In terms of employment length, almost half of the respondents (49.82%) have worked for less than five years at Darunnajah, while only one respondent have worked for more than 41 years at the *Pesantren*. The second largest category was 6–10 years (16.55%), followed by 11–15 years (11.69%).

Table 4.2: Demographic Profile

Characteristic	Frequency (n)	%
Gender		
Male	283	50.90
Female	273	49.10
Age (years old)		
< 20	137	24.64
21-30	206	37.05
31-40	90	16.29
41-50	72	12.95
51-60	44	7.91
61 and above	7	1.26
Education		
Senior High School	245	44.06
Bachelor's Degree	263	47.30
Master	41	7.37
PhD	7	1.26
Length of Employment		
$5 \leq$ years	276	49.82
6-10 years	92	16.55
11-15 years	65	11.69
16-20 years	42	7.37
21-25 years	31	5.58
26-30 years	21	3.78
31-35 years	21	3.78
36-40 years	7	1.26
$41 \geq$ years	1	0.18

4.4 Analysis of Assumptions

Prior to testing the hypotheses, several statistical assumptions were tested. The assumptions included multicollinearity, outliers, normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity. The following section provide detailed explanation for each assumption.

4.4.1 Multicollinearity

Multicollinearity must be addressed in multivariate analysis. Multicollinearity occurs when an independent variable is highly correlated with a set of other independent variables. Highly correlated means that two distinct variables are measuring the same construct, causing redundancy (Kline, 2011). The simplest way to detect multicollinearity is through a correlation matrix of the independent variables. A correlation of ≥ 0.90 indicates substantial collinearity (Hair et al., 2010). Table 4.3 shows that the correlation between the independent variables was < 0.90 , which means that the multicollinearity assumption was not violated.

Table 4.3: Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Matrix

Variable	Mean	Standard deviation	CL	TL	AL	JS
CL	3.6327	0.39914				
TL	3.7960	0.45941	0.404**			
AL	3.6369	0.50588	0.093*	0.264**		
JS	3.6805	0.41176	0.425**	0.840**	0.324**	

Note: CL = Charismatic Leadership; TL = Transformational Leadership; AL = Autocratic Leadership; JS = Job Satisfaction; * = $p < 0.05$; ** = $p < 0.01$

Another method to assess multicollinearity is by estimating tolerance and variance inflation factor (VIF) (Pallant, 2011; Hair et al., 2010). Tolerance is the variability of a predictor variable that is not explained by other predictors. Tolerance should not be less than 0.10, while VIF should not exceed 10 to indicate the absence of

multicollinearity (Pallant, 2016). Table 4.4 shows that the tolerance values for all independent variables ranged between 0.273 to 0.892, which are higher than 0.10. The largest VIF was 3.657, which is less than 10. These results provide additional evidence that multicollinearity was not an issue.

Table 4.4: Multicollinearity Assessment based on VIF and Tolerance

(Constant)	Tolerance	VIF
Charismatic Leadership	0.809	1.235
Transformational Leadership	0.291	3.436
Autocratic Leadership	0.892	1.121
Job Satisfaction	0.273	3.657

4.4.2 Outliers

Pallant (2011) explained that outliers can be detected using a scatterplot. Outliers are cases where a standardized residual (as shown in the scatterplot) is > 3.3 or < -3.3 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Figure 4.1 illustrates the scatterplot of the standardized residuals against standardized predicted values of the independent variables. The values were between 3.3 and -3.3, suggesting that there were no outliers.

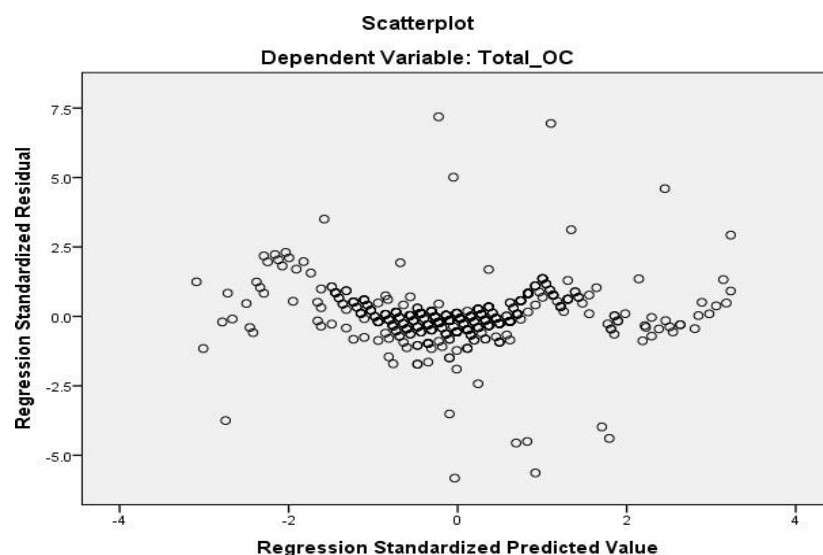


Figure 4.1: Scatterplot

4.4.3 Normality

To satisfy the assumption of data normality, kurtosis and skewness were computed. Skewness and kurtosis are used to assess whether data are normally distributed. Skewness is a measure of symmetry. If the data are distributed equally to the left and right of the center point, then it is symmetric. Kurtosis is a measure of peakedness or flatness of the data.

The rule of thumb for normality test, as suggested by Kline (1998), is a skewness of < 3 and a kurtosis of < 10 . The focus here is on kurtosis because multivariate kurtosis could significantly affect the variance and covariance tests (Byrne, 2010). If the standardized kurtosis index value is 3, then the data is considered normally distributed (Byrne, 2010). Table 4.5 shows that the skewness and kurtosis values are within the accepted level.

Table 4.5: Normality Assessment

	Skewness	Std. Error	Kurtosis	Std. Error
Charismatic	-0.031	0.104	1.206	0.207
Transformational	-0.143	0.104	0.870	0.207
Autocratic	0.020	0.104	0.243	0.207
Job satisfaction	0.225	0.104	1.200	0.207
Commitment	0.459	0.104	1.518	0.207

4.4.4 Linearity and Homoscedasticity

Linearity is the degree of change in the dependent variable that is associated with the independent variable. Homoscedasticity indicates that the dependent variable shows the same levels of variance across a range of independent variables (Hair et al., 2010; Hair et al., 1998; Weinberg & Abramowitz, 2008). Linearity and homoscedasticity are detected by generating an ordinary probability plot of the standardized residual of the dependent constructs (Palant, 2007; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Linearity and

homoscedasticity can also be examined through a scatterplot of the standardized residuals (Pallant, 2011; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Linearity is present when the residuals have a straight-line relationship with the predicted dependent variable scores (Sekaran, 2006). Nonlinearity is present when the overall shape of the scatterplot is curved instead of linear (Sekaran, 2006).

Figure 4.2 indicates that linearity and homoscedasticity were achieved because the residuals have a straight-line relationship with the predicted dependent variable values. In addition, as shown in Figure 4.3, the scatterplot shows that the scores were concentrated in the center along the 0 point (Pallant, 2011).

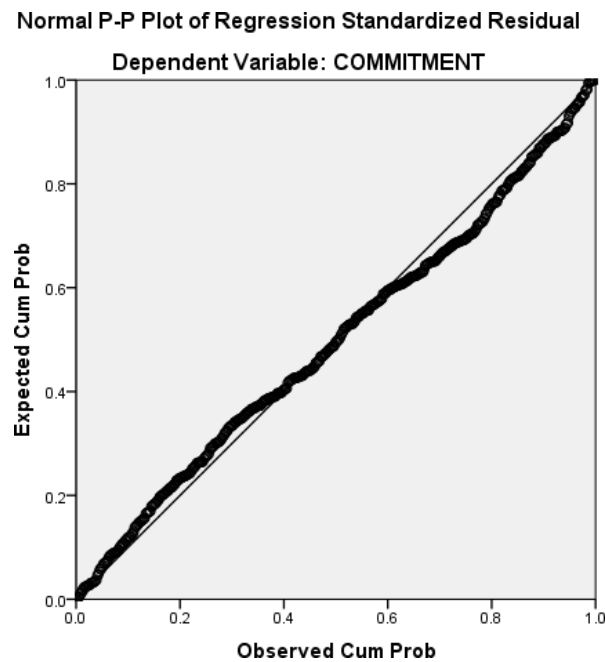


Figure 4.2: Plot of Standardized Residual

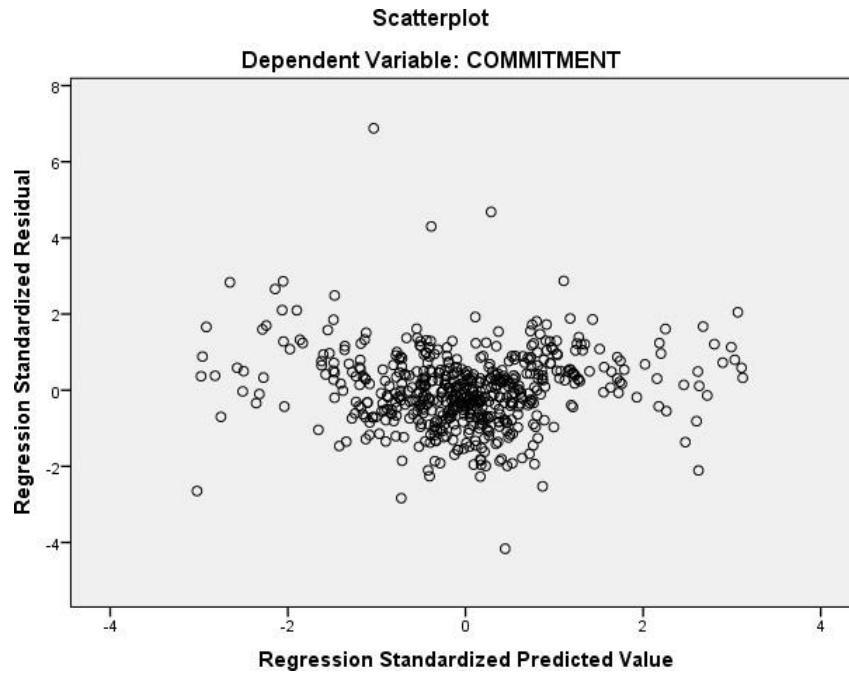


Figure 4.3: Scatterplot of the Standardized Residuals

4.5 Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

An EFA (principal component analysis) with varimax rotation was conducted on the items of charismatic leadership, transformational leadership, autocratic leadership, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. This was considered an appropriate approach for exploring the interrelationships among a set of items. As explained in Chapter 3, prior to performing principal component analysis, the suitability of data for factor analysis was assessed based on the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of sphericity value. If the results meet the requirement of both assessments, the next step is to determine the number of factors that can be used to best represent the interrelationships among the set of items. Following the determination of the number of factors, they were then rotated using varimax rotation to assess the loading pattern of each item on the factors. The varimax rotation technique was used to obtain simpler and more interpretable factor solutions

(Hair et al., 2006). The following sub-sections provide a detailed discussion on the EFA results.

4.5.1 Charismatic Leadership

As mentioned in Chapter 3, charismatic leadership consists of five dimensions: vision and articulation, personal risk, sensitivity the environment, sensitivity of member needs, and unconventional behavior. The EFA results for each dimension are discussed below.

4.5.1.1 Vision and Articulation

EFA was run to determine the factor structure of the seven items related to vision and articulation. Table 4.6 shows that KMO was .843, which is above the suggested value of .6, and the Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($X^2(21) = 1240.5188$, $p < 0.05$). These results show that the data were appropriate for factor analysis.

Table 4.6: KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.843
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1240.518
	df	21
	Sig.	.000

Table 4.7 shows that only one component emerged from the EFA procedure with an eigenvalue of >1.0 . The eigenvalue was 3.461. The total variance explained for vision and articulation was 49.447%. The loading for each item was also within the acceptable value of >0.50 (Table 4.8).

Table 4.7: Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.461	49.447	49.447			
2	.972	13.888	63.335			
3	.716	10.231	73.566			
4	.561	8.017	81.583	3.461	49.447	49.447
5	.481	6.866	88.449			
6	.435	6.220	94.668			
7	.373	5.332	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

Table 4.8: Factor Loadings for Vision and Articulation Items

Item	Factor Loading
CL1	.680
CL2	.737
CL3	.776
CL4	.734
CL5	.693
CL6	.691
CL7	.597

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

4.5.1.2 Personal Risk

EFA was run to determine the factor structure of the three items related to personal risk. Table 4.9 shows that KMO was .652, which is above the suggested value of .6, and the Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($X^2(3) = 342.558, p < 0.05$). These results show that the data were appropriate for factor analysis.

Table 4.9: KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.652
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	342.558
	df	3
	.000	.000

Table 4.10 shows that only one component with an eigenvalue of >1.0 emerged from the EFA procedure. The eigenvalue was 1.918. The total variance explained for

personal risk was 63.938%. The loading value for each item was also within the acceptable value, which is >0.50 (Table 4.11).

Table 4.10: Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	1.918	63.938	63.938	1.918	63.938	63.938
2	.650	21.675	85.613			
3	.432	14.387	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

Table 4.11: Factor Loadings for Personal Risk

Item	Factor Loading
CL8	.821
CL9	.843
CL10	.730

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

4.5.1.3 Environmental Sensitivity

EFA was run to determine the factor structure of the four items related to environmental sensitivity. Table 4.12 shows that the KMO was .650, which is above the suggested value of .6, and the Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($X^2(6) = 306.195$, $p < 0.05$). These results show that the data were appropriate for factor analysis.

Table 4.12: KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.650
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	306.195
	df	6
	Sig.	.000

Table 4.13 shows that only one component with an eigenvalue of >1.0 emerged from the EFA procedure. The eigenvalue was 1.931. The total variance explained for environmental sensitivity was 48.276%. The of each item was also within the acceptable value of >0.50 (Table 4.14).

Table 4.13: Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	1.931	48.276	48.276	1.931	48.276	48.276
2	.917	22.928	71.203			
3	.661	16.516	87.719			
4	.491	12.281	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

Table 4.14: Factor Loadings for Environmental Sensitivity Items

Item	Factor Loading
CL11	.737
CL12	.765
CL13	.608
CL14	.658

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

4.5.1.4 Sensitivity to Members' Needs

EFA was run to determine the factor structure of the three items related to sensitivity to members' needs. Table 4.15 shows that the KMO was .612, which is above the suggested value of .6, and the Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($X^2(3) = 239.238, p < 0.05$). These results show that the data were appropriate for factor analysis.

Table 4.15: KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.612
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	239.138
	df	3
	Sig.	.000

Table 4.16 shows that only one component with an eigenvalue of >1.0 emerged from the EFA procedure. The eigenvalue was 1.751. The total variance explained for sensitivity to members' needs was 58.367%. The loading of each item was within the acceptable value of >0.50 (Table 4.17).

Table 4.16: Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	1.751	58.367	58.367	1.751	58.367	58.367
2	.764	25.453	83.820			
3	.485	16.180	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

Table 4.17: Factor Loadings for Items of Sensitivity to Member Needs

Item	Factor Loading
CL15	.814
CL16	.818
CL17	.648

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

4.5.1.5 Unconventional Behavior

EFA was run to determine the factor structure of the three items related to unconventional behavior. Table 4.18 shows that the KMO was .661, which is above the suggested value of .6, and the Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($X^2 (3) = 270.994$, $p < 0.05$). These results show that the data were appropriate for factor analysis.

Table 4.18: KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.661
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	270.994
	df	3
	Sig.	.000

Table 4.19 shows that only one component with an eigenvalue of >1.0 emerged from the EFA procedure. The eigenvalue was 1.841. The total variance explained for unconventional behavior was 61.355%. The loading of each item was within the acceptable value of >0.50 (Table 4.20).

Table 4.19: Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	1.841	61.355	61.355	1.841	61.355	61.355
2	.636	21.194	82.549			
3	.524	17.451	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

Table 4.20: Factor Loadings for Unconventional Behavior Items

Item	Factor Loading
CL18	.805
CL19	.797
CL20	.746

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

4.5.2 Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership consists of four dimensions of idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. The EFA results for each dimension are discussed below.

4.5.2.1 Idealized Influence

EFA was run to determine the factor structure of the three items related to idealized influence. Table 4.21 shows that the KMO was .608, which is above the suggested value of .6, and the Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($X^2(3) = 255.155, p < 0.05$). These results show that the data were appropriate for factor analysis.

Table 4.21: KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.608
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	255.155
	df	3
	Sig.	.000

Table 4.22 shows that only one component with an eigenvalue of >1.0 emerged from the EFA procedure. The eigenvalue was 1.775. The total variance explained for idealized influence construct was 59.155%. The loading of each item was within the acceptable value of >0.50 (Table 4.23).

Table 4.22: Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	1.775	59.155	59.155	1.775	59.155	59.155
2	.754	25.148	84.303			
3	.471	15.697	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

Table 4.23: Factor Loadings for Individualized Influence Items

Item	Factor Loading
TA1	.786
TA2	.841
TA3	.671

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

4.5.2.2 Inspirational Motivation

Exploratory Factor Analysis was applied to determine the factor structure of the three items of inspirational motivation. Table 4.24 shows that the KMO was .613, which is above the suggested value of .6, and the Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($X^2(3) = 119.852$, $p < 0.05$). These results show that the data were appropriate for factor analysis.

Table 4.24: KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.613
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	119.852
	df	3
	Sig.	.000

Table 4.25 shows that only one component with an eigenvalue of >1.0 emerged from the EFA procedure. The eigenvalue was 1.559. The total variance explained for Inspirational motivation construct was 51.983%. The loading of each item was within the acceptable value of >0.50 (Table 4.26).

Table 4.25: Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	1.559	51.983	51.983	1.559	51.983	51.983
2	.770	25.658	77.641			
3	.671	22.359	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

Table 4.26: Factor Loadings for Inspirational Motivation Items

Item	Factor Loading
TA4	.679
TA5	.727
TA6	.754

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

4.5.2.3 Intellectual Stimulation

EFA was run to determine the factor structure of the three items related to intellectual stimulation. Table 4.27 shows that the KMO was .600, which is above suggested value of .6, and the Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($X^2(3) = 139.599, p < 0.05$). These results show that the data were appropriate for factor analysis.

Table 4.27: KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.532
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	139.599
	df	3
	Sig.	.000

Table 4.28 shows that only one component with an eigenvalue of >1.0 emerged from the EFA procedure. The eigenvalue was 1.516. The total variance explained for intellectual stimulation was 50.538%. The loading of each item was within the acceptable value of >0.50 (Table 4.29).

Table 4.28: Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	1.516	50.538	50.538	1.516	50.538	50.538
2	.937	31.229	81.767			
3	.547	18.233	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

Table 4.29: Factor Loadings for Intellectual Stimulation Items

Item	Factor Loading
TA7	.507
TA8	.821
TA9	.823

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

4.5.2.4 Individualized Consideration

EFA was run to determine the factor structure of the three items related to individualized consideration. Table 4.30 shows that the KMO was .600, which is above the suggested value of .6, and the Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($X^2(3) = 139.599$, $p < 0.05$). These results show that the data were appropriate for factor analysis.

Table 4.30: KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.623
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	173.65
	df	3
	Sig.	.000

Table 4.31 shows that only one component with an eigenvalue of >1.0 emerged from the EFA procedure. The eigenvalue was 1.667. The total variance explained for individualized consideration was 55.569%. The loading of each item was within the acceptable value of >0.50 (Table 4.32).

Table 4.31: Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	1.667	55.569	55.569	1.667	55.569	55.569
2	.743	24.774	80.344			
3	.590	19.656	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

Table 4.32: Factor Loadings for Individualized Consideration Items

Item	Factor Loading
TA10	.750
TA11	.792
TA12	.692

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

4.5.3 Autocratic Leadership

Autocratic leadership consists of two dimensions: determine all decisions and emphasize the best performance. The EFA results for each dimension are discussed below.

4.5.3.1 Determine All Decisions

EFA was run to determine the factor structure of the four items related to determine all decisions. One item (LA5) was deleted due to cross-loading. Table 4.33 shows that the KMO was .668, which is above the suggested value of .6, and the Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($X^2(6) = 210.350, p < 0.05$). These results show that the data were appropriate for factor analysis.

Table 4.33: KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.668
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	210.350
	df	6
	Sig.	.000

Table 4.34 shows that only one component with an eigenvalue of >1.0 emerged from the EFA procedure. The eigenvalue was 1.805. The total variance explained for determine all decisions was 45.118%. The loading of each item was within the acceptable value of >0.50 (Table 4.35).

Table 4.34: Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	1.805	45.118	45.118	1.805	45.118	45.118
2	.848	21.197	66.315			
3	.758	18.960	85.275			
4	.589	14.725	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

Table 4.35: Factor Loadings for Items of Determine All Decisions

Item	Factor Loading
LA1	.663
LA2	.771
LA3	.654
LA4	.586

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

4.5.3.2 Emphasizes the Best Performance

EFA was run to determine the factor structure of the four items related to emphasizes the best performance. Table 4.36 shows that the KMO was .608, which is above the suggested value of .6, and the Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant (X^2

(6) = 246.413, $p < 0.05$). These results show that the data were appropriate for factor analysis.

Table 4.36: KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.597
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	246.413
	df	6
	Sig.	.000

Table 4.37 shows that only one component with an eigenvalue of >1.0 emerged from the EFA procedure. The eigenvalue was 1.797. The total variance explained for the emphasizes the best performance construct was 44.916%. The loading of each item was within the acceptable value of >0.50 (Table 4.38).

Table 4.37: Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	1.797	44.916	44.916	1.797	44.916	44.916
2	.986	24.641	69.557			
3	.704	17.607	87.164			
4	.513	12.836	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

Table 4.38: Factor Loadings for Items of Emphasize the Best Performance

Item	Factor Loading
LA6	.682
LA7	.742
LA8	.707
LA9	.530

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

4.5.4 Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment consists of three dimensions: affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. The EFA results for each dimension are discussed below.

4.5.4.1 Affective Commitment

EFA was run to determine the factor structure of the six items related to affective commitment. Two items (OC1 and OC5) were deleted due to cross-loading. Table 4.39 shows that the KMO was .722, which is above the suggested value of .6, and the Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($X^2(6) = 592.688, p < 0.05$). These results show that the data were appropriate for factor analysis.

Table 4.39: KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.722
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	592.688
	df	6
	Sig.	.000

Table 4.40 shows that only one component with an eigenvalue of >1.0 emerged from the EFA procedure. The eigenvalue was 2.257. The total variance explained for affective commitment was 56.414%. The loading of each item was within the acceptable value of >0.50 (Table 4.41).

Table 4.40: Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.257	56.414	56.414	2.257	56.414	56.414
2	.934	23.345	79.759			
3	.443	11.068	90.827			
4	.367	9.173	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

Table 4.41: Factor Loadings for Affective Commitment Items

Item	Factor Loading
OC2	.566
OC3	.860
OC4	.853
OC6	.810

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

4.5.4.2 Continuance Commitment

EFA was run to determine the factor structure of the six items related to continuance commitment. One item (OC11) was deleted due to cross-loading. Table 4.42 shows that the KMO was .730, which is above the suggested value of .6, and the Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($X^2(10) = 306.668, p < 0.05$). These results show that the data were appropriate for factor analysis.

Table 4.42: KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.730
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	306.668
	df	10
	Sig.	.000

Table 4.43 shows that only one component with an eigenvalue of >1.0 emerged from the EFA procedure. The eigenvalue was 2.066. The total variance explained for continuance commitment was 41.323%. The loading of each item was within the acceptable value of >0.50 (Table 4.44).

Table 4.43: Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.066	41.323	41.323	2.066	41.323	41.323
2	.896	17.920	59.243			
3	.751	15.018	74.261			
4	.677	13.538	87.799			
5	.610	12.201	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

Table 4.44: Factor Loadings for Continuance Commitment Items

Item	Factor Loading
OC7	.633
OC8	.652
OC9	.699
OC10	.616
OC12	.609

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

4.5.4.3 Normative Commitment

EFA was run to determine the factor structure of the six items related to normative commitment. One item (OC13) was deleted due to cross-loading. Table 4.45 shows that the KMO was .750, which is above the suggested value of .6, and the Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($X^2 (10) = 373.164, p < 0.05$). These results show that the data were appropriate for factor analysis.

Table 4.45: KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.750
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	373.164
	df	10
	Sig.	.000

Table 4.46 shows that only one component with an eigenvalue of >1.0 emerged from the EFA procedure. The eigenvalue was 2.166. The total variance explained for normative commitment was 43.328%. The loading of each item was within the acceptable value of >0.50 (Table 4.47).

Table 4.46: Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.166	43.328	43.328	2.166	43.328	43.328
2	.918	18.365	61.693			
3	.725	14.508	76.201			
4	.631	12.622	88.823			
5	.559	11.177	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

Table 4.47: Factor Loadings for Normative Commitment Items

Item	Factor Loading
OC14	.530
OC15	.720
OC16	.730
OC17	.748
OC18	.524

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

4.5.5 Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction consists of nine dimensions: pay, promotion, supervisor, fringe benefit, contingent reward, operating condition, co-worker, nature of work, and communication. The EFA results for each dimension are discussed below.

4.5.5.1 Pay

EFA was run to determine the factor structure of the four items related to pay. One item (JSE4) was deleted due to cross-loading. Table 4.48 shows that the KMO was .693, which is above the suggested value of .6, and the Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($X^2(3) = 121.730, p < 0.05$). These results show that the data were appropriate for factor analysis.

Table 4.48: KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.593
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	121.730
	df	3
	Sig.	.000

Table 4.49 shows that only one component with an eigenvalue of >1.0 emerged from the EFA procedure. The eigenvalue was 1.548. The total variance explained for pay was 51.602%. The loading value for each item meet the acceptable value, which is >0.50 (refer to Table 4.50).

Table 4.49: Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	1.548	51.602	51.602	1.548	51.602	51.602
2	.819	27.301	78.903			
3	.633	21.097	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

Table 4.50: Factor Loadings for Pay Items

Item	Factor Loading
JSE1	.775
JSE2	.625
JSE3	.747

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

4.5.5.2 Promotion

EFA was run to determine the factor structure of the four items related to promotion. Table 4.51 shows the KMO was .614, which is above the suggested value of .6, and the Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($X^2(6) = 128.692, p < 0.05$). These results show that the data were appropriate for factor analysis.

Table 4.51: KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.614
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	128.692
	df	6
	Sig.	.000

Table 4.52 shows that only one component with an eigenvalue of >1.0 emerged from the EFA procedure. The eigenvalue was 1.602. The total variance explained for promotion was 40.049%. The loading of each item was within the acceptable value of >0.50 (Table 4.53).

Table 4.52: Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	1.602	40.049	40.049	1.602	40.049	40.049
2	.952	23.801	63.849			
3	.780	19.495	83.345			
4	.666	16.655	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

Table 4.53: Factor Loadings for Promotion Items

Item	Factor Loading
JSE5	.548
JSE6	.703
JSE7	.614
JSE8	.657

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

4.5.5.3 Supervision

EFA was run to determine the factor structure of the four items related to supervision. One item (JSE12) was deleted due to cross-loading. Table 4.54 shows that the KMO was .646, which is above the suggested value of .6, and the Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($X^2(3) = 162.069, p < 0.05$). These results show that the data were appropriate for factor analysis.

Table 4.54: KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.646
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	162.069
	df	3
	Sig.	.000

Table 4.55 shows that only one component with an eigenvalue of >1.0 emerged from the EFA procedure. The eigenvalue was 1.576. The total variance explained for supervision was 52.544%. The loading of each item was within the acceptable value of >0.50 (Table 4.56).

Table 4.55: Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	1.576	52.544	52.544	1.576	52.544	52.544
2	.895	29.824	82.368			
3	.529	17.632	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

Table 4.56: Factor Loadings for Supervision Items

Item	Factor Loading
JSE9	.785
JSE10	.517
JSE11	.833

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

4.5.5.4 Fringe Benefit

EFA was run to determine the factor structure of the four items related to fringe benefit. Table 4.57 shows that the KMO was .646, which is above the suggested value of .6, and the Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($X^2(3) = 162.069, p < 0.05$). These results show that the data were appropriate for factor analysis.

Table 4.57: KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.665
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	167.002
	df	6
	Sig.	.000

Table 4.58 shows that only one component with an eigenvalue of >1.0 emerged from the EFA procedure. The eigenvalue was 1.723. The total variance explained for Fringe Benefit construct was 43.067%. The loading of each item was within the acceptable value of >0.50 (Table 4.59).

Table 4.58: Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	1.723	43.067	43.067	1.723	43.067	43.067
2	.857	21.418	64.485			
3	.770	19.260	83.745			
4	.650	16.255	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

Table 4.59: Factor Loadings for Fringe Benefit Items

Item	Factor Loading
JSE13	.544
JSE14	.717
JSE15	.660
JSE16	.691

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

4.5.5.5 Contingent Rewards

EFA was run to determine the factor structure of the four items related to contingent rewards. Table 4.60 shows that the KMO was .627, which is above the suggested value of .6, and the Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($X^2(6) = 117.997, p < 0.05$). These results show that the data were appropriate for factor analysis.

Table 4.60: KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.627
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	117.997
	df	6
	Sig.	.000

Table 4.61 shows that only one component with an eigenvalue of >1.0 emerged from the EFA procedure. The eigenvalue was 1.581. The total variance explained for Contingent Rewards construct was 39.536%. The loading of each item was within the acceptable value of >0.50 (Table 4.62).

Table 4.61: Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	1.581	39.536	39.536	1.581	39.536	39.536
2	.942	23.541	63.077			
3	.792	19.801	82.878			
4	.685	17.122	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

Table 4.62: Factor Loadings for Items of Contingent Rewards

Item	Factor Loading
JSE17	.434
JSE18	.598
JSE19	.716
JSE20	.723

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

4.5.5.6 Operating Condition

EFA was run to determine the factor structure of four items related to operating condition. Table 4.63 shows that the KMO was .607, which is above the suggested value of .6, and the Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($X^2(6) = 105.034, p < 0.05$). These results show that the data were appropriate for factor analysis.

Table 4.63: KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.607
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	105.034
	df	6
	Sig.	.0

Table 4.64 shows that only one component with an eigenvalue of >1.0 emerged from the EFA procedure. The eigenvalue was 1.545. The total variance explained for Operating Condition construct was 38.616%. The loading of each item was within the acceptable value of >0.50 (Table 4.65).

Table 4.64: Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	1.545	38.616	38.616	1.545	38.616	38.616
2	.957	23.933	62.549			
3	.791	19.782	82.331			
4	.707	17.669	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

Table 4.65: Factor Loadings for Operating Condition Items

Item	Factor Loading
JSE21	.651
JSE22	.588
JSE23	.651
JSE24	.593

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

4.5.5.7 Co-Workers

EFA was run to determine the factor structure of the four items related to Co-Workers. Table 4.66 shows that the KMO was .594, which is above the suggested value of .6, and the Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($X^2(6) = 187.099, p < 0.05$). These results show that the data were appropriate for factor analysis.

Table 4.66: KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.594
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	187.099
	df	6
	Sig.	.000

Table 4.67 shows that only one component with an eigenvalue of >1.0 emerged from the EFA procedure. The eigenvalue was 1.684. The total variance explained for Co-Worker construct was 42.102%. The loading of each item was within the acceptable value of >0.50 (Table 4.68).

Table 4.67: Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	1.684	42.102	42.102	1.684	42.102	42.102
2	.928	23.200	65.302			
3	.853	21.336	86.638			
4	.534	13.362	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

Table 4.68: Factor Loadings for Coworker Items

Item	Factor Loading
JSE25	.449
JSE26	.543
JSE27	.762
JSE28	.779

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

4.5.5.8 Nature of Work

EFA was run to determine the factor structure of the four items related to nature of work. Table 4.69 shows that the KMO was .643, which is above the suggested value of .6, and the Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($X^2(6) = 154.870, p < 0.05$). These results show that the data were appropriate for factor analysis.

Table 4.69: KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.843
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	154.870
	df	6
	Sig.	.000

Table 4.70 shows that only one component with an eigenvalue of >1.0 emerged from the EFA procedure. The eigenvalue was 1.675. The total variance explained for nature of work was 41.867%. The loading of each item was within the acceptable value of >0.50 (Table 4.71).

Table 4.70: Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	1.675	41.867	41.867	1.675	41.867	41.867
2	.921	23.032	64.899			
3	.757	18.928	83.827			
4	.647	16.173	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

Table 4.71: Factor Loadings for Nature of Work Items

Item	Factor Loading
JSE29	.758
JSE30	.483
JSE31	.667
JSE32	.649

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

4.5.5.9 Communication

EFA was run to determine the factor structure of the four items related to communication. Table 4.72 shows that the KMO was .596, which is above the suggested value of .6, and the Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($X^2(6) = 136.907, p < 0.05$). These results show that the data were appropriate for factor analysis.

Table 4.72: KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.596
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	136.907
	df	6
	Sig.	.000

Table 4.73 shows that only one component with an eigenvalue of >1.0 emerged from the EFA procedure. The eigenvalue was 1.602. The total variance explained for Communication construct was 40.042%. The loading of each item was within the acceptable value of >0.50 (Table 4.74).

Table 4.73: Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	1.602	40.042	40.042	1.602	40.042	40.042
2	.941	23.535	63.578			
3	.842	21.053	84.631			
4	.615	15.369	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

Table 4.74: Factor Loadings for Communication Items

Item	Factor Loading
JSE33	.604
JSE34	.718
JSE35	.414
JSE36	.742

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

4.6 Summary of Exploratory Factor Analysis

Table 4.75: Summary of Exploratory Factor Analysis

Variable	Number of Original Item	Deleted	Final Item
Charismatic Leadership	19	-	19
Transformational Leadership	12	-	12
Autocratic Leadership	9	1	8
Organizational Commitment	18	4	14
Job Satisfaction	36	-	36

4.7 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

CFA was conducted to further confirm the causal relationships between the observed variables (items) and the latent variables. This subsection presents a detailed discussion of how the items are linked to their underlying latent construct using CFA techniques. The five latent constructs in this study were placed at one level and analyzed simultaneously to determine the extent to which the model fits the data. If the goodness of fit is adequate and fulfils the discriminant validity requirement, the analysis can proceed to the next stage (structural model) to test the hypotheses.

As shown in Table 4.76, the assessment of fit (overall fit) demonstrates adequate model fit as the requirements of certain fit indices discussed earlier were met ($\chi^2/df = 2.80$; CFI = 0.89; RMSEA = 0.08). The results indicate that the model had goodness of fit. After assessing the fitness of the measurement model, the validity and reliability of the constructs were computed and summarized in in Table 4.77.

Table 4.76: Fitness Index for the Measurement Model

Name of Category	Name of Index	Index Value
Absolute fit	RMSEA	0.08
Incremental fit	CFI	0.89
Parsimonious fit	Relative χ^2 (CMIN/df)	2.80

Table 4.77: Composite Reliability (CR) and AVE for All Constructs

Construct	Item	Factor Loading	AVE (≥ 0.5)	CR (≥ 0.6)
Commitment	Affective	0.186	0.52	0.87
	Continuance	0.663		
	Normative	0.625		
Transformational	Idealized	0.749	0.55	0.83
	Inspirational	0.739		
	Intellectual	0.862		
Charismatic	Individualized	0.605	0.65	0.92
	Vision	0.686		
	Personal	0.864		
	Environment	0.782		
	Member Behavior	0.775		
		0.877		

Table 4.77, continued

Construct	Item	Factor Loading	AVE (≥ 0.5)	CR (≥ 0.6)
Autocratic	Decisions	0.810	0.77	0.91
	Performance	0.938		
Job satisfaction	Pay	0.730	0.53	0.85
	Promotion	0.726		
	Supervision	0.628		
	Benefit	0.774		
	Reward	0.803		
	Condition	0.744		
	Co-workers	0.698		
	Work	0.712		
	Communicate	0.650		

Table 4.77 shows the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) and the Composite Reliability (CR) values for all constructs. The AVE ranged between 0.52 and 0.77, which means that all constructs met the requirement for convergent validity. In addition, the CR values for all constructs ranged from 0.83 to 0.92, indicating that all constructs had good reliability.

In the last steps of the measurement model assessment, the discriminant validity of the constructs was estimated to ensure that they were not redundant. The discriminant validity for a construct is achieved if the correlation between the independent variables does not exceed 0.85 (Fornel & Larker, 1981; Awang, 2015). A discriminant validity index summary for all constructs was built to ensure that they were discriminant from each other. The AVE values (in bold) are shown in the discriminant validity index summary table (see Table 4.78).

Table 4.78: Discriminant Validity Index Summary

Variable	CL	TL	AL	JS	OC
CL	0.510				
TL	0.404**	0.860			
AL	0.093*	0.264**	0.640		
JS	0.425**	0.840**	0.324**	0.874	
OC	0.424**	0.820**	0.291**	0.844**	0.880

Notes: CL= Charismatic Leadership; TL = Transformational Leadership; AL = Autocratic Leadership; JS = Job Satisfaction; OC = Organizational Commitment. **= $p < 0.05$, ***= $p < 0.001$

Overall, the discussion in this section provides evidence to support the validity and reliability of the measurement model. The final measurement model had a good fit and satisfied the requirements of several fit indices. Therefore, it is now opportune to test the hypotheses of this study.

4.8 Mean, Standard Deviation, and Correlation between Variables

Table 4.79 shows the mean, standard deviation, and correlation of the research variables. The mean scores ranged from 3.4356 to 3.7960, while the standard deviation from 0.39914 to 0.50588. The mean scores show that all leadership styles were at a high level (see Table 4.80) (Pallant, 2020). The correlation between the variables were positive, ranging from 0.264 to 0.939.

Table 4.79: Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Matrix

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	CL	TL	AL	JS	OC
CL	3.6327	0.39914					
TL	3.7960	0.45941	0.404**				
AL	3.6369	0.50588	0.093*	0.264**			
JS	3.6805	0.41176	0.425**	0.840**	0.324**		
OC	3.4356	0.43682	0.424**	0.820**	0.291**	0.939**	

Note: CL = Charismatic Leadership; TL = Transformational Leadership; AL = Autocratic Leadership; JS = Job Satisfaction; OC = Organizational Commitment; * = $p < 0.05$; ** = $p < 0.01$

Table 4.80: Level of Mean Score

Mean Score	Level
0.01 – 1.68	Low
1.69 – 3.36	Moderate
3.37 – 5.00	High

Source: Pallant (2020)

4.9 Hypotheses Testing

4.9.1 Hypotheses 1–3

Table 4.81: Multiple Regression Results

Dependant Variable	(t value)	Job Satisfaction (β)
Charismatic Leadership	4.275	0.104***
Transformational Leadership	30.601	0.769***
Autocratic Leadership	4.832	0.112***

Note: β = Standardized Coefficients Beta Value; *** = $p < 0.001$

Table 4.81 shows that charismatic leadership ($\beta = 0.104$, $t = 4.275$, $p < 0.001$), transformational leadership ($\beta = 0.769$, $t = 30.601$, $p < 0.001$), and autocratic leadership ($\beta = 0.112$, $t = 4.832$, $p < 0.001$) were positively and significantly related to job satisfaction. Therefore, hypotheses 1–3 were supported. Charismatic, transformational, and autocratic leadership styles were thus positively associated with job satisfaction.

4.9.2 Hypotheses 4–6

Table 4.82: Multiple Regression Results

Dependant Variable	(t value)	Organizational Commitment (β)
Charismatic Leadership	4.318	0.112***
Transformational Leadership	28.012	0.753***
Autocratic Leadership	3.314	0.082***

Note: β = Standardized Coefficients Beta Value; *** = $p < 0.001$

Table 4.82 shows the positive and significant effects of charismatic leadership ($\beta = 0.112$, $t = 4.318$, $p < 0.001$), transformational leadership ($\beta = 0.753$, $t = 28.012$; $p < 0.001$), and autocratic leadership ($\beta = 0.082$, $t = 3.314$, $p < 0.001$) on organizational commitment. Therefore, hypotheses 4–6 were supported. Charismatic, transformational, and autocratic leadership styles were positively associated with organizational commitment.

4.9.3 Hypothesis 7

Table 4.83: Linear Regression Results

Dependant Variable	(t value)	Organizational Commitment (β)
Job Satisfaction	64.085	0.939***

Note: β = Standardized Coefficients Beta Value; *** = $p < 0.001$

Table 4.83 shows that the effect of job satisfaction on organizational commitment was positive and significant, $\beta = 0.939$, $t = 64.085$, $p < 0.001$. Therefore, hypothesis 7 was supported. Job satisfaction was positively associated with organizational commitment.

4.9.4 Hypothesis 8: Job Satisfaction Mediates between Charismatic Leadership and Organizational Commitment

Table 4.82 shows that charismatic leadership had a positive and significant relationship with organizational commitment. This satisfies the first requirement of Baron and Kenny's (1986) mediation analysis procedure. Charismatic leadership was also positively associated with job satisfaction, satisfying the requirement of the second step of Baron and Kenny's procedure. Finally, the third requirement was also satisfied because of the positive and significant relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Consequently, job satisfaction could potentially mediate between charismatic leadership and organizational commitment (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Mackinon, Fairchild & Fritz, 2007).

An additional analysis was conducted to determine whether the mediation effect of job satisfaction between charismatic leadership and organizational commitment was full or partial. Table 4.84 shows that the relationship between charismatic leadership and organizational commitment was positive but not significant (ΔR^2 for Model 2 =

0.001, $p > 0.05$) when the mediator (job satisfaction) was controlled. This means that job satisfaction fully mediated between charismatic leadership and organizational commitment. This satisfies step 4 of Baron and Kenny's procedure.

Table 4.84: Hierarchical Regression Analysis Results

Predictor	Organizational Commitment		
	(β)	Adjust <i>R</i> ²	Δ <i>R</i> ²
<i>Model 1</i>			
Job satisfaction	0.939	0.881	
<i>Model 2</i>			
Job satisfaction,	0.926		
Charismatic leadership	0.030	0.881	0.001

Note: β = Standardized Coefficients Beta Value; Adjust R^2 = Adjust R Square; ΔR^2 = R Square Change

4.9.5 Hypothesis 9: Job Satisfaction Mediates between Transformational Leadership and Organizational Commitment

Table 4.82 shows that transformational leadership had a positive and significant relationship with organizational commitment. Additionally, transformational leadership was significantly associated with job satisfaction. Job satisfaction was likewise positively and significantly associated with organizational commitment. These results satisfy the requirements of steps 1–3 of Baron and Kenny's mediation analysis procedure. Therefore, job satisfaction could potentially mediate between transformational leadership and organizational commitment (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Mackinon, Fairchild & Fritz, 2007).

An additional analysis was conducted to determine whether the mediation effect of job satisfaction between charismatic leadership and organizational commitment was full or partial. Table 4.85 shows that the relationship between transformational leadership and organizational commitment was positive and significant (ΔR^2 for Model

2 = 0.003, $p < 0.001$) when the mediator (job satisfaction) was controlled. This means that job satisfaction partially mediated relationship between transformational leadership and organizational commitment. This satisfies step 4 of Baron and Kenny's procedure.

Table 4.85: Hierarchical Regression Analysis Results

Predictor	Organizational Commitment		
	(β)	Adjust R ²	Δ R ²
Model 1			
Job satisfaction	0.939	0.881	
Model 2			
Job satisfaction,	0.850		
Transformational leadership	0.105	0.884	0.003

Note: β = Standardized Coefficients Beta Value; Adjust R^2 = Adjust R Square; ΔR^2 = R Square Change

4.9.6 Hypothesis 10: Job Satisfaction Mediates between Autocratic Leadership and Organizational Commitment

Table 4.82 shows that autocratic leadership had a positive and significant relationship with organizational commitment. Additionally, autocratic leadership was significantly associated with job satisfaction. Job satisfaction was likewise positively and significantly associated with organizational commitment. These results satisfy the requirements of steps 1–3 of Baron and Kenny's mediation analysis procedure. Therefore, job satisfaction could potentially mediate between autocratic leadership and organizational commitment (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Mackinon, Fairchild & Fritz, 2007).

An additional analysis was conducted to determine whether the mediation effect of job satisfaction between charismatic leadership and organizational commitment was full or partial. Table 4.86 shows that the relationship between autocratic leadership and organizational commitment was positive but not significant (ΔR^2 for Model 2 = 0.000,

$p > 0.05$) when the mediator (job satisfaction) was controlled. This means that job satisfaction fully mediated between autocratic leadership and organizational commitment. This satisfies step 4 of Baron and Kenny's procedure.

Table 4.86: Hierarchical Regression Analysis Results

Predictor	Organizational Commitment		
	(β)	Adjust R ²	Δ R ²
<i>Model 1</i>			
Job satisfaction	0.939	0.881	
<i>Model 2</i>			
Job satisfaction,	0.944		
Autocratic leadership	-0.015	0.881	0.000

Note: β = Standardized Coefficients Beta Value; Adjust R^2 = Adjust R Square; ΔR^2 = R Square Change

4.9.7 Additional Test to Confirm Mediation

The Sobel test (1982) was used to estimate the standard error of the latent variables. Figure 4.4 shows the Sobel test for significance of mediation. The results showed that the indirect effects from charismatic leadership to organizational commitment and from autocratic leadership to organizational commitment were significant. Therefore, job satisfaction mediated the relationship between charismatic leadership and organizational commitment, as well as between autocratic leadership and organizational commitment.

Calculator 1:

A: 0.517 ?

B: 0.562 ?

SE_A: 0.052 ?

SE_B: 0.069 ?

Calculate!

Sobel test statistic: 6.30062211

One-tailed probability: 0.0

Two-tailed probability: 0.0

Calculator 2:

A: 0.517 ?

B: 0.439 ?

SE_A: 0.052 ?

SE_B: 0.068 ?

Calculate!

Sobel test statistic: 5.41453955

One-tailed probability: 0.00000003

Two-tailed probability: 0.00000006

Figure 4.4: Sobel Test Calculator for Significance of Mediation

4.10 Summary of Findings

Table 4.87: Summary of Findings

No.	Hypotheses	Analysis results
H1	Charismatic leadership is positively related to job satisfaction	Supported (Positive and significant)
H2	Transformational leadership is positively related to job satisfaction	Supported (Positive and significant)
H3	Autocratic leadership is positively related to job satisfaction	Supported (Positive and significant)
H4	Charismatic leadership is positively related to organizational commitment	Supported (Positive and significant)
H5	Transformational leadership is positively related to organizational commitment	Supported (Positive and significant)
H6	Autocratic leadership is positively related to organizational commitment	Supported (Positive and significant)
H7	Job satisfaction is positively related to organizational commitment	Supported (Positive and significant)
H8	Job satisfaction mediate the relationship between charismatic leadership and organizational commitment	Supported (full mediation)
H9	Job satisfaction mediate the relationship between transformational leadership and organizational commitment	Supported (partial mediation)
H10	Job satisfaction mediate the relationship between autocratic leadership and organizational commitment	Supported (full mediation)

4.11 Final Research Model



Figure 4.5: Final Research Model

4.12 Chapter Summary

This chapter has presented the results of data analysis in detail. All proposed hypotheses were supported by the research data. Leadership styles (charismatic, transformational, autocratic) significantly influenced job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Job satisfaction was also significantly associated with organizational commitment. In addition, job satisfaction was found to mediate between charismatic, transformational, and autocratic leadership styles with commitment. The next chapter discusses these findings further.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

5.1 Introduction

This chapter starts with a brief review about the focus of this study. It then discusses the research findings and their implications. Finally, the chapter highlights the limitations of the study, proposes recommendations for future research, and provides a summary of the thesis.

5.2 Focus of This Study

This study was conducted to address four issues. The first issue was to identify the leadership style of the Kiyai, who is regarded as the leader in a *pesantren* (Hasbullah, 1999). Research related to leadership style in *pesantren* is essential because current perception about the subject in the literature has been inconsistent. For example, Nugraha (2010) and Rachmawati (2009) argued that *pesantren* leader applies the charismatic dominant leadership. However, Prabowo (2016) found that the leadership at *pesantren* tends to be an individual, limiting the roles and initiatives of subordinates. Other researchers (e.g., Abdullah et al, 2008, Anchok & Suroso, 2005) indicated that the leadership style in *pesantren* is generally religious leadership. These inconsistent arguments necessitate further research on the leadership style of the Kiyai.

The second issue addressed by this study was related to the relationship between leadership style, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. Although previous studies have found a link between leadership and job satisfaction and organizational commitment (e.g., Azim, 2019; Siddiq & Sudin, 2013; Wardianto & Hendrati, 2014),

they have not shown that leadership style is positively associated with both job satisfaction and organizational commitment. This study extends the literature by empirically examining the effects of three leadership styles (charismatic, transformational, and autocratic) on job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Examining the three styles simultaneously can generate significant knowledge about their effects in a particular context.

The third issue covered in this study was the role of job satisfaction as a mediator. This study argues that job satisfaction could mediate between charismatic, transformational, and autocratic leadership styles with organizational commitment. This argument was based on three reasons. First, leadership style is positively related to job satisfaction (Azim, 2019; Siddiq & Sudin, 2013). Second, job satisfaction has a positive impact on organizational commitment (Mwesigwa, Tusiime & Ssekiziyivu, 2020). Third, past studies have shown the mediating effect of job satisfaction (e.g., Chan & Ao, 2019; Riyadi & Soeling, 2019).

The fourth issue related to the leadership issue in *pesantren*. Previous studies in this context have only focused on the moderate leadership model of the Kiyai (Hernawati, 2015), leadership model of the Kiyai in the strategic development of participants (Sukowati, Zunaih, Jatmikowati & Nelwan, 2019), effectiveness of the Kiyai's leadership (Taman, 2015), behavioral approaches in the context of *pesantren* leadership (Atiqullah, 2007), and strengthening leadership culture (Alam, 2018). This study extends the literature in this context by examining the level of charismatic, transformational, and autocratic leadership styles among the Kiyai. This study also examined the effects of charismatic, transformational, and autocratic leadership styles on job satisfaction and organizational commitment in the *pesantren* context.

5.3 Discussion of Findings

5.3.1 Leadership Style of the Kiyai at Pesantren Darunnajah

The first issue was to identify the leadership style of the Kiyai as a leader in *pesantren* (Hasbullah, 1999). Adequate understanding of this issue is essential because there is inconsistent perception about this subject in the literature.

The results showed that the charismatic, transformational, and autocratic leadership styles of the Kiyai at Pesantren Darunnajah were at a high level. These findings support previous studies that indicate that *pesantren* leaders apply charismatic leadership (Nugraha; 2010; Rachmawati, 2009), transformational leadership (Suradi & Surahman, 2020; Suradi, 2017), and autocratic leadership styles (Rachman, 2021).

The findings suggest the importance of these three leadership styles in an educational organization such as *pesantren*. With charismatic leadership, the leader formulates a strategic vision that is constantly presented in an inspiring way. The leader also assesses the environment for growth opportunities for the organization and carefully evaluates his followers' needs. In addition, he provides a role model by demonstrating personal risk and unconventional behavior to his followers (Conger, Kanungo, Menon & Mathur, 1997). Transformational leaders model the achievement, values, and behavior that followers perceive as having the potential to advance their careers (Joo & Lim, 2013). The leaders also serve as a model for followers to achieve their goals, and they clearly and confidently communicate their vision optimistically and with enthusiasm (Jyoti & Dev, 2015). In addition, the leaders encourage followers to question the values, way of thinking, and beliefs of themselves and their leader (Jyoti & Dev, 2015). The leaders also recognize the differences among followers and provide individualized attention that motivates them to exercise authority in decision-making (Ghadi et al., 2013; Teymournejad & Elghaei, 2017). Finally, autocratic leaders assert

strong authority and control over subordinates and demand unquestioned obedience from them (Farh & Cheng, 2000).

5.3.2 Charismatic Leadership was Positively Related to Job Satisfaction

Charismatic leadership was posited to be positively related to job satisfaction. This study found that charismatic leadership contributed to higher job satisfaction. This result is in line with previous studies (e.g., Vlachos et al., 2013; Shah et al., 2021; Hiton et al., 2019; Bazawi, 2019) regarding the significant effect of charismatic leadership on employee job satisfaction. The result is also consistent with Lindblom et al. (2016), that charismatic leadership has a strong positive effect on job satisfaction. This finding supports Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory (1959), which argues that job satisfaction is determined by hygiene factors (factors relating to the context of the job), such as supervisor (Amah, 2009).

Employees feel satisfied with a charismatic leader because the leader is able to provide them with strategic goals and inspiring visions (Vlachos et al., 2013), which improve the trust, motivation (Jay & Conger, 2000), and performance of employees (Javidan & Waldman, 2003). According to Latif (2011), charismatic leaders may improve the satisfaction of their followers because they feel valued and their needs are fulfilled. The characteristics of a charismatic leader, including educational background, length of tenure, gender, and culture could influence an employee's perception of job satisfaction (Amburgey, 2005). The quality of charismatic leadership to inspire and motivate employees to perform at a great level and remain committed could also enhance their job satisfaction (Taghipour & Dejbani, 2013). Uplifting inspiration is among the most important quality of charismatic leadership that boosts employee work fulfillment in private and open organizations (Omar & Hussin, 2013). Charismatic

leaders can urge employees to prioritize their enthusiasm for the group or organization's interests, offering them a moving mission and vision and giving them personality (Metwally et al., 2014). The charismatic leader pays more thought to supporters, transmits venture work to them, and feels that they can get more involvement by doing this activity (Ahmad et al., 2014).

5.3.3 Transformational Leadership was Positively Related to Job Satisfaction

Transformational leadership was expected to be positively related to job satisfaction. This study found that there was a positive and significant relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction. In other words, those leaders who demonstrate four characteristics (i.e., individual influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration) are able to improve the job satisfaction of their subordinates.

This result is consistent with previous studies (e.g., Sarwar et al., 2015; Eliyana, Maarif & Muzakki, 2019; Dung et. Al., 2021). This finding verifies the link between transformational leadership and job satisfaction in a new context, which is the *pesantren* in Indonesia. Previously, the relationship has been determined in non-Indonesian contexts, such as Norway (Hetland & Sandal, 2003), Cyprus (Mine, 2008), Libya (Zahari, 2012), India (Gill et al., 2010), Pakistan (Bushra et al., 2011), and Taiwan (Chi et. al., 2009). The relationship has also been empirically found in various sectors, such as public (Parry & Proctor-Thompson, 2003), education (Mine, 2008), private (Hetland & Sandal, 2003), oil (Zahari, 2012), healthcare (Nielsen et al., 2009), banking (Bushra et al., 2011), non-profit organization (Chi et. al., 2009), and restaurant (Gill et al., 2010). The finding also supports the Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory (1959), which argues that job satisfaction is determined by hygiene factors (Amah, 2009).

This result may be because transformational leaders are best at inspiring and communicating organizational vision (Houghton & Yoho, 2005). Transformational leaders are also concerned with individual- and group-level development (Wang & Howell, 2010). Another reason is that the leader in this study, the Kiyai, has implemented transformational leadership. According to Bashori (2019), the Kiyai is a role model for all *pesantren* communities (idealized influence), inspires and motivates them (inspirational motivation), stimulates ideas and thoughts to the subordinates to develop the *pesantren* (intellectual motivation), and listens to their suggestions and aspirations (individualized consideration).

5.3.4 Autocratic Leadership was Positively Related to Job Satisfaction

Autocratic leadership was expected to be positively related with job satisfaction. The analysis revealed the positive and significant effect of autocratic leadership on job satisfaction. This finding is consistent with previous studies (e.g., Ardiansyah, 2012; Putra, Permana & Fadilah, 2020) that found the significant effect of the authoritarian leadership style on employee job satisfaction. This finding extends previous evidence because it was verified in the context of *pesantren* in Indonesia. Previously, this relationship has been verified in non-*pesantren* contexts, such as the public and private school (Bhatti et al., 2012) and retail project environment (Zhang, 2018). The finding also supports the Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory (1959), which argues that job satisfaction is determined by hygiene factors (Amah, 2009).

Under autocratic leadership, subordinates, employees and team members feel that they are not given trust by the leader because there is no room for opinions and opportunity for them to develop cooperation, innovation, and career (Pratama, 2012; Robbin & Judge, 2014). All policies, procedures, and activities are determined by the

leader, and the subordinates are obliged to follow these decisions (Tumbol, Tewal & Sepang, 2014). This style of leadership assumes all obligations in making decisions, carrying out actions, directing, motivating, and supervising subordinates (Winardi, 2000). This could be the quality accepted by subordinates, which ultimately improved their job satisfaction.

5.3.5 Charismatic Leadership was Positively Related to Organizational Commitment

Charismatic leadership was expected to be positively related to organizational commitment. The analysis shows that the charismatic leadership was positively and significantly related to organizational commitment. This finding is consistent with previous findings (e.g., Huang, Cheng & Chou, 2005; Shah, et. Al., 2021) regarding the positive relationship between charismatic leadership and organizational commitment.

There are numerous possible reasons to explain the link between charismatic leadership and organizational commitment. Charismatic leaders are able to induce organizational change by creating more committed workforce (Kahtani, 2013). Charismatic leaders are also capable of delivering remarkable changes in the organization's systems (Kakavogianni, 2009). A charismatic leader is able to make their followers trust them and want to be identified with the leader (Bass, 1991; Judge & Piccolo, 2004). Charismatic leadership is also positively related to work organizational citizenship behavior and perception of job security (Wang, Zhou & Wen, 2014). More importantly, a charismatic leader is able to yield a greater impact on the organization's members (Lubatkin, Simsek, Ling, & Veiga, 2006) and the transformational process (Appelbaum, Berke, Taylor & Vazquez, 2008; Griffith-Cooper & King, 2007).

5.3.6 Transformational Leadership was Positively Related to Organizational Commitment

Transformational leadership was posited to be positively related to organizational commitment. The result confirmed that there was a positive and significant relationship between transformational leadership and organizational commitment. This finding is in line with previous studies (e.g., Park & Pierce, 2020; Eliyana, Ma'arif & Muzakki, 2019; Anderson & Sun, 2017) regarding the positive relationship between transformational leadership and organizational commitment. In one study, transformational leadership explains 48.2 percent of the variance in organizational commitment (Sahrar, Mumtaz, Batoll & Ikram, 2017). Walumbwa et al. (2005) argued that transformational leadership influences organizational commitment in various cultures. This relationship has been also recognized in the education sector and in different contexts (Pratama, Sunaryo & Yusnita, 2020; Normianti, Aslamiah & Suhaimi, 2019).

There are several possible reasons to explain the link between transformational leadership and organizational commitment. It could be that a transformation leader is able to improve employee empowerment, satisfaction, trust, self-efficiency, belief, and motivation (Thomson et al., 2016). Mathew and Gupta (2015) also indicated that the transformational leadership style drives the emotions of followers and influences them to go beyond expectations. In addition, McCaffrey and Reinoso (2017) suggested that transformational leadership motivates people to the desired change using a strong vision, inspirational guidance, and intellectual stimulation. In other words, transformational leaders are associated with new idea creation, fundamental changes in complex situations, and conflict resolution (McCaffrey & Reinoso, 2017).

5.3.7 Autocratic Leadership was Positively Related to Organizational Commitment

Autocratic leadership was posited to be positively related to organizational commitment. The result supports the hypothesis as there was a positive and significant relationship between autocratic leadership and organizational commitment. This finding is in line with Radwan (2020).

Autocratic leaders prefer to establish strict regulations and control processes and to remain in a formal and professional relationship with their subordinates. However, these leaders give their subordinates clear and short instructions on what to do and how to do it, which helps to perform tasks effectively, solve identified problems, and meet targets or deadlines when time is a critical factor (Malos, 2012). Another possible reason to explain this relationship is that the autocratic leader facilitates the subordinates by making all strategic decisions for them (Gill, 2014). This positive behavior has a significant positive effect on employees' loyalty (Sari, 2016) and organizational performance (Bhargavi & Yaseen, 2016).

5.3.8 Job Satisfaction was Positively Related to Organizational Commitment

Job satisfaction was posited to be positively related to organizational commitment. The analysis supported this hypothesis because it found a positive and significant relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The result is similar to previous studies (e.g., Akbar et al., 2016; Devi & Adnyani, 2015; Dewi & Suwandana, 2016; Pradhiptya, 2013; Shah, et al., 2021), which also revealed the positive and significant relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

The finding of this study extends the literature by verifying the relationship in the context of *pesantren* in Indonesia, particularly at Pesantren Darunnajah. Previous studies have verified the relationship in non-*pesantren* and non-Indonesian contexts, such as public and private sectors in Belgium (Caroline et al., 2015), social work organization (Jonathan et al., 2010), non-profit organizations in the United States (Hyenjin et al., 2012), and the retail (Miguel et al., 2014), health care (Redfern et al., 2002), restaurant (Kim et al., 2005), and high-technology sectors (Luthans, 2002).

A possible reason for this relationship is that job satisfaction would enable the organization to retain experienced, trained, and competent employees (Ahmad et al., 2012; Damiano & Nunzia, 2014; Elizeberth & Zakkariya 2015; Nanjundeswaraswamy, 2013; Abu, 2013; Sarlaksha & Mangadu, 2014; Chih-Cheng et al., 2015). In addition, job satisfaction enhances the motivation, job quality, and productivity of employees (Ahmad et al., 2012; Arif & Ilyas, 2013; Aaron et al., 2015). Job satisfaction also improves loyalty, confidence, and commitment to the organization (Kasim & Ghaffar, 2012), leading to higher productivity and lower negative behaviors such as absenteeism and turnover (Linda & Michael, 2014).

5.3.9 Job Satisfaction as A Mediator

This study posited that job satisfaction could mediate between leadership styles (i.e. charismatic leadership, transformational leadership, autocratic leadership) and organizational commitment. The analysis confirmed the mediating role of job satisfaction. Charismatic, transformational, and autocratic leadership styles can increase the job satisfaction of employees, ultimately enhancing their level of organizational commitment.

These findings are significant because no study has verified the role of job satisfaction as a mediator between charismatic leadership, transformational leadership, and autocratic leadership with organizational commitment. Previous studies have only validated the mediating role of job satisfaction in different relationships. For example, recent studies showed that job satisfaction mediates between transformational leadership and organizational citizenship behavior (Ahmad & Jameel, 2020) and between safety climate and turnover intention (Balogun, Andel & Smith, 2020). In addition, Chan and Ao (2019) indicated that job satisfaction mediates the effect of pay satisfaction and work family conflict on turnover intention. Riyadi and Soeling (2019) revealed that job satisfaction mediates between leadership and employee performance.

This mediation effect can be explained through the social exchange theory (SET). SET describes unspecified obligations; when one person does another a favor, there is an expectation of some future return (Blau 1964). In other words, SET argues that people will follow the norm of reciprocity, in which people respond to each other in kind, returning benefits for benefits. In this study, when employees perceive that their leader applies the charismatic (i.e. able to formulate a strategic vision which is constantly presented in an inspiring way), transformational (i.e. serve as a model for followers to achieve goals and clearly and confidently communicate vision optimistically and with enthusiasm), and autocratic leadership styles (i.e. asserts strong authority and control over subordinates and demanding unquestioned obedience from them), they are more likely to feel obligated to engage in behaviors that are beneficial to their organizations. In this case, the employees feel obligated to increase their commitment to the organization.

5.4 Implications of the Research

5.4.1 Theoretical Implications

There are three theoretical implications of this study. First, the empirical findings enrich the existing literature on factors that influence organizational commitment. Specifically, this study contributed new findings about the relationships between charismatic, transformational, and autocratic leadership with organizational commitment in the context of *pesantren* in Indonesia. Studies that examine the effects of these leadership styles simultaneously on organizational commitment are lacking. Current studies largely assess the effect of those leadership styles on organizational commitment separately and in different contexts (Malik, Javed & Hassan, 2017; Adadevoh, 2003).

Second, this study includes individual factors, specifically job satisfaction. This study contributes to the literature by providing empirical evidence about the mediating role of job satisfaction between charismatic, transformational, and transactional leadership styles with organizational commitment. Several studies have highlighted the mediating role of job satisfaction but in different relationships (Chan & Ao, 2019; Riyadi & Soeling, 2019).

Third, the empirical findings also offer additional verification about the leadership style of the Kiyai at *pesantren* in Indonesia, particularly Pesantren Darunnajah. This issue must be understood further because current findings have been inconsistent (Nugraha, 2010; Rachmawati, 2009; Prabowo, 2016; Abdullah et al, 2008; Anchok & Suroso, 2005).

5.4.2 Practical Implications

First, the findings of current study can provide useful information to *pesantren* leaders or Kiyai, particularly at Pesantren Darunnajah, Jakarta. This study proves that the art to manage a *pesantren* does not entirely follow a single style of leadership, rather the style should depend on the situation and context. The Kiyai may, at times, apply the charismatic leadership style to influence the educators at the *pesantren*. This practice is aligned with the Islamic concept of leadership, that a leader must set a good example for himself and his subordinates: “Surely in the messenger of Allah there is an excellent example for you” (Al-Ahzab: 21). This verse tells the believers that the Prophet Muhammad pbuh is the role model for believers. His way of conduct, or sunnah, must be followed by those who wish to please God and attain success in the world and the hereafter. This study proved that charismatic leadership has a positive effect, either directly or indirectly, on job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

At the same time, the Kiyai may also apply the transformational leadership style to influence the teachers at *pesantren*. This is likewise in line with the Islamic concept of consultation: “And consult with them in (certain) matters” (Al Imran: 159). Consulting others and taking their opinions reveals a level of trust and respect for them. This has many benefits, as stated in the holy Quran: And (mention, O Muhammad), when your Lord said to the angels, “Indeed, I will make upon the earth a successive authority,” they said, “Will you place upon it who causes corruption therein and sheds blood, while we declare Your praise and sanctify you ?” Allah said, “Indeed, I know that which you do not know.” (Al-Baqarah: 30). Based on these verses, the Kiyai discusses with others the goal of the *pesantren* and other aspects for the betterment of organization.

The Kiyai may also influence educators through an autocratic leadership style. This type of leadership prefers to establish strict regulation on what to do and how to do it, solve identified problems, and meet targets or deadlines. This means that the Kiyai shows his authority as Allah has shown His authority. This is a form of management from a theological conception. Allah says in the holy Quran: “I did not create jinn and humans except to worship me” (Al-Dzariyat: 56). It can then be understood that Allah at times shows His authority without any room for discussion.

The findings highlight the importance of job satisfaction on organizational commitment. Therefore, the Kiyai should be aware of the elements in the *pesantren* that can influence the organizational commitment of the educators. These elements include salary, promotion, supervision, benefits, reward, co-workers, communication, and nature of work.

5.5 Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

First, this study was cross-sectional in terms of its design. The cross-sectional design collects data in a single point of time, which makes it unable to capture any pattern of change and magnitude of causal relationships between the examined variables (Chiaburu et al., 2010). Therefore, future work can validate this study by applying the longitudinal design.

Second, this study applied the quantitative research design, where the data were collected through a survey. Future studies should consider collecting in-depth qualitative data from respondents. The use of both qualitative and quantitative methods would provide an opportunity for more in-depth and richer explanation on how leadership styles enhance job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Third, this study only applies to the sample organization and not to other organizations. The data were collected from Pesantren Darunnajah in Indonesia. Thus, future studies could replicate the proposed conceptual framework in other types of organizations in the public, private, and non-government sectors to validate the findings of this study.

5.6 Conclusion

This study provides significant understanding about the leadership style of the Kiyai at *pesantren* in Indonesia. To be precise, the Kiyai at Pesantren Darunnajah applies three types of leadership, which are charismatic, transformational, and autocratic. This study also contributes to the literature by providing empirical evidence about the relationships between charismatic, transformational, and autocratic leadership styles with job satisfaction and organizational commitment in the context of an Indonesian *pesantren*. Finally, this study contributes to the literature by providing empirical evidence about the mediating role of job satisfaction in the relationships between charismatic, transformational, and transactional leadership with organizational commitment.

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