

**THE INFLUENCE OF SERVANT LEADERSHIP TO MOTIVATION,
ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE AS WELL AS ORGANIZATIONAL
IDENTIFICATION AND TRAINING EFFECTIVENESS –
A PHENOMENOLOGICAL STUDY IN HONG KONG**

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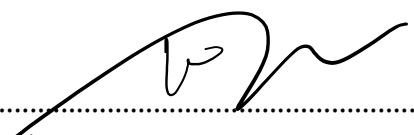
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DECLARATION

This work has not previously been accepted in substance for any degree and is not being concurrently submitted in candidature for any degree.

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Chapter 1 Introduction

1.1 Background of the Study

According to the World Competitiveness Yearbook (WCY) 2022 published by the International Institute for Management Development, Hong Kong is the fifth most competitive economy in the world. This is an increase from its prior position of seventh in 2021. (IMD, 2022). According to the World Competitiveness Yearbook, Hong Kong's economy is the most competitive in the world, since it has been placed first in both "Government efficiency" and "Business efficiency" for the last four years running. This is because Hong Kong has retained its reputation as the most efficient business environment in the world. It rose from eleventh to ninth place in the area of "economic performance" as a direct result of above-average economic growth. Despite this, according to a poll performed by the Swiss financial firm UBS, Hong Kong workers put in the most hours per week (50.1) of any of the 71 cities considered (China Daily, 2016). In Hong Kong, the average workweek is 36.5 hours, which is more than an hour and a half longer than the global norm.

On the other hand, the Happy Index in Hong Kong is forecast to fall from the 46th place in 2012 to the 77th position in 2021, indicating a general downward trend. Clearly, there is a tradeoff between the competitiveness of a firm and the quality of life of its employees. In order to earn a livelihood, workers in Hong Kong are expected to work long hours at a high cost. While

transformational leaders aim to connect their own personal interests with those of the group, organization, or society, servant leadership ideology emphasizes leaders helping followers on an individual basis. In contrast, transformational leaders aim to connect organizational and follower interests with the group, organization, or society's interests (Stone, Russell, & Patterson, 2004). In a number of significant ways, the fundamental focus of servant leadership theory differs significantly from that of transformational leadership theory.

According to one definition, "leadership" refers to "an influential interaction among leaders and followers who desire meaningful changes that reflect their shared ambitions" (Brislin 1993, p. 124). In the past two decades, researchers have just lately started to concentrate on the precise leadership behaviors shown by supervisors and how these acts influence the attitudes and behaviors of their workers. Researchers have paid little attention to this field of inquiry until lately (Van Wart 2013). The notion of servant leadership, in which leaders strive to help others before helping themselves and persuade their followers to do the same (Greenleaf, 1977), is the subject of current study in corporations (Han et al. 2010; Miao et al. 2014).

In lieu of serving their superiors, as was common in the past (Dong et al., 2010), servant leaders put the needs of their followers and the community as a whole first (Sendjaya et al. 2008). Even though a growing body of research shows that servant leadership may have good benefits on

employee work outcomes such as job performance, prior studies have not examined the procedures that link servant leadership to the training effectiveness of organizations (Liden et al., 2008).

We propose that servant leadership will lead followers (i.e., trainees) to higher levels of training effectiveness by drawing on social learning theory (Bandura, 1977), which emphasizes the importance of role modeling by leaders (or trainers) as an essential process through which social influence occurs in the workplace. This is accomplished by reasoning that servant leadership will lead followers (i.e., trainees) to greater training efficacy. Bandura's theory emphasizes the necessity of a leader's role modeling as a means for social influence to occur in the workplace. This is due to the fact that role modeling is a socially influential activity. We assert that this conduct, in turn, will encourage followers (or trainees) to prioritize satisfying the needs of individuals both within and outside the business, resulting in higher levels of job performance on their part.

