EFFECT OF LEADERSHIP STYLE AND ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE ON WORK MOTIVATION

by

FEROJ KHAN

(Registration Number: 59797)

DISSERTATION

Presented to the Swiss School of Business and Management Geneva

In Partial Fulfillment

Of the Requirements

For the Degree

DOCTOR OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

SWISS SCHOOL OF BUSINESS AND MANAGEMENT GENEVA JANUARY, 2025

EFFECT OF LEADERSHIP STYLE AND ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE ON WORK MOTIVATION

	by
	o y
	Feroj Khan
	APPROVED BY
	laru latur
	Prof.dr.sc. Saša Petar, Ph.D., Dissertation chair
RECEIVED/APPROVED BY:	
Admissions Director	

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First and foremost, I dedicate my DBA Thesis to the Almighty, whose blessings and grace have guided me through every step of my DBA journey. This achievement would not have been possible without his divine support and blessings.

My mentor, Dr. Ramesh Kumar, has provided me with relentless support, invaluable guidance, and insightful critique, and I am really grateful to him for all of these things. This research has been significantly impacted by the guidance and insights that you have provided.

I would like to express my gratitude to the members of the Doctoral Committee for their intelligent comments and persistent encouragement throughout the process. Because of your experience, this research work has been significantly improved.

My deep sense of gratitude to the members of my family because, without their support, I would not have been able to accomplish this significant milestone of my life. Throughout this research journey, their unwavering source of support has been of great encouragement to me.

I would like to thank all of my colleagues and fellow researchers who have been my friends and collaborators. Their friendship and cooperation have provided me with the chance to share both insightful information and motivation with them. In addition, I would like to express my gratitude to the Swiss School of Business and Management, Geneva for providing the opportunity and resources that were of utmost significance in undertaking my doctoral research study.

Lastly, I would like to express my heartfelt gratitude to every individual who contributed to my DBA journey, whether directly or indirectly. Your support has been instrumental, and the significance of your contribution to the success of the present research study cannot be overstated. Thank you for being a part of this achievement.

ABSTRACT

EFFECT OF LEADERSHIP STYLE AND ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE ON WORK MOTIVATION

Feroj Khan 2025

Dissertation Chair: <Chair's Name>
Co-Chair: <If applicable. Co-Chair's Name>

This study offers an in-depth examination of the intricate relationships that affect workplace dynamics by examining the linkages among employee work motivation, organizational climate, and leadership styles. The transformational and transactional styles of leadership, which are both considered to have a significant effect on how motivated employees are, are used to analyse leadership as a crucial organizational component. In order to assess their effects on work motivation, the study also explores organizational climate factors as autonomy, innovation, organizational support, and interactive cooperation. These components work together to create a comprehensive framework for understanding how motivation works in workplace settings. The results demonstrate a significant correlation between higher levels of work motivation and transformational leadership, which is defined by vision, inspiration, and personal influence. Through setting clear expectations and rewarding goal achievement, transactional leadership, which places an emphasis on organized procedures and rewards, also has a favourable effect on motivation. It has been demonstrated that the two leadership styles have different but complimentary effects on the motivating results of employees.

The study emphasizes the value of encouraging innovation in corporate environment, where problem-solving and creative thinking are valued, as this substantially increases motivation. One important factor that influences employees' motivated behaviours is organizational support, which includes giving them tools, acknowledging them, and creating a supportive environment.

The study additionally examines at how organizational climate and leadership styles interact, showing how they have a positive effect on work motivation. This integrated perspective highlights the interconnection of supportive organizational environments and successful leadership as motivational factors. Businesses are better positioned to motivate staff and attain long-term success when leadership methods are in line with an environment that values creativity, support, independence, and collaboration. This study advances our knowledge of the mechanisms underpinning work motivation by combining these ideas. It offers organizations practical suggestions for raising worker satisfaction, engagement, and productivity. This study offers an insightful framework for academics and professionals alike, highlighting the need for comprehensive approaches that combine organizational climate improvement and leadership development in order to develop a driven and productive workforce.

Keywords: Leadership Style, Organizational Climate, Work Motivation, Regression Analysis.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

List of Tables	viii
List of Figures	xi
CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION	1-15
1.1 Relevant Background	1
1.2 Problem Statement	4
1.3 Significance of the Study	5
1.4 Research Purpose and Questions	8
1.5 Limitations and Delimitations	9
1.6 Definition of Terms	12
1.7 Thesis Outline	14
1.8 Summary	15
CHAPTER II: REVIEW OF LITERATURE	17-48
2.1 Introduction	17
2.2 Leadership Styles	17
2.3 Organizational Culture	
2.4 Work Motivation	34
2.5 Leadership Styles and Work Motivation	39
2.6 Organizational Climate and Work Motivation	
2.7 Conceptual Framework	
2.8 Summary	
CHAPTER III: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	49-58
3.1 Introduction	
3.2 Research Design	
3.3 Sampling Technique	
3.4 Data Collection and Instrumentation	
3.5 Ethical Considerations	
3.6 Procedure	
3.7 Data Analysis	
3.8 Summary	
CHAPTER IV: DATA ANALYSIS	5 0_116
4.1 Introduction	
4.2 Demographic Data	59

4.3 Frequency Distribution of Transformational Leadership Items	68
4.4 Frequency Distribution of Transactional Leadership Items	73
4.5 Frequency Distribution of Organizational Climate Items	76
4.6 Frequency Distribution of Work Motivation Items	90
4.7 Results of Correlation Analysis	98
4.8 Results of Regression Analysis	102
4.9 Impact of Organizational Climate and Work Motivation	107
4.10 Combined Effect of Leadership Styles and Organizational Climate	113
4.11 Summary	115
CHAPTER V: DISCUSSION	117-125
5.1 Introduction	117
5.2 Summary of Findings	117
5.3 Results of Hypotheses Testing	118
5.4 Summary	125
CHAPTER VI: IMPLICATIONS, SUGGESTIONS AND CONCLUSION	126-133
6.1 Introduction	126
6.2 Implications of The Study	126
6.3 Suggestions	130
6.4 Conclusion	132
Appendix A Survey Cover Letter	134
Appendix B Questionnaire	135-144
References	145-166

LIST OF TABLES

Table 4.2.1	Demographic profile on gender basis	60
Table 4.2.2	Demographic profile on marital status basis	61
Table 4.2.3	Demographic profile on age basis	62
Table 4.2.4	Demographic profile on education basis	63
Table 4.2.5	Demographic profile on designation basis	64
Table 4.2.6	Demographic profile on experience basis	65
Table 4.2.7	Demographic profile on industry type basis	66
Table 4.2.8	Demographic profile on location basis	67
Table 4.2.9	Demographic profile on mode of employment basis	68
Table 4.3.1	Frequency distribution of TM1	69
Table 4.3.2	Frequency distribution of TM2	69
Table 4.3.3	Frequency distribution of TM3	70
Table 4.3.4	Frequency distribution of TM4	71
Table 4.3.5	Frequency distribution of TM5	72
Table 4.3.6	Frequency distribution of TM6	72
Table 4.4.1	Frequency distribution of TC1	73
Table 4.4.2	Frequency distribution of TC2	74
Table 4.4.3	Frequency distribution of TC3	75
Table 4.4.4	Frequency distribution of TC4	76
Table 4.5.1	Frequency distribution of IC1	77
Table 4.5.2	Frequency distribution of IC2	77
Table 4.5.3	Frequency distribution of IC3	78
Table 4.5.4	Frequency distribution of IC4	79
Table 4.5.5	Frequency distribution of A1	80
Table 4.5.6	Frequency distribution of A2	81
Table 4.5.7	Frequency distribution of A3	82

Table 4.5.8 Frequency distribution of A4	82
Table 4.5.9 Frequency distribution of OS1	83
Table 4.5.10 Frequency distribution of OS2	84
Table 4.5.11 Frequency distribution of OS3	85
Table 4.5.12 Frequency distribution of OS4	86
Table 4.5.13 Frequency distribution of IN1	86
Table 4.5.14 Frequency distribution of IN2	87
Table 4.5.15 Frequency distribution of IN3	88
Table 4.5.16 Frequency distribution of IN4	89
Table 4.6.1 Frequency distribution of WM1	90
Table 4.6.2 Frequency distribution of WM2	91
Table 4.6.3 Frequency distribution of WM3	91
Table 4.6.4 Frequency distribution of WM4	92
Table 4.6.5 Frequency distribution of WM5	93
Table 4.6.6 Frequency distribution of WM6	93
Table 4.6.7 Frequency distribution of WM7	94
Table 4.6.8 Frequency distribution of WM8	95
Table 4.6.9 Frequency distribution of WM9	96
Table 4.6.10 Frequency distribution of WM10	96
Table 4.6.11 Frequency distribution of WM11	97
Table 4.6.12 Frequency distribution of WM12	98
Table 4.7.1 Transformational leadership and work motivation	98
Table 4.7.2 Transactional leadership and work motivation	99
Table 4.7.3 Innovation and work motivation	100
Table 4.7.4 Autonomy and work motivation	101
Table 4.7.5 Organizational support and work motivation	101
Table 4.7.6 Interactive cooperation and work motivation	102
Table 4.8.1 Regression (transformational leadership and work motivation)	102

Table 4.8.2 ANOVA table (transformational leadership and work motivation)	103
Table 4.8.3 Coefficient table (transformational leadership and work motivation)	104
Table 4.8.4 Regression (transactional leadership and work motivation)	104
Table 4.8.5 ANOVA table (transactional leadership and work motivation)	105
Table 4.8.6 Coefficient table (transformational leadership and work motivation)	106
Table 4.9.1 Regression (interactive cooperation and work motivation)	107
Table 4.9.2 ANOVA table (interactive cooperation and work motivation)	107
Table 4.9.3 Coefficient table (interactive cooperation and work motivation)	108
Table 4.9.4 Regression (organizational support and work motivation)	108
Table 4.9.5 ANOVA table (organizational support and work motivation)	109
Table 4.9.6 Coefficient table (organizational support and work motivation)	109
Table 4.9.7 Regression (autonomy and work motivation)	110
Table 4.9.8 ANOVA (autonomy and work motivation)	110
Table 4.9.9 Coefficient table (autonomy and work motivation)	111
Table 4.9.10 Regression (innovation and work innovation)	111
Table 4.9.11 ANOVA table (innovation and work innovation)	112
Table 4.9.12 Coefficient table (innovation and work innovation)	112
Table 4.10.1 Regression (leadership styles, organizational climate and work motivation)	113
Table 4.10.2 ANOVA table (leadership styles, organizational climate, and work motivation)	114
Table 4.10.3 Coefficient table (leadership styles, organizational climate, and work motivation)	114
Table 5.1 Summary of Hypotheses	118

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1 Conceptual framework	48
Figure 4.2.1 Demographic profile on gender basis	60
Figure 4.2.2 Demographic profile on marital status basis	61
Figure 4.2.3 Demographic profile on age basis	62
Figure 4.2.4 Demographic profile on education basis	63
Figure 4.2.5 Demographic profile on designation basis	64
Figure 4.2.6 Demographic profile on experience basis	65
Figure 4.2.7 Demographic profile on industry basis	66
Figure 4.2.8 Demographic profile on location basis	67
Figure 4.2.9 Demographic profile on mode of employment basis	68

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Relevant Background

The business environment of today is competitive and full of obstacles, and the majority of organisations face many challenges in order to sustain (Maamari and Majdalani, 2017). Organizations attempt to maximize their human resources in the dynamic and competitive business environment of today in order to achieve long-term success. When it comes to boosting employee performance, engagement, and general organizational productivity, work motivation is crucial. As a result, it is now vital for both scholars and practitioners to understand the elements that affect job motivation (Brown et. al., 2009).

According to Anand and Udaya-Suriyan (2010), these businesses experiencing difficulties maintaining their competitive advantage while also sustaining their financial viability. Businesses are working diligently to attract and retain competent leaders who can encourage a favourable organisational climate (OC). Emotional intelligence qualities that enable them to manage themselves and their team members more effectively are expected of these leaders. People in a positive organisation climate are driven, satisfied, hold themselves to high expectations, and are dedicated to their business and their objectives. Organisation climate focusses on how employees feel about their workplace and how they view it (Randhawa and Kaur, 2015). An effective organisational climate can significantly enhance a company's financial results by boosting sales, profitability, and return on investment (Goleman, 2017). Motivation comes from the Latin "movere", which means a boost. Motivation explains how to inspire individuals to have affection for their work so they desire to put in their best effort and use all of their skills and knowledge to meet organizational objectives. According to Gibson et al. (1996), motivation is the drive that motivates an employee to improve and influence behavior. According to Luthans (2002), motivation is a process that begins with a psychological or physiological deficiency that propels conduct or encouragement intended for trading purposes and rewards.

Innovative leaders strive to instil a similar level of alignment with the organization's vision, mission, and organizational climate. The fundamental ideas and models that the leaders

adhere to form the organization's guiding objectives and salient features. Adaptive leaders can meet the difficulties of the globalized world since they are the ones shaping the organisational climate. Innovative leaders who adapt to the shifting dynamics of their organizations can establish climate that work. Employee development is contingent upon the evolving perspectives of leaders in a world that is changing quickly.

Among the many variables influencing employee motivation at work, leadership style and organizational climate have drawn a lot of attention because of their profound effects on attitudes and behaviours. The way in which a leader interacts with and directs subordinates toward attaining shared objectives is referred to as their leadership style. According to Yukl (2010), leadership is the process of motivating and enabling subordinates to achieve shared objectives. As a result, leaders must understand what has to be done and how (Yukl, 2012). Despite having similar goals, different leadership philosophies might have distinctive approaches to motivating followers (Hater and Bass, 1988). Contextual elements including style, behavior, and trait affect how effective a leader is (Derue et al., 2011; Van Dierendonck et al., 2013).

In contrast, organizational climate refers to the culture, conventions, and values that are prevalent within a company and that affect how its employees view their workplace (Bowen and Ostroff 2004). A complicated and nuanced link exists between leadership style, corporate culture, and work motivation. Work motivation is impacted differently by various leadership philosophies, such as transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire (Zareen et. al., 2015). A sense of purpose and intrinsic drive are frequently fostered and stimulated among followers of transformational leaders, who are renowned for their inspirational and visionary approach. On the other hand, transactional leaders use rewards and penalties to drive staff members based on their performance. Laissez-faire leaders, on the other hand, frequently take a detached stance and offer little direction or encouragement, which can be harmful to staff enthusiasm (Zaleznik, 1990).

The same is true for organizational climate, which is characterized by elements like communication, teamwork, autonomy, recognition, and support (Drouin and Bourgault, 2013). Motivation and job satisfaction are likely to increase in an environment where

people feel valued, respected, and have access to resources. On the other hand, a bad work environment marked by poor communication, a lack of feedback, few possibilities for professional development, and high levels of stress can result in lower motivation and higher turnover rates (Spanos et. al., 2002). Organizations seeking to build a thriving and high-performance workplace must comprehend the interactions between leadership style, organizational climate, and work motivation. Organizations may improve employee motivation, job satisfaction, and general performance by recognizing successful leadership styles and creating a favourable organizational climate, which will ultimately provide them a competitive advantage in the market (Danish and Usman, 2010).

The common fundamentals that are upheld and the ways that organizations and their people behave in response to external factors are examples of organizational climate. Values and climate, a shift in members' attitudes and work behaviours, and easy and pertinent access to the information source are all necessary to establish a knowledge-based environment, according to De Brun (2005). This explanation demonstrates how crucial organizational climate is to motivate employees to share their knowledge. According to Marsick and Watkins (1990), organizational climate can enhance performance in addition to promoting information sharing.

According to Litwin and Stringer (1961), distinct leadership philosophies produce distinct environments. He came to the conclusion that employees' perceptions of the work environment and level of satisfaction are inevitably influenced in positive and negative ways by task orientation, people orientation, and bureaucratic leadership styles, respectively.

Because there is no credible evidence that one managerial style is more effective than another, Fleishman and Peters (1962) and Korman (1966) discovered that depending just on one style is inefficient.

This study aims to investigate the connection between organizational climate, work motivation, and leadership style. We intend to add to the body of knowledge by reviewing the existing literature, conducting surveys, and analysing empirical data. This will give

organizational leaders, human resource professionals, and researchers helpful insights for maximizing work motivation in their particular contexts (Masri and Jaaron, 2017). Organizations can implement targeted interventions and techniques that encourage a good leadership style and establish a supportive organizational climate, resulting in higher levels of work motivation among employees, by understanding the complex dynamics at play. In the end, these initiatives have the potential to promote organizational performance, worker wellbeing, and general workplace happiness in a corporate environment that is becoming more and more competitive (Grawitch et. al., 2006).

1.2 Problem Statement

Work motivation has recently become a crucial factor in determining an organization's performance in the highly competitive rapidly evolving Indian private sector. Businesses are under more and more pressure to have a motivated workforce that can promote innovation, productivity, and market readiness. Two important elements affecting work motivation are leadership style and organizational climate, but little is known about how they interact within the distinct socioeconomic and cultural context of the Indian private sector.

An organization's climate, which includes its beliefs, conventions, attitudes, and practices, is referred to as the organizational climate. On the other hand, work motivation describes the internal and external variables that encourage individuals to partake in work-related activities and achieve their objectives. Employees that have a sense of connection to the company are more productive. Employees are more likely to experience a strong feeling of attachment and loyalty to the company when they feel appreciated, respected, and included. This sense of belonging can increase motivation at work by fostering a welcoming environment where people feel inspired to put out their best efforts (Ryan et. al., 2020). Leadership is the primary focus of the competitive business world of nowadays. Different leadership philosophies have been used to elevate our society throughout the years, yet despite these efforts and investments in leadership development, leadership skills are declining. Leaders establish powerful organizational climate that yield consistent achievement. The climate and leadership philosophies that are prevalent in the workplace

are more likely to have an impact on organizational performance. In today's competitive marketplace, motivating employees and encouraging their commitment to the organization is the most prevalent responsibility. It is crucial to ascertain how the complementary approaches to leadership affect employees' motivation and drive.

Preliminary literature review indicated the dearth of quality research undertaken in the area of leadership style and organizational climate and its association with various aspects of work motivation. The domain of work motivation is comparatively new and still evolving. Work places have evolved over last decade, as a result now employees have chance to contribute remotely instead of physically being at work place. During preliminary literature review, it was also noticed that the most of the researches have been undertaken by the researches of developed economy. The findings of these researches may lack generalizations and universal acceptance. The proposed research study is intended to investigate how leadership style and organizational climate are associated with work motivation.

By examining how organizational climate and leadership styles affect work motivation in the Indian private sector, this study aims to fill in gaps in the existing knowledge. By achieving this, the study will offer valuable insights for promoting a motivated workforce, improving organizational effectiveness, and preserving a competitive advantage in a changing market.

1.3 Significance of the Study

Workplace motivation is essential for determining employee productivity, performance, and overall job satisfaction. Numerous studies have looked into different aspects of what influences how motivated people are at work, such as intrinsic and extrinsic motivators, organizational climate, leadership style, and the importance of individual differences. When employees feel motivated, they are more likely to be devoted, engaged, and focused at work (Ryan et. Al., 2020). Because motivated people are more inclined to exert the effort necessary to accomplish their goals and fulfil deadlines, productivity levels increase as a result. In general, motivated employees report higher levels of job satisfaction. Their profession gives them a sense of pleasure and success, which enhances their general

wellbeing. This in turn lowers turnover rates and promotes a productive workplace. Positive thinking and a willingness to go above and beyond the call of duty are fostered by motivation. Employees are more inclined to think creatively, look for new solutions, and offer original ideas when they are driven. This encourages development and keeps businesses competitive (Cummings et. al., 1997).

Since human resources are one of the most crucial elements of businesses that seek unique identities apart from competition, which is crucial in the sector, the idea of leadership is becoming a considerably more vital issue than it was in the past. Emotions, thoughts, attitudes, behaviours, and task performance are all influenced by leaders (Choi et al., 2020). Organizations must acknowledge the significance of leadership development in the current competitive, fast-paced business sector. Effective leadership techniques will enable businesses to thrive in a demanding and competitive setting. To meet the difficulties of a changing workforce and an expanding global market, organizations must give their leaders the demanding skills they need. To accomplish their objectives, the leader must overcome several typical challenges. The foundation of a high-performing organization is its leadership. Companies with outstanding leadership will create a beneficial shift across businesses. Effective leadership and a positive organisational climate are the first steps in creating a high-performing organization.

Effective leadership and a conducive organizational climate play critical roles in influencing employee work motivation. Leadership style determines how goals are communicated, tasks are executed, and teams are inspired, while the organizational climate reflects the shared perceptions of policies, practices, and work environment within an organization. Leadership is a method of influence that motivates employees to achieve predefined goals. Organizations invest much on Leadership Development Programs, demonstrating the relevance of the topic (Robbins et al., 2016). Despite substantial research, there remains a gap in understanding the interplay between these factors and their combined impact on employee motivation across different organizational settings. The findings of the study will certainly be useful for companies to understand the importance of work motivation and how it is influencing productivity and company's growth.

Many stakeholders will find valuable information in the study on how the organizational climate and leadership style affect employee motivation at work.

1. For Organizations:

Findings will enable businesses to implement strategies that promote output and satisfaction at work by offering insights into how leadership philosophies affect staff motivation.

It further draws attention to how crucial organizational climate is to establishing a motivating and encouraging work environment. Results will assist companies in achieving strategic goals by coordinating leadership techniques with a desirable workplace climate.

2. For Managers and Leaders:

Offers advice on how leaders should modify their approaches (transformational, transactional, etc.) to meet the demands of their teams and ensure the best possible motivation and output.

Further helps them to understand how their actions and choices impact the climate of the company and, in turn, employee engagement.

3. For the development of human resources:

It educates HR professionals on the importance of leadership and the workplace climate in attracting and keeping talent. Results also provide the groundwork for creating training courses designed to increase the efficacy of leaders and promote a healthy work environment.

4. For Employees:

The findings will improve knowledge of the elements influencing their motivation, empowering employees to search for environments which satisfy their demands for internal as well as external motivation.

5. For academic and research purposes:

By analysing the relationship between motivation, organizational climate, and leadership style, the findings address the gaps in the body of existing literature. Further, offers a foundation for additional investigation on associated workplace psychology and organizational behavior.

In the end, the study is important because it offers a comprehensive viewpoint on enhancing work motivation through the alignment of organizational climate and leadership tactics, which promotes both employee well-being and overall organizational success.

1.4 Research Purpose and Questions

A precise goal or purpose of a research study is referred to as a research objective. It describes what the researcher hopes to learn or look into through the study. Research objectives give the researcher focus and direction, directing their work and influencing the research design, technique, data gathering, and analysis. The scope and focus of the study are often defined by research objectives, which typically follow from a research question or issue statement. They may entail examining correlations, testing hypotheses, documenting phenomena, or creating new theories (Avison, et. al., 1999). They are created to target particular facets of the study issue. The proposed research study is intended to investigate how Work motivation is influenced by leadership style and organisation climate. More specifically, the present study is intended to achieve following research objective;

- To examine the impact of leadership style on work motivation
- To examine the impact of organisation climate on work motivation.
- To investigate the combined effect of leadership style and organisational climate on work motivation

In today's competitive business environment, understanding the elements that enhance or hinder motivation is vital for leaders and organizations. Among the various factors that impact work motivation, leadership style and organizational climate stand out as particularly significant. This research study aims to explore the interplay between leadership style, organizational climate, and work motivation. Specifically, it seeks to answer three pivotal questions:

The present research study is intended to answer following research questions;

- How does leadership style affect work motivation in an organisation?
- How does organizational climate affect work motivation?
- What is the combined effect of leadership style and organizational climate on work motivation?

By addressing these questions, this study contributes to a deeper understanding of the dynamics that influence employee motivation, offering valuable insights for improving workplace practices and organizational outcomes.

1.5 Limitations and Delimitations

Limitations

1. Geographical Constraints

The results of the study may not be as applicable to other areas because it was only carried out in the state of Maharashtra. States and nations can differ greatly in organizational procedures, cultural norms, leadership styles and can have different organizational setting. As a result, the results may not fairly reflect the dynamics of work motivation, organizational climate, and leadership style in various geographical situations and therefore may not be considered as generalizable.

2. Focused on Private Sector

The study is limited to the private sector; non-profits and public sector enterprises are not included. Because different sectors have different organizational goals, governance, and resource distribution, work motivation, leadership styles, and organizational climates frequently differ dramatically. The insights' wider applicability to various organizational contexts may be limited by this sectoral focus.

3. Insufficient Diversity in the Workplace Environment

Certain prevalent characteristics may be observed within Maharashtra's private sector as a result of regional labour practices, industry norms, and economic conditions. Because of these common characteristics, the organizational climate may become more uniform, which could lessen the diversity required to thoroughly examine wider relationships.

4. Possibility of Sampling Bias

The study can unintentionally ignore a variety of industries or work settings if the sample companies in Maharashtra's private sector are focused in particular sectors (hospitality, manufacturing, banking, IT). The findings' applicability to different forms of private-sector business organizations may be restricted because of this particular emphasis.

5. Reliance on cross-sectional research

The use of a cross-sectional research approach, which gathers data at a particular point in time, is one of its main drawbacks. Although it does not establish cause-and-effect links, this approach enables the examination of relationships between job motivation, organizational climate, and leadership style. Therefore, even if the study can find correlations between these variables, it is unable to ascertain whether organizational climate and leadership style directly affect changes in work motivation or whether there are other neglected factors at work.

Future research that addresses these limitations through mixed-method techniques or longitudinal studies can offer a more thorough knowledge of the long-term effects of organizational climate and leadership style on job motivation.

Delimitations

1. Focused Scope

The study is purposely confined to exploring the relationship of leadership styles, organizational climate, and work motivation. Excluded are elements that also affect employee motivation, such as pay, job design, advancements in technology, and external economic conditions. This limited scope keeps the research feasible and precise while enabling a closer examination of the specified variables. The study can provide more accurate insights by isolating these components, avoiding being overwhelmed by the intricate elements of workplace motivation.

2. Sector specification

The study concentrates solely on the private sector in India, which was specifically chosen because of its dynamic nature, rapid growth, and intense competition. Nonprofits,

government agencies, and international corporations have been excluded. This restriction ensures applicability to the unique socioeconomic and cultural context of the Indian private sector, where organizational climates and leadership styles may vary considerably compared to those in different settings. The findings therefore seek to offer practical advice for private organizations addressing the specific challenges of this industry.

3. Cross-sectional approach

In order to gather and analyse data at a single point in time, a cross-sectional research design was chosen. Given the study's time and resource limitations, this method is pragmatic, but it inevitably makes it more difficult to track changes over time or prove causation. For instance, changes in organizational cultures or leadership styles brought on by external forces (such as financial crises) are not examined. Therefore, rather than showing long-term trends, the results offer an overview of the dynamics as they exist right now.

4. Quantitative Emphasis

The study uses a quantitative approach, analysing the relationships between work motivation, organizational climate, and leadership styles using quantifiable factors and statistical methods. In order to keep the emphasis on measurable results, qualitative techniques like case studies and interviews are not included. This method may overlook sensitive insights about employee experiences, attitudes, and deeper cultural or emotional variables that qualitative data may uncover, even while it guarantees neutrality and permits generalizations.

5. Targeted Outcomes

Understanding work motivation is the main goal of the study. It does not address broader organizational outcomes like long-term organizational success, career advancement, staff retention, or innovation. By focusing just on work motivation, the study seeks to offer practical insights on this particular topic while maintaining depth and clarity. This constraint, however, also means that any secondary effects or indirect advantages of motivation on other organizational elements have not been explored.

1.6 Definition of Key Terms

Leadership

Leadership theories are revisited, with novel perspectives and elements incorporated at every attempt, generating new ideas. Many scholars have previously defined the concept of leadership, but no definition has been agreed upon by researchers (Asrar-ul-haq and Anwar, 2018).

According to Aristotle's philosophy "Leadership is more than a skill, more than the knowledge of theories, and more than analytical faculties. It is the ability to act purposively and ethically as the situation requires on the basis of the knowledge of universals, experience, perception, and intuition. It is about understanding the world in a richer and broader sense, neither with cold objectivity nor with solipsistic subjectivity" (Kodish, 2006).

According to Yukl (2005), "Leadership is a process of interaction between leaders and subordinates where a leader attempts to influence the behavior of his or her subordinates to accomplish organizational goals."

According to Cole (2005), leadership is a dynamic process in which one person can influence others to voluntarily contribute to the achievement of the goals; this indicates that the fundamental purpose of leadership is to assist a group or an organization in achieving sustainable development and growth.

Antonakis et al., (2003) stated leadership "as the nature of the influencing process and its resultant outcomes that occur between a 27 leader and followers and how this influencing process is explained by the leader's dispositional characteristics, and behaviours, follows perceptions and attributions of the leader, and context in which influencing process occurs."

According to Schermerhorn et al., (2000), "Leadership is a special case of interpersonal influence that gets an individual or group to do what the leader or manager wants to be done." House et al., (1999) have defined leadership "as the ability of an individual to

influence, motivate, and enable others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of the organization." It can be concluded from these definitions that leadership is a process in which a leader influences his followers to achieve organizational objectives and goals.

To develop, create, and ensure the effective coordination of individual capabilities and efforts within a business, the leadership must adopt an organized and analytical approach. Establishing, outlining, and sharing an organization's desired vision might help achieve this. This encourages individuals to work toward a single organizational vision and integrates material and human resources.

Organizational Climate

According to Litwin and Stringer (1968), "Organizational climate is a set of measurable properties of the work environment, perceived directly or indirectly by people who live and work in this environment and assumed to influence their motivation and behaviour" (p.1).

According to Momeni (2009), organizational climate can also be viewed as a group of characteristics that define an organisation, distinguish it from others and determine how its members behave. Organizational climate refers to the culture, conventions, and values that are prevalent within a company and that affect how its employees view their workplace (Bowen et. al., 2004). Therefore, organizational climate refers to the attitude that employees have towards the organisation and how they perceive it (Momeni, 2009). Researchers believe that employees' views and opinions that contribute to organizational climate are significantly influenced by the leader's behaviour and attitude as well as the organization's management style. The emotions, perceptions, and beliefs that employees share in the workplace are commonly referred to as the organisational climate. These include confidence and loyalty (Hamidianpour et al., 2015), trust (Christie et al., 2015), and a sense of belonging to an organisation.

Work Motivation

According to Greenberg and Baron (2003) work motivation is "the set of processes that arouse, direct and maintain human behavior towards attaining some goal". Kreitner and Kinicki (1995) have regarded work motivation as "the psychological process that gives behavior, purpose and direction, a predisposition to behave in a purposive manner to achieve specific unmet needs, an unsatisfied needs and the will to achieve, respectively".

"Motivation is a process which begins with a physiological or psychological need or deficiency which triggers behavior or drive that is aimed at a goal or incentive" Luthans et al. (2010).

According to Robbins et al. (2013) "Work motivation is the process that accounts for an individual's intensity, direction, and persistence of effort toward attaining a goal."

Pinder (2014) defined "Work motivation is a set of energetic forces that originate both within and beyond an individual's being, to initiate work-related behavior and to determine its form, direction, intensity, and duration."

According to Steers et al. (2004) "Motivation is defined as the psychological forces within a person that determine the level of effort and persistence a person exerts at work."

1.7 Thesis outline

The thesis has been organized into six different chapters; introduction, literature review and conceptual framework, research methodology, data analysis and interpretation, discussion, suggestions, implications and conclusion. Each chapter's information is presented below:

Chapter 1: Introduction - It includes a quick overview of the study. The relevant background of Indian private sector, problem statement, research questions, research objectives, study scope, limitations and delimitations and definitions of key terms used in the study.

Chapter 2: Review of Literature - The Review of Literature is introduced at the beginning of the chapter. The literature review chapter presents a clear identification of gaps present in the existing literature by highlighting the studies conducted so far. It includes the proposed hypotheses of the study.

Chapter 3: Research Methodology- This chapter covers the research approach used in the present study. It includes research design, sampling design, data collection techniques, measurement tools and ethical considerations in the present study. This chapter also briefly describes about the data analysis used in the study.

Chapter 4: Data Analysis - This chapter explains about the data analysis, tools and techniques used in the form of tables, graphs etc. It further reflects the results of hypotheses testing in the form of form accepting or rejecting the proposed hypotheses.

Chapter 5: Discussion - This chapter deals with the summary of data analysis and comparison of the results of the present study with existing studies.

Chapter 6: Implications, Suggestions and Conclusion - The last chapter ends with the suggestions for future research, theoretical and managerial implications of the results of the present study. In the end it summaries the whole research in the form of conclusion.

1.8 Summary

In the present economic landscape, which is characterized by intense competition and continuous challenges firms must optimize their workforce in order to succeed over the long term. Work motivation, which is strongly impacted by organizational climate and leadership style, is a key component in boosting employee performance and organizational productivity. While transactional leadership relies on rewards and penalties, transformational leadership promotes intrinsic motivation. Employee engagement, motivation, and job satisfaction are all impacted by the organizational climate, which includes components like interaction, collaboration, and appreciation. According to research, an organization's culture and climate are shaped by its leadership style, and this has an impact on employees' motivation at work. A positive organizational climate where

employees feel appreciated, satisfied and in line with the company's vision can be encouraged by leaders that possess emotional intelligence and flexibility. Productivity, job happiness, and organizational success are all enhanced through an effective organizational climate with supportive leadership. The study intends to offer practical insights for developing motivated workforces and high-performing companies by examining the relationships among motivation, organizational climate, and leadership. These insights are particularly pertinent considering the competitiveness and quickly evolving nature of the Indian private sector.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

Any research project needs to include a literature review, which offers a thorough examination of the body of literature, theories, and research findings pertaining to the subject of the investigation. The literature review in this study examines important ideas related to organizational climate, leadership styles, and how these factors affect employee motivation at work. Along with the importance of organizational elements like autonomy, support, innovation, and interactive cooperation, a great deal of emphasis is placed on comprehending how transformational and transactional leadership styles affect work motivation. The study summarizes earlier studies and provides insights into how these factors combine to influence employee motivation at work. This section seeks to highlight knowledge gaps and support the need for additional research into the connections among organizational environment, employee motivation, and leadership by examining pertinent theories, empirical studies, and established models. In conclusion, this review offers the conceptual framework required to direct the empirical inquiry and advance knowledge of how businesses might improve performance and motivate employees.

2.2 Leadership Styles

Over time, the study of leadership has witnessed substantial transformations. Zaccaro (2007) highlights two fundamental concepts that have influenced leadership theory, establishing the origins to Galton's Hereditary Genius (1869) (McCleskey, 2014). According to the first theory, leadership is a distinctive ability possessed by remarkable people, whose choices have the power to significantly affect the evolution of history (Zaccaro, 2007, p. 7). According to the second thought, which is referred to as the "Great Man" theory, effective leadership traits are instinctive and are inherited from one's genetic makeup (Zaccaro, 2007, p. 7). Additionally, leadership is recognised as a social interaction process in which leaders have a major impact on the behaviours of their followers and, in turn, their performance (Humphrey, 2002; Pirola-Merlo et al., 2002; McCleskey, 2014).

In simple terms, leadership is defined as motivating a bunch of individuals to collaborate toward a shared objective (Kumar, 2018). The ongoing practice of leadership entails inspiring and persuading a group of people to achieve collective objectives (Lin et. al., 2018). It consists of a special set of rules designed to motivate team members, capitalize on their propensity for comparable goal-sharing behavior, and facilitate their cooperation in reaching those objectives (Jabbaret. al., 2019). Effective or what might be called agile leaders have focused more on energizing their followers, serving as mentors or role models, and interacting with others rather than using their legal and discretionary authorities. This change in perspective was the result of a specific leadership quality that will permeate the company's reputation and foster reliability as well as sincerity (Purwanto, 2020). The act of encouraging a group of people to complete the task is known as leadership (Brooks and Normore, 2005).

Becoming a leader means taking action rather than merely awaiting things to occur. Few individuals possess the ability to lead because it requires persistence to guide a team or an organisation. According to Omolayo (2000), leadership is a social influence process in which the leader enlists the willing cooperation of the followers in order to accomplish the objectives of the organisation. Furthermore, according to Humphrey (2002), leadership is an emotional process in which leaders identify, manage, and inspire feelings in their subordinates. Leadership is "the art of persuading people to work towards a common goal," according to Goleman (1998) (p. 12). Accordingly, the ability to inspire, convince, and encourage people to contribute to the effectiveness and success of the organisation is an attribute of leadership (Anand and Udaya-Suriyan, 2010). Furthermore, according to Humphrey (2002), leadership is an emotional process in which leaders identify, manage, and inspire feelings in their subordinates. Leadership is "the art of persuading people to work towards a common goal," according to Goleman (1998) (p. 12). Accordingly, the ability to inspire, convince, and encourage people to contribute to the effectiveness and success of the organisation is an attribute of leadership (Anand and Udaya-Suriyan, 2010). Transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership are the three primary types of leadership styles, according to Bass and Avolio (1994). Results at the individual and organizational levels are directly impacted by these leadership philosophies. The three leadership styles are explained as follows:

Transformational Leadership Style

Burns was the first to propose the idea of a transformational leadership style (1978). One or more people engaging with others in a way that elevates followers and leaders to a higher level of morality, performance, and motivation is known as transformational leadership. According to Northhouse (2001), it is the process by which a leader shapes and changes their followers. It refers to the leadership style that discovers followers' current or present spirit by establishing programs for active participation within the company and channeling that spirit and energy toward accomplishing the aims and objectives of the firm. Followers are inspired to go above and beyond expectations, use creative problem-solving techniques, and adopt novel approaches in their work (Mumford et al., 2002).

Transactional Leadership Style

Transactional leadership is described by Bass (1985; 1990; 1990b) as "an exchange relationship between leader and follower." Through extrinsic rewards, transactional leaders strive to motivate their people (Bass, 1990). It describes how a leader uses incentives, promises, and compliments to inspire their followers while defining roles for particular activities and projects, performance standards, and goals that must be achieved. A leader reassures their followers of pre-established criteria and norms. Active management and passive management are the two other categories into which management by exception belongs. Transactional leaders think that the organization's systems of rewards, punishments, and task completion may influence, motivate, and encourage followers to achieve both organizational and personal goals.

Laissez- Faire Leadership Style

Two active leadership philosophies that are contrasted with the third, known as laissez-faire leadership, are transformational and transactional leadership (Bass, 1990 and Deluga, 1990). These leaders usually remain out of the decision-making. Laissez-faire leadership, according to Deluga (1990), is characterized by an extremely passive leader who is reluctant to exert control over their subordinates' significant freedom, make decisions, or

provide instructions. Participation, decision-making, rewarding and criticizing followers, and supervising duties are all avoided by these leaders.

The differentiation between transactional and transformational leadership styles was first introduced by Burns (1978). According to Burns (1978, p. 20), transformational leaders inspire both followers and themselves to achieve higher standards of integrity and motivation, whereas transactional leaders motivate followers by appealing to their selfinterest. This was further developed by Bass (1985), who defined transactional leadership as the exchange of rewards for compliance, while transformational leaders promote loyalty, trust, and appreciation, inspiring followers to go above and beyond (Vrba, 2007). Because it frequently leads to increased employee happiness, trust, and commitment, transformational leadership is favoured in organisations over transactional leadership (Palmer et al., 2001; Vrba, 2007; Cavazotte et al., 2012). As a result, a large number of academics believe that transformative leadership improves organisational performance. More related to visionary leadership, transformational leadership involves encouraging staff members to go above and beyond established objectives (Hater and Bass, 1988, Doucet et al., 2015). Typically, a transformational leader guides their team members by giving them a vision. He is more of a charismatic leader who uses his charisma and vision to try to motivate others. Burns first proposed the idea of transformational leadership in 1978. He found that by motivating their staff, transformational leaders change their attitudes and beliefs. They inspire their staff to accomplish certain objectives by giving them a clear vision. According to Tajasom et al. (2015) and Rouche et al. (1989), transformational leaders work with and through their followers to achieve the

When a leader is more focused on achieving objectives, transactional leadership can be effective. Therefore, a transactional leader employs a carrot-and-stick strategy to accomplish those objectives (Bass, 1997). When employees complete their jobs, they get rewards. Transactional executives are more focused on employees' performance and task accomplishment. To attain the intended results, they utilize both positive and negative reinforcements. Employees of transactional leaders are not expected to perform tasks in

organization's objective and goals.

novel ways (Hartog and Van Muijen, 1997). Smith at al. (2016) state that transactional leadership has been applied as a corrective strategy and consists of two components: management by exception (passive and active) and dependent reward.

Of the many different leadership philosophies, the trait, behavioural, and contingency are just a few. The major objective of leaders, according to House's (1996) path-goal theory, is to successfully assist deputies in achieving their objectives by giving them the assistance they need to accomplish their personal goals (Silverthorne, 2001). According to the path-goal theory, leadership styles can be divided into four categories: directive, supportive, participatory, and achievement-oriented.

Using the path-goal approach, leaders may recognise, assess, address, and effectively handle contextual problems brought on by either a negative external source or a follower attribute (Zabihi and Hashemzehi, 2012). According to this theory, a leader should act in a manner that is suitable for their members for achieving goals in the current situation and clear the path for future success to enhance the satisfaction. Managers must help their team members reach their objectives. In order to ensure that individual goals are in line with organizational goals, leaders must also offer the appropriate guidance and encouragement. To put it another way, this approach calls for leaders to clarify the leaders can clear a way for followers, boost rewards, and get rid of objective impediments (Thuijsman, 2015). Because it expedites the motion, play, and active work of any organization, leadership plays a crucial function in that organization (Keegan et. al., 2004). Creating leaders who can sway opinions and engage positively with people can help businesses prosper (Hadi and Chaudhary, 2018). Leaders select effective leadership philosophies to promote commitment to and enthusiasm for their work (Bjugstad et al., 2006). To deal with the pressures of the corporate environment, leaders modify their strategies and plans (Korkmaz, 2007). As a result, by developing agility, leaders can speed up organizational activities which leads to, leaders trying to persuade the workforce to support the organization's objectives (Yu et al., 2018).

Considering changes are happening more often than ever in the wider global sense, new methods of working must be searched out (Blarr, 2012). The essential strength of modern

businesses is hence organizational strategic flexibility or can say the ability to deal with all kinds of situations (O'Reilly and Chatman, 2020). Moreover, dexterity might improve one's capacity to comprehend and respond to change under challenging circumstances. In high power distance cultures, leadership and employees hold one another in lower regard, claims Jogulu (2010). So, those cultures need leaders who are patient, respectful of the elderly, diplomatic, and capable of setting norms that are acceptable to all. Moreover, cultures with a greater power disparity tend to embrace authoritarian leadership (Hofstede, 1980). According to Hofstede and Hofstede (2005), in high "power distance" countries like Asia, subordinates are often expected to follow instructions and advice given by powerful people. As a result, in Asia, people appreciate and support leaders who display status, authority, power, and domination (Jogulu, 2010).

According to Hofstede and Hofstede (2005), people working in cultures with a small power distance pattern are followed, thinking that duties and obligations can vary depending on an individual's ability and success. Simply put, a junior may not always be a junior, but due to this ability and talent, they could one day advance to the position of supervisor. Gibson (1995) asserts that leadership typically mimics nations with a shared value system and contrasts in nations with diverse value orientations. Simply put, nations with shared ideals will create unique leadership styles. Dickson et. al., (2003) research also shows that transformative leadership is typically commanding in high power distance situations. Yet, in low power distance cultures, leaders appear to act more collaborative. Leaders have a significant impact on organisational performance by influencing employees' attitudes and behaviours (Lee et al., 2018), both at the group and individual levels (Auh et al., 2014), as modern organisations become progressively more team-based. By focussing on organisational problems rather than interpersonal motives, leaders can encourage constructive behaviour and knowledge exchange, particularly with employees having long tenure with their organization (Liu et al., 2020). The majority of literature characterised leaders using the whole spectrum of leadership models, which include transactional, transformational, and laissez-faire leadership (Avolio and Bass, 2001). Four aspects of the transformational leadership style are described by Bass and Avolio (1993):

intellectual stimulation, individual consideration, inspiring motivation, and idealised influence. Through charisma and communication, this leadership style shares visions about the aims of the organisation, builds trust and emotions, and encourages employees to be creative, thoughtful, and impartial. The transactional leadership style, on the other hand, takes a more traditional approach to management, explicitly defining the responsibilities of subordinates, rewarding them when they accomplish goals, and reprimanding them when they don't. When the market is constant and there is no requirement to adapt to a more volatile environment, this leadership style is more effective. Leaders that adopt a laissez-faire approach make a few decisions and let their employees select whatever responses they think are optimal (Oubrich et al., 2021).

Dickson et al. (2003), cultures that exhibit elevated levels of uncertainty avoidance are more likely to delegate and are less accessible than those with lower concentrations of uncertainty avoidance. Choices for leaders who exhibit particular traits or a group of traits tend to vary between cultures. Alves et al. (2006), quoted that individuals in collectivistic societies possess higher degrees of loyalty and a propensity to identify with a leader's objectives. Contrarily, in individualistic societies, people are supposed to be self-driven and pursue their personal goals Hence, the impact of culture may account for the diversity in leadership style.

In management and various studies, the subject of leadership style is highly regarded. opinion Leadership of Nanjundeswaraswamy and styles, in the Swamy (2014), are deliberately chosen behavioural patterns adopted to impact worker's engagement and work output, in contrast to Mwesigwa et. al., (2020) view that they are the enduring and important behavioural patterns that personify a leader. This shows how a leader gives command to his followers and motivates them to get the established objectives fulfilled. As per Nam and Park (2019), a leader's style is the method in which they communicate with their people around. Only the one who is capable of taking responsibility in every given situation, while failure or setback can be called as leader (Hildenbrand et al., 2018).

For a leader, learning from a job that is profitable and useful, and accepting anything that doesn't match that description and expectation, and working on it to fix it as soon as possible is an obligation (Gupta and Singh, 2012). Because they play such a big role in achieving organizational performance, organizations are placing a lot of focus on the impact of leadership styles (Yahaya and Ebrahim., 2016). A powerful leadership style means that a person successfully gains control over his or her own behavior, as described by Telukdarie (2018). For the interest of the organization, a leader must instinctively show a desire and willingness to correct individuals.

According to a group of researchers (Du et al., 2013; Nanjundeswaraswamy and Swamy 2014), a leader's main duty is to develop and maintain amicable and positive relationships with organizational stakeholders (clients, employees, and business partners) in order to achieve the desired levels of inspiration, dedication, and stability, which in turn creates value and encourages cultural transformation. Gupta and Singh (2012) discussed how various leadership philosophies differ morally. The normative stakeholder approach is the first strategy. It argues that the duties of a responsible leader are fundamentally based on morality and charity (Arshad et al., 2022).

Leaders need to find a balance that satisfies the needs of all parties while upholding their integrity. The financial and strategic elements are discussed in the second strategy (Francis et. al., 2019). It suggests that a leader must put the company's exponential growth in wealth and earnings first while still treating morality and ethics with the proper regard.

Altruistic intentions are essential for someone who wants to lead responsibly (Nging and Yazdanifard 2015; Hildenbrand et al., 2018). Dhamija and Bag (2020) looked at the positive relationship between leadership, organizational commitment, and organizational performance. The results of past studies (Skogstad, 2007; Antonakis et al., 2003) showed that an imbalance in organizational work might occasionally result from a disconnect tween leadership styles and stakeholder expectations. By emphasizing servant leadership, transformational leadership, and authentic leadership, another study emphasized the advantages of acting as an ethical leader (Van Eeden et al., 2008; Arshad et al., 2022; Yahaya and Ebrahim, 2016).

Employees shouldn't support personnel to adhere to laissez-faire leadership ideologies in order to handle the problems brought on by globalization and privatization (Nging and Yazdanifard 2015; Hildenbrand et al., 2018). Despite an individual's shifting demographics, transformational leadership is helpful to accomplishing set objectives (Judge and Piccolo, 2004; Hildenbrand et al., 2018). A leader must adopt a participative leadership style whenever individuals require psychological encouragement and emotional support to accomplish their jobs or even when individuals feel that they have no ability to execute their respective duties. Styles of leadership differ according to circumstances and individual behaviors (Yahaya and Ebrahim, 2016). By motivating the workforce to adopt transformative, charismatic, and visionary leadership, labour management tactics can be transformed into organizational performance (Saeed et al., 2014; Novak et al., 2020). Interpersonal skills are identified as having a positive link with participative and authoritative styles (Bass et al., 2003; Bag et al., 2021).

Three key leadership styles, authoritative, democratic, and laissez faire identified by Lewin et al. (1939) in their widely recognized model. Leaders that adopt an authoritarian style normally make choices without involving or conversing with their subordinates. Most of the time, they delegate tasks to their employees and provide them with directions for finishing them without asking them for input or suggestions (Kumar, 2018). Here, the emphasis is on maintaining strong control over the workforce to adhere to the corporate legislative framework and inner rules and regulations. On the other hand, a democratic leadership approach includes engaging members in the discussion and planning process so that they can provide proposals and carry out coordinated group duties. This leadership style values feedback from employees and takes their needs and wants into consideration while making important decisions. Leaders prefer to work in a team and with a team in democratic style of leadership (Kumar, 2018). Surprisingly, leaders working with a laissez faire style avoid accepting accountability, setting policy, and taking decisions but are ready to criticize failure, which inevitably leads to poor organizational and societal behavior (Samad, 2015). Khanin (2007), looking at styles of leadership from a different angle, divides them into two primary categories: transformative and transactional.

While transactional leadership allows leaders to motivate members through both positive reinforcement and negative reinforcement, transformational leadership helps followers and other stakeholders change their perspectives and identities. Positive and individualized effects are produced by transformative leaders through their words of encouragement and admiration.

They pay great attention to moral qualities, maintain a positive work atmosphere, and frequently show confidence in subordinates.

They promote being open-minded, working for the greater good, and putting aside personal interests in order to advance organizational objectives (Samad, 2015; Nugroho et al., 2020). Innovative leadership fosters employee attitudes, optimism, perspectives, drive, and consistency with goals of the organization (Al-Awlaqi et al., 2021).

Cognitive functioning, unit confidence, platoon spirit, and excitement are strongly supported when leaders are able to motivate and inspire employees to achieve commercial aspirations (Samad, 2015). More specifically, leaders who employ transformational leadership consistently inspire their workforce to improve organizational performance by exhibiting confidence, belief, and compassion. Due to the fact that gifted, creative, and resourceful members are better suited to learn new skills, acclimatize, and prevent problems in the plant, team skill and dexterity are also transformative leaders (Reid, 2018). Team members are inspired to display gratitude, fidelity, trust, and obedience by actively participating and forming inspirational connections with their leaders while performing tasks that have been assigned to them. Transforming leadership style is growing more and more and has become crucial, to foster employees' independence and employee satisfaction in challenging tasks and hectic settings.

The interchange between those in authority and those who follow is encouraged by a transactional leadership style. Leaders reward or penalize their team members whenever a task is finished, and in compensation, they demand their allegiance, commitment, and high production standards (Suprapti et al., 2020). The intellect of transaction leaders is reduced because they focus less on monitoring employees' productivity in favour of crucial strategy

selection and implementation. They really aren't assertive means they prefer not to get involved except when it's needed (Purwanto, 2020).

Samad (2015) contrast the transactional style of leadership with the authoritarian approach, which is based on the notion that managers exert control over their subordinates. The percentage of staff disengagement and leaving the organization is greater under the transactional type of leadership management. Additionally, there is no best in all ways leadership style; the optimum leadership style is a hotly contested issue. Although the democratic method is often seen to be helpful for management and professional success, there are several disadvantages, including the lengthy process and significant work needed to get effective results (Ojokuku et al., 2012).

The research by Boykins et al. (2013) comes to the conclusion that the ideal leadership style is fictitious and should be modified for a particular situation. The variety of staff members in a business makes it more difficult for leaders to properly manage their employees. The fact that every employee has a distinct past, set of personal traits, mentality, and perspective makes this evident. This type of circumstance should be manageable for good leaders, particularly when it comes to cultural issues. In actuality, it's challenging for most leaders to function well in a multicultural setting. Management leaders must adapt to changes in organizational climate in order to satisfy members of the organization's expectations (Littrell and Nicolae Valentin, 2005). So, it is essential to have a thorough grasp of the leadership style.

There are several ways to define leadership, including via personal characteristics, actions, impact, social interactions, job roles, etc. Most definitions of leadership begin with the idea that it entails a strategy of persuasion between several parties in which the leader intentionally affects and controls followers. New research has reinterpreted the leadership components as a relationship between the leader, the adherents, and the goal or objective, in opposition to prior studies on leadership that focused on the attributes of the leader (Seltzer and Bass, 1990). Several academics still emphasize the value of fundamental leadership traits.

Several leadership studies have compared job centred versus relationship centred leadership styles to better comprehend the unbreakable link among the styles of leadership and its effects on organizational performance. Job-centred leadership includes personality traits that are essential to handling employees, making plans, defining tasks for employees, and organizing, coordinating, and resolving problems. These task-oriented behaviours are essential to making optimal use of both people and material resources (Yukl, 1981).

A leadership style that prioritizes relationships, on the other hand, includes specific behaviours of a leader like a leader seeming to be accommodating, welcoming, considerate, advising with colleagues, portraying subordinate aspirations, being willing to speak with followers, and acknowledging individual contributions. Establishing and sustaining positive connections with employees requires all these relational behaviours (Bass, 1990). Fiedler's (1967) contingency theory has studied the path goal theory to better understand the connection among styles of leadership and its overall implication on team and organization output. The leadership approach that corresponds to a certain situational setting is described by both theories. They also contend that sub-characteristics, situational conditions, and style of leadership all influence organizational outcomes like outstanding efficiency and productivity (House, 1996).

2.3 Organizational Climate

Organizational climate has already been examined for a considerable span of time. "Thought-provoking molecular [ecological] descriptors that individuals can agree to describe a system's practices and processes" represents the most common and commonly accepted definition of climate (Schneider, 1975). Individuals were originally aided in understanding their psychic surroundings by the organizational climate. Lewin et al. (1939) proposed that conduct is jointly affected by individual and environmental features, and the climate gave a way to comprehend how people interpret external fluctuations. An organizational environment only actually exists when there is visual agreement. Several academics have examined the parallels and differences between climate and culture throughout the years.

Organisational climate refers to the material style that shapes members' opinions about the organization's values and goals. It is a component of the environment, and it can be attributed to the organisation or as an attribution rather than an individual's perception (Owens, 1991; Hoy and Miskel, 1987). Organisational climate describes its entirety of the physical and social elements present in an organisation (Duncon, 1972). The social bond that holds an organization's members together via the exchange of social and symbolic thoughts and principles referred to as its organizational climate. Strong or weak is determined by how well the deal values, organizational climate, and individual dedication to a shared objective line up (Krietner et al., 2001 p. 206). It will strengthen organizational responsibilities, loyalty, and a shared culture. Ultimately, it will improve organizational effectiveness.

The four dimensions identified are used by the Pines model (1982) to measure an organization's work climate: (a) psychological dimensions, which include factors like workload, lack of autonomy, lack of self-fulfilment, and lack of innovation; (b) structural dimensions, which measure the degree of harmony between work requirements and physical structure; (c) social dimensions, which include aspects of how employees interact with clients and supervisors in terms of support and benefits); (d) bureaucratic dimensions, which include legislation and rules on role conflict and role obscurity.

Patterson et al. (2005) developed the organizational climate measure (OSM) using the competing values model (CVM). According to Patterson et al. (2005), this model is valid both conceptually and experimentally. This model is based on organizational theory constructs. The open system, internal process, logical purpose, and values system of human relations are the components of organizational theory. Every value in this paradigm is obtained through spatial mapping, where the dimensions have opposing values and the two parallel values are given contrasted emphasis. These value systems were defined by Patterson et al. (2005) as four organizational climate quadrants that account for four distinct outcomes or repercussions pertaining to organizational beliefs and perceptions. The names of the quadrants are human relation model, open system model, rational goal model and internal process model.

An important concept that has significant implications for understanding human behaviour in organisations is organisational climate (Allen, 2003; Glission and James, 2022). Research on organisational climate started with individual-level research, focussing on what is commonly referred to as the psychological work climate. This method enables each coworker to rate the environment at their place of employment (Tordera et al., 2008). The idea of organisational climate, which is shared by all members of the work or organisational unit, later came into existence. It is calculated by taking the average of each person's psychological work climate scores (Gillespie et al., 2008).

Denison (1996) sought to contrast organizational climate and environment in a fundamental book. Many scientists agree the following distinctions: Shared values, presumptions, and attitudes among members of the organization form the foundation of climate. Socializing within diverse groups is important but can't be possible slowly. As a result, climate change in organizations happens gradually over time. Contrarily, climate describes social situations in terms of a fixed (and customizable) set of parameters, rendering them relatively stationary. As a result, climate is frequently seen as being transient, malleable, and primarily restricted to the characteristics of the social surroundings that organizational members are aware of.

The top management may create desirable organizational climate through socializing employees and exchanging traditions and experiences. But, the best environment to impact employee work outcomes will be created by how the leaders and staff interpret and comprehend the common knowledge. Also, the terms "culture" and "climate" have been used interchangeably by scholars on occasion. Evidence linking culture and environment to professional behaviour, beliefs, and motives is developing gradually. In turn, these actions and attitudes may have an impact on the results. A growing body of research in the field of care and health demonstrates that when working in workplaces with encouraging and empowering leadership, organizational structures, as well as pleasant group situations, individuals are more satisfied with their jobs and feel less stressed and burned out (Tzeng, 2002).

Organisational climate, as defined by Lussier (2005: 31), is the perception of employees regarding the quality of the internal environment of the company, which will subsequently affect how members interact. The human environment in which employees of an organisation perform their duties is known as its organisational climate. Although it is invisible and intangible, organisational climate encompasses every aspect of a business and influences all of its operations (Davis et al.,2002, p. 11). Uhl-Bien et al. (2014, p.13) assert that the organisational climate is a reflection of members' collective impressions of the organization's appearance, management style, and procedures. Among the indicators are (a) relationships between superiors and subordinates, (b) communication within the organisation, (c) how members see organisational policies, and (d) how members view approaches to management about their fairness.

According to Glisson (2007), organizational climate refers to employees' subjective judgments of their work environment's impact on them. According to Schneider et al. (2000), organizational climate is influenced by individuals' experiences and conduct in the workplace. The organizational literature distinguishes between organizational climate, which refers to how employees perceive their work environment, and organizational culture, which pertains to norms and organizational practices (Glisson, 2007).

A number of studies, including those by, Wienand et al., (2007), Rostila et al. (2011), have highlighted the significance of organizational climate in healthcare services. Carlucci and Schiuma (2014), carried out one of the important research in healthcare on organizational atmosphere Employees believe that not everyone has equal access to career and advancement possibilities, according to this survey. Employees fail to pay notice to healthcare regulations and processes as a result, which causes them to be misinformed of company goals. Carlucci and Schiuma also recognized the importance of the workplace environment in fostering employees' positive motivation to do their duties on a daily basis. Purohit and Verma (2013) found that awards and welfare are given the most priority in the Indian workplace, whereas involvement and long-term planning and strategies formation are given the least. It is evident that there is a need for improvement in the general environment for the growth of human resources. Numerous studies in the service industry

highlight the crucial role that commitment plays when good HRM practices like development, learning, training, and growth foster a favourable environment, and also reduces the possibilities of employees leaving their jobs. This is especially true given organizations with a bad working environment have more turnover rate (Dhar, 2015). The research comprehends the factors that contribute to the development of an excellent organizational atmosphere. For more effective climate management, it is also essential to understand how organizational climate is related to diverse outcomes including work satisfaction, dedication, and burnout.

Academics and practitioners have been interested in the organizational environment ever since the 1970s (Schneider et al., 2013). The idea may be regarded from a variety of theoretical angles and analytical depths. Organizational climate is "the common views of and meaning associated with the rules, practices, and procedures employees encounter and the actions they see getting rewarded for and that are endorsed and anticipated," according to Schneider et al., (2013). We comply with the approach put out by Schneider and his associates (Schneider, 1975; Schneideret al., 2013) and concentrate on the organizational environment that influences the performance and strategy of SMEs in accordance with the theoretical model put forth by Scott and Bruce (1994). A relationship between an organizational climate and invention has been established, and theory and research on organizational climates for innovation are explained. Climate thus becomes a key factor in the research of innovation and organizational effectiveness (Schneider et al., 2013).

According to Martins and Martins (2003), organizational culture is generally defined as "a system of shared meaning held by members, distinguishing the organization from other organizations." "Organizational culture is the distinctive norms, beliefs, principles, and ways of behaving that combine to give each organization its distinct character," according to Arnold (2005). According to these criteria, an organization's culture determines how it differs from other organizations.

According to Schein (1985), organizational culture can be defined as "a pattern of basic assumptions invented, discovered, or developed by a given group as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration that has worked well enough to

be considered valid, and therefore to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems." According to this concept, organizational culture is composed up of presumptions that are accepted as a method of operation and transferred to new employees.

Leadership has impact on organizational climate, which similar an to organizational culture and may have an essential function in determining creativity (Ekvall, 1996). The key contrast between organizational climate and culture is that the culture may serve as a quantifiable and visible signal of the climate by evaluating how employees perceive certain behaviours, rules, and processes. While parts of the environment are evaluated in terms of both the behaviour and attitude traits, climates are unintentionally judged through values (Wallace, 1999). The current study is focused on organizational climate and seeks to scientifically evaluate the importance of the workforce on climate for innovation, as opposed to climate, by evaluating their views of the work setting and related verifiable actions as opposed to values. The organizational climate in question was one that was conducive to creativity because the current study's focus was on innovation in SMEs.

"Practices and conventions supported by an organization that encourage people to take action, investigate, and produce novel concepts, methods, or technologies that help the business" are referred to as "climate for creativity" (Charbonnier et al., 2010). Employees frequently react to the perception of the environment rather than an actual environment, according to the cognitive climate hypothesis (Schneider et al., 1995, 2013). As a result, how employees perceive the workplace affects how inventive they are. Employees are projected to be more inclined to innovation and embrace creative behaviors in an environment that is conducive to innovation (Ekvall, 1996).

Employee participation and activities have been described as being significantly influenced and affected by the organizational atmosphere (Wallace et al., 2016). Hence employees prefer to work in a motivating and innovative environment because that will affect and improve their working pattern. Organizational climate is a reflection of how individuals evaluate the way their firms influence their work and is linked to how employees consider

their work environment and atmosphere, which means its motivating or dominating or innovative etc. To encourage members to contribute more, it is especially important to create a climate that supports this (Dennison, 1996).

Knowledge sharing and organizational climate have been shown to boost individuals' experience and understanding for performing various activities and organizational knowledge management, according to several academics (Bock et al., 2018; Lee and Raschke 2016). For instance, when the organizational climate stresses the importance of information and fosters an environment for information sharing and transparency, employees happily get engaged in sharing wisdom. Also, through promoting employee discussion of ideas and the development of creative connections, an organizational environment that supports employees' collective and collaborative knowledge sharing may promote organizational learning (Lee and Raschke, 2016).

2.4 Work motivation

The evolution of man marked the beginning of motivation research. It's been stated that inventions come from necessity. The man looked for numerous ways to enhance his lifestyle, yet he continues to work at the same job. He wouldn't have done anything if he hadn't been inspired by the outcome. Maslow's need hierarchy theory, which was developed in 1950, demonstrates that motivation is necessary for action. Maslow developed the need hierarchy theory, according to which a person's physiological and safety demands are ranked from lowest to highest. affiliation. Self-realization and self-esteem. According to Herzberg et al. (1959), there are components in the work environment that have the potential to be both positive motivators and negative motivators, such as the hygiene factors of the 1960s.

Sigmund Freud was the first to recognize the significance of motivation because he held the view that people would not always succeed in achieving their goals and that, as a result, their actions are motivated by their motives or underlying needs. According to the beauty he or she receives as a consequence, a person will choose between many options for conduct and level of effort. If a person understands their organizational function well, motivation will be successful. Intrinsic and extrinsic motives come in two varieties.

Extrinsic motivation, on the other hand, is the use of praise or other forms of external reward as a means of motivating a person. Intrinsic motivation is when a person acts because they are drawn to and satisfied by what they are doing so that the satisfaction is not derived from the activity but rather is an external result that is directed at the activity. Herzberg (1966) stated that extrinsic motivation, which includes supervision, remuneration, business policy, and working conditions, is measured separately from internal motivation, which includes progress, acknowledgment, and responsibility.

According to Mitchell (1982), motivation is "the degree to which a person desires and decides to participate in certain specified action". Higgins (1998) described motivation as an underlying need to fulfil unfulfilled needs. Several scholars believe that the concept of motivation is related to the job. Unlike Lindner (1998), who defined work motivation as "the inner force that inspires individuals to reach personal and organizational goals," Nahavandi et. al., (2015) define it as a "state of mind, desire, energy, or interest that translates into action." What is taking place here is work. This study on Qatar's educational sector has utilize the following definition of work motivation: "A collection of energetic energies that both start from within and extend outside a person's essence, to initiate a work-related activity and decide on its form, direction, intensity, and duration (Latham and Pinder, 2005).

According to Pintrich and Schunk (1996), motivation involves the processes which occur when people initiate and maintain goal-directed behaviours. The level of self-motivation required by employees to successfully perform their duties effectively and efficiently in a work environment is a different understanding of work motivation (Ambrose and Kulik, 1999; Williams and Yang, 1999). It has been widely believed that job design plays a significant role in promoting employee work motivation, performance, and satisfaction (Mitchell, 1982).

Kanfer et al. (2013) recently made a differentiation between "motivation to work" and "motivation at work." The latter relates to internal factors associated with people's job outcomes (e.g., performance), whereas the former relates to internal elements related to people's involvement in an observable work arrangement. Work valence, which refers to

the total value of work participation in people's lives, is regarded as a crucial predictor of motivation to work.

The success of personal and organizational goals depends on employee motivation. Prior research suggested that employees' interactions with, perceptions of, and interpretations of the conduct of transformational leaders had a significant impact on their motivation at work. The hypothesis, however, refutes the notion that transformational managers are the major determinants of how motivated their employees are and suggests that motivational difficulties may really have their roots in intensely personal concerns (Paustian et. al., 2014). Several scholars dismiss the value of examining how gender affects job motivation. This perspective contends that the creation of a distinctive strategy for every employee should be the primary promise of achievement when analysing the link between transformational leadership theories and employee motivation. However, there is strong evidence from scientific research (Leithwood and Jantzi, 2005) that gender-related perceptions and preferences of employees are the fundamental factor determining the relationship between transformational leadership and work motivation. According to earlier research, women valued and valued managers' attention to working conditions and employees more than men did in the organizational area (Hughes, 2006).

Using a self-sufficient continuum, the four distinct kinds of labour incentives can be categorized (Gagné and Deci, 2005). The fascination and joy that the work itself generates leads to intrinsic drive, the most independent form of motivation. The second most independent form of drive is identified motivation, which is a drive in which people identify with the worth of their job. Introjected motivation is when a person works for reasons they acknowledge as essential but do not acknowledge as themselves as motivating factors, such as contingent self-esteem (to feel worthy), ego-involvements (to promote the ego), and avoiding experiencing regret. This type of motivation is more deliberate and less impulsive. Last but not least, external motivation refers to a work intention that is controlled by others, such as the intention of getting rewards or averting threats. It is the least independent and most controlled type of motivation. There are various methods to conceptualize work inspiration. In view of the aging workforce, it is important to

differentiate between motivation at work and motivation to work. At work, motivation at work refers to "cognitions, impact, and actions geared towards job accomplishments." Here, we'll concentrate on both intrinsic and extrinsic job motivation in the workplace, as well as motivation to stay employed by one's present company.

Deci (1972) asserts that an individual is intrinsically driven when engaging in a task for no other obvious benefit than the act of engaging in the task. Since the action gives the individual a positive feeling, they enjoy doing it. Extrinsic motivation, on the other hand, includes the motivation that is influenced by results that are distinct from the job at hand (Ryan and Deci, 2000). Motivation involves vigour, focus, perseverance, and similarity, all of which are manifestations of stimulation and purpose. Since motivation is essential to biochemical, intellectual, and interpersonal control, it has been a major and ongoing topic in psychology.

More importantly, the results that motivation generates have great significance in the actual world. Therefore, it should be of particular concern to those who play leadership roles, such as supervisors, trainers, instructors, medical professionals, and parents, which entails inspiring others to take action. A visible reward or the desire to escape discipline are two instances of extrinsic incentives. The desire to continue working for the same company can be viewed as a sign of workplace drive because it indicates that a person wants to work and stay employed there.

Older employees may be motivated to continue working for a variety of reasons, including a conventional work ethic, enjoyment of the job, and money considerations. We argue that measuring task-specific motivation adds to the previously discussed studies. The central hypothesis is based on the hierarchy model of self-determined motivation, which postulates that motivation works at various degrees of generality. Situational motivation, or the drive one feels at a particular moment and for a particular action, is intriguing in the current context.

Numerous studies on motivation and hygiene have found that people who were motivated were more likely to have an optimistic outlook because they were more likely to take actions that would help them achieve their goals, which is the final purpose of human life.

Employee work incentive may be influenced by job description, purpose, and interior elements like attitude and personal beliefs. High motivation employees should preferably work for a good organisation. If employees approach their task with a positive mindset, they will be more effective teachers and experience less stress. In terms of exterior variables, pay, norms, and bureaucratic structure are crucial. Work valence, which refers to the general evaluation of work involvement in one's life, is thought to be a crucial predictor of desire to work.

Pay is a key motivator because motivation typically rises with pay level, but performance evaluations of the person are also a component. Additionally, governmental organisations may have various personal rules. The bureaucratic organisation's ability to push or encourage its employees may also affect their level of productivity (Kanfer, 2013). At the most general degree, to-Work goals are deliberate objectives and motivation to engage in a formal or informal public employment relationship in which the person allocates personal resources (such as time, attendance, mental and/or physical effort) in exchange for a variety of anticipated intrinsic (such as a sense of competence) and/or extrinsic (such as pay, healthcare benefits) outcomes.

We should point out, however, that the effectiveness of work goals typically does not determine how much effort is allocated at work; rather, it measures how motivated a person is to engage in such an exchange. Motivation represents one of the most significant and efficient learning components, but it is also one of the hardest things to measure and evaluate. The adoption of senior guidance, for example, can raise the level of workplace tension among employees while also lowering their drive and output. Employees are driven by motivation, a notable feeling that motivates and stimulates them and causes them to act purposefully and devotedly towards the business.

Employee motivation is a crucial component of effective output because it helps employees receive respectable work incentives, ensure adequate working conditions, increase commitment to their duties, understand the needs of their tasks, and uphold high standards of work performance. Therefore, it is possible to think of motivation as an internal or external response that prompts an individual to take an encouraging or avoidant action.

2.5 Leadership Style and Work Motivation

According to Halepota (2005), the motivation of employees is greatly affected by the leadership style of managers. Various leader characteristics can result in different levels of motivation, as suggested by Adair (2008). Tampubolon (2017) asserts that the leader's performance and comprehension of the work in each circumstance influence motivation. Leaders can influence numerous motivational elements and should not allow demotivating situations to continue, as Locke (1978) points out. In today's difficult business environment, Kamery (2004) stresses that managers must utilize positive motivational incentives.

Leadership theory has always placed a great deal of emphasis on leadership style, and as such, it is a critical topic in the fields of organizational behavior and human resource management. This is because leadership style has a significant impact on the mental state and potential development of employees, which in turn greatly affects the work environment (Oldham and Cummings, 1996). Given this importance, it is imperative to integrate employee emotional responses and mental states into leadership theory when conducting research.

Motivating a team is more difficult than motivating an individual. Each member of the team shares their values, beliefs, as well as goals and expectations. According to Enbom et al. (2005), a team is a group of people with various skill sets who collaborate to accomplish objectives and support each other in using their diverse skill sets. A leader considers it challenging to motivate each team member according to their unique motivating element. To properly encourage the team, a single motivational technique must be chosen (Clark, 2013). Furthermore, it can be difficult to motivate a team because both extrinsic and intrinsic motivation techniques must be chosen based on the values, beliefs, and methods of thinking of the whole group.

Leaders certainly have a direct impact on the contribution, effort, conduct, and achievement of their workforce. Employees assume that their desired outcome, including whether and how the assignments are completed, will be directly impacted by their behavior in specific or particular ways (Elliot et al., 2017). In order to attain the positive drivers of each

employee and the team as a whole, there are currently multiple approaches that describe how leaders should incorporate into organizational climate and personal beliefs. An essential component that promotes civilization, creativity, and advancement on both a personal and organizational level is motivation. In summary, motivated people are capable of completing any work, regardless of how trivial, challenging, or unrealistic it may appear. In the past, researchers categorized leadership into two distinct styles: transformational and transactional, which he viewed as being at opposite ends of a spectrum. However, Bass (2003) argued that the two styles of leadership should not be seen as opposing but rather as complementary structures that work together to achieve expected goals. Furthermore, Bass and Avolio (1993) suggested that transactional leadership is a mutual process that relies mainly on an instrumental approach, using rewards or punishments to encourage employee engagement and productivity. This approach focuses on management by objectives, performance appraisal, and contractual exchanges.

It is essential to understand the various leadership styles and their impact on employees' mental state and potential development. By incorporating employee emotional responses and mental states into leadership theory, researchers can gain valuable insights into how to develop effective leadership strategies that contribute to the overall success of an organization. Transactional leaders utilize rational and economic means to manage subordinates, with a focus on task-oriented management to stimulate extrinsic work motivation. Their primary concern is to meet the organization's expectations, and they reward subordinates with what has been promised, such as money or promotion, when they achieve their goals. These rewards can motivate subordinates and encourage them to continue their efforts, thus increasing work engagement to some extent.

In contrast, transformational leadership places a strong emphasis on fostering people' innate desire to work hard by providing tailored psychological support at work. Intellectual stimulation, effective and useful, mental stimulation, and contingent reward are its four core components (Avolio et. al., 1993). Transformative leaders give their employees more authority and responsibility by studying thoroughly on understanding their requirements, capabilities, value system, and drive. They help subordinates realize the value and meaning

of their work in the organization, ultimately meeting their growth and development needs (Bass, 1985; Bass et. al., 1997; Bass et al., 1996). All these factors motivate subordinates to take on more significant challenges, work with greater solidarity and cooperation, and even make personal sacrifices for the organization's sake. Ultimately, this approach enables subordinates to exceed organizational expectations and reach their full potential (Walumbwa et al., 2008).

Over the past few decades, transactional and transformational leadership styles have become the focus of extensive research. While both approaches can increase employee work engagement transactional leadership tends to overlook employees' real needs, while transformational leadership aims to meet and develop high-level needs by driving intrinsic motivation (Avolio, 1993).

Several researchers suggest that transformational leadership is more effective in promoting high-level leader-member exchange and has a greater impact on employees' work attitude and behavior compared to traditional transactional leadership (Avolio et al., 2004; Bass et al., 1996). This has led to transformational leadership being widely considered as one of the most popular and effective leadership approaches receiving increased attention from scholars and managers alike (Northhouse, 2010).

The results of the few empirical research that have been done on the influence of the two leadership philosophies on the level of workplace engagement are mixed. For instance, Padmanathan (2010) discovered that transactional leadership had a larger impact on Malaysian northemployees' work engagement than transformational leadership. On the other hand, Breevaart et. al. (2014) performed a study on Norway navy cadets and found that job engagement was higher on the days when their leader exhibited more transformational leadership than transactional leadership. Their efficacy is dependent on the organizational environment, particularly the organizational climate, as both leadership philosophies are situational (Casimir et al., 2006).

A key component of success and business profitability in the current competitive and dynamic market is motivation. It consists of a person's personality characteristics as well as external elements such as organizational procedures, personality traits, and work situations (Gopal and Chowdhury, 2014). According to Bahmanabadi (2015), motivation is the need and expectation of work as well as the various workplace elements that support team motivation. Managers should contemplate taking leadership responsibilities in order to comprehend the requirements and expectations of their teams, as these factors shape the climate within the company. Motivating staff members is the most crucial and difficult activity a leader can undertake (Almansour, 2012).

According to Hofstede's (2001) Cultural Dimension Theory, transformational leadership is better compatible with highly collectivistic organizational climate. Furthermore, according to Walumbwa et. al. (2007), because transformational leadership unites people around a single objective, employees in collectivistic organizational climate are more likely to respond favourably to it.

Motivated employees are a vital component of any successful business and the primary source of its output. Therefore, an organization's entire success depends on how well it can motivate its workforce. Because there are numerous internal and extrinsic elements that can affect an employee's motivation, it may be beneficial for firms to identify the most significant ones (Alshallah, 2004; Bodla and Nawaz, 2010; Khan et al., 2012).

By determining the needs of employees, leaders can motivate their employees. Not everyone can be motivated by monetary rewards; for some, non-monetary rewards such as promotions within the company or recognition are a more effective source of inspiration. Depending on their status, personality, and perception, employees have different needs. A driven worker will make an effort to meet a work goal. Since the success of any business depends on its employees' performance, it is imperative to understand the importance of motivation for employees (Govindarajulu and Daily, 2004).

According to recent researchers, the role of leadership is to inspire and motivate others instead of having control based on authority, power, optimism, and coercion. Instead, it is the capacity to influence others by encouraging and motivating them (Abdul Aziz et al., 2012). It was proposed employees should not only expect managers to assign tasks to them, but also explain the tasks' purpose and motivate them to finish them effectively. This assisted in establishing the difference between managers and leaders.

The underlying concept behind all of the motivational theories is the combination of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation occurs when a person feels motivated to do his work and is prepared to perform a specific type of work or engage in a specific type of behavior for the sole purpose of doing it. Therefore, intrinsic work values are those that employees desire and seek out directly from their work or task in order to meet their psychological requirements. Therefore, leaders should keep this in mind to make their jobs more engaging, challenging, and to help employees get some assistance to take smaller decisions.

According to Wang (1996), extrinsic motivations are elements that employees want and receive from their workplace organization and context in order to meet their physiological and social requirements. The majority of organizations have some sort of incentive structure. Several factors must be taken into account while creating an incentive structure in order for it to be effective and produce the intended results. Keeping these factors in mind, leaders can plan drivers to keep employees motivated and working for the betterment of the organization, resulting in improved performance. The present study has focused on transformational and transactional leadership styles to investigate their impact on work motivation. Considering the aforementioned studies, the study posits the hypothesis as:

H1: There is a significant relationship between transformational leadership style and work motivation.

H2: There is a significant relationship between transactional leadership style and work motivation.

H3: There is a significant impact of transformational leadership style on work motivation.

H4: There is a significant impact of transactional leadership style on work motivation.

2.6 Organizational Climate and Work Motivation

The effectiveness of employees in performing their assigned tasks and achieving their full potential is determined by the cultural framework that the organization embodies, as it corresponds with individual motivation. Motivated employees are often the outcome of a robust organizational climate. According to Sokro (2012), the organization plays a crucial

role in shaping employee motivation and performance, which ultimately leads to the accomplishment of organizational objectives. Although the relationship between organizational culture and motivation has been explored by various researchers, there is a dearth of literature on the influence of the organizational climate on work motivation.

Employee learning has become increasingly common lately due to the belief that it is a critical aspect in giving organizations an aggressive potent to compete for an edge (Lee and Bruvold, 2003). Past research has shown a positive correlation between opinions of the learning atmosphere and job attitude traits including job involvement, independence, talent retention, and enthusiasm for learning (Joo and Shim, 2010). Little research has been done, however, on how employees' perceptions of the learning environment impact their ability to think imaginatively and perform competently. Although claims that a supportive learning environment enhances overall performance behaviour patterns from outside to inside, these assertions are largely theoretical and not supported by actual practical. Given that the majority of professional learning happens through performing routine work and job assignments at your organization, continuing processes that are a part of the workplace, it is crucial to investigate how learning views affect employees' creative behaviour and competence (Casimir et al., 2006).

Given that American businesses invest a large amount of money annually on conventional learning, yet less than 11 per of this is thought to lead to better work and productive output, this issue becomes even more crucial (Joo and Shim, 2010). Also, the evolving nature of businesses has made it necessary to integrate modern behaviour in job performance descriptions and content, such as inventive and competent behaviours (Gupta and Singh, 2012). This study's main contribution is to demonstrate a link between employee creative behaviour and competence and views of the learning atmosphere. Knowing this connection and how it functions might give information on how to encourage these important work practices throughout the organization among employees (Hughes, 2006).

Employee retention, which keeps individuals at their positions over time, is correlated with work motivation. Additionally, retaining current personnel reduces the expenses associated with hiring, onboarding, and training new employees (Scott et al., 2018). It was discovered

that unproductive employees have been known to quit their occupations, either by moving to other nations in pursuit of more attractive employment possibilities or by abandoning underserved and regional locations for employment in larger cities (Franco et al., 2022). According to the study and hypothesis testing results of Al-Musadieq et al. (2018), work motivation is not significantly impacted by the organizational climate. Therefore, the claim that work motivation is influenced by organizational climate is not established. This finding contrasts with that of Koesmono (2005) and Armita Hamid, who found that organizational climate significantly affects work motivation based on the results of their SEM research. Concern for employees is the primary determinant of organizational climate, whereas social need or a sense of belonging is the primary determinant of motivation. Both of these indicators do not point to a connection since, despite the organization's concern for its employees, it does not always ensure that their needs—that is, how they feel like they belong—will be met.

According to Wallach (1983), a person's level of job satisfaction is significantly influenced by how well their personality traits mesh with the organisational climate. Employees are better able to adapt to their work environment if their personal orientation coincides with that of the company. According to Bag et al. (2021), a bureaucratic organizational culture tends to produce unfavourable employee reactions and poor levels of job satisfaction. In contrast, employee happiness is favourably correlated with a supportive organizational climate.

Researchers have suggested in the past that perceptions of a good learning environment can improve employee performance, but few have looked into how this association happens. While mediation studies are becoming more common in organizational psychology research, they are still uncommon in the area of learning climate perceptions (Joo and Shim, 2010). By referencing the conservation of resources theory and arguing that work engagement, which is a motivational attachment towards an organizational strategic edge, forms a linking framework between conceptions of learning climate and individual creative behavior and proficiency, their Model specifically addresses this omission (Eldor, 2016).

According to Rusu and Avasilcai (2014), the physical, technological, social, political, and economic environments all impact employee motivation, satisfaction, and performance. To help boost employee motivation, it is vital to identify organizational climate variables that encourage people to achieve organizational goals. Employees in industrial businesses can be motivated in their job activities by establishing and maintaining an organizational climate that encourages their desire to complete work duties efficiently and meet their requirements by achieving organizational goals (Rusu and Avasilcai, 2014).

Identifying the impact of organizational climate on employees' intrinsic and extrinsic motivation is crucial for maintaining a positive attitude towards work. Therefore, the study postulates the hypotheses as:

H5: There is a significant relationship between organisational climate and work motivation.

H5(a): There is a significant relationship between innovation and work motivation.

H5(b): There is a significant relationship between organisational support and work motivation.

H5(c): There is a significant relationship between autonomy and work motivation.

H5(d): There is a significant relationship between interactive cooperation and work motivation.

H6: There is a significant impact of on organisational climate on work motivation.

H6(a): There is a significant impact of innovation on work motivation.

H6(b): There is a significant impact of organisational support on work motivation.

H6(c): There is a significant impact of autonomy on work motivation.

H6(d): There is a significant impact of interactive cooperation on work motivation.

H7: There is a significant impact of leadership styles and organizational climate on work motivation.

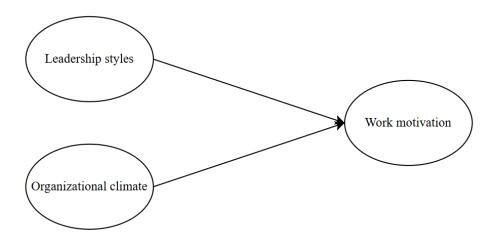
2.7 Conceptual framework

Figure 2.1 presents the conceptual framework proposed for the study. The conceptual model illustrates the link between work motivation, organizational climate, and leadership styles, emphasizing how these elements interplay to affect employee behaviour. The tactics

and demeanours that leaders employ to mentor and motivate their team members are referred to as leadership styles. These can include transactional leadership, which emphasizes structure, defined duties, and incentives or punishments based on performance, or transformational leadership, which stresses inspiring and motivating staff members via vision and personal development. Workplace motivation is shown to be directly predicted by leadership styles, suggesting that good leadership has a favourable effect on workers' enthusiasm dedication, and performance. On the other side, organizational climate refers to how employees all feel about their working environment. Collaboration, organizational support, autonomy, and the encouragement of creativity are all important components of corporate climate. Employee motivation is greatly increased in an atmosphere where they feel appreciated, empowered, and encouraged, which is promoted by a positive company climate. According to the concept, work motivation is also significantly impacted by organizational climate, highlighting the significance of a positive and empowering work environment.

The fundamental result of this paradigm is work motivation, which is the psychological drive that propels workers to work hard at their jobs, accomplish company objectives, and stay satisfied with their jobs. Both organizational atmosphere and leadership styles have an impact on it. While a positive workplace culture increases employees' intrinsic motivation by offering the required resources and psychological safety, great leaders can directly inspire motivation. A framework that stimulates employee motivation is created when leadership styles and the workplace climate operate in collaboration, with leadership frequently influencing the latter. This model is useful for comprehending how businesses may improve working conditions and implement focused leadership development interventions to raise employee engagement and performance.

Figure 2.1: Showing Conceptual Framework



Source: Developed by the Author

2.8 Summary

In order to enhance employee performance and accomplish corporate objectives, it is essential to comprehend how leadership styles, organizational climate, and job motivation interact. Employee behavior, satisfaction, and engagement are significantly influenced by supportive work environments and effective leadership. By influencing employee engagement, performance, and satisfaction, styles of leadership and organizational climate have an enormous effect on work motivation. While transactional leadership uses rewards and penalties to produce extrinsic motivation, transformational leadership emphasizes psychological support and personal growth to create intrinsic motivation. Although it varies depending on the organizational setting, transformational leadership is frequently more successful. Although there is conflicting data about its direct effects, a positive organizational climate—one that is marked by innovation, autonomy, support, and cooperation—increases motivation and creativity. In order to balance intrinsic and extrinsic motivators, encourage people to do their best work, and support organizational success, leadership styles and organizational environment work together to build a framework.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

"Research methodology is a way to systematically solve the research problem. It may be understood as a science of studying how research is done scientifically. In it we study the various steps that are generally adopted by a researcher in studying his/her research problem along with the logic behind them" (Karabi, 2017. p.55). Choosing the right technique ensures that the results are objective and that the study's conclusions are sound. The key component of every research project that aids in problem solving methodically and yielding reliable results is research methodology. The researcher must be knowledgeable about both the approach and the research methodologies and strategies (Kothari, 1993, p.10). The research design, sample strategies, and data collection procedure employed in this study are all included in the research methodology.

3.2 Research design

A research design serves as a roadmap for conducting a study, directing researchers through the complete data collection, analysis, and interpretation process. It provides a framework for accomplishing the study's objectives, ensuring that every action made increases the fulfilment of the research questions and the accomplishment of the research goals. In this instance, the researcher used a conceptual framework developed from the body of existing literature to examine the impact of leadership style and organizational climate on work motivation.

The research design used in this research is empirical and descriptive in nature, which means that instead of being entirely theoretical or hypothetical, it collects and analyses data from factual sources. When a researcher intends to observe and explain aspects of a specific phenomenon—in this case, the connection between work motivation, organizational climate, and leadership styles—descriptive research is frequently employed. Without changing or regulating variables, it seeks to record comprehensive data about these elements as they appear in the actual world. The information collected in the study comes

from primary sources, signifying that rather than depending on secondary data sources, data was collected straight from the participants.

The population of the study was intentionally selected to match the social and organizational setting of the Indian metropolitan state of Maharashtra. This geographical focus offers insights unique to the working environment in this location and allows for a more focused and pertinent investigation of the elements under study. The study aimed at ensuring that the results would be relevant to the circumstances and difficulties faced by organizations in Maharashtra by focusing on this particular community.

In conclusion, with an emphasis on the unique context of Maharashtra, the research approach examines the impact of organizational climate and leadership on work motivation by combining an extensive review of the body of current literature with the gathering of actual data. This methodology ensures that the research is thorough and pertinent.

Although some prior knowledge about the research topic was used, the research design in this study was descriptive. The facts and characteristics of the population and phenomena under study are described by descriptive or statistical research (Sekaran and Bougie, 2016). Descriptive research provides more insight into the formulation of universally applicable assumptions, principles, or concepts as well as the testing of hypotheses. The goal is to create a study design that will produce data that may be used to make decisions by testing interesting hypotheses or identifying plausible answers to research questions (Malhotra et al., 2017).

3.3 Sampling technique

Sample Area:

Maharashtra was selected for gathering information because it is a major economic hub with a diversified private sector that includes manufacturing, IT, banking and retail. Because of its diverse workforce, it offers a rich sample for research on work motivation, organizational climate, and leadership styles. The state's accessibility and importance in

industrial activities further enhance its research value by providing insights that may be applied to other similar places in India and beyond.

Maharashtra has become a major centre for the electronics, captive business outsourcing, and IT and ITeS sectors. The state's industrial, social, and physical infrastructures are all highly developed. Over the past ten years, Maharashtra's infrastructure sector has expanded dramatically, as evidenced by the notable increase in the number of public-private partnership (PPP) projects and industrial clusters. Pune has more than 4,000 manufacturing facilities, making it India's largest auto hub. Large companies including Bajaj Auto Limited, Daimler Chrysler Limited, and Tata Motors are based in Pune, while Mahindra and Mahindra Limited, one of India's biggest producers of multi-utility vehicles, is based in Nasik (IBEF, 2024).

Population

A population is a collection of individuals that the researcher wishes to examine in relation to his or her research problem because they share one or more characteristics. "It refers to everyone who is intended to be included in the study plan and about whom conclusions are to be drawn in a sampling study." (Sidhu, 1997, p.253). While a sample is a smaller representation of the whole, a population is the entirety of the universe. The sample is taken from the population, and it is from this sample that a logical conclusion is drawn. The population of the present study includes all the employees working in the private sector organizations operating in Maharashtra. In order to depict an Indian context, the study's population is specifically designated as citizens of the metropolitan state of Maharashtra. The data was collected in the five main districts of Maharashtra state: Mumbai, Nashik, Thane, Pune, and Nagpur. Because of their dense populations, certain regions were covered (Census 2011).

Sample

A sample is defined as "a set of respondents selected from a larger population for survey purposes" (Salant et al., 1994). Sampling is employed to save the valuable time and

resources of the researcher. According to Ary et al. (1996), "it is not necessary to study all the available cases to understand the phenomenon under consideration". The researcher identifies an entirely representative sample unit from the study population after defining the population. A sample is just a small portion of the population chosen for study. One can draw conclusions about the characteristics of the population by looking at the characteristics of the sample. Selecting a sample from the entire population under investigation is convenient for the researcher. Discovering universally applicable principles is the primary objective of research; however, it would be impractical, if not impossible, to investigate an entire community in order to draw generalizations. As a result, the sampling procedure enables the drawing of reliable conclusions or generalizations based on meticulous varied observation within a comparatively small percentage of the population.

The portion of the population selected for a survey or experiment is known as the sample size. The population's complexity, the study's goal, and the statistical procedures applied to the data analysis all influence the approximate size of the sample. Cochran's sample size determination formula was used to determine the sample size in the present study.

n= Z 2 pq/e 2 (Cochran's Formula, 1963), Z value is 1.96 at 95 percent confidence level Therefore, the sample size at 95 percent confidence level was calculated as,

$$n = 1.96*1.96*0.5*0.5/0.05*0.05$$

n = 385

670 questionnaires were distributed out in order to obtain the expected responses, and 412 were received back. Following a thorough analysis of the responses, 21 questionnaires were found to be lacking information. As a result, the sample size for this study was 391, which was greater than 385 and is regarded as adequate. The response rate in this process was 58.3%. According to Babbie (2003), a 70% response rate is considered extremely good and a 50% response rate is considered adequate.

3.4 Data Collection and Instrumentation

For any research to have a strong foundation, data collection process is crucial. Both primary and secondary data served as the foundation for this investigation. The investigator used non- probability sampling technique and a structured questionnaire to gather the necessary data from respondents. Probability sampling and non-probability sampling are the two main categories of sampling procedures. In these circumstances, non-probability sampling helps select a sample that is representative of the population. An approach known as non-probability sampling was used for the investigation. Convenience sampling was employed in this research study to select the right sample. Convenience sampling is selected because to its effectiveness, affordability, and usefulness. It is perfect for studies with limited time and money since it enables researchers to collect data from easily available individuals effortlessly. Although the reach, time, and resource limits were taken into consideration while choosing the population, and the selected geographic area helps to provide an appropriate representation of the universe. Data gathering took place between May 2024 and September 2024.

Since data collection is essential for statistical analysis, formulation, and interpretation of data that could potentially useful for managerial and organizational planning and decision-making, primary and secondary sources of data were deemed significant sources of data for the current investigation. To gather the required and pertinent information and data, a variety of techniques and approaches have been employed. Primary and secondary data are the two separate categories into which all of these can be divided (Ajayi, 2017).

Original information gathered directly from the source by a researcher for a particular objective is referred to as primary data. Through techniques including surveys, interviews, experiments, and observations, this kind of data is obtained straight from the source and offers new insights specific to the goals and objectives of the researcher. Information that has already been collected and released by others is referred to as secondary data. Without attempting to collect data directly, researchers might use secondary data to support or

obtain insights for their own research. Secondary data for the planned study would come from already-published materials such books, journals, articles, reports, and databases.

3.5 Ethical Considerations

The research study fulfils the participant's requirements for anonymity and confidentiality. The participants were reassured that their right to privacy would not be compromised by sharing their personal information with third parties through a confirmation on the questionnaire. The declaration also included an explanation of the data collection's rationale. With the understanding that their feedback would be kept private and used exclusively for the study project. This study is entirely empirical; the researcher did not perform any actions or interventions. The researcher considered that the respondent delivered his consent voluntarily, freely, intellectually, logically, and unambiguously, and that he had full authority over whether or not to withdraw from the investigation.

Development of Instrument

The term "measurement instruments" refers to a wide range of tools and techniques used to collect data from study participants. A structured questionnaire was developed for the intended study on the influence of organizational climate and leadership styles on work motivation using the validated and commonly employed scales. In order to ensure accurate participant responses, a five-point Likert scale was implemented. On a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree), respondents were asked to indicate their agreement with each statement about leadership styles, organizational climate, and work motivation in order to enable a more comprehensive study of employee feedback and experiences. 391 employees in the Maharashtra state's private sector have contributed data for this study.

Dependent Variable

Work motivation: To measure work motivation of employees, the present study has used the existing scale by Vallerand (1997) comprise of 12-items.

Independent Variable

Leadership style: The variable leadership style was measured using two different scales as the research has included two forms of leadership styles: transformational and transactional. To measure transformational leadership, a 6 item scale was adapted from Podsakoff et al. (1990) and to measure transactional leadership, the study has adapted a 4 item scale of Bass and Avolio (1990).

Organizational climate: The scale used to measure organizational climate was adapted from Hammami et al. (2013) consisting of 16 items. The organizational climate construct was measured using four dimensions- interactive cooperation, autonomy, innovation and organizational support. All the sub-dimensions of organizational climate used in the present study have four items each.

3.6 Procedure

This specific section covers the research approach used in the present study. It also includes the brief overview of the tools and techniques used for the analysis purpose starting from the pilot testing, questionnaire design and the data analysis.

3.6.1 Research approach

According to Hair et al. (2007), there are two primary categories of research approach: quantitative and qualitative. The quantitative method uses statistical analysis to describe the variables being studied using numerical data. This study has used an empirical approach since it allows for the systematic measurement and analysis of numerical data in order to objectively answer the research questions. In line with the study's emphasis on quantifiable results and statistical rigor, quantitative approaches are especially well-suited for testing hypotheses, recognizing trends, and establishing correlations between variables. Through the use of instruments like surveys, the quantitative method makes it easier for results to be replicated and implemented universally. In order to produce reliable and applicable insights, this method ensures a systematic framework for assessing the research topic, improving validity and reliability while minimizing bias.

3.6.2 Pilot study

It is essential to conduct a pilot survey to assess the research instrument's reliability prior to moving forward with the main study. According to Baker (1994), "10–20% of the final sample size should be the number of participants in a pilot study." Prior to the primary data collection process, a pilot study is a crucial preparatory step that assesses the viability, validity, and reliability of the research design, tools, and processes. It uses a smaller sample size that from the representative sample and acts as a trial period to uncover and fix the potential issues with the investigation. Researchers can evaluate the method's efficiency hone their research questions, streamline the administration process, and resolve logistical complications by carrying out a pilot study. Additionally, it offers preliminary information to evaluate the scales' internal consistency, calculate participant time, and spot any biases or ambiguities in the instruments. The information being provided obtained during this phase directs modifications to improve the primary study's reliability and accuracy, which eventually leads to more precise and reliable findings. The reasons for conducting the pilot study before the actual data collection are summarized below:

- 1. To determine the appropriateness and reliability of the questionnaire.
- 2. To ascertain whether the respondents were comfortable using the questionnaire's terminology.
- 3. To determine the issue and make the necessary modifications to the items while ensuring that all of the questions were clear to those who responded.
- 4. To find out the amount of time it would require to finish the questionnaire.
- 5. To finalize the scale that would be employed in the study.

3.6.3 Reliability of the instrument

Reliability is the stability or consistency of a scale's assessment (Parasuraman et al., 1991). The method that is most frequently employed in this process is Cronbach alpha (Cronbach, 1951). Nunnally and Bernstein (1994) state that in order to evaluate the instrument's overall validity, Cronbach's alpha must be at least 0.7. Cronbach's alpha, according to Park et al. (2006) and Malhotra et al. (2008), is the mean of all split-half coefficients that may

be derived from various techniques for dividing the scale components. Cronbach alpha is likely to be high if there is a considerable correlation between the scale items (Hair et al. 2017; 2020). The Cronbach's alpha value of transformational leadership was 0.91, transactional leadership was 0.89, organizational climate was 0.9 and for work motivation, the value was 0.92. These values indicate that all the constructs meet the threshold of minimum criteria of having a value more than 0.70.

3.7 Data analysis

Frequency tables and descriptive statistics were used in this study to give a thorough summary of the data and highlight significant variables. The distribution of responses has been clearly understood because of descriptive statistics, which provided information on central tendencies and variability through measures like mean, standard deviation, and percentages. When presenting categorical data, such as the number and percentage of respondents for each category—such as the degree of agreement with statements on work motivation, organizational climate, and leadership styles—frequency tables were especially helpful. Patterns and trends in the data, such as the percentage of respondents who agreed or strongly agreed with particular assertions, might be found thanks to these techniques. The inferential analysis was enhanced by frequency tables, which offered a thorough breakdown of the responses.

The impact of organizational climate and leadership styles on work motivation was investigated in this study using regression analysis and correlation. The degree and direction of associations between variables, such as the relationship between motivation and transformational leadership or the impact of organizational climate elements like organisational support, autonomy, innovation and interactive cooperation on employee motivation, were determined using correlation analysis. By calculating the degree to which organizational climate and leadership styles predict differences in work motivation, regression analysis further investigated these connections. To evaluate the combined and individual effects of these factors and gain insight into their relative relevance, a multiple regression model was created.

3.8 Summary

This chapter describes the research methodology used to examine how organizational climate and leadership styles affect employee motivation at work. A descriptive research design was chosen, with an emphasis on Maharashtra's private sector employees. The estimated sample size of 385 was exceeded by the 391 valid replies obtained from five districts using convenience sampling. The main tool for gathering data was a structured questionnaire that included validated measures for work motivation, organizational climate aspects, and leadership styles. A pilot study validated the questionnaire's reliability, showing that all constructs had Cronbach's alpha values greater than 0.7. Both primary (data from surveys) and secondary (literature already in existence) sources were used. The data was compiled using frequency tables and descriptive statistics, which brought attention to trends and response patterns. While regression research assessed the predictive influence of organizational climate and leadership styles on motivation, correlation analysis revealed correlations between variables. The process ensures accurate, methodical insights into the goals of the investigation.

CHAPTER IV

DATA ANALYSIS

4.1 Introduction

As the final phase of data collecting, statistical processing, and interpretation, data analysis is a critical component of any research project. The empirical findings are usually presented in the results section, but a more thorough examination and interpretation of these findings are done in the analysis part. Following the collection of the necessary data, the investigator attempted to employ statistical methods to analyse it in statistical terms. A study cannot be considered scientific merely by gathering facts and data; rather, the key component of the entire research process is correctly analysing and interpreting the data. Any research cannot reach its results without analysis and interpretation. This chapter describes how data collected via structured questionnaires was analysed using a variety of statistical techniques and how the findings were explained using these techniques. The obtained responses were systematically gathered and documented in order to make the data appropriate for the study. To assess the research hypotheses, descriptive and inferential data analysis were conducted using the statistical package for social sciences, SPSS 26.0.

4.2 Demographic Data

In research investigations, demographic data—which includes details about a population's attributes including gender, place of residence, marital status, experience and age—is an essential component. It is crucial because it gives researchers an intricate understanding of the sample, enabling them to recognize trends, patterns, and external influences that affect study variables. In addition to helping to stratify and divide the sample for a more thorough examination, this data makes it easier to compare various groups, which increases the findings' generalizability.

1. Gender

Table 4.2.1 Demographic profile on gender basis

Gender	Frequency	Percentage
Male	214	54.7
Female	177	45.3
Total	391	100

According to the respondents' gender distribution, 45.3% of the sample is female and 54.7% of the sample is male. Although the majority of employees are men, the 39.4% female employee representation shows that the private sector has made great strides toward gender diversity. Although there is still a discernible gender gap, this shows that Maharashtra organizations are adopting gender inclusiveness more and more. A more balanced workforce may result from initiatives to better advance gender equality, particularly in managerial and leadership roles.

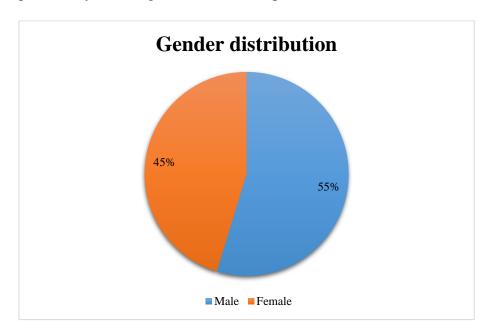


Figure 4.2.1 Demographic profile on gender basis

2. Marital status

Table 4.2.2 Demographic profile on marital status basis

Marital status	Frequency	Percentage
Married	171	43.7
Unmarried	209	53.5
Prefer not to say	11	2.8
Total	391	100

According to the breakdown of respondents' marital status, 43.7% are married and 53.5% are unmarried whereas only 2.8% prefer not to reveal their status. A youthful workforce, many of these are probably in the early phases of their professional lives, is suggested by the high percentage of unmarried employees. This group may be more flexible, open to job challenges requiring mobility, and willing to relocate. Although they are considerably less common, married employees could be more stable and feel more accountable, which could affect their motivation and commitment to their jobs.

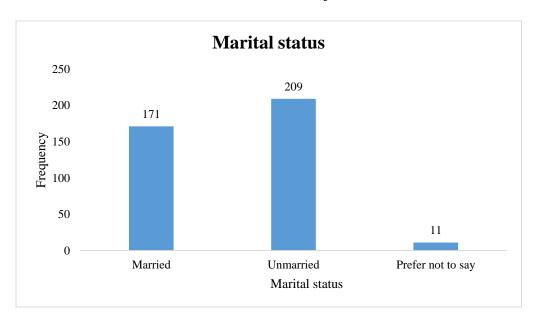


Figure 4.2.2 Demographic profile on marital status basis

3. Age

Table 4.2.3 Demographic profile on age basis

Age	Frequency	Percentage
Less than 26 years	151	38.6
26-35	114	29.2
36-45	68	17.4
45 and above	58	14.8
Total	391	100

The age distribution of the respondents reveals that the majority of respondents (151, 38.6%) are in the age group of less than 26 years, followed by those in the 26–35 age range (30.7%) and those in the 36–45 age range (26.1%). This implies that a sizable percentage of the workforce is in the early to mid-career stage, which is frequently regarded as the most dynamic time for professional development. While there are experienced employees in the industry, the majority are younger, as evidenced by the 14.8% (58 respondents) of employees in the age group of 45 and above. This may imply that the private sector in Maharashtra places a strong priority on career growth, learning opportunities, and innovation.

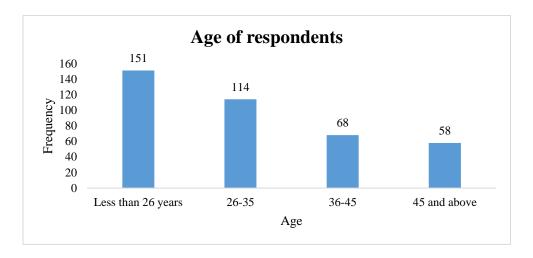


Figure 4.2.3 Demographic profile on age basis

4. Educational qualification

Table 4.2.4 Demographic profile on education basis

Qualification	Frequency	Percentage
Undergraduate	171	43.7
Post graduate	128	32.7
Professional	92	23.6
Total	391	100

The workforce is highly educated, according to the respondents' their educational backgrounds. 51.4% of people have a bachelor's degree, and 32.7% have completed coursework towards postgraduate degrees. From the total respondents, 23.6% of people have earned a professional degree. This suggests that the majority of employees in Maharashtra's private sector are extremely competent and talented, with many holding the advanced degrees needed for specialized positions. The emphasis on higher education is in line with the knowledge-driven character of Maharashtra's main businesses, which include manufacturing, banking, and information technology.

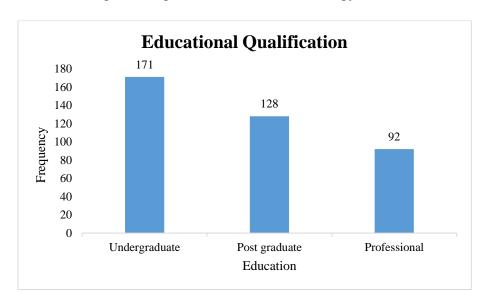


Figure 4.2.4 Demographic profile on education basis

5. Job designation

Table 4.2.5 Demographic profile on designation basis

Designation	Frequency	Percentage
Entry-level	109	30.9
Middle-level	185	47.3
Senior-level	97	24.8
Total	391	100

According to the respondents' job designation classification distribution, 47.3% are employed in mid-level positions, 30.9% are entry-level, and 24.8% are senior/managerial. This points to a comparatively evenly dispersed organizational structure in Maharashtra's private sector that places a high priority on opportunities for career advancement. The high percentage of people in mid-level positions indicates that there are competent individuals with a lot of experience who haven't yet progressed to senior leadership positions. This demographic trend suggests that leadership development programs may be necessary to get this group prepared to assume positions of leadership.

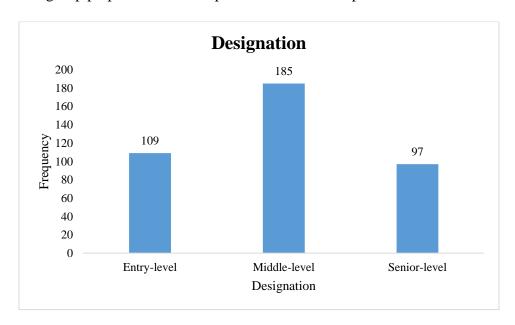


Figure 4.2.5 Demographic profile on designation basis

6. Work experience

Table 4.2.6 Demographic profile on experience basis

Experience	Frequency	Percentage
0-5 years	162	41.4
6-10 years	118	30.2
11-15 years	74	18.9
More than 15 years	37	9.4
Total	391	100

The respondents' employment experiences are diversified. The highest percentage, 41.4%, had 0–5 years of experience, which is indicative of younger, relatively recent professionals. The fact that 18.7% of employees in Maharashtra's private sector have 11–15 years of experience and 30.2% have 6–10 years indicates that a substantial portion of the workforce has a considerable amount of work experience and is qualified to take on more challenging duties and responsibilities. Given that only 9.4% of respondents had more than 15 years of experience, senior-level personnel are less prominent, which may be related to the younger workforce in Maharashtra's private sector.

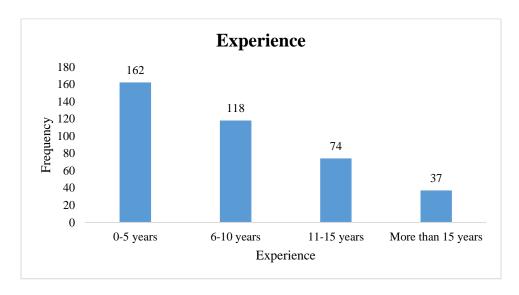


Figure 4.2.6 Demographic profile on experience basis

7. Industry type

Table 4.2.7 Demographic profile on industry basis

Industry type	Frequency	Percentage
IT/Software	132	33.8
Manufacturing	99	25.3
Retail	73	18.7
Banking/Finance	87	22.2
Total	391	100

Of the respondents, 33.8% work in IT/software, 25.3% in manufacturing, and 22.2% in finance/banking. They are engaged in a variety of industries. The private sector in Maharashtra has a broad industrial basis, as seen by the presence of employees from a variety of industries, including retail industry (18.7%). The state's prominence as a center for innovation and technology is reflected in the high workforce representation in IT/software. The two most prominent industries, manufacturing and finance, highlight the established and developing sectors that dominate Maharashtra's economy.

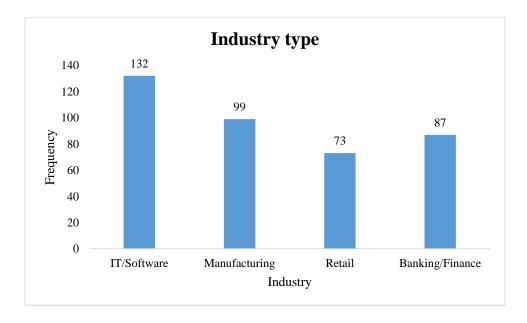


Figure 4.2.7 Demographic profile on industry basis

8. Location of workplace

Table 4.2.8 Demographic profile on location basis

Location	Frequency	Percentage
Pune	154	39.4
Mumbai	112	28.6
Nashik	37	9.5
Thane	24	6.1
Nagpur	64	16.4
Total	391	100

Mumbai employs the largest percentage of respondents (39.4%), followed by Pune (28.6%), Nagpur (16.6%), Nashik (9.7%), and Thane (5.1%). The largest percentage of the respondents are from Mumbai, India's financial hub, demonstrating the city's dominance in the private sector. Pune exhibits notable representation as well, with its expanding educational and IT establishments. Mumbai and Pune are identified as major economic hubs by the regional distribution, while Nagpur and other cities add to Maharashtra's industrial diversity.

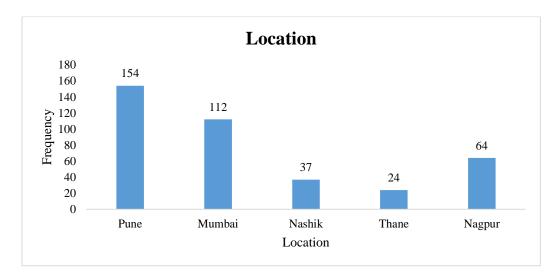


Figure 4.2.8 Demographic profile on location basis

9. Mode of employment

Table 4.2.9 Demographic profile on mode of employment basis

Mode	Frequency	Percentage
Permanent	312	79.8
Temporary	177	20.2
Total	391	100

79.8% of respondents are employed in permanent roles, compared to 20.2% who are employed on a contract or temporary basis. The greater proportion of permanent staff indicates that private sector businesses place a high importance on employee stability and long-term commitment. Although they are less common, contract employees might be a sign of a more adaptable workforce needed for temporary or project-based positions.

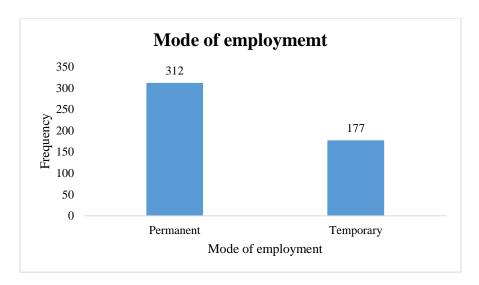


Figure 4.2.9 Demographic profile on mode of employment basis

4.3 Frequency distribution of individual statements of transformational leadership items

TM1: The manager had a clearly defined vision.

Table 4.3.1 Frequency distribution of TM1

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Strongly Disagree	12	3.1	3.1
Disagree	86	22	22
Neither Agree or Disagree	64	16.4	16.4
Agree	157	40.2	40.2
Strongly Agree	72	18.4	18.4
Total	391	100	100

Having 58.6% of respondents (Agree and Strongly Agree combined) agreeing that the management showed clarity in their vision, the responses to the statement The manager had a clearly defined vision," indicate a largely positive opinion among participants. This is a noteworthy strength, as the majority (40.2%) agreed and 18.4% strongly agreed. Nonetheless, nearly one quarter of the respondents felt the manager lacked a clear vision, showing space for development, with 25.1% disagreeing (Strongly Disagree and Disagree combined). Furthermore, 16.4% expressed no opinion, indicating hesitancy or ambiguity. These findings imply that although most people have a favorable opinion of the manager's vision, a minority believes it is unclear, which may call for more investigation.

TM2: The manager encouraged team members to adopt innovative and efficient approaches during project execution.

Table 4.3.2 Frequency distribution of TM2

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Strongly Disagree	30	7.7	7.7
Disagree	50	12.8	12.8
Neither Agree or Disagree	62	15.9	15.9

Agree	136	34.8	34.8
Strongly Agree	113	28.9	28.9
Total	391	100	100

In addition to 63.7% of participants (Agree and Strongly Agree combined) affirming the manager's encouragement of innovation and efficiency, the responses to the statement, "The manager encouraged team members to adopt innovative and efficient approaches during project execution," show a mostly favourable perception. Strong support for this leadership style was demonstrated by the largest group (34.8%) agreeing and 28.9% strongly agreeing. Still 20.5% of respondents disagreed (strongly disagree and disagree combined), indicating that one-fifth of participants did not think the management promoted creativity and effectiveness. Although majority of respondents have a positive opinion of the manager's work overall, the noteworthy minority that disapproved points to a potential for growth.

TM3: The manager negotiated with team members and was concerned about their needs and feelings before taking any action.

Table 4.3.3 Frequency distribution of TM3

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Strongly Disagree	21	5.4	5.4
Disagree	60	15.3	15.3
Neither Agree or Disagree	68	17.4	17.4
Agree	122	31.2	31.2
Strongly Agree	120	30.7	30.7
Total	391	100	100

Given 61.9% of participants (Agree and Strongly Agree combined) agreeing that the manager was considerate of team members' needs and feelings, the responses to the statement, "The manager negotiated with team members and was concerned about their needs and feelings before taking any action," demonstrate a generally positive perception. Strong support for the manager's negotiation and empathy strategies was demonstrated by the largest group's consensus (31.2%) and strong agreement (30.7%). Nonetheless, 20.7% of respondents disagreed (strongly disagree and disagree combined), indicating that some participants did not think the manager was sensitive to the needs and emotions of the team. Although most people have a positive opinion of the manager's strategy overall, the replies indicate that the manager's interactions with team members may be improved.

TM4: The manager practiced what he/she preached and set a good example for others.

Table 4.3.4 Frequency distribution of TM4

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Strongly Disagree	20	5.1	5.1
Disagree	63	16.1	16.1
Neither Agree or Disagree	56	14.3	14.3
Agree	145	37.1	37.1
Strongly Agree	107	27.4	27.4
Total	391	100	100

The statement, "The manager practiced what he/she preached and set a good example for others," received 64.5% of the responses, indicating a generally positive viewpoint. 27.4% strongly agreed, and the largest group (37.1%) agreed, indicating that the majority of respondents thought that their supervisor was a role model for others who continually behaved in a consistent manner. A considerable minority, however, disagreed, with 21.2% (Strongly Disagree and Disagree combined) saying that the manager was not living up to their promises. Most respondents said the manager did a good job of setting an example,

but some disagreed, which points to a place where the management's consistency should be strengthened.

TM5: The manager facilitated collaboration between team members.

Table 4.3.5 Frequency distribution of TM5

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Strongly Disagree	9	2.3	2.3
Disagree	56	14.3	14.3
Neither Agree or Disagree	78	19.9	19.9
Agree	151	38.6	38.6
Strongly Agree	97	24.8	24.8
Total	391	100	100

63.4% of participants agreed that the manager successfully supported collaboration between team members, reflecting a generally positive impression of the statement "The manager facilitated collaboration between team members,". There was a significant belief in the manager's ability to promote teamwork, as evidenced by the largest group's agreement (38.6%) and strong agreement (24.8%). The fact that 16.6% of respondents disagreed (strongly disagree and disagree combined) indicates that fewer people thought the management encouraged teamwork. Furthermore, 19.9% expressed no strong view, which may indicate hesitancy or a lack of clarity. Although there may still be possibilities for development, most respondents have a positive overall opinion of the manager's ability to encourage collaboration.

TM6: The manager encouraged team members to set higher goals and achieve these goals efficiently and effectively.

Table 4.3.6 Frequency distribution of TM6

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Strongly Disagree	6	1.5	1.5
Disagree	64	16.4	16.4
Neither Agree or Disagree	75	19.2	19.2
Agree	169	43.2	43.2
Strongly Agree	77	19.7	19.7
Total	391	100	100

A generally positive opinion of the manager's leadership is demonstrated by the replies to the statement, "The manager encouraged team members to set higher goals and achieve these goals efficiently and effectively,". The manager inspired team members to create and successfully pursue ambitious goals, according to the majority of respondents (62.9%, combining Agree and Strongly Agree). The majority of respondents (43.2%) agreed, and 19.7% strongly agreed, suggesting that the manager's goal-setting strategy is highly acknowledged. However, 17.9% of respondents (Strongly Disagree and Disagree combined) disagreed, indicating that some people did not think that their supervisor was motivating them to set more ambitious goals. Most participants had generally positive opinions regarding the manager's role in encouraging goal-setting and accomplishment.

4.4 Frequency distribution of individual statements of transactional leadership items

TC1: The manager praised me when my performance exceeded his/her expectations

Table 4.4.1 Frequency distribution of TC1

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Strongly Disagree	17	4.3	4.3
Disagree	60	15.3	15.3
Neither Agree or Disagree	81	20.7	20.7

Agree	147	37.6	37.6
Strongly Agree	86	22	22
Total	391	100	100

There are different views about the management's recognition procedures, as seen by the answers to the statement "The manager praised me when my performance exceeded his/her expectations,". When their performance exceeded expectations, the majority of participants thought that the manager did recognize and commend them, indicating that recognition was a significant component of the manager's strategy. Nonetheless, 19.6% disagreed (strongly disagree and disagree combined), suggesting that a sizable percentage did not receive recognition for going above and beyond. Overall, a significant number of participants expressed satisfaction with getting recognized for exceptional work, but a minority did not, indicating a potential area for improvement in the manager's recognition procedures.

TC2: The manager increased my salary and total compensation when I exceeded the performance of average employees.

Table 4.4.2 Frequency distribution of TC2

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Strongly Disagree	4	1	1
Disagree	58	14.8	14.8
Neither Agree or Disagree	108	27.6	27.6
Agree	141	36.1	36.1
Strongly Agree	80	20.5	20.5
Total	391	100	100

While most participants (56.6%) felt that they were compensated more for their exceptional performance, a sizable portion did not, according to the responses to the statement, "The manager increased my salary and total compensation when I exceeded the performance of average employees,". In particular, 20.5% strongly agreed and 36.1% agreed that their pay and benefits were raised in response to their performance. However, 27.6% were neutral and 15.8% (Strongly Disagree and Disagree combined) did not get such awards, indicating considerable uncertainty or irregularity in the relationship between performance and compensation. Overall, there was need for improvement in the way performance-based rewards were implemented and shared among the team, even though many felt financially recognized.

TC3: The manager rewarded excellent performance with bonuses.

Table 4.4.3 Frequency distribution of TC3

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Disagree	46	11.8	11.8
Neither Agree or Disagree	91	23.3	23.3
Agree	149	38.1	38.1
Strongly Agree	105	26.9	26.9
Total	391	100	100

Although there is some difference in opinions, reactions to the statement, "The manager rewarded excellent performance with bonuses,", indicate that the manager's strategy for rewarding high performance typically receives consideration positively. With 38.1% agreeing and 26.9% strongly agreeing, the majority of respondents (65%, combining Agree and Strongly Agree) agreed that the manager did offer bonuses for outstanding achievement. On the other hand, 11.8% disagreed, suggesting that fewer participants thought bonuses were given for excellent work. Overall, the majority of respondents believed that incentives were given for exceptional work, but some of them disagreed,

suggesting possible discrepancies in the team's implementation of performance-based compensation.

TC4: The manager rewarded excellent performance with promotions.

Table 4.4.4 Frequency distribution of TC4

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Strongly Disagree	17	4.3	4.3
Disagree	43	11	11
Neither Agree or Disagree	66	16.9	16.9
Agree	156	39.9	39.9
Strongly Agree	109	27.9	27.9

The responses provided to the statement, "The manager rewarded excellent performance with promotions," indicate that the manager's strategy of rewarding exceptional performance with career development is viewed favourably by the majority of participants. With 39.9% agreeing and 27.9% strongly agreeing, the majority of participants believed that promotions were in fact given for exceptional achievement. However, 15.3% disagreed (strongly disagree and disagree combined), indicating that fewer respondents did not think promotions were a reward for good work. Overall, even though a significant number of people believed that promotions were based on performance, the results show that the promotion criteria need to be applied more consistently or communicated more clearly to all team members.

4.5 Frequency distribution of individual statements of organizational climate items

4.5.1 Frequency distribution of individual statements of interactive cooperation

IC1: My organization ensures effective communication channels so that priorities, evidence, and ideas are exchanged across all organizational units

Table 4.5.1 Frequency distribution of IC1

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Strongly Disagree	8	2	2
Disagree	70	17.9	17.9
Neither Agree or Disagree	88	22.5	22.5
Agree	159	40.7	40.7
Strongly Agree	66	16.9	16.9
Total	391	100	100

According to the responses to IC1, most participants think that their company successfully makes sure that lines of communication are open for the sharing of ideas, priorities, and supporting data. This implies that the majority of respondents had a favourable opinion of the flow of communication between organizational units, which is essential for cooperation and agreement on important issues. 19.9% of respondents, however, disagreed with the assertion, suggesting that a significant proportion of people did not think that communication between various organizational divisions was as clear or effective. Essentially, the indifferent and negative replies imply that there might be discrepancies or gaps in the way communication is viewed or executed, especially across all units, even though the majority of respondents believe that communication inside the business is effective.

IC2: My organization promote linkages between people of organization and researchers

Table 4.5.2 Frequency distribution of IC2

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Strongly Disagree	12	3.1	3.1
Disagree	54	13.8	13.8
Neither Agree or Disagree	82	21	21

Agree	155	39.6	39.6
Strongly Agree	88	22.5	22.5
Total	391	100	100

The organization's attempts to promote relationships between its members and researchers are viewed positively, according to the responses to IC2. A total of 62.1% of those respondents believed that these connections were being successfully marketed. This indicates that a large number of participants believe the organization helps them connect with researchers, which can improve research collaborations, knowledge exchange, and innovation. A segment of the workforce may not experience these efforts, as seen by the 16.9% of respondents who did not feel that these links were encouraged. The neutral and negative responses imply that the organization's attempts to promote these connections may not be fully communicated to all members, which could indicate the need for better structured programs to foster these relationships, even though the majority of respondents acknowledge and value these connections.

IC3: My organization promote partnerships involving people in the organization and researchers

Table 4.5.3 Frequency distribution of IC3

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Strongly Disagree	13	3.3	3.3
Disagree	83	21.2	21.2
Neither Agree or Disagree	64	16.4	16.4
Agree	156	39.9	39.9
Strongly Agree	75	19.2	19.2
Total	391	100	100

Respondents' opinions of IC3 were equally favourable, with 59.1% (Agree and Strongly Agree) saying that the organization encourages collaborations with researchers. This suggests that the majority of participants value the organization's encouragement of cooperation with outside researchers, which may result in creative projects, the sharing of knowledge, and improved organizational growth. It appears that either these opportunities are not equally available or that some teams or individuals do not feel encouraged to engage in these relationships, as 24.5% of respondents did not view the organization supporting such partnerships. Although most respondents value the effort made to form collaborations with researchers, the disagreement and uncertain answers show that more uniform promotion and engagement across all organizational divisions is necessary to ensure greater participation and impact.

IC4: My organization encourage people in their organization to participate in research related conferences

Table 4.5.4 Frequency distribution of IC4

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Strongly Disagree	21	5.4	5.4
Disagree	48	12.3	12.3
Neither Agree or Disagree	68	17.4	17.4
Agree	153	39.1	39.1
Strongly Agree	101	25.8	25.8
Total	391	100	100

With 64.9% of respondents saying they are advised to go to scientific conferences, the IC4 responds provide significant support for the belief that the organization promotes participation in these events. Given the importance of scientific conferences for networking, professional growth, and keeping informed of emerging trends, this finding demonstrates the organization's dedication to promoting lifelong learning. 17.7% of

respondents disagreed, suggesting that some participants may not have had the opportunity to attend or that these opportunities may not be accessible or actively offered to everyone. Overall, even though most respondents believe that the company promotes conference attendance, the neutral and negative answers raise the possibility that there are discrepancies in the way opportunities are announced or made available to all staff members.

4.5.2 Frequency distribution of individual statements of autonomy

A1: My organization allows the acquisition of research studies and research reports

Table 4.5.5 Frequency distribution of A1

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Strongly Disagree	2	0.5	0.5
Disagree	63	16.1	16.1
Neither Agree or Disagree	81	20.7	20.7
Agree	151	38.6	38.6
Strongly Agree	94	24	24
Total	391	100	100

According to the results, most respondents (62.6%, combining "Agree" and "Strongly Agree") believe that their organization obtains research findings, studies, and reports in an efficient manner. This implies that a significant proportion of employees believe that the company prioritizes providing access to pertinent research. Nonetheless, 16.1% disagreed and 0.5% strongly disagreed, suggesting that fewer respondents either do not prioritize research acquisition or have difficulty obtaining such resources. Furthermore, 20.7% of participants had no opinion, which may indicate a lack of direct involvement in obtaining research findings. Though some still encounter obstacles or are unclear of the procedure,

the majority of respondents believe that the organization is generally successful in obtaining research.

A2: My organization favours the adaptation of research studies and research reports

Table 4.5.6 Frequency distribution of A2

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Strongly Disagree	9	2.3	2.3
Disagree	49	12.5	12.5
Neither Agree or Disagree	73	18.7	18.7
Agree	168	43	43
Strongly Agree	92	23.5	23.5
Total	391	100	100

The majority of replies to this statement are also favourable, with 66.5% of respondents thinking that the company successfully adapts studies, reports, and research findings. This implies that most people believe that research is incorporated or modified to fit organizational needs after it is obtained. However, a lesser percentage of respondents—14.8% disagreed and 2.3% strongly disagreed—might believe that research findings are not sufficiently customized for the context of the company. Furthermore, 18.7% had no opinion, which may indicate a lack of personal involvement in such activities or ambiguity regarding the adaptation process. These findings imply that although many employees find value in the adaptation of research, there is potential for development to make this procedure more transparent and uniform for everybody.

A3: My organization supports dissemination of research studies and research reports

Table 4.5.7 Frequency distribution of A3

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Strongly Disagree	7	1.8	1.8
Disagree	62	15.9	15.9
Neither Agree or Disagree	97	24.8	24.8
Agree	176	45	45
Strongly Agree	49	12.5	12.5
Total	391	100	100

With 57.5% of respondents believing that research is shared correctly within the company, the responses show a high view that research findings are distributed efficiently. This demonstrates that a large number of employees believe that study findings are successfully presented to the appropriate audience. Yet, 1.8% strongly disagreed and 15.9% disagreed, indicating that some respondents could believe that dissemination is not as effective or extensive as it ought to be. Furthermore, 24.8% expressed no opinion, which can be a sign of a lack of knowledge about the organization's distribution procedures or a lack of confidence in the process. Although most respondents believe that dissemination is effective, the neutral and negative answers imply that in order to guarantee that everyone is informed, communication or access to research results may need to be improved.

A4: My organization promotes the linkage development between researchers and decision makers

Table 4.5.8 Frequency distribution of A4

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Strongly Disagree	8	2	2
Disagree	58	14.8	14.8

Neither Agree or Disagree	81	20.7	20.7
Agree	170	43.5	43.5
Strongly Agree	74	18.9	18.9
Total	391	100	100

According to the responses to this statement, the majority of participants (62.4%, combining "Agree" and "Strongly Agree") feel that their company actively encourages connections between decision makers and researchers. This suggests that the value of developing these relationships is recognized, as they are essential to transforming research findings into useful information for decision-making. However, 14.8% disagreed and 2% strongly disagreed, suggesting that some people believe the organization is not doing a good job of developing or growing these connections. These results imply that although the majority of employees deem these connections valuable, there might be space for improvement in terms of strengthening these relationships at various organizational levels.

4.5.3 Frequency distribution of individual statements of organisational support

OS1: My organization provides training on how to better share knowledge

Table 4.5.9 Frequency distribution of OS1

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Strongly Disagree	5	1.3	1.3
Disagree	73	18.7	18.7
Neither Agree or Disagree	86	22	22
Agree	149	38.1	38.1
Strongly Agree	78	19.9	19.9
Total	391	100	100

According to OS1 replies, a significant number of participants (57.9%, combining "Agree" and "Strongly Agree") think the organization offers sufficient training on knowledge sharing. This implies that the company is working to improve employee knowledge-sharing practices, which is crucial for creating a cooperative work atmosphere. The fact that 1.3% of respondents strongly disagreed with the statement and 18.7% disagreed with it suggests that some people may not have access to or experience with these training possibilities. Although the majority of comments are positive, the negative and neutral ones point out possible weaknesses in making sure that all staff members receive training or are aware of the chances to enhance their knowledge-sharing procedures.

OS2: My organization provides training on how to better use research findings in your day to-day professional activities

Table 4.5.10 Frequency distribution of OS2

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Strongly Disagree	32	8.2	8.2
Disagree	41	10.5	10.5
Neither Agree or Disagree	67	17.1	17.1
Agree	148	37.9	37.9
Strongly Agree	103	26.3	26.3
Total	391	100	100

With 64.2% of respondents approving, the OS2 says demonstrate the broad support for this idea of training on using research findings in professional activities. This suggests that a large number of employees think that their organization provides pertinent training to assist them in integrating research findings into their day-to-day tasks. A gap where some employees might not have access to such resources or may not consider the training as useful is indicated by the 18.7% of participants (Strongly Disagree and Disagree combined) who did not feel that such training is provided. Even while most employees value the

training, the indifferent and negative comments imply that in order to address the needs of every employee, better communication or more specialized training may be required.

OS3: My organization update databases to make sure that individuals in the organization have access to the latest research studies and research reports

Table 4.5.11 Frequency distribution of OS3

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Strongly Disagree	12	3.1	3.1
Disagree	70	17.9	17.9
Neither Agree or Disagree	69	17.6	17.6
Agree	163	41.7	41.7
Strongly Agree	77	19.7	19.7
Total	391	100	100

According to the responses to OS3, 61.4% of respondents believe the organization is upgrading its databases to give access to the most recent research findings. This implies that a large number of employees believe that the organization is keeping its resources updated, which is crucial for ensuring that employees are informed and have access to the most recent information. Nonetheless, 3.1% strongly disagreed and 17.9% disagreed, suggesting that certain employees might find it difficult to obtain current research materials or believe that the organization's information systems are not updated frequently. These findings imply that even if a large number of staff members appreciate the importance of current databases, more could be done to ensure that everyone has reliable and convenient access to the most recent research findings.

OS4: My organization prepares written documents such as lessons learned, training manuals, best work practices, etc

Table 4.5.12 Frequency distribution of OS4

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Strongly Disagree	25	6.4	6.4
Disagree	46	11.8	11.8
Neither Agree or Disagree	78	19.9	19.9
Agree	154	39.4	39.4
Strongly Agree	88	22.5	22.5
Total	391	100	100

According to OS4 responses, a significant number of employees (61.9%) think that their organization creates written materials to disseminate training manuals, best practices, and lessons learned. This shows that the organization's efforts to gather and preserve vital knowledge for later use are being seen favourably, which is crucial for organizational learning and ongoing progress. A lack of knowledge documentation or a lack of awareness of such resources may be the cause of the 18.2% of respondents who believed that the organization did not sufficiently create these written materials. Although many respondents saw the compilation of written materials as a beneficial endeavour, the aggregate response shows that more consistent creation and dissemination of such information is still required to reach all employees.

4.5.4 Frequency distribution of individual statements of innovation

IN1: People in my organizational unit are encouraged to search for fresh, new ways to acquire, adapt, disseminate research findings, studies and reports

Table 4.5.13 Frequency distribution of IN1

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Strongly Disagree	11	2.8	2.8

Disagree	56	14.3	14.3
Neither Agree or Disagree	79	20.2	20.2
Agree	157	40.2	40.2
Strongly Agree	88	22.5	22.5
Total	391	100	100

According to IN1 responses, an adequate number of staff members (62.7%, combining "Agree" and "Strongly Agree") feel inspired to investigate novel methods for obtaining, modifying, and sharing research findings. This is indicative of a productive workplace where staff members are inspired to find innovative and effective ways to apply research. There is a gap where some employees may feel unsupported or uninvolved in such activities, since 17.1% of respondents (Disagree and Strongly Disagree) stated that they are not encouraged in this way. There is potential for more involvement and communication inside the organization, but overall, the replies show a general openness to new ideas.

IN2: People in my organizational unit are encouraged to come up with new ideas or Recommendations on how to increase the acquisition, adaptation, dissemination of research findings, studies and reports

Table 4.5.14 Frequency distribution of IN2

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Strongly Disagree	18	4.6	4.6
Disagree	51	13	13
Neither Agree or Disagree	61	15.6	15.6
Agree	155	39.6	39.6
Strongly Agree	106	27.1	27.1

Total	391	100	100

According to the IN2 responses, most employees (66.7%, combining "Agree" and "Strongly Agree") feel inspired to come up with fresh concepts or suggestions to enhance the gathering and sharing of research. This is indicative of a positive corporate culture that encourages creativity and idea sharing. 17.6% of respondents still believe that there is insufficient help in this area, though, which can point to the need for improved management support or communication regarding idea generation. Furthermore, 15.6% of employees had no opinion, indicating that some employees could be unaware of how to incorporate their suggestions into the company's research procedures. Although the general trend is encouraging, the responses show that there might be space for improvement in terms of aggressively seeking out and putting fresh staff ideas into practice.

IN3: People in my organizational unit are encouraged to put into action new strategies or ideas to improve the acquisition, adaptation, dissemination of research findings, studies and reports

Table 4.5.15 Frequency distribution of IN3

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Strongly Disagree	5	1.3	1.3
Disagree	40	10.2	10.2
Neither Agree or Disagree	65	16.6	16.6
Agree	176	45	45
Strongly Agree	105	26.9	26.9
Total	391	100	100

According to IN3, 71.9% of respondents (Agree and Strongly Agree) believe that they are urged to adopt novel strategies or concepts meant to enhance research procedures. This

implies that the company encourages employees to act on creative ideas and tactics by fostering a proactive mindset. Although this is a very modest percentage—11.5% of employees (Disagree and Strongly Disagree) feel that this is not encouraged—it nevertheless identifies a segment who might not feel empowered or supported in putting new tactics into practice. All things considered, the answers indicate that the company appreciates both coming up with ideas and putting them into practice to enhance procedures.

IN4: People in my organizational unit give high value to change and continuous quality improvement

Table 4.5.16 Frequency distribution of IN4

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Strongly Disagree	2	0.5	0.5
Disagree	35	9	9
Neither Agree or Disagree	73	18.7	18.7
Agree	178	45.5	45.5
Strongly Agree	103	26.3	26.3
Total	391	100	100

71.8% of respondents to IN4 indicated that they place a high value on change and continual improvement, demonstrating a strong tendency toward these values. This is indicative of an organizational culture that prioritizes continuous improvement and adaptability, which is necessary to stay abreast of modifications in research methodologies. However, 9.5% (Disagree and Strongly Disagree) of participants said they do not place a high priority on change and quality improvement. This shows that some participants may be averse to change or may not believe that their workplace sufficiently emphasizes these principles.

Though there is room to address the concerns of those who do not share this viewpoint, most employees agree that change and progress are important.

4.6 Frequency distribution of individual statements of work motivation items

WM1: For the pleasure it gives me to know more about my job.

Table 4.6.1 Frequency distribution of WM1

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Strongly Disagree	2	0.5	0.5
Disagree	45	11.5	11.5
Neither Agree or Disagree	61	15.6	15.6
Agree	163	41.7	41.7
Strongly Agree	120	30.7	30.7
Total	391	100	100

Based on the enjoyment of learning more about their employment, the frequency table offers insights into the respondents' levels of motivation for their work. With 41.7% agreeing and 30.7% strongly agreeing, the majority of the 391 participants had a positive attitude, suggesting that a substantial proportion of employees are inspired by the chance to improve their job expertise. On the other hand, just 0.5% strongly disagreed and 11.5% disagreed, representing a minority. These findings demonstrate that for the majority of the sample's employees, intrinsic motivation fuelled by learning linked to their jobs and self-improvement—plays a significant role.

WM2: For the pleasure of doing new things in my job

Table 4.6.2 Frequency distribution of WM2

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Strongly Disagree	2	0.5	0.5
Disagree	30	7.7	7.7
Neither Agree or Disagree	71	18.2	18.2
Agree	170	43.5	43.5
Strongly Agree	118	30.2	30.2
Total	391	100	100

The frequency table shows how employees are motivated by the satisfaction they get from taking on additional responsibilities at work. With 43.5% of the 391 respondents agreeing and 30.2% strongly agreeing, the majority showed a favourable disposition, suggesting that many employees enjoy the chance to experiment with new things in their jobs. Just 7.7% disagreed and 0.5% strongly disagreed, which is a very small number. These results highlight the fact that for many employees in the examined group, the capacity to engage in novel activities is a strong intrinsic incentive.

WM3: For the pleasure I feel while learning new things in my job.

Table 4.6.3 Frequency distribution of WM3

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Strongly Disagree	23	5.9	5.9
Disagree	66	16.9	16.9
Neither Agree or Disagree	72	18.4	18.4
Agree	134	34.3	34.3
Strongly Agree	96	24.6	24.6
Total	391	100	100

The frequency table shows that employees have differing opinions about how much fun it is to learn new things at work. Nearly 59% of respondents had positive feelings about this intrinsic incentive, as seen by the significant 34.3% who agreed and 24.6% who strongly agreed. However, 22.8% opposed or strongly disagreed, while 18.4% were neutral. This distribution implies that although many employees find learning new things to be a motivating element, small number of employees might not enjoy this aspect of their work as much, which could be a symptom of disparities in learning opportunities or preferences.

WM4: For the pleasure of developing new skills in my job.

Table 4.6.4 Frequency distribution of WM4

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Strongly Disagree	17	4.3	4.3
Disagree	96	24.6	24.6
Neither Agree or Disagree	52	13.3	13.3
Agree	147	37.6	37.6
Strongly Agree	79	20.2	20.2
Total	391	100	100

With 37.6% of respondents agreeing and 20.2% strongly agreeing, or approximately 58% of the sample, this table shows that learning new skills is a motivating element for a significant majority of employees. Nonetheless, a noteworthy 28.9% of respondents disagreed or strongly disagreed, while 13.3% were neutral. This implies that although many employees place a high importance on skill development, some might not see it as a source of inspiration, perhaps because it isn't relevant to their jobs or has insufficient resources. According to the statistics, companies have a chance to improve employee engagement by better matching skill development opportunities with their interests.

WM5: Because I feel a lot of personal satisfaction while mastering certain difficult job skills.

Table 4.6.5 Frequency distribution of WM5

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Strongly Disagree	19	4.9	4.9
Disagree	104	26.6	26.6
Neither Agree or Disagree	48	12.3	12.3
Agree	147	37.6	37.6
Strongly Agree	73	18.7	18.7
Total	391	100	100

The information in support of this claim demonstrates how employees view gaining difficult job abilities as a source of personal fulfilment. A significant number of respondents—37.6% agreed and 18.7% strongly agreed, for a total of 56.3%—thought that learning challenging skills was personally fulfilling. This implies that problems of this nature favourably stimulate more than half of the workforce. However, a significant 26.6% disagreed and 4.9% strongly disagreed, meaning that about 31.5% did not experience the same level of satisfaction. Furthermore, 12.3% expressed no opinion, indicating uncertainty on the part of several staff members. According to this distribution, a substantial number of employees may encounter obstacles including a lack of desire, support, or chances to acquire challenging job skills, even though the majority find value in conquering skill-related hurdles.

WM6: For the pleasure I feel while improving some of my weak points on the job.

Table 4.6.6 Frequency distribution of WM6

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Strongly Disagree	16	4.1	4.1

Disagree	72	18.4	18.4
Neither Agree or Disagree	70	17.9	17.9
Agree	147	37.6	37.6
Strongly Agree	86	22	22
Total	391	100	100

With 37.6% of respondents agreeing and 22% strongly agreeing (a total of 59.6%), the replies show that most employees enjoy addressing and improving their shortcomings. However, quite a few people (18.4% disagree and 4.1% strongly disagree, for a total of 22.5%) disagrees. Furthermore, 17.9% are ambivalent, indicating that they might not find joy in this aspect of their employment or reject it. This distribution demonstrates that although most employees find job-related self-improvement valuable, companies may need to better engage the remaining staff members who have trouble finding fulfilment in this area.

WM7: For the satisfaction I experience while I am perfecting my job skills.

Table 4.6.7 Frequency distribution of WM7

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Strongly Disagree	12	3.1	3.1
Disagree	94	24	24
Neither Agree or Disagree	60	15.3	15.3
Agree	153	39.1	39.1
Strongly Agree	72	18.4	18.4
Total	391	100	100

The data for this statement shows employees' reactions to the satisfaction received from enhancing their job skills. Significantly more respondents—39.1% agreeing and 18.4%

strongly agreeing, for a total of 57.5%—suggest that most people feel satisfied when they improve their skills. However, 27.1% of participants did not agree, with 24% of employees disagreeing and 3.1% strongly disagreeing. This distribution highlights that although the majority of employees appreciate and are inspired by the chance to hone their talents, few of them do not share this sentiment. This can indicate possible difficulties including restricted access to resources for skill development, a misalignment with individual objectives, or other obstacles at work.

WM8: For the satisfaction I feel while overcoming certain difficulties in my job.

Table 4.6.8 Frequency distribution of WM8

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Strongly Disagree	24	6.1	6.1
Disagree	69	17.6	17.6
Neither Agree or Disagree	75	19.2	19.2
Agree	122	31.2	31.2
Strongly Agree	101	25.8	25.8
Total	391	100	100

The information for this category shows how employees feel about overcoming difficulties at work and the joy that comes from doing so. A large proportion of respondents—31.2% agree, and 25.8% strongly agree—say they are satisfied with how they overcame challenges at work (57%) overall. However, some of the respondents disagree with this statement. In all, 23.7% of the sample feel unsatisfied or do not find enjoyment in tackling challenges at work, with 17.6% disagreeing and 6.1% severely disagreeing. Overall, the research shows that although many employees enjoy conquering obstacles, some may find these challenges discouraging or fail to perceive them as rewarding.

WM9: Because I feel pleasant in my job.

Table 4.6.9 Frequency distribution of WM9

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Strongly Disagree	11	2.8	2.8
Disagree	74	18.9	18.9
Neither Agree or Disagree	66	16.9	16.9
Agree	149	38.1	38.1
Strongly Agree	91	23.3	23.3
Total	391	100	100

Employee satisfaction with their jobs is generally positive, according to the data on this statement WM9. Given that 61.4% of respondents agreed (38.1%) or strongly agreed (23.3%) that they enjoy their jobs, it appears that many employees find a feeling of fulfilment or well-being in their workplace. 21.7% of people say they don't enjoy their jobs (18.9% disagree and 2.8% strongly disagree). Overall, some of the employees are either unhappy or unsure about how enjoyable their work is, even if the majority appear to be happy and optimistic in their positions.

WM10: For the excitement I feel when I am really involved in my job.

Table 4.6.10 Frequency distribution of WM10

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Strongly Disagree	12	3.1	3.1
Disagree	45	11.5	11.5
Neither Agree or Disagree	67	17.1	17.1
Agree	135	34.5	34.5
Strongly Agree	132	33.8	33.8
Total	391	100	100

According to the data for this statement WM10, a significant number of employees report feeling excited when they are fully involved in their work. The majority of employees find excitement and motivation through active engagement in their work, as seen by the 68.3% of respondents who agree (34.5%) or strongly agree (33.8%) with this statement. Overall, 14.6% of respondents (11.5% disagree and 3.1% strongly disagree) say they are not excited about their work, while 17.1% are uncertain. In conclusion, a minority of respondents do not share the majority of employees' great sense of interest and involvement in their work. This implies that different people or groups may have varied levels of engagement and job involvement, with possible areas for growth in terms of increasing involvement for less engaged employees.

WM11: For the intense pleasure I feel while I am doing the tasks that I like.

Table 4.6.11 Frequency distribution of WM11

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Strongly Disagree	9	2.3	2.3
Disagree	78	19.9	19.9
Neither Agree or Disagree	61	15.6	15.6
Agree	151	38.6	38.6
Strongly Agree	92	23.5	23.5
Total	391	100	100

Responses provided by employees to the statement WM11 reveal a wide range of viewpoints. 19.9% of respondents disagreed with the statement, while 2.3% strongly disagreed. In the meantime, 15.6% were indecisive. Conversely, 38.6% of participants agreed, and 23.5% strongly agreed, suggesting that a substantial proportion of respondents found immense fulfilment in carrying out interesting jobs. Overall, the data indicates that a majority of employees have a positive opinion of the statement, indicating that many employees get significant enjoyment from working on projects they enjoy.

WM12: Because I like the feeling of being totally immersed in my job.

Table 4.6.12 Frequency distribution of WM12

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Strongly Disagree	10	2.6	2.6
Disagree	83	21.2	21.2
Neither Agree or Disagree	68	17.4	17.4
Agree	158	40.4	40.4
Strongly Agree	72	18.4	18.4
Total	391	100	100

The responses show differing levels of agreement with statement WM12. 21.2% of respondents disagreed with the statement, while 2.6% strongly disagreed. 17.4% of respondents were not sure. Positively, 40.4% of respondents agreed, and 18.4% strongly agreed, suggesting that many employees take pleasure in being fully involved in their work. According to the findings, most respondents had a positive opinion of being fully engaged in their work, and a sizable percentage of them really prefer this feeling of participation.

4.7 Results of Correlation Analysis

Leadership styles and work motivation

Table 4.7.1 Transformational leadership and Work motivation

Transformational leadership	Pearson Correlation	.696**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000
	N	391

^{**.} Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

With a Pearson correlation coefficient of 0.696, there is a significant relationship between transformational leadership and work motivation. This suggests that there is a strong positive correlation between the two variables, indicating that individuals who experience transformative leadership are more motivated at work. Employee passion and dedication to their work are often increased by transformational leaders that inspire and encourage their teams by offering a vision, promoting creativity, and supporting personal growth. The statistical significance of this correlation is further supported by the p-value of 0.000, indicating that it is a trustworthy and significant association. Accordingly, the evidence lends credence to the concept that transformational leadership can effectively boost employee motivation at work by affecting attitudes, output, and overall satisfaction.

Table 4.7.2 Transactional leadership and Work motivation

Transactional leadership	Pearson Correlation	.576**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000
	N	391

^{**.} Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

With a Pearson correlation coefficient of 0.576, there is a moderate relationship between work motivation and transactional leadership. This implies a positive link, indicating that motivation of employees tends to rise in line with the degree of transactional leadership. By setting clear expectations and providing rewards for reaching them, transactional leadership—which emphasizes paying staff for reaching predetermined goals or performance standards—can increase motivation. It is highly improbable that the observed association between transactional leadership and work motivation happened by chance, as indicated by the statistical significance of the p-value of 0.000. Even if it is not as effective as transformational leadership, transactional leadership can somehow inspire workers, especially in situations where structure, incentives, and performance goals are essential.

Although their effects varied in strength, the data shows that both transformational and transactional leadership have a favourable impact on employee motivation at work. With a

strong association (r = 0.696), transformational leadership is good at motivating staff members through personal growth, creativity, and vision. The moderate association (r = 0.576) for transactional leadership, on the other hand, indicates that organized goal-setting and reward systems also increase motivation, albeit to a lower extent. The statistical significance of both correlations (p = 0.000) attests to their reliability. Depending on the goals and circumstances of the firm, both leadership philosophies are essential for raising employee engagement, while transformational leadership has a greater overall influence.

Organizational climate and work motivation

Table 4.7.3 Innovation and Work motivation

Innovation	Pearson Correlation	.673**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000
	N	391

^{**.} Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

A statistically significant positive link between work motivation and innovation can be observed in the correlation table. In particular, the two variables appear to have a moderate to strong positive association, as indicated by the Pearson correlation coefficient of 0.673. This implies that employees' motivation to participate in their work tends to improve in connection with an organization's level of innovation as an element of organizational climate. Innovation is a major driver for work motivation, as indicated by the strong positive correlation value of 0.673. The link is very statistically significant, as seen by the p-value of 0.000. The p-value offers compelling evidence that the observed link is not the result of random chance or sampling error because it is significantly lower than the traditional significance limit of 0.01 (and also 0.05). Overall, this evidence indicates that companies seeking to increase employee motivation should concentrate on developing an innovative culture since it seems to directly and favourably influence motivating employees to achieve better results.

Table 4.7.4 Autonomy and Work motivation

Autonomy	Pearson Correlation	.621**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000
	N	391

^{**.} Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

The correlation between Autonomy and Work Motivation is illustrated in the table with a Pearson correlation coefficient of 0.621. This number shows a moderately positive correlation between the two variables, indicating that employees' motivation for their job tends to grow as workplace autonomy rises. Further, employees are more likely to feel motivated when they have greater autonomy and control over their work. The correlation is statistically significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed), as indicated by the p-value of 0.000. The conclusion that autonomy is a significant element influencing motivation in the workplace is supported by the fact that the observed association between autonomy and work motivation is extremely unlikely to have happened by chance.

Table 4.7.5 Organisational support and Work motivation

Organisational support	Pearson Correlation	.631**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000
	N	391

^{**.} Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

With a Pearson correlation coefficient of 0.631, there is a reasonably substantial relationship between organizational support and work motivation. This suggests that employees' drive to perform at work tends to rise when their organization provides them with greater assistance. The p-value of 0.000 indicates that the association is statistically significant, indicating that it is significant and not the result of chance. Employee motivation is greatly increased by organizational support, which includes resources,

acknowledgment, and emotional support. This leads to increased engagement and productivity at work.

Table 4.7.6 Interactive cooperation and Work motivation

Interactive cooperation	Pearson Correlation	.625**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000
	N	391

^{**.} Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

With a Pearson correlation coefficient of 0.625, Interactive Cooperation and Work Motivation have a relatively significant relationship. This implies that employees' motivation at work tends to improve along with the degree of cooperative engagement among them. A p-value of 0.000 indicates that the association is statistically significant, suggesting that the observed correlation is not the result of chance. This emphasizes how crucial it is to create a cooperative workplace where communication and teamwork may boost both individual and group motivation, which in turn can result in better output and more job satisfaction.

4.8 Results of Regression Analysis

Impact of Leadership Styles on Work Motivation

Table 4.8.1 Regression (Transformational leadership and Work motivation)

Model Summary				
			Adjusted R	Std. Error of
Model	R	R Square	Square	the Estimate
1	.696	0.484	0.483	0.660
a. Predictors: (Constant),				
transformational leadership				

The correlation coefficient, or r value, indicates how strongly and in which direction the two variables are connected. Here, it demonstrates a substantial positive association,

indicating that work motivation tends to increase sharply as transformational leadership increases. The coefficient of determination, or R square value, shows that transformational leadership accounts for 48.4% of the variation in work motivation. In other words, transformational leadership is responsible for 48.4% changes in employee motivation.

Table 4.8.2 ANOVA Table (Transformational leadership and work motivation)

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	158.956	1	158.956	365.456	.000 ^b
	Residual	169.197	389	0.435		
	Total	328.153	390			

- a. Dependent Variable: Work motivation
- b. Predictors: (Constant), Transformational leadership

The statistical significance of the regression model examining how transformational leadership affects employee motivation at work is highlighted in the ANOVA table. While the residual sum of squares (169.197) takes into consideration variability that cannot be explained by other factors, the regression sum of squares (158.956) shows the percentage of work motivation variability that can be attributed to transformational leadership. Transformational leadership is a powerful predictor of work motivation, as evidenced by the model's excellent fit and the unusually high resulting F-statistic of 365.456. The model's statistical significance is highlighted by the p-value of 0.000, which indicates that there is a negligible possibility that the observed association is the result of chance. The model's overall findings indicate the crucial role transformational leadership plays in boosting employee motivation, showing that it explains 48.4% of the variation in employee motivation.

Table 4.8.3 Coefficient Table (Transformational leadership and work motivation)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		В	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.306	0.124		10.499	0.000
	Transformational leadership	0.617	0.032	0.696	19.117	0.000

a. Dependent Variable: Work motivation

The coefficient table offers comprehensive information about the connection between work motivation and transformative leadership. In the absence of transformative leadership, the baseline level of work motivation is represented by the constant beta value of 1.306. The unstandardized coefficient for transformational leadership is (B = 0.617), which indicates that, when all other variables are held constant, work motivation should rise by 0.617 units for every unit increase in transformational leadership. Transformational leadership has a considerable impact on work motivation, illustrated by the standardized coefficient (β = 0.696), which shows a high positive association between the two variables. This relationship's strength is indicated by the t-value of 19.117, and its statistical significance is confirmed by the p-value of 0.000. The substantial coefficients in these findings support the idea that transformational leadership is a key factor in improving employee enthusiasm at work.

Transactional Leadership and Work motivation

Table 4.8.4 Regression (Transactional leadership and Work motivation)

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.576	0.332	0.330	0.751
a. Predictors: (Constant), Transactional leadership				

The model summary shows how much transactional leadership affects employees' motivation at work. A moderate positive link between transactional leadership and job motivation is indicated by the r value of 0.576. With an R2 value of 0.332, transactional leadership is responsible for 33.2% of the variation in job motivation. A slightly more conservative estimate of the explained variance is provided by the adjusted R2 value of 0.330, which takes into consideration the number of predictors in the model. The average difference between the model's anticipated and observed work motivation levels is reflected in the standard error of the estimate (0.751), which raises the possibility of additional, unexplained factors. Employee motivation is probably influenced by a number of factors, even while transactional leadership has a significant effect on job motivation.

Table 4.8.5 ANOVA Table (Transactional leadership and work motivation)

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	108.789	1	108.789	192.917	.000 ^b
	Residual	219.364	389	0.564		
	Total	328.153	390			

- c. Dependent Variable: Work motivation
- d. Predictors: (Constant), Transactional leadership

The statistical significance of the model assessing the relationship between work motivation and transactional leadership is demonstrated by the examination of the ANOVA table. With an F-statistic of 192.917, which indicates a robust model fit, the regression sum of squares (108.789) illustrates the proportion of work motivation variance that can be accounted for by transactional leadership. The statistical significance of the link is confirmed by the p-value of 0.000, highlighting the impact of transactional leadership on employee motivation. According to these findings, transactional leadership is a significant and influential predictor in the setting under study, even though it accounts for some of the variation in motivation.

Table 4.8.6 Coefficient Table (Transformational leadership and work motivation)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		В	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.450	0.159		9.117	0.000
	Transactional leadership	0.557	0.040	0.576	13.889	0.000

Dependent Variable: Work motivation

The coefficient table offers comprehensive information about the connection between work motivation and transactional leadership. In the absence of transactional leadership, the fundamental state of work motivation is represented by the constant (B = 1.450). According to the unstandardized coefficient (B = 0.557), work motivation is expected to rise by 0.557 units for every unit increase in transactional leadership. The relationship's strength is confirmed by the standardized coefficient (Beta = 0.576), which demonstrates that transactional leadership has a substantial role in the changes in work motivation. The predictor's statistical significance is confirmed by the t-value (13.889) and p-value (0.000), which show a strong and significant connection. These findings demonstrate that, in the environment under study, transactional leadership—which is defined by explicit expectations and performance-based rewards—has a beneficial impact on employee engagement.

4.9 Impact of Organizational Climate on Work Motivation

Interactive cooperation and work motivation

Table 4.9.1 Regression (Interactive cooperation and Work motivation)

Model Summary						
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate		
1	.625	0.390	0.389	0.717		
a. Predictors: (Constant), Interactive cooperation						

A moderately positive association between work motivation and interactive cooperation is indicated by the r value of 0.625. According to the R-squared value of 0.390, interactive cooperation accounts for about 39% of the variation in work motivation. Given the amount of predictors, the Adjusted R-square (0.389) verifies that this model fits the data well. The average difference between the observed and expected levels of work motivation is shown by the Standard Error of the Estimate (0.717).

Table 4.9.2 ANOVA Table (Interactive cooperation and Work motivation)

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	128.140	1	128.140	249.214	.000 ^b
	Residual	200.014	389	0.514		
	Total	328.153	390			

- a. Dependent Variable: Work motivation
- b. Predictors: (Constant), Interactive cooperation

Given that the model is statistically significant (F-value of 249.214 and p-value of 0.000), it seems implausible that the association between work motivation and interactive collaboration is the result of chance. According to the Sum of Squares, interactive cooperation accounts for the majority of the variation in work motivation (128.140), with 200.014 representing the remaining variation.

Table 4.9.3 Coefficient Table (Interactive cooperation and Work motivation)

		Unstandardized		Standardized		
Model		Coefficients		Coefficients	t	Sig.
			Std.			
		В	Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.445	0.141		10.250	0.000
	Interactive					
	cooperation	0.578	0.037	0.625	15.787	0.000

a. Dependent Variable: Work motivation

According to the unstandardized coefficient (B = 0.578), work motivation should rise by 0.578 units for every unit increase in interactive cooperation. Interactive cooperation has a moderate to high effect on work motivation, as indicated by the standardized coefficient (Beta = 0.625). The statistical significance of this link is confirmed by the t-value of 15.787 and the p-value of 0.000.

Organizational Support and Work motivation

Table 4.9.4 Regression (Organizational Support and Work motivation)

Model Summary						
		R	Adjusted R	Std. Error of the		
Model	R	Square	Square	Estimate		
1	.631	0.398	0.396	0.713		
a. Predictors: (Constant), Organisational support						

A moderately positive association between work motivation and organizational support is indicated by the R value of 0.631. The degree of organizational support accounts for around 39.8% of the variation in work motivation, according to the R-squared value of 0.398. Taking into account the number of predictors, the Adjusted R-square (0.396) verifies that the model fits the data well. The average difference between the observed and expected levels of work motivation is indicated by the Standard Error of the Estimate (0.713).

Table 4.9.5 ANOVA Table (Organizational support and Work motivation)

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	130.462	1	130.462	256.713	.000 ^b
	Residual	197.691	389	0.508		
	Total	328.153	390			

- a. Dependent Variable: Work motivation
- b. Predictors: (Constant), Organizational support

The model is statistically significant, as indicated by the F-value of 256.713 and the p-value of 0.000. This indicates that work motivation is significantly predicted by organizational support, and that there is little possibility that the two factors are related. According to the Sum of Squares, organizational support accounts for 130.462 of the variation in work motivation, with 197.691 remaining.

Table 4.9.6 Coefficient Table (Organizational support and Work motivation)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	Т	Sig.
		В	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.470	0.137		10.696	0.000
	Organizational	0.54	0.025	0.621	16022	0.000
	support	0.564	0.035	0.631	16.022	0.000

a. Dependent Variable: Work motivation

According to the unstandardized coefficient (B = 0.564), work motivation should rise by 0.564 units for every unit increase in organizational support. The standardized coefficient (Beta = 0.631) demonstrates a moderate strength of the association, implying that organizational support has a strong influence on motivating employees. The statistical significance of this link is further supported by the t-value of 16.022 and the p-value of 0.000.

Autonomy and Work motivation

Table 4.9.7 Regression (Autonomy and Work motivation)

Model Summary						
		R	Adjusted R	Std. Error of the		
Model	R	Square	Square	Estimate		
1	.621	0.385	0.384	0.720		
a. Predictors: (Constant), Autonomy						

Work motivation and autonomy have a slightly favourable association (R-value of 0.621), according to the analysis, meaning that as autonomy rises, so does work motivation. The significant impact of autonomy is demonstrated by the R-squared value of 0.385, which indicates that it accounts for 38.5% of the variation in work motivation. The model is robust and has minimal room for improvement with the inclusion of more predictors, according to the Adjusted R-squared value of 0.384, which takes the number of predictors into consideration. Lastly, with an average difference of 0.720 units between the observed and anticipated values for work motivation, the Standard Error of the Estimate (0.720) shows that the model's predictions are fairly accurate.

Table 4.9.8 ANOVA Table (Autonomy and Work motivation)

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	126.411	1	126.411	243.747	.000 ^b
	Residual	201.742	389	0.519		
	Total	328.153	390			

a. Dependent Variable: Work motivation

b. Predictors: (Constant), Autonomy

The analysis shows that the model explains 126.411 units of variation in work motivation, with the remaining 201.742 units unexplained by autonomy, as indicated by the Sum of Squares (Regression: 126.411, Residual: 201.742, Total: 328.153). The F-value of 243.747 is very high, suggesting that the model fits the data well and that autonomy is a strong

predictor of work motivation. Additionally, the p-value (Sig.) of 0.000, which is less than 0.05, confirms that the regression model is statistically significant. This indicates that autonomy has a meaningful and non-random impact on work motivation.

Table 4.9.9 Coefficient Table (Autonomy and Work motivation)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		В	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.182	0.159		7.444	0.000
	autonomy	0.639	0.041	0.621	15.612	0.000

a. Dependent Variable: Work motivation

According to the analysis, the unstandardized coefficient for autonomy (B=0.639) indicates that work motivation would improve by 0.639 units for every unit increase in autonomy. When compared to other predictors in the model, autonomy has a significant positive impact on work motivation, as indicated by the standardized coefficient (Beta = 0.621). The statistical significance of this effect is further supported by the high t-value of 15.612, which verifies that the coefficient deviates significantly from zero. Furthermore, the p-value (Sig.) of 0.000 confirms that there is a statistically significant and non-random association between autonomy and job motivation.

Innovation and Work Innovation

Table 4.9.10 Regression (Innovation and Work Innovation)

Model Summary							
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate			
1	.673	0.453	0.452	0.679			
a. Predictors: (Constant), Innovation							

According to the analysis, innovation and work innovation have a high positive association (R-value of 0.673), with innovation accounting for 45.3% of the variation in work

innovation (R-squared = 0.453). Adding more predictors would not considerably increase the model's robustness, according to the adjusted R-squared value of 0.452. The model's reasonable accuracy is demonstrated by the standard error of the estimate (0.679), which shows that forecasts typically differ from observed values by 0.679 units. Overall, the results show a strong correlation between work innovation and innovation, with a model that is accurate and dependable.

Table 4.9.11 ANOVA Table (Innovation and Work Innovation)

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	148.810	1	148.810	322.774	.000 ^b
	Residual	179.343	389	0.461		
	Total	328.153	390			

According to the analysis, 148.810 units of variation in work innovation can be explained by the regression model, but 179.343 units cannot (Sum of Squares: Regression = 148.810, Residual = 179.343, Total = 328.153). Innovation is a powerful predictor of work innovation, as evidenced by the model's high F-value of 322.774. The model's statistical significance is further supported by the p-value of 0.000, which indicates that there is little probability that the association between innovation and work innovation is the result of chance. The findings demonstrate a strong and statistically significant correlation between the two variables overall.

Table 4.9.12 Coefficient Table (Innovation and Work Innovation)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
			Std.			
		В	Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	0.719	0.164		4.393	0.000
	Innovation	0.731	0.041	0.673	17.966	0.000

According to the analysis, the unstandardized coefficient (B = 0.731) shows that work innovation is predicted to rise by 0.731 units for every unit increase in innovation. When

compared to other possible predictors, the standardized coefficient (Beta = 0.673) indicates that innovation has a considerable impact and highlights a strong positive effect on work innovation. The significance of innovation is further supported by the high t-value of 17.966, which verifies that its coefficient deviates significantly from zero. Lastly, the statistical significance of the association between innovation and work innovation is confirmed by the p-value of 0.000.

4.10 Combined Effect of Leadership Styles and Organizational Climate on Work Motivation

Table 4.10.1 Regression (Leadership styles, Organizational climate and Work motivation)

Model Summary							
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate			
1	.665	0.442	0.440	0.686			
a. Predictors: (Constant), Leadership styles, organizational climate							

Key indicators for assessing the regression analysis, in which organizational climate and leadership styles predict a dependent variable work motivation, are provided in the model summary able. The dependent variable is expected to develop in a same direction as leadership styles and organizational climate change, according to the correlation coefficient (R=0.665), which shows a reasonably strong positive association between the predictors and the outcome. The model's predictors account for 44.2% of the variability in work motivation, according to the R2 value of 0.442. This indicates that the combined impact of leadership styles and organizational climate accounts for over half of the variation in work motivation, with additional factors not included in the model influencing the remaining 55.8%.

Table 4.10.2 ANOVA Table (Leadership styles, Organizational climate and Work motivation)

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	145.002	1	145.002	307.974	.000
	Residual	183.151	389	0.471		
	Total	328.153	390			

- a. Dependent Variable: Work motivation
- b. Predictors: (Constant), Leadership styles, Organizational climate

The ANOVA table evaluates the overall significance of the regression model by analysing the predictive power of organizational climate and leadership styles for work motivation. The percentage of work motivation variance that can be described by the predictors is represented by the Regression Sum of Squares (145.002), but the remaining sum of squares (183.151) takes into consideration the variance that cannot be explained. Work motivation varies overall, as indicated by the Total Sum of Squares (328.153). With 1 representing the predictors and 389 representing the residual, based on 390 observations, the degrees of freedom (df) show how complex the model appears to be. The significance value (Sig. = 0.000) attests to the model's high significance, indicating that organizational climate and leadership styles are powerful predictors of work motivation.

Table 4.10.3 Coefficient Table (Leadership styles, Organizational climate and Work motivation)

Model		Unstandardized		Standardized	t	Sig.
		Coefficients		Coefficients		
		В	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.186	0.142		8.379	0.000
	Leadership styles, organizational climate	0.656	0.037	0.665	17.549	0.000

Regression analysis indicates that organizational climate and leadership styles have a big impact on employee motivation. The unstandardized coefficient of 0.656 shows a positive correlation, indicating that work motivation rises as organizational climate and leadership styles improve. The standardized beta of 0.665 indicates that work motivation is significantly impacted by these factors. The findings are statistically significant, demonstrating that organizational climate and leadership styles are important factors influencing employee motivation at work (t-statistic of 17.549, p-value of 0.000).

4.11 Summary

The results of the study demonstrate the important influence that organizational climate and leadership styles have on work motivation. Nearly half of the variance in employee motivation may be explained by transformational leadership, which exhibits a significant positive influence. According to the data, work motivation increases significantly as transformational leadership styles develop. This significant correlation, which is statistically significant, highlights how transformational leadership can effectively develop an enthusiastic and committed workforce. Similarly, although its impact is rather mild, transactional leadership also significantly improves employee motivation at work. This leadership style, which is distinguished by clear expectations and performance-based incentives, stands out as a significant predictor, demonstrating how structured leadership techniques support employee motivation.

In spite of leadership styles, work motivation has a strong connection with elements of organizational climate, including collaborative work, support from the organization, autonomy, and innovation. Interactive interaction is essential because it promotes teamwork and collaboration, both of which increase employee enthusiasm. By giving employees the tools and encouragement they require, organizational support further increases motivation and promotes a positive work environment that increases engagement. Employee empowerment is important because autonomy, which enables workers to be independent in their tasks, also greatly boosts motivation. Another important

component is innovation in the workplace, which fosters creativity and adaptability and raises levels of passion and innovation in the workplace.

There is a significant connection between work motivation and the combined effects of organizational climate and leadership styles. These elements perform together to explain a significant amount of the variation in motivation for workers, suggesting that their interaction is essential to developing a motivated workforce. The results highlight how crucial it is to implement transformational and transactional leadership styles in addition to developing an innovative, encouraging, and empowering work environment. This combination improves overall organizational effectiveness in addition to encouraging higher levels of motivation. The findings show that in order to maintain a motivated and engaged workforce, organizations must make efforts in leadership development and create an atmosphere that values autonomy, creativity, and teamwork.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

5.1 Introduction

This section presents the hypotheses, findings, and conclusions established by the study on the variables affecting work motivation. It indicates the key hypotheses that were investigated in the study, with an emphasis on the connections between organizational climate elements (autonomy, innovation, organizational support, and interactive cooperation), leadership styles (transformational and transactional), and their effects on work motivation. Every hypothesis is assessed using statistical metrics, such as coefficients of determination (R2) and correlation coefficients (r), with p-values signifying statistical significance. The section ends with a review of the findings, demonstrating that all of the hypotheses were validated and that organizational climate and leadership styles have a major influence on employee motivation. The significance of these elements in developing an engaged and driven workforce is highlighted by this analysis.

5.2 Summary of findings

The results of this investigation offer strong evidence of the relationships and effects that have been hypothesized between work motivation, organizational climate elements, and leadership styles. The strength and importance of these relationships were evaluated by testing each hypothesis. According to the results, work motivation is significantly influenced by both transformational and transactional leadership styles as well as a number of organizational climate elements, including autonomy, creativity, organizational support, and interactive cooperation. When taken as one unit, the findings demonstrate how leadership styles, workplace dynamics, and motivational outcomes are interrelated, offering a thorough grasp of the elements influencing worker engagement and output.

The investigation explores the complex relationships between and effects on work motivation of organizational climate factors and leadership styles. The results emphasize how organizational elements including creativity, support, autonomy, and interactive cooperation, as well as transformational and transactional leadership styles, play a crucial

influence in determining employee motivation. The strength and significance of these relationships were examined by testing each hypothesis, and the results consistently supported the suggested connections and impacts at a high level of statistical significance (p < 0.01). Strong relationships were found between work motivation and transformational and transactional leadership styles, with r = 0.696 and r = 0.576, respectively. Similarly, transformational leadership explained 48.4% of the variance, while transactional leadership explained 33.2%, according to R2, which measures the effects of both leadership styles on work motivation.

Furthermore, there were significant correlations between work motivation and organizational climate characteristics as creativity (r=0.673), organizational support (r=0.631), autonomy (r=0.621), and interactive cooperation (r=0.625). Their varying effects, which range from 38.5% to 45.3% variance explained, contribute to emphasize their significance even further. The interaction between leadership styles and workplace dynamics in promoting employee engagement and productivity was highlighted by the strong, considerable predictive capacity for work motivation that the combined influence of leadership styles and organizational climate produced. The following discussion explores these findings in greater detail and places their implications for theoretical frameworks and organizational practices in context.

5.3 Results of Hypotheses Testing

The summary of the results of hypotheses testing is presented in the table below:

Table 5.1 Summary of hypotheses

Hypotheses	Statement	Results	Decision
H1	There is a significant relationship	r=0.696	Supported
	between transformational leadership	p<0.01	
	style and work motivation.		

H2	There is a significant relationship	r=0.576	Supported
	between transactional leadership	p<0.01	
	style and work motivation.		
Н3	There is a significant impact of	$R^2 = 48.4\%$	Supported
	transformational leadership style on	p<0.01	
	work motivation.		
H4	There is a significant impact of	$R^2 = 33.2\%$	Supported
	transactional leadership style on work	p<0.01	
	motivation.		
H5(a)	There is a significant relationship	r=0.673	Supported
	between innovation and work	p<0.01	
	motivation.		
H5(b)	There is a significant relationship	r=0.631	Supported
	between organisational support and	p<0.01	
	work motivation.		
H5(c)	There is a significant relationship	r=0.621	Supported
	between autonomy and work	p<0.01	
	motivation.		
H5(d)	There is a significant relationship	r=0.625	Supported
113(u)	between interactive cooperation and	p<0.01	Supported
	work motivation	p<0.01	
H6(a)	There is a significant impact of	$R^2 = 45.3\%$	Supported
	innovation on work motivation.	p<0.01	
H6(b)	There is a significant impact of	R ² = 39.8%	Supported
	organisational support on work	p<0.01	
	motivation.		

H6(c)	There is a significant impact of	$R^2 = 38.5\%$	Supported
	autonomy on work motivation.	p<0.01	
H6(d)	There is a significant impact of	$R^2 = 39\%$	Supported
	interactive cooperation on work	p<0.01	
	motivation.		
H7	There is a significant impact of	$R^2 = 44.2\%$	Supported
	leadership styles and organizational	p<0.01	
	climate on work motivation.		

H1: There is a significant relationship between transformational leadership style and work motivation.

Transformational leadership style and work motivation are strongly positively correlated, as indicated by the correlation coefficient of 0.696. This implies that work motivation tends to rise in line with transformational leadership style. Employees are more likely to be inspired and motivated by leaders who exhibit transformational traits including inspiring and motivating their teams, promoting innovation, and supporting personal growth. The correlation's strength, which is near 0.7, indicates that there is a significant and strong association. From the results, it can be said that transformational leadership has a positive relationship with work motivation and reject the null hypothesis, which would imply that there is no relationship.

H2: There is a significant relationship between transactional leadership style and work motivation.

Work motivation and transactional leadership have a moderately positive relationship, as indicated by the correlation coefficient of 0.576. This link suggests that transactional leaders, who emphasize organized tasks, rewards, and penalties, can positively affect their employees' motivation, even though it is not as strong as the one observed for transformational leadership. Although transactional leadership plays a part in motivation,

other elements (such transformational leadership) may be more important, according to the moderate correlation. A p-value of less than 0.01 indicates that this outcome is statistically significant. As a result, we can reject the null hypothesis and confirm that there is a significant relationship between transactional leadership and employee motivation.

H3: There is a significant impact of transformational leadership style on work motivation.

The transformational leadership style account for 48.4% of the variation in work motivation, according to the R2 value of 48.4%. This is a considerable amount, suggesting that transformative leadership significantly and meaningfully affects employee motivation at work. The comparatively high R2 value suggests that almost fifty percent of the observed variations in employee motivation may be explained by transformational leaders that encourage, challenge and empower employees. Considering that the p-value is less than 0.01 and indicates statistical significance, it is improbable that the link is the result of chance. Therefore, it can be claimed that transformational leadership significantly improves employee motivation at work.

H4: There is a significant impact of transactional leadership style on work motivation.

The R2 value of 33.2% indicates that transactional leadership accounts for 33.2% of the variation in work motivation. This indicates that transactional leadership—which depends on rewards, recognition, and corrective actions—plays a significant role in employee motivation, even though its influence is less than that of transformational leadership. The lower R2 value indicates that motivation at work may be influenced by more than just transactional leadership, such as external influences or personal motivation. The statistical significance of the relationship between transactional leadership and work motivation is confirmed by the p-value of less than 0.01. As a result, while not quite as effective as transformational leadership, transactional leadership does have a significant effect on work motivation.

H5(a): There is a significant relationship between innovation and work motivation.

Innovation and work motivation are strongly positively correlated, demonstrated by the correlation coefficient of 0.673. This suggests that companies that encourage innovation, experimentation, and creativity at work promote work environments that motivate staff members to be more passionate and enthusiastic about their professions. In addition to encouraging personal fulfilment, an innovative culture makes employees feel more connected to the goals of the organization, which increases motivation considerably. This conclusion is reinforced by the statistically significant p-value (< 0.01). This finding emphasizes how important it is to support innovation as a primary strategy for improving employee motivation at work.

H5(b): There is a significant relationship between organisational support and work motivation.

Work motivation and organizational support have a slightly favourable association, as indicated by the correlation coefficient of 0.631. Employees feel appreciated and are more motivated when they believe that their company offers them resources, acknowledgment, mentorship, or other forms of support. Employees who receive organizational assistance are also less likely to experience stress at work and feel more secure in their positions. A supportive organizational environment is crucial for sustaining and improving employee engagement, as evidenced by this study and the statistically significant p-value. Businesses that prioritize their workers' growth and well-being first are likely to witness increased performance and sustained motivation.

H5(c): There is a significant relationship between autonomy and work motivation.

With a correlation coefficient (r=0.621) indicating a substantial positive association, the data supports the hypothesis that autonomy and motivation for work are significantly correlated. According to this research, employees' motivation levels usually increase significantly when they feel more autonomy in their jobs, including the ability to manage their duties, make decisions, and exert control over their work procedures. The statistical significance of this link is confirmed by the p-value (<0.01). By encouraging a sense of accountability, self-efficacy, and ownership—all of which are important sources of

intrinsic motivation—autonomy empowers workers. People are more likely to be engaged, perform better, and find fulfilment in their work when they believe they can handle their duties on their own and are trusted.

H5(d): There is a significant relationship between interactive cooperation and work motivation

Interactive cooperation and work motivation demonstrate a positive association, according to the correlation coefficient of 0.625. Colleague support, open communication, and teamwork are all components of interactive cooperation. Effective teamwork among employees creates a feeling of shared belonging and purpose, which significantly improves motivation. With a p-value less than 0.01, this association is likewise statistically significant. Since employees are more likely to feel encouraged and motivated in a cooperative setting, promoting cooperation and team-oriented problem-solving can be a useful strategy for raising employee motivation.

H6(a): There is a significant impact of organisational support on work motivation.

Innovation accounts for about 45.3% of the variation in work motivation, according to the R2 value of 45.3%. This significant percentage emphasizes how important creative approaches are in increasing worker passion. Innovation may result in interesting and demanding work, chances for career advancement, and a feeling of excitement at work, all of which can increase motivation. The credibility of this conclusion is further confirmed by the statistically significant p-value (< 0.01). This research emphasizes how important it is to create a culture of innovation and continuous growth in order to maintain employee engagement and motivation.

H6(b): There is a significant impact of organisational support on work motivation.

The R2 value of 39.8% indicates that organizational support accounts for almost 40% of the variation in work motivation. This significant percentage indicates that employees are likely to be more motivated if they recognize a substantial degree of organizational support. Employees who work for supportive organizations feel valued and that they belong because

they receive resources, direction, and acknowledgment. This relationship's statistical significance is further shown by the p-value. Employee-centric policies and procedures, like resource allocation, mentoring programs, and recognition procedures, should be supported by organizations looking to increase employee motivation.

H6(c): There is a significant impact of autonomy on work motivation.

The 38.5% R2 score indicates that 38.5% of the variation in job motivation can be explained by autonomy. This suggests significant impact since motivated individuals are more likely to feel trusted and empowered to make decisions about their work. A sense of accountability and ownership can be promoted by autonomy, and this frequently results in a greater enthusiasm for functions and outcomes. The reliability and significance of this impact are confirmed by the substantial p-value (< 0.01). Offering employees flexibility and decision-making options should be the primary objective for organizations looking to increase motivation among workers.

H6(d): There is a significant impact of interactive cooperation on work motivation.

With statistical significance (p<0.01), the results for hypothesis H6(d) demonstrate that interactive collaboration has a strong and substantial impact on work motivation, accounting for 39% of its variance (R2 = 0.39). This demonstrates how important cooperation and teamwork are in promoting motivation since productive interactions with coworkers make employees feel more involved, supported, and purpose-driven. By establishing a culture of open communication, trust, and meaningful cooperation and highlighting the significance of interpersonal relationships in influencing employee performance and happiness, organizations can improve work motivation.

H7: There is a significant impact of leadership styles and organizational climate on work motivation.

The findings confirm Hypothesis H7, which holds that organizational climate and leadership styles significantly affect work motivation. These two factors together account for 44.2% of the variation in work motivation, according to the (R2) value of 44.2%,

indicating a significant influence. This indicates that organizational climate and leadership styles account for almost half of the variation in work motivation. The statistical significance of this result is confirmed by the p-value (< 0.01), which further supports the hypothesis that organizational climate and leadership styles are significant and meaningful predictors of work motivation. The findings confirm Hypothesis H7, which argues that organizational climate and leadership styles significantly affect work motivation.

5.4 Summary

In nutshell, this section emphasizes the important connections and effects of different leadership styles and aspects of the organizational climate on employee motivation at work. Work motivation is significantly impacted by both transformational and transactional leadership styles, according to the research, with transformational leadership having a greater effect. Furthermore, it was discovered that work motivation was significantly positively correlated with important organizational climate elements such as autonomy, creativity, organizational support, and interactive teamwork. The statistical study also shows that these elements work together to account for a significant amount of the variation in motivation, highlighting the role that organizational culture and leadership play in influencing worker engagement and output. All of the study's hypotheses were validated, demonstrating how important these components are to developing a motivated workforce.

CHAPTER VI

IMPLICATIONS, SUGGESTIONS AND CONCLUSION

6.1 Introduction

The theoretical and managerial implications of the research findings are presented in this section of the study. It investigates the ways in which several components, including teamwork, autonomy, creativity, organizational climate, and leadership style, affect work motivation. The section addresses the study's main theoretical contributions, relating them to accepted theories of motivation, and provides helpful suggestions for businesses looking to develop a more engaged and determined staff. It additionally provides managers with achievable recommendations on how they can improve employee engagement through collaborative and innovative work practices, leadership development, and supportive work environments.

6.2 Implications of the Study

Theoretical Implications

The results of this research emphasize a number of important factors that have significant effects on employee motivation, including teamwork, autonomy, innovation, leadership style, organizational climate, and basic organizational support. These discoveries broaden our knowledge of the ways in which different elements interact to improve employee engagement and performance and are consistent with current theories of motivation. Organizations and researchers can improve their knowledge of workplace motivation and create more focused plans to cultivate a motivated workforce by using these insights. The potential consequences of these findings could be helpful in the creation of more successful leadership techniques, workplace regulations, and corporate cultures that support both individual and group achievement. Some theoretical implications, in the light of these findings, are presented as follows:

1. Leadership Style as a catalyst for Employee Motivation: The results highlight how important leadership style is in motivating employees. In particular, compared

to transactional leadership, transformational leadership—which emphasizes inspiring, challenging, and promoting personal growth—emerges as a more powerful motivator. According to this, leaders that place a high value on vision, creativity, and individual growth within their teams are more likely to promote high levels of motivation. This is consistent with fundamental theories like Bass's Transformational Leadership Theory. Future theoretical studies ought to examine the ways in which these leadership practices influence organizational outcomes like performance and satisfaction that go beyond motivation.

- 2. The Importance of Organizational Environment: The study emphasizes how employee motivation is significantly impacted by the larger organizational climate, which includes components like workplace autonomy, teamwork, and employee support. This supports the Organizational Climate Theory, which holds that improved performance and satisfaction are encouraged by a favorable work environment. The research investigation provides additional insight on how organizational climate and policies affect motivation by highlighting the value of collaborative efforts, autonomy, and supportive leadership.
- 3. The Function of Innovation in Motivation: Innovation and motivation are closely related, which emphasizes how crucial it is for businesses to encourage innovative thinking. This result is consistent with the Innovation Diffusion Theory, which postulates that a culture that fosters innovation raises employee zeal and engagement. As a result, this study improves our knowledge of how innovation-driven workplaces boost employee motivation and satisfaction while also improving organizational performance by offering fresh challenges and development possibilities.
- 4. **Autonomy and Self-Driven Motivation:** Self-Determination Theory (SDT), which highlights independence, competence, and connection as critical elements influencing intrinsic motivation, is supported by the study's findings. Motivation and autonomy (employee freedom in decision-making and task management) have a positive link, which emphasizes how crucial it is to provide workers some degree

- of control over their job. It implies that in order to increase employee job satisfaction, businesses should place a high priority on providing employees the freedom to decide for themselves and handle their jobs on their own.
- 5. Collaborative Work Culture: Social Exchange Theory, which highlights the importance of social connections and reciprocal relationships in the workplace, is supported by the positive correlation between motivation and interactive collaboration (teamwork and communication). According to the study's findings, a collaborative and open workplace environment encourages employees to assist one another, which increases their motivation and sense of belonging. According to this theoretical conclusion, companies should place a high priority on developing strong relationships with others in order to improve cooperation and teamwork.
- 6. Holistic Understanding of Motivational elements: The study expands on current theories of motivation, including Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory, by taking into consideration the combined effects of organizational climate elements and leadership behaviours. The study demonstrates that the larger organizational environment, which includes support, autonomy, and collaboration, has an impact on motivation in addition to particular leadership behaviours and work content. This thorough approach strengthens our understanding of workplace motivation.

Managerial Implications

The findings of the study offer insightful information about the main factors influencing employee motivation at work, emphasizing the role that organizational climate and leadership styles have in creating a motivated and effective workforce. Several managerial implications can be made in light of these findings to assist companies in establishing an environment that encourages greater levels of motivation and general employee satisfaction. These consequences emphasize on the growth of leadership abilities, the establishment of a nurturing work environment, the fostering of creativity, the support of independence, and the improvement of cooperation and teamwork. By putting these tactics into practice, businesses can boost organizational performance and employee motivation,

which will ultimately lead to long-term success. Some managerial implications are given as follows:

- 1. Develop Transformational Leadership Skills: Organizations should give priority to training and development initiatives that promote transformational leadership qualities like vision, inspiration, and empowerment, as these attributes have a substantial impact on employee engagement and motivation. The workforce is more engaged and productive when leaders inspire their people by promoting personal growth and questioning the status quo. These qualities can be developed through useful programs like leadership coaching and mentoring.
- 2. Establish a Supportive Work Environment: Organizations should concentrate on establishing a work environment where the employees feel appreciated and supported. This entails supplying the required materials, acknowledging staff accomplishments, and providing direction through mentorship initiatives. The results imply that workers are more inclined to contribute to the success of the company when they perceive greater levels of organizational support, whether in the form of emotional support or professional growth.
- 3. Encourage Innovation in the Workplace: Considering the significant connection between innovation and motivation, organizations should make an intentional attempt to promote an innovative and creative culture. This could involve promoting creative thinking among the employees, rewarding creative solutions, and offering platforms for experimentation and idea exchange. Employee motivation is increased by an innovative culture that not only promotes job satisfaction but also a sense of excitement and ownership.
- **4. Increase Employee Autonomy:** Following the results, which show that autonomy can positively influence motivation, companies should concentrate on providing workers more authority over their work and decision-making. Flexible work hours, autonomously run teams, and chances for independently driven problem-solving are strategies to do this. Employee motivation is higher and they are more inclined

- to take responsibility and authority for their work when they believe they have control over their workflow.
- 5. Encourage Teamwork and Interactive collaboration: One of the main sources of motivation is interactive collaboration, which is the feeling of community and purpose that is produced through teamwork. Businesses should make an investment in encouraging a collaborative workplace by supporting team-based initiatives, fostering transparent communication, and assisting with interdepartmental collaboration. Promoting collaboration among staff members on difficult assignments can improve respect for one another and inspire people to work hard.
- 6. Integrate Leadership Styles and Organizational Culture for Stronger Impact:
 Research indicates that a substantial amount of motivation among employees has been connected to both organizational climate and leadership behaviors.
 Organizations can take advantage of this by implementing integrated strategies that combine initiatives to enhance the general work environment with leadership development. The most significant improvements in employee motivation and organizational performance will likely originate from programs that match leadership practices with a favorable organizational environment. Examples of these projects include leadership training, organizational change initiatives, and the development of an inspiring culture.

6.3 Suggestions

The outcomes of the proposed hypothesis provide valuable insight on the components that have a major impact on employee motivation at work. Employee motivation has been found to be significantly impacted by a variety of organizational climate factors, including autonomy, creativity, organizational support, and interactive cooperation, as well as leadership styles, particularly transformational and transactional leadership. These results demonstrate how important leadership behaviours and workplace culture are in creating a motivated workforce. Based on these findings, this section provides some

recommendations that can be made to assist firms in increasing employee satisfaction and work motivation, which will ultimately lead to increased output and performance.

- 1. Promote Transformational Leadership: Organizations should concentrate on helping its managers and leaders develop transformational leadership skills. Employee motivation can be greatly increased by leaders that inspire, encourage, and support personal development. Programs for training and development could be implemented to assist managers in becoming more proficient transformational leaders.
- 2. Make Effective Use of Transactional Leadership: Transactional leadership is still important to motivation, even though transformational leadership has a greater impact. Establishing clear expectations and rewarding performance are two examples of transactional leadership strategies that organizations may employ to promote ethical conduct. The best outcomes, meanwhile, will probably come from maintaining a balance with transformational leadership.
- 3. **Encourage Innovation:** Increasing motivation demands fostering an innovative workplace. Companies should recognize creative contributions, support experimentation resources, and promote innovation and innovative thoughts. Initiatives like hackathons, innovation workshops, and encouraging a continuous improvement culture can help achieve this.
- 4. **Boost Organizational Support:** In order to increase motivation, firms must provide a supportive environment. This entails providing opportunities for professional development, resources, acknowledgment, and mentorship. Employers can boost motivation and engagement by demonstrating to staff members that they are appreciated and encouraged.
- 5. **Promote Autonomy:** Employee motivation can be greatly raised by granting them greater authority over their work. By giving workers more autonomy over decisions, allowing them to oversee their own projects, and offering flexible work schedules, organizations may empower their workforce. A sense of accountability and ownership may result from this, and this may be highly motivating.

- 6. Encourage Interactive Cooperation: It is impossible to overestimate the value of cooperation and teamwork. Employers should give employees the chance to collaborate and form strong connections with one another. By fostering a feeling of common purpose, team-building exercises, cooperative projects, and an open communication culture can increase employee motivation.
- 7. Support Leadership Styles and Organizational Climate: Businesses should concentrate on developing a supportive organizational culture that complements successful leadership theories. This involves developing a welcoming, encouraging, and growth-oriented workplace where leadership behaviors promote empowerment, trust, and alignment with company objectives.
- 8. Training Programs and Leadership Development: Organizations should fund leadership development initiatives to assist leaders in comprehending the advantages of transformational and transactional leadership philosophies, as these approaches have significant impact on motivation. Leaders who receive training are better able to motivate their staff and inspire them.

The results highlight the value of an extensive approach for improving employee motivation at work. Organizations may establish an environment where motivation flourishes by encouraging transformational leadership, encouraging innovation, providing organizational support, and giving staff members freedom and chances for interactive collaboration. Programs for developing leaders and a positive work environment are essential to maintaining these initiatives. By putting these tactics into practice, businesses will increase employee motivation and engagement while also developing a more robust and effective workforce, which will contribute to long-term success and expansion.

6.4 Conclusion

The findings of the research emphasize the importance of creating a work environment where workers feel motivated, appreciated, and empowered by highlighting the substantial effects of leadership styles, organizational climate, and employee autonomy on motivation. The results show that transformational leadership—which prioritizes innovation, personal development, and vision—is a more powerful motivator than transactional leadership,

which stresses rewards and penalties. A collaborative and encouraging work environment that values independence, cooperation, and creativity is also essential for raising employee engagement and job satisfaction. The study offers theoretical and practical implications for firms looking to boost employee motivation and performance by acknowledging the interdependence of these related aspects.

Considering a well-integrated strategy is likely to result in the most advantages in motivation and organizational outcomes, the study also emphasizes the importance of integrating leadership styles with organizational climate. Managers may use these findings to build customized initiatives that foster creativity, give people more autonomy, establish a collaborative and supportive culture, and develop transformational leadership qualities. Furthermore, companies could ensure that employees have confidence in the company's success by providing growth opportunities, acknowledging accomplishments, and encouraging open communication. In essence, developing a motivated and productive staff necessitates a comprehensive strategy that combines strong leadership, a positive work climate, and employee empowerment.

APPENDIX A

SURVEY COVER LETTER

Dear Participant,

My name is Feroj Khan and I am a Doctor of Business Administration student at Swiss

School of Business and Management. I am conducting a study on "Impact of leadership

styles and organizational climate on work motivation" as part of my thesis requirements. I

am reaching out to invite you to participate in this research by completing a survey

designed to gather insights on this topic.

The purpose of this study is to investigate the impact of organizational climate and

leadership styles on work motivation of employees working in Indian private sector. Your

responses will be valuable in identifying trends and patterns that can contribute to

advancements in this field of study. The survey will take approximately 10-15 minutes to

complete.

Please be assured that your responses will remain confidential and anonymous. All data

collected will be used solely for academic purposes and will be reported in an aggregated

form, ensuring that no personally identifiable information is included. Participation is

entirely voluntary, and you may choose to skip any question or stop participating at any

time without any consequence.

While there are no direct benefits for participating, your insights will contribute to a

broader understanding of the relationships between leadership styles, organizational

climate and work motivation which may support future improvements and research in this

field. Thank you very much for considering this request.

Sincerely,

Feroj Khan

Doctor of Business Administration

Swiss School of Business and Management Geneva

134

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE

Section – A: Demographic Details

This section addresses demographic and background information of the respondents for statistical analysis. Fill up the blank or please tick () whichever is the appropriate response. Your answers will be combined with other respondent's responses and will be kept confidential and strictly will be used for research purpose only.

Name of the
Respondent:
1. What is your gender?
□ Male
□ Female
2. What is your current marital status?
□ Single
□ Married
☐ Prefer not to say
3. What is your age group?
☐ Less than 26 years
□ 26-35 years
□ 36-45 years
☐ 45 years and above
4. What is your educational qualification?
☐ Undergraduate degree
☐ Postgraduate degree
□ Professional

5. What is your present job designation?
□ Entry level
☐ Middle level
□ Senior level
6. What is your work experience in years?
□ 0-5 years
□ 6-10 years
□ 11-15 years
☐ More than 15 years
7. For which industry you are working now?
□ IT/Software
☐ Manufacturing
□ Retail
☐ Banking/Finance
8. What is the location of your workplace?
□ Thane
□ Pune
□ Mumbai
□ Nashik
□ Nagpur
9. What is the mode of your employment in the current organization.
☐ Temporary
☐ Permanent

Section - B

Direction: This section covers your overall opinion about the leadership styles present in an organization. To assess your experience with different leadership styles possessed by your leaders, please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements using the scale provided.

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements by selecting the appropriate option on a scale from 1=Strongly Disagree to 5= Strongly Agree.

S. No	Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	The manager had a clearly defined vision.	1	2	3	4	5
2	The manager encouraged team members to adopt innovative and efficient approaches during project execution.	1	2	3	4	5
3	The manager negotiated with team members and was concerned about their needs and feelings before taking any action.	1	2	3	4	5
4	The manager practiced what he/she preached and set a good example for others.	1	2	3	4	5

	The manager facilitated					
5	collaboration between	1	2	3	4	5
	team members.					
	The manager encouraged					
	team members to set					
6	higher goals and achieve	1	2	3	4	5
	these goals efficiently and					
	effectively.					
	The manager praised me					
7	when my performance	1	2	3	4	5
,	exceeded his/her	1				
	expectations.					
	The manager increased					
	my salary and total					
8	compensation when I	1	2	3	4	5
	exceeded the performance					
	of average employees.					
	The manager rewarded					
9	excellent performance	1	2	3	4	5
	with bonuses.					
	The manager rewarded					
10	excellent performance	1	2	3	4	5
	with promotions.					

Section – C

Direction: This section covers your overall opinion about the organizational climate present in an organization. To assess your experience with different culture of the

organization, please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements using the scale provided.

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements by selecting the appropriate option on a scale from 1=Strongly Disagree to 5= Strongly Agree.

S. No	Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	My organization ensures effective communication channels so that priorities, evidence and ideas are exchanged across all organizational units	1	2	3	4	5
2	My organization promote linkages between people of organization and researchers	1	2	3	4	5
3	My organization promote partnerships involving people in the organization and researchers	1	2	3	4	5
4	My organization encourage people in their organization to participate in research conferences	1	2	3	4	5

5	My organization allows the acquisition of research studies and research reports	1	2	3	4	5
6	My organization favors the adaptation of research studies and research reports	1	2	3	4	5
7	My organization supports dissemination of research studies and research reports	1	2	3	4	5
8	My organization promotes the linkage development between researchers and decision makers	1	2	3	4	5
9	My organization provides training on how to better share knowledge	1	2	3	4	5
10	My organization provides training on how to better use research findings in your day to-day professional activities	1	2	3	4	5
11	My organization update databases to make sure that individuals in the organization have access	1	2	3	4	5

	to the latest research					
	studies and research					
	reports					
	My organization prepares					
	written documents such					
12	as lessons learned,	1	2	3	4	5
	training manuals, best					
	work practices, etc.					
	People in my					
	organizational unit are					
	encouraged to search for					
13	fresh, new ways to	1	2	3	4	5
13	acquire, adapt,	1				3
	disseminate research					
	findings, studies and					
	reports					
	People in my					
	organizational unit are					
	encouraged to come up					
	with new ideas or					
14	recommendations on how	1	2	3	4	5
	to increase the	1	_		·	
	acquisition, adaptation,					
	dissemination of research					
	findings, studies and					
	reports					
	People in my					
15	organizational unit are	1	2	3	4	5
	encouraged to put into					

	action new strategies or					
	ideas to improve the					
	acquisition, adaptation,					
	dissemination of research					
	findings, studies and					
	reports					
	People in my					
	organizational unit give					
16	high value to change and	1	2	3	4	5
	continuous quality					
	improvement					

Section-D

Direction: This section covers your overall opinion about the work motivation. To assess your experience with the work performed by you in the organization, please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements using the scale provided.

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements by selecting the appropriate option on a scale from 1=Strongly Disagree to 5= Strongly Agree.

S. No	Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	For the pleasure it gives me to know more about my job.	1	2	3	4	5

2	For the pleasure of doing new things in my job	1	2	3	4	5
3	For the pleasure I feel while learning new things in my job.	1	2	3	4	5
4	For the pleasure of developing new skills in my job.	1	2	3	4	5
5	Because I feel a lot of personal satisfaction while mastering certain difficult job skills.	1	2	3	4	5
6	For the pleasure I feel while improving some of my weak points on the job.	1	2	3	4	5
7	For the satisfaction I experience while I am perfecting my job skills.	1	2	3	4	5
8	For the satisfaction I feel while overcoming certain difficulties in my job.	1	2	3	4	5
9	Because I feel pleasant in my job.	1	2	3	4	5
10	For the excitement I feel when I am really involved in my job.	1	2	3	4	5

	For the intense pleasure I					
11	feel while I am doing the	1	2	3	4	5
	tasks that I like.					
	Because I like the feeling					
12	of being totally immersed	1	2	3	4	5
	in my job.					

. ~	
Any Suggestions	
mily buggestions	

Thank You!

REFERENCES

- Abdul Aziz, S.F., Silong, A.D., Abdul Karim, N.A., and Hassan, H. (2012), "Leadership practices in public sector in selected countries: An integrative literature review", *Journal of Management Policy and Practice*, Vol. 13, No. 1, pp. 113-126.
- Adair, J.E. (2008), *The best of John Adair on leadership and management*, Thorogood Publishing, London.
- Ajayi, V.O. (2017), "Primary sources of data and secondary sources of data", *Benue State University Journal*, Vol. 1, No. 1, pp. 1-6.
- Al-Awlaqi, M.A., Aamer, A.M., Barahma, M.M., and Battour, M. (2021), "The interaction between leadership styles and their followers' human capital: A correspondence analysis approach applied to micro-sized businesses", *Journal of Management Development*, Vol. 40, No. 1, pp. 74-93.
- Allen, D.K. (2003), "Organizational climate and strategic change in higher education: Organizational insecurity", *Higher Education*, Vol. 46, No. 1, pp. 61–92.
- Almansour, Y.M. (2012), "The relationship between leadership styles and motivation of managers conceptual framework", *Journal of Arts, Science and Commerce*, Vol. 3, No. 1, pp. 161-166.
- Al-Musadieq, M., Raharjo, K., Solimun, S., and Fernandes, A.R. (2018), "The mediating effect of work motivation on the influence of job design and organizational culture against HR performance", *Journal of Management Development*, Vol. 37, No. 6, pp. 452-469.
- Alshallah, S. (2004), "Job satisfaction and motivation: How do we inspire employees?", *Radiology Management*, Vol. 26, No. 2, pp. 47-51.
- Alves, J.C., Lovelace, K.J., Manz, C.C., Matsypura, D., Toyasaki, F., and Ke, K.
 (2006), "A cross-cultural perspective of self-leadership", *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, Vol. 21, No. 4, pp. 338-359.

- Ambrose, M.L., and Kulik, C.T. (1999), "Old friends, new faces: Motivation research in the 1990s", *Journal of Management*, Vol. 25, No. 3, pp. 231-292.
- Anand, R., and UdayaSuriyan, G. (2010), "Emotional intelligence and its relationship with leadership practices", *International Journal of Business and Management*, Vol. 5, No. 2, pp. 65-76.
- Antonakis, J., Avolio, B.J., and Sivasubramaniam, N. (2003), "Context and leadership: An examination of the nine-factor full-range leadership theory using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire", *The Leadership Quarterly*, Vol. 14, No. 3, pp. 261-275.
- Arnold, J. (2005), Work Psychology: Understanding Human Behaviour in the Workplace, 4th ed., Prentice Hall Financial Times, London.
- Arshad, M., Qasim, N., Farooq, O., and Rice, J. (2022), "Empowering leadership
 and employees' work engagement: A social identity theory perspective",

 Management Decision, Vol. 60, No. 5, pp. 1218-1236.
- Ary, D., Jacobs, L.C., and Razavieh, A. (1996), *Introduction to research in education*, Harcourt Brace College Publishers, Orlando, Florida.
- Asrar-ul-Haq, M., and Anwar, S. (2018), "The many faces of leadership: Proposing research agenda through a review of literature", *Future Business Journal*, Vol. 4, No. 2, pp. 179-188.
- Auh, S., Menguc, B., and Jung, Y.S. (2014), "Unpacking the relationship between empowering leadership and service-oriented citizenship behaviors: A multilevel approach", *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, Vol. 42, pp. 558-579.
- Avolio, B.J., and Bass, B.M. (2001), Developing potential across a full range of Leadership Tm: Cases on transactional and transformational leadership, Psychology Press, New York, NY.
- Babbie, E. (2003), *Practice of Social Research*, Wadsworth Publishing Company, Belmont, CA.
- Bag, S., Gupta, S., Choi, T.M., and Kumar, A. (2021), "Roles of innovation leadership on using big data analytics to establish resilient healthcare supply chains

- to combat the COVID-19 pandemic: A multimethodological study", *IEEE Transactions on Engineering Management*, Vol. 71, pp. 13213-13226.
- Bahmanabadi, S. (2015), "A Case Study of the Impact of Leadership Styles on Bank Employees' Job Satisfaction", unpublished Bachelor's thesis, Södertörn University, Huddinge, Sweden.
- Bakar, J.A., Clemes, M.D., and Bicknell, K. (2017), "A comprehensive hierarchical model of retail banking", *International Journal of Bank Marketing*, Vol. 35, No. 4, pp. 662-684.
- Bass, B.M. (1990), "From transactional to transformational leadership: Learning to share the vision", *Organizational Dynamics*, Vol. 18, No. 3, pp. 19-31.
- Bass, B.M., and Avolio, B.J. (1990), *Transformational leadership development: Manual for the multifactor leadership questionnaire*, Consulting Psychologists Press, Palo Alto, CA.
- Bass, B.M., and Avolio, B.J. (1993), "Transformational leadership and organizational culture", *Public Administration Quarterly*, Vol. 17, No. 1, pp. 112-121.
- Bass, B.M., and Bass Bernard, M. (1985), *Leadership and performance beyond expectations*, Free Press, New York, NY.
- Bass, B.M., Avolio, B.J., Jung, D.I., and Berson, Y. (2003), "Predicting unit performance by assessing transformational and transactional leadership", *Journal* of Applied Psychology, Vol. 88, No. 2, pp. 207-218.
- Bjugstad, K., Thach, E.C., Thompson, K.J., and Morris, A. (2006), "A fresh look at followership: A model for matching followership and leadership styles", *Journal of Behavioral and Applied Management*, Vol. 7, No. 3, pp. 304-319.
- Blarr, W.H. (2012), Organizational ambidexterity: Implications for the strategy-performance linkage, Springer Science and Business Media, Berlin.
- Bock, D.E., Eastman, J.K., and Eastman, K.L. (2018), "Encouraging consumer charitable behavior: The impact of charitable motivations, gratitude, and materialism", *Journal of Business Ethics*, Vol. 150, pp. 1213-1228.

- Bodla, M.A., and Nawaz, M.M. (2010), "Transformational leadership style and its relationship with satisfaction", *Interdisciplinary Journal of Contemporary Research in Business*, Vol. 2, No. 1, pp. 370-381.
- Bowen, D.E., and Ostroff, C. (2004), "Understanding HRM–firm performance linkages: The role of the 'strength' of the HRM system", *Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 29, No. 2, pp. 203-221.
- Boykin, A., Schoenhofer, S., and Valentine, K. (2013), *Health care system transformation for nursing and health care leaders: Implementing a culture of caring*, Springer Publishing Company, New York, NY.
- Breevaart, K., Bakker, A., Hetland, J., Demerouti, E., Olsen, O.K., and Espevik, R. (2014), "Daily transactional and transformational leadership and daily employee engagement", *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, Vol. 87, No. 1, pp. 138-157.
- Brooks, J.S., and Normore, A.H. (2005), "An Aristotelian framework for the development of ethical leadership", Values and Ethics in Educational Administration, Vol. 3, No. 2, pp. 1-8.
- Brown, T.C., and McCracken, M. (2009), "Building a bridge of understanding: How barriers to training participation become barriers to training transfer", *Journal of European Industrial Training*, Vol. 33, No. 6, pp. 492-512.
- Burns, J.M. (1978), *Leadership*, Harper and Row, New York, NY.
- Carlucci, D., and Schiuma, G. (2014), "Organizational climate as performance driver: Health care employees' perception in a large hospital", *Journal of Health Management*, Vol. 16 No. 4, pp. 583-594.
- Casimir, G., Waldman, D. A., Bartram, T., and Yang, S. (2006), "Trust and the relationship between leadership and follower performance: Opening the black box in Australia and China", *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies*, Vol. 12 No. 3, pp. 68-84.
- Cavazotte, F., Moreno, V., and Hickmann, M. (2012), "Effects of leader intelligence, personality and emotional intelligence on transformational leadership

- and managerial performance", *The Leadership Quarterly*, Vol. 23 No. 3, pp. 443-455.
- Charbonnier-Voirin, A., El Akremi, A., and Vandenberghe, C. (2010), "A multilevel model of transformational leadership and adaptive performance and the moderating role of climate for innovation", *Group and Organization Management*, Vol. 35 No. 6, pp. 699-726.
- Choi, D., Cheong, M., and Lee, J. (2020), "Leadership influences? It depends on followers! The relationship between the Ohio State leader behaviors, employee self-regulatory focus, and task performance", *Personnel Review*, Vol. 49 No. 2, pp. 491-515.
- Christie, A. M., Jordan, P. J., and Troth, A. C. (2015), "Trust antecedents: emotional intelligence and perceptions of others", *International Journal of Organizational Analysis*, Vol. 23 No. 1, pp. 89-101.
- Clark, R. E. (2013), "Research-tested team motivation strategies", *Performance Improvement*, Vol. 44 No. 1, pp. 13-16.
- Cole, G. A. (2005), *Personnel and Human Resource Management*, 5th edition, London: ELST Publishers.
- Cronbach, L. J. (1951), "Coefficient alpha and the internal structure of tests", *Psychometrika*, Vol. 16 No. 3, pp. 297-334.
- Danish, R. Q., and Usman, A. (2010), "Impact of reward and recognition on job satisfaction and motivation: An empirical study from Pakistan", *International Journal of Business and Management*, Vol. 5 No. 2, pp. 159-167.
- De Brun, C. (2005), "ABC's of knowledge management", available at: http://thiqaruni.org/medicine/13.pdf (accessed 14 September 2024).
- De Sousa Sabbagha, M., Ledimo, O., and Martins, N. (2018), "Predicting staff retention from employee motivation and job satisfaction", *Journal of Psychology* in Africa, Vol. 28 No. 2, pp. 136-140.

- Deci, E. L. (1972), "The effects of contingent and noncontingent rewards and controls on intrinsic motivation", *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, Vol. 8 No. 2, pp. 217-229.
- Den Hartog, D. N., Van Muijen, J. J., and Koopman, P. L. (1997), "Transactional versus transformational leadership: An analysis of the MLQ", *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, Vol. 70 No. 1, pp. 19-34.
- Denison, D. R. (1996), "What is the difference between organizational culture and organizational climate? A native's point of view on a decade of paradigm wars", *Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 21 No. 3, pp. 619-654.
- Derue, D. S., Nahrgang, J. D., Wellman, N. E., and Humphrey, S. E. (2011), "Trait and behavioral theories of leadership: An integration and meta-analytic test of their relative validity", *Personnel Psychology*, Vol. 64 No. 1, pp. 7-52.
- Dhamija, P., and Bag, S. (2020), "Role of artificial intelligence in operations environment: A review and bibliometric analysis", *The TQM Journal*, Vol. 32 No. 4, pp. 869-896.
- Dhar, R. L. (2015), "The effects of high-performance human resource practices on service innovative behavior", *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, Vol. 51, pp. 67-75.
- Dickson, M. W., Den Hartog, D. N., and Mitchelson, J. K. (2003), "Research on leadership in a cross-cultural context: Making progress, and raising new questions", *The Leadership Quarterly*, Vol. 14 No. 6, pp. 729-768.
- Doucet, O., Fredette, M., Simard, G., and Tremblay, M. (2015), "Leader profiles and their effectiveness on employees' outcomes", *Human Performance*, Vol. 28 No. 3, pp. 244-264.
- Drouin, N., and Bourgault, M. (2013), "How organizations support distributed project teams: Key dimensions and their impact on decision making and teamwork effectiveness", *Journal of Management Development*, Vol. 32 No. 8, pp. 865-885.

- Du, S., Swaen, V., Lindgreen, A., and Sen, S. (2013), "The roles of leadership styles in corporate social responsibility", *Journal of Business Ethics*, Vol. 114, pp. 155-169.
- Duncan, K. D. (1972), *Strategies for Analysis of the Task*, London: In J. Harley UK, Worth Butter.
- Ekvall, G. (1996), "Organizational climate for creativity and innovation", European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology, Vol. 5 No. 1, pp. 105-123.
- Eldor, L. (2016), "Work engagement: Toward a general theoretical enriching model", *Human Resource Development Review*, Vol. 15 No. 3, pp. 317-339.
- Elliot, A. J., Dweck, C. S., and Yeager, D. S. (Eds.) (2017), *Handbook of competence and motivation: Theory and application*, Guilford Publications.
- Enbom, J., Gustafsson, S., and Larsson, A. (2005), "How coaches motivate teams", unpublished Master's thesis, Lulea University of Technology, Lulea, Sweden.
- Fiedler, F. E. (1967), *A Theory of Leadership Effectiveness*, McGraw-Hill Series in Management.
- Fleishman, E. A., and Peters, D. A. (1962), "Interpersonal values, leadership attitudes, and managerial success", *Personnel Psychology*, Vol. 15, pp. 127-143.
- Foster, C., and Roche, F. (2014), "Integrating trait and ability EI in predicting transformational leadership", *Leadership and Organization Development Journal*, Vol. 35 No. 4, pp. 316-334.
- Francis, L. J., John Payne, V., and Emslie, N. J. (2019), "Just how emotionally intelligent are religious leaders in Britain? A study among Anglican clergy in Wales", *Pastoral Psychology*, Vol. 68, pp. 261-269.
- Gagné, M., and Deci, E. L. (2005), "Self-determination theory and work motivation", *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, Vol. 26 No. 4, pp. 331-362.
- Galton, F. (1869), *Hereditary Genius*, Macmillan and Company, London.
- Gibson, C.B. (1995), "An investigation of gender differences in leadership across four countries", *Journal of International Business Studies*, Vol. 26, pp. 255-279.

- Gibson, J.L., Ivancevich, J.M., and Donnely, J.H. Jr (1996), *Organization: Behavior, Structure, Process*, Prentice Hall, NJ.
- Gillespie, M.A., Denison, D.R., Haaland, S., Smerek, R.E., and Neale, W.S. (2008),
 "Linking organizational culture and customer satisfaction: results from two companies in different industries", *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, Vol. 17 No. 1, pp. 112-132.
- Glission, C., and James, L.R. (2002), "The cross-level effects of culture and climate in human service teams", *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, Vol. 23 No. 6, pp. 767–794.
- Goleman, D. (1998), Working with Emotional Intelligence, Bantam Books, New York, NY.
- Goleman, D. (2017), "Leadership that gets results", in *Leadership Perspectives*, Routledge, pp. 85-96.
- Gopal, R., and Chowdhury, R. G. (2014), "Leadership styles and employee motivation: An empirical investigation in a leading oil company in India", International Journal of Research in Business Management, Vol. 2 No. 5, pp. 1-10.
- Govindarajulu, N., and Daily, B. F. (2004), "Motivating employees for environmental improvement", *Industrial Management and Data Systems*, Vol. 104 No. 4, pp. 364-372.
- Grawitch, M. J., Gottschalk, M., and Munz, D. C. (2006), "The path to a healthy workplace: A critical review linking healthy workplace practices, employee wellbeing, and organizational improvements", Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research, Vol. 58 No. 3, pp. 129-147.
- Greenberg, J., and Baron, R. A. (2003), *Behavior in Organization: Understanding and Managing the Human Side of Work*, Prentice Hall.
- Gupta, V., and Singh, S. (2012), "How leaders impact employee creativity: A study of Indian RandD laboratories", *Management Research Review*, Vol. 36 No. 1, pp. 66-88.

- Hadi, N.U., and Chaudhary, A. (2021), "Impact of shared leadership on team performance through team reflexivity: Examining the moderating role of task complexity", *Team Performance Management: An International Journal*, Vol. 27 Nos. 5-6, pp. 391-405.
- Hair, J. F., Howard, M. C., and Nitzl, C. (2020), "Assessing measurement model quality in PLS-SEM using confirmatory composite analysis", *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 109, pp. 101-110.
- Hair, J. F., Matthews, L. M., Matthews, R. L., and Sarstedt, M. (2017), "PLS-SEM or CB-SEM: Updated guidelines on which method to use", *International Journal of Multivariate Data Analysis*, Vol. 1 No. 2, pp. 107-123.
- Halepota, H.A. (2005), "Motivational theories and their application in construction", *Cost Engineering*, Vol. 47 No. 3, p. 14.
- Hamidianpour, F., Esmaeilpour, M., Saadat Alizadeh, M., and Dorgoee, A. (2015), "The influence of emotional intelligence and organizational climate on creativity and entrepreneurial of small to medium-sized enterprises", *European Online Journal of Natural and Social Sciences: Proceedings*, Vol. 4(S1), pp. 20-30.
- Hammami, H., Amara, N., and Landry, R. (2013), "Organizational climate and its influence on brokers' knowledge transfer activities: A structural equation modelling", *International Journal of Information Management*, Vol. 33 No. 1, pp. 105-118.
- Harms, P. D., and Credé, M. (2010), "Emotional intelligence and transformational and transactional leadership: A meta-analysis", *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies*, Vol. 17 No. 1, pp. 5-17.
- Hater, J. J., and Bass, B. M. (1988), "Superiors' evaluations and subordinates' perceptions of transformational and transactional leadership", *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. 73 No. 4, pp. 695-702.
- Herzberg, F.I. (1966), Work and the Nature of Man, World Publishing.

- Higgins, E.T. (1998), "Promotion and prevention: Regulatory focus as a motivational principle", in *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, Vol. 30, Academic Press, pp. 1-46.
- Hildenbrand, K., Sacramento, C.A., and Binnewies, C. (2018), "Transformational leadership and burnout: The role of thriving and followers' openness to experience", *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, Vol. 23 No. 1, pp. 31-44.
- Hofstede, G. (1980), "Motivation, leadership, and organization: Do American theories apply abroad?", *Organizational Dynamics*, Vol. 9 No. 1, pp. 42-63.
- Hofstede, G., and Hofstede, G.J. (2005), *Cultures and Organizations: Software of the Mind* (2nd edn), McGraw-Hill, New York.
- House, R. J., Hanges, P. J., Ruiz-Quintanilla, S. A., Dorman, P. W., Javidan, M., Dickson, M., and Gupta, V. (1999), "Cultural influences on leadership and organizations", *Advances in Global Leadership*, Vol. 1, pp. 171-233.
- House, R.J. (1996), "Path-goal theory of leadership: Lessons, legacy, and a reformulated theory", *The Leadership Quarterly*, Vol. 7 No. 3, pp. 323-352.
- Hoy, W.K., and Miskel, C.G. (1987), *Educational Administration: Theory, Research and Practice*, Random House Inc., New York.
- Hughes, K.D. (2006), "Exploring motivation and success among Canadian women entrepreneurs", *Journal of Small Business and Entrepreneurship*, Vol. 19 No. 2, pp. 107-120.
- Humphrey, R. H. (2002), "The many faces of emotional leadership", *The Leadership Quarterly*, Vol. 13 No. 5, pp. 493-504.
- Jabbar, M.N., and Hussin, F. (2019), "Quality management as a strategic tool to enhance the relationship between leaders' behavior and lecturers' job satisfaction", *International Journal of Higher Education*, Vol. 8 No. 3, pp. 36-46.
- Jogulu, U.D. (2010), "Culturally-linked leadership styles", *Leadership and Organization Development Journal*, Vol. 31 No. 8, pp. 705-719.

- Joo, B.K., and Shim, J.H. (2010), "Psychological empowerment and organizational commitment: The moderating effect of organizational learning culture", *Human Resource Development International*, Vol. 13 No. 4, pp. 425-441.
- Judge, T. A., and Piccolo, R. F. (2004), "Transformational and transactional leadership: A meta-analytic test of their relative validity", *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. 89 No. 5, pp. 755-768.
- Kamery, R. H. (2004), "Motivation techniques for positive reinforcement: A review", *Allied Academies International Conference. Academy of Legal, Ethical and Regulatory Issues. Proceedings*, Vol. 8 No. 2, p. 91, Jordan Whitney Enterprises, Inc.
- Kanfer, R., Beier, M. E., and Ackerman, P. L. (2016), "Goals and motivation related to work in later adulthood: An organizing framework", *Age in the Workplace*, pp. 5-16, Routledge.
- Kanfer, R., Frese, M., and Johnson, R. E. (2017), "Motivation related to work: A century of progress", *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. 102 No. 3, pp. 338-355.
- Keegan, A. E., and Den Hartog, D. N. (2004), "Transformational leadership in a project-based environment: A comparative study of the leadership styles of project managers and line managers", *International Journal of Project Management*, Vol. 22 No. 8, pp. 609-617.
- Khan, M. J., Aslam, N., and Riaz, M. N. (2012), "Leadership styles as predictors of innovative work behavior", *Pakistan Journal of Social Clinical Psychology*, Vol. 9 No. 2, pp. 17-22.
- Khanin, D. (2007), "Contrasting Burns and Bass: Does the transactional-transformational paradigm live up to Burns' philosophy of transforming leadership?", *Journal of Leadership Studies*, Vol. 1 No. 3, pp. 7-25.
- Koesmono, H. T. (2005), "Pengaruh budaya organisasi terhadap motivasi dan kepuasan kerja serta kinerja karyawan pada sub sektor industri pengolahan kayu skala menengah di Jawa Timur", *Jurnal Manajemen dan Kewirausahaan*, Vol. 7 No. 2, pp. 171-188.

- Korkmaz, M. (2007), "The effects of leadership styles on organizational health", *Educational Research Quarterly*, Vol. 30 No. 3, pp. 23-55.
- Korman, A. K. (1966), "Consideration, initiating structure and organisational criteria- A review", *Personnel Psychology*, Vol. 19, pp. 349-361.
- Kothari, C. R. (1993), *Research Methodology: Methods and Techniques*, 2nd ed., Wiley Eastern Limited.
- Kothari, C. R. (2004), *Research Methodology: Methods and Techniques*, 2nd ed., New Age International (p) Ltd. New Delhi.
- Kreitner, R., and Kinicki, A. (1995), "Organizational behavior", *The American Journal of Sociology*, Vol. 66 No. 1, pp. 32-40.
- Kumar, S. (2018), "Servant leadership: A review of literature", *Pacific Business Review International*, Vol. 11 No. 1, pp. 43-50.
- Latham, G. P., and Pinder, C. C. (2005), "Work motivation theory and research at the dawn of the twenty-first century", *Annual Review of Psychology*, Vol. 56, pp. 485-516.
- Lee, C. H., and Bruvold, N. T. (2003), "Creating value for employees: Investment in employee development", *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, Vol. 14 No. 6, pp. 981-1000.
- Lee, M. T., and Raschke, R. L. (2016), "Understanding employee motivation and organizational performance: Arguments for a set-theoretic approach", *Journal of Innovation and Knowledge*, Vol. 1 No. 3, pp. 162-169.
- Lee, S., Kim, S. L., and Yun, S. (2018), "A moderated mediation model of the relationship between abusive supervision and knowledge sharing", *The Leadership Quarterly*, Vol. 29 No. 3, pp. 403-413.
- Leithwood, K., and Jantzi, D. (2005), "Transformational leadership", *The Essentials of School Leadership*, pp. 31-43.
- Lewin, K., Lippitt, R., and White, R. K. (1939), "Patterns of aggressive behavior in experimentally created 'social climates'", *The Journal of Social Psychology*, Vol. 10 No. 2, pp. 269-299.

- Lin, H. C., Bruning, P. F., and Swarna, H. (2018), "Using online opinion leaders to promote the hedonic and utilitarian value of products and services", *Business Horizons*, Vol. 61 No. 3, pp. 431-442.
- Lindner, J. R. (1998), "Understanding employee motivation", *Journal of Extension*, Vol. 36 No. 3, pp. 1-8.
- Littrell, R. F., and Nicolae Valentin, L. (2005), "Preferred leadership behaviours: Exploratory results from Romania, Germany, and the UK", *Journal of Management Development*, Vol. 24 No. 5, pp. 421-442.
- Liu, Y., He, H., and Zhu, W. (2020), "Motivational analyses of the relationship between negative affectivity and workplace helping behaviors: A Conservation of Resources perspective", *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 108, pp. 362-374.
- Lowe, K. B., Kroeck, K. G., and Sivasubramaniam, N. (1996), "Effectiveness correlates of transformational and transactional leadership: A meta-analytic review of the MLQ literature", *The Leadership Quarterly*, Vol. 7 No. 3, pp. 385-425.
- Lussier, R. (2005), *Human Relations in Organization: Application and Skills Building* (6th ed.), New York, McGraw-Hill/Irwin.
- Luthans, F. (2002), "Positive organizational behavior: Developing and managing psychological strengths", *Academy of Management Perspectives*, Vol. 16 No. 1, pp. 57-72.
- Luthans, F., Avey, J. B., Avolio, B. J., and Peterson, S. J. (2010), "The development and resulting performance impact of positive psychological capital", *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, Vol. 21 No. 1, pp. 41-67.
- Maamari, B. E., and Majdalani, J. F. (2017), "Emotional intelligence, leadership style and organizational climate", *International Journal of Organizational* Analysis, Vol. 25 No. 2, pp. 327-345.
- Malhotra, G., Leslie, D. S., Ludwig, C. J., and Bogacz, R. (2017), "Overcoming indecision by changing the decision boundary", *Journal of Experimental Psychology: General*, Vol. 146 No. 6, pp. 776-805.

- Malhotra, Y., Galletta, D. F., and Kirsch, L. J. (2008), "How endogenous motivations influence user intentions: Beyond the dichotomy of extrinsic and intrinsic user motivations", *Journal of Management Information Systems*, Vol. 25 No. 1, pp. 267-300.
- Marsick, V. J., and Watkins, K. E. (1990), *Informal and Incidental Learning in the Workplace*, Routledge, New York, NY.
- Martins, E. C., and Terblanche, F. (2003), "Building organisational culture that stimulates creativity and innovation", *European Journal of Innovation Management*, Vol. 6 No. 1, pp. 64-74.
- Masri, H. A., and Jaaron, A. A. (2017), "Assessing green human resources management practices in Palestinian manufacturing context: An empirical study", *Journal of Cleaner Production*, Vol. 143, pp. 474-489.
- McCleskey, J. (2014), "Emotional intelligence and leadership: A review of the progress, controversy, and criticism", *International Journal of Organizational* Analysis, Vol. 22 No. 1, pp. 76-93.
- Mitchell, T. R. (1982), "Motivation: New directions for theory, research, and practice", *Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 7 No. 1, pp. 80-88.
- Momeni, N. (2009), "The relation between managers' emotional intelligence and the organizational climate they create", *Public Personnel Management*, Vol. 38 No. 2, pp. 35-48.
- Mumford, M. D., Scott, G. M., Gaddis, B., and Strange, J. M. (2002), "Leading creative people: Orchestrating expertise and relationships", *The Leadership Quarterly*, Vol. 13, pp. 705-750.
- Mwesigwa, R., Tusiime, I., and Ssekiziyivu, B. (2020), "Leadership styles, job satisfaction and organizational commitment among academic staff in public universities", *Journal of Management Development*, Vol. 39 No. 2, pp. 253-268.
- Nahavandi, A. (2015), The art and science of leadership, Pearson.

- Nam, K.A., and Park, S. (2019), "Factors influencing job performance: organizational learning culture, cultural intelligence, and transformational leadership," *Performance Improvement Quarterly*, Vol. 32 No. 2, pp. 137-158.
- Nanjundeswaraswamy, T.S., and Swamy, D.R. (2014), "Leadership styles," *Advances in Management*, Vol. 7 No. 2, pp. 57-62.
- Newstrom, J.W., and Davis, K. (2002), *Organizational Behavior at Work*, 11th ed., McGraw-Hill, New York.
- Nging, T.K., and Yazdanifard, R. (2015), "The general review of how different leadership styles cause the transformational change efforts to be successful," *International Journal of Management, Accounting and Economics*, Vol. 2 No. 9, pp. 1130-1140.
- Northouse, L.L., Katapodi, M.C., Song, L., Zhang, L., and Mood, D.W. (2010), "Interventions with family caregivers of cancer patients: meta-analysis of randomized trials," *CA: A Cancer Journal for Clinicians*, Vol. 60 No. 5, pp. 317-339.
- Northouse, P. G. (2001), *Leadership Theory and Practice*, 2nd ed., Sage Publications, Thousand Oaks, CA.
- Novak, A., Breznik, K., and Natek, S. (2020), "How leaders can initiate knowledge management in organizations: Role of leadership style in building knowledge infrastructure," *Human Systems Management*, Vol. 39 No. 1, pp. 37-50.
- Nugroho, Y.A., Asbari, M., Purwanto, A., Basuki, S., Sudiyono, R.N., Fikri, M.A.A., Hulu, P., Mustofa, M., Chidir, G., Suroso, S., and Xavir, Y. (2020), "Transformational leadership and employees' performances: The mediating role of motivation and work environment," *EduPsyCouns: Journal of Education, Psychology and Counseling*, Vol. 2 No. 1, pp. 438-460.
- Nunnally, J. C., and Bernstein, I. H. (1994), *Psychometric theory*, 3rd ed., McGraw-Hill, New York, NY.

- O'Reilly, C.A., and Chatman, J.A. (2020), "Transformational leader or narcissist?
 How grandiose narcissists can create and destroy organizations and institutions,"
 California Management Review, Vol. 62 No. 3, pp. 5-27.
- Ojokuku, R.M., Odetayo, T.A., and Sajuyigbe, A.S. (2012), "Impact of leadership style on organizational performance: a case study of Nigerian banks," *American Journal of Business and Management*, Vol. 1 No. 4, pp. 202-207.
- Oldham, G.R., and Cummings, A. (1996), "Employee creativity: Personal and contextual factors at work," *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 39 No. 3, pp. 607-634.
- Omolayo, B. (2000), *Psychology of Human Being at Work*, Crown House Publisher, Ado-Ekiti, pp. 101-103.
- Oubrich, M., Hakmaoui, A., Benhayoun, L., Söilen, K.S., and Abdulkader, B. (2021), "Impacts of leadership style, organizational design, and HRM practices on knowledge hiding: The indirect roles of organizational justice and competitive work environment," *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 137, pp. 488-499.
- Owens, R.G. (1991), *Organizational Behavior in Education*, Prentice Hall, New Jersey.
- Padmanathan, S. R. (2010), "Leadership styles and employee engagement," Doctoral dissertation, Universiti Utara Malaysia.
- Palmer, B., Walls, M., Burgess, Z., and Stough, C. (2001), "Emotional intelligence and effective leadership," *Leadership and Organization Development Journal*, Vol. 22 No. 1, pp. 5-10.
- Patterson, M. G., West, M. A., Shackleton, V. J., Dawson, J. F., Lawthom, R., Maitlis, S., ... and Wallace, A. M. (2005), "Validating the organizational climate measure: links to managerial practices, productivity and innovation," *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, Vol. 26 No. 4, pp. 379-408.
- Paustian-Underdahl, S. C., Walker, L. S., and Woehr, D. J. (2014), "Gender and perceptions of leadership effectiveness: a meta-analysis of contextual moderators," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. 99 No. 6, pp. 1129-1145.

- Pinder, C. C. (2014), Work motivation in organizational behavior, Psychology Press.
- Pintrich, P.R., and Schunk, D.H. (1996), *Motivation in Education: Theory, Research, and Application*, Merrill, Englewood Cliffs, NJ.
- Pirola-Merlo, A., Härtel, C., Mann, L., and Hirst, G. (2002), "How leaders influence the impact of affective events on team climate and performance in RandD teams," *The Leadership Quarterly*, Vol. 13 No. 5, pp. 561-581.
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Moorman, R. H., and Fetter, R. (1990),
 "Transformational leader behaviours and their effects on followers' trust in leader, satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behaviours," *The Leadership Quarterly*, Vol. 1 No. 2, pp. 107-142.
- Purohit, B., and Verma, R.K. (2013), "A study of human resource development climate in government health centres in India," *Journal of Health Management*, Vol. 15 No. 3, pp. 431-443.
- Purwanto, A. (2020), "The impacts of leadership and culture on work performance in service company and innovative work behavior as mediating effects," *Journal of Research in Business, Economics, and Education*, Vol. 2 No. 1, pp. 283-291.
- Randhawa, G., and Kaur, K. (2015), "An empirical assessment of the impact of organizational climate on organizational citizenship behaviour," *Paradigm*, Vol. 19 No. 1, pp. 65-78.
- Reid, S.W., Anglin, A.H., Baur, J.E., Short, J.C., and Buckley, M.R. (2018), "Blazing new trails or opportunity lost? Evaluating research at the intersection of leadership and entrepreneurship," *The Leadership Quarterly*, Vol. 29 No. 1, pp. 150-164.
- Robbins, S. P., Judge, T., and Breward, K. (2016), *Essentials of organizational behaviour*, Pearson Canada.
- Robbins, S., Judge, T. A., Millett, B., and Boyle, M. (2013), *Organizational behaviour*, Pearson Higher Education AU.

- Rostila, I., Suominen, T., Asikainen, P., and Green, P. (2011), "Differentiation of organizational climate and culture in public health and social services in Finland,"
 Journal of Public Health, Vol. 19, pp. 39-47.
- Roueche, J. E., Baker, G. A., and Rose, R. R. (2014), *Shared vision:* Transformational leadership in American community colleges, Rowman and Littlefield.
- Rusu, G., and Avasilcai, S. (2014), "Linking human resources motivation to organizational climate," *Procedia-Social and Behavioural Sciences*, Vol. 124, pp. 51-58.
- Ryan, R.M., and Deci, E.L. (2000), "Intrinsic and extrinsic motivations: Classic definitions and new directions," *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, Vol. 25 No. 1, pp. 54-67.
- Saeed, T., Almas, S., Anis-ul-Haq, M., and Niazi, G.S.K. (2014), "Leadership styles: Relationship with conflict management styles," *International Journal of Conflict Management*, Vol. 25 No. 3, pp. 214-225.
- Salant, P., Dillman, I., and Don, A. (1994), *How to conduct your own survey*, Wiley, New York.
- Samad, A. (2015), "Towards an understanding of the effect of leadership on employee wellbeing and organizational outcomes in Australian universities," *The Journal of Developing Areas*, Vol. 49 No. 6, pp. 441-448.
- Schein, E. H. (1985), Organisational Culture and Leadership: A Dynamic View, Jossey-Bass, San Francisco, CA.
- Schermerhorn, J. R., Hunt, J., and Osborn, R. (2000), *Organizational Behavior*, 7th ed., John Wiley and Sons, Inc., New York.
- Schneider, B. (1975), "Organizational climates: An essay," *Personnel Psychology*, Vol. 28 No. 4, pp. 447-479.
- Schneider, B., Ehrhart, M. G., and Macey, W. H. (2013), "Organizational climate and culture," *Annual Review of Psychology*, Vol. 64 No. 1, pp. 361-388.

- Scott, K., Beckham, S. W., Gross, M., Pariyo, G., Rao, K. D., Cometto, G., and Perry, H. B. (2018), "What do we know about community-based health worker programs? A systematic review of existing reviews on community health employees," *Human Resources for Health*, Vol. 16, pp. 1-17.
- Scott, S. G., and Bruce, R. A. (1994), "Determinants of innovative behavior: A path model of individual innovation in the workplace," *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 37 No. 3, pp. 580-607.
- Sekaran, U., and Bougie, R. (2016), *Research methods for business: A skill building approach*, John Wiley and Sons.
- Seltzer, J., and Bass, B.M. (1990), "Transformational leadership: Beyond initiation and consideration," *Journal of Management*, Vol. 16 No. 4, pp. 693-703.
- Sidhu, K.S. (1997), *School Organisation and Administration*, 3rd ed., Sterling Publishers Pvt. Ltd.
- Silverthorne, C. (2001), "Leadership effectiveness and personality: A cross-cultural evaluation," *Personality and Individual Differences*, Vol. 30 No. 2, pp. 303-309.
- Skogstad, A., Einarsen, S., Torsheim, T., Aasland, M. S., and Hetland, H. (2007),
 "The destructiveness of laissez-faire leadership behavior," *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, Vol. 12 No. 1, pp. 80-92.
- Smith, T. D., Eldridge, F., and DeJoy, D. M. (2016), "Safety-specific transformational and passive leadership influences on firefighter safety climate perceptions and safety behavior outcomes," *Safety Science*, Vol. 86, pp. 92-97.
- Sokro, E. (2012), "Analysis of the relationship that exists between organisational culture, motivation and performance," *Problems of Management in the 21st Century*, Vol. 3 No. 1, pp. 106-119.
- Spanos, Y. E., Prastacos, G. P., and Poulymenakou, A. (2002), "The relationship between information and communication technologies adoption and management," *Information and Management*, Vol. 39 No. 8, pp. 659-675.
- Steers, R. M., Mowday, R. T., and Shapiro, D. L. (2004), "The future of work motivation theory," *Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 29 No. 3, pp. 379-387.

- Suprapti, S., Asbari, M., Cahyono, Y., Mufid, A., and Khasanah, N.E. (2020), "Leadership style, organizational culture and innovative behavior on public health center performance during Pandemic Covid-19," *Journal of Industrial Engineering and Management Research*, Vol. 1 No. 2, pp. 76-88.
- Tajasom, A., Hung, D. K. M., Nikbin, D., and Hyun, S. S. (2015), "The role of transformational leadership in innovation performance of Malaysian SMEs," *Asian Journal of Technology Innovation*, Vol. 23 No. 2, pp. 172-188.
- Tampubolon, H. (2017), "The relationship between employee engagement, job motivation, and job satisfaction towards employee performance," *Corporate Ownership and Control*, Vol. 13 No. 2, pp. 473-477.
- Telukdarie, A., Buhulaiga, E., Bag, S., Gupta, S., and Luo, Z. (2018), "Industry 4.0 implementation for multinationals," *Process Safety and Environmental Protection*, Vol. 118, pp. 316-329.
- Thuijsman, T. (2015), "Leadership styles and their influence on employees regarding the acceptance of organizational change," *Bachelor's thesis*, University of Twente, pp. 1-12.
- Tordera, N., González-Romá, V., and Peiró, J. M. (2008), "The moderator effect of psychological climate on the relationship between leader-member exchange (LMX) quality and role overload," *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, Vol. 17 No. 1, pp. 55-72.
- Tzeng, H.M. (2002), "The influence of nurses' working motivation and job satisfaction on intention to quit: An empirical investigation in Taiwan," *International Journal of Nursing Studies*, Vol. 39 No. 8, pp. 867-878.
- Uhl-Bien, M., Piccolo, R. F., and Schermerhorn Jr, J. R. (2020), *Organizational behavior*, John Wiley and Sons.
- Vallerand, R. J. (1997), "Toward a hierarchical model of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation," in M. P. Zanna (Ed.), *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, Vol. 29, Academic Press, New York, pp. 271-360.

- Van Dierendonck, D., Stam, D., Boersma, P., De Windt, N., and Alkema, J. (2014), "Same difference? Exploring the differential mechanisms linking servant leadership and transformational leadership to follower outcomes," *The Leadership Quarterly*, Vol. 25 No. 3, pp. 544-562.
- Van Eeden, R., Cilliers, F., and Van Deventer, V. (2008), "Leadership styles and associated personality traits: Support for the conceptualisation of transactional and transformational leadership," *South African Journal of Psychology*, Vol. 38 No. 2, pp. 253-267.
- Vrba, M. (2007), "Emotional intelligence skills and leadership behaviour in a sample of South African first-line managers," *Management Dynamics: Journal of the Southern African Institute for Management Scientists*, Vol. 16 No. 2, pp. 25-35.
- Wallace, J. C., Butts, M. M., Johnson, P. D., Stevens, F. G., and Smith, M. B. (2016), "A multilevel model of employee innovation: Understanding the effects of regulatory focus, thriving, and employee involvement climate," *Journal of Management*, Vol. 42 No. 4, pp. 982-1004.
- Wallace, J.E. (1999), "Work-to-nonwork conflict among married male and female lawyers," *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, Vol. 20 No. 6, pp. 797-816.
- Walumbwa, F.O., Avolio, B.J., Gardner, W.L., Wernsing, T.S., and Peterson, S.J. (2008), "Authentic leadership: Development and validation of a theory-based measure," *Journal of Management*, Vol. 34 No. 1, pp. 89-126.
- Wang, G. T. (1996), A comparative study of extrinsic and intrinsic work values of employees in the United States and Japan, 1st ed., Edwin Mellen Press, Lewiston, New York.
- Wienand, U., Cinotti, R., Nicoli, A., and Bisagni, M. (2007), "Evaluating the organisational climate in Italian public healthcare institutions by means of a questionnaire," *BMC Health Services Research*, Vol. 7 No. 1, pp. 1-13.
- Williams, W.M., and Yang, L.T. (1999), "Organizational creativity," in Sternberg,
 R.J. (Ed.), *Handbook of Creativity*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, MA,
 pp. 373-391.

- Yahaya, R., and Ebrahim, F. (2016), "Leadership styles and organizational commitment: Literature review," *Journal of Management Development*, Vol. 35 No. 2, pp. 190-216.
- Yu, A., Matta, F. K., and Cornfield, B. (2018), "Is leader-member exchange differentiation beneficial or detrimental for group effectiveness? A meta-analytic investigation and theoretical integration," *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 61 No. 3, pp. 1158-1188.
- Yukl, G. (1981), Leadership in Organizations, Pearson Education India.
- Yukl, G. (2010), *Leadership in organizations*, Pearson, Upper Saddle River, NJ.
- Yukl, G. (2012), "Effective leadership behavior: What we know and what questions need more attention," *Academy of Management Perspectives*, Vol. 26 No. 4, pp. 66-85.
- Yukl, G. A. (2005), *Leadership in organizations*, 6th ed., Prentice-Hall, Upper Saddle River, NJ.
- Zabihi, M., and Hashemzehi, R. (2012), "The relationship between leadership styles and organizational citizenship behavior," *African Journal of Business Management*, Vol. 6 No. 9, pp. 3310-3319.
- Zaccaro, S. J. (2007), "Trait-based perspectives of leadership," *American Psychologist*, Vol. 62 No. 1, pp. 6-16.
- Zaleznik, A. (1990), "The leadership gap," *Academy of Management Perspectives*, Vol. 4 No. 1, pp. 7-22.
- Zareen, M., Razzaq, K., and Mujtaba, B. G. (2015), "Impact of transactional, transformational and laissez-faire leadership styles on motivation: A quantitative study of banking employees in Pakistan," *Public Organization Review*, Vol. 15, pp. 531-549.