In the context of leadership, the word "servant leadership" refers to a strategy that is both all-encompassing and selfless, and is differentiated by the leader's concentration on the objectives and needs of the people he or she is responsible for guiding. In other words, the leader prioritizes the needs of the people he or she is accountable for guiding (Van Dierendonck, 2011). When managers (or trainers) prioritize the personal and professional development of their workers above the financial success of the organization, they exhibit servant leadership qualities. This demonstrates

that the development of people is more important than the attainment of the company's financial objectives (Graham 1991). A leader who pays attention to and exhibits an understanding of the aspirations and wants of the people he or she leads exemplifies the qualities of a servant leader. In addition, a leader of this kind will serve as a mentor for his or her followers in order to aid them in reaching their goals. Even though alternative follower-centered leadership styles have started to develop, servant leadership continues to stand out as a unique style because its primary principle is to aid followers in fulfilling their full potential while simultaneously meeting the needs of a broader range of stakeholder groups (Sendjaya et al. 2008). The followers see the servant leader as a role model, and they attempt to emulate the leader's actions, which ultimately leads to the followers becoming servant leaders themselves (Greenleaf 1977). The servant leadership traits have been demonstrated to be a consistent predictor of good employee and organizational results in a variety of situations and settings, according to research conducted in a number of nations and studies. This is true of both the public and private sectors (Han et al. 2010; Liden et al. 2015). Prior research has sought to explain the influence of servant leadership on the results of its followers, with the bulk of these studies relying on the social learning theory (Hunter et al. 2013; Liden et al. 2014).

The core concept of the social learning theory is that people acquire key social norms, attitudes, and behaviors from prominent role models in their surroundings, such as their leaders, by watching

and seeking to mimic such features in themselves. Psychologists established the social learning hypothesis (Bandura 1977). Leaders are a significant source of role modeling in the workplace due to their status in the community and influence on people who follow them. This is particularly true when the followers see the leader's conduct as exemplary (Hunter et al. 2013). When leaders explain to their subordinates (or trainees) the conduct that is required of them and develop incentives that are aligned to promote such behavior, they have a great deal of influence over the ideas and behaviors of their followers. This enables leaders to exercise a great deal of influence on the results. In comparison to other styles of leadership, followers are more likely to see servant leaders as trustworthy role models, since servant leaders put the needs of their followers before their own. This is because followers mistakenly believe that servant leaders are motivated to serve others out of altruism rather than the hope of earning anything in return for their efforts (Sendjaya et al. 2008). In fact, the replication of leader behavior by followers has been emphasized as a vital aspect of servant leadership in prior research. This is consistent with the social learning hypothesis, which claims that imitating the conduct of leaders is a crucial element of learning. This is consistent with the notion that servant leaders should model their behavior after the followers they are accountable for serving (Graham 1991).

According to the social learning theory, an individual may acquire information by "vicariously observing" the actions of others. This notion is more often known as "learning by observation."

When followers see specific behaviors being favorably modeled by a trustworthy role model, they learn that certain activities are expected of them in their social context, and as a consequence, they attempt to model themselves after those behaviors. Certain behaviors are required of followers within their social milieu, as taught by their leaders (Bandura 1977). They will seek to model their conduct after that of their leader, either due to the leader's position within the company or because they view the leader as an admirable role model. Regardless of the cause, they will attempt to emulate the acts of their leader (Graham 1991). Specifically, followers will seek to mimic the leader's activities when they perceive the leader to possess desirable and appealing qualities, as has been shown with servant leadership (Liden et al. 2014). Previous study has shown that when followers see their leader exhibiting community service and the advancement and empowerment of employees, they are motivated to imitate these actions by assisting their colleagues and the community. This was shown to be the case regardless of the sort of service the leader was providing (Hunter et al. 2013).

Leadership is the ability of an individual or group to influence and lead other members of an organization, including followers and other workers. Leadership includes articulating and expressing a clear vision, establishing achievable goals, and empowering followers with the knowledge and resources necessary to achieve those objectives. Additionally, it necessitates making prudent decisions, which may be challenging at times. One of the most significant qualities

of a strong leader is the capacity to inspire individuals to dedicate more than 100 percent of their efforts to the accomplishment of the organization's goals, which is especially crucial when those goals are intended to have a positive impact on society as a whole (Barrow, 1977; Cyert, 2006; Plsek and Wilson, 2001). The ability of a leader to steer a business in a new direction is directly proportional to his or her ability to develop and express a compelling vision for the company's future to the workforce (Banutu-Gomez and Banutu-Gomez, 2007; Kotter, 2001). According to Schneider (1987), the leaders and followers of an organization (i.e., employees and volunteers) are the single most important factor in constructing the company's lucrative history. Both paid staff and unpaid volunteers must be aware of this. Bass & Bass (2008) and Bacharach (1989) Theories of leadership are efforts to classify and explain the nuances of leadership traits and their consequences. Throughout history, several experts on leadership have emphasized the inextricable link between morality and effective leadership. The phrase "servant leadership" has been associated with themes such as ethics, virtues, and morality. "Servant leadership" refers to both a burgeoning area of study and a style of leadership (Graham, 1991; Lanctot and Irving, 2010; Parolini et al., 2009; Russell, 2001; Whetstone, 2002).

According to Greenleaf (1970), the phrase "servant leadership" may be especially pertinent in our day since it adds a social responsibility component to transformational leadership. Transformational leadership may be further defined as "servant leadership" as a consequence of

this inclusion (Graham, 1991). In addition, it lays an explicit emphasis on the needs of people being led, unlike any other leadership ideology. Greenleaf is credited for proposing the term "servant leadership" for the first time (Patterson, 2003). The notion of servant leadership shifts the emphasis away from influence, which is often seen as the most important aspect of leadership. Instead, it emphasizes the notion of service in the relationship between leader and follower. Consequently, it is conceivable that this theory of leadership includes a large lot of untapped potential.

Academics and practitioners searching for a practical leadership theory to help solve the problems of the 21st century find resonance in the servant leadership theory's emphasis on service to individuals and the understanding that the purpose of organizations is to cultivate individuals who can create a better future through their work. These people are in search of a leadership philosophy that may assist in resolving the issues of the 21st century in response to the notion that corporate executives have become profit-driven. These two notions are the pillars around which the servant leadership model is built. It is often believed that Greenleaf (1970) was the first person to use the term "servant leadership;" nonetheless, the term is still frequently used in modern boardrooms and workplaces (Bass and Bass, 2008; Spears, 2005). It is possible to refer to Max DePree's (1989) "Leadership is an Art", Stephen Covey's (1990) "Principle-Centered Leadership", Peter Senge's (1990) "The Fifth Discipline: The Art and Styles of the Learning Organization", and Peter Bloc's (1990) "Servant Leadership" for a discussion of the positive effects that servant leadership has on

the profitability of organizations and the satisfaction of their employees (1990). It has been covered by several notable media publications, such as *Fortune* and *Dateline* (Spears Center, 2011). *How to Find Your Way Through the Leadership Maze in an Age of Uncertainty* It's probable that Greenleaf's (1970, 1977) classification of servant leadership as a philosophy, as opposed to a management style, delayed its appeal in academic circles.

If it is a philosophical or lifestyle approach, scholars may question how it can be empirically shown. Greenleaf's emphasis on servant leadership as a management strategy may have had a role in this case. It is in no way intended to be an academic thesis or a how-to guide. As Greenleaf and others have shown, operationalizing and implementing the servant leadership principles may be difficult (Greenleaf, 1977). Previous research on servant leadership has mostly focused on defining and measuring the concept. Future researchers may employ these methods to examine servant leadership as both an actionable theory and a real-world practice. This concept has been the subject of a limited number of investigations to far.

In Greenleaf's and others' extensions of his paradigm, which was initially established by others, the needs of others are emphasized as the primary focus of servant leadership. This act of kindness was inspired by a true desire or need to aid others (Bass, 2000; Sosik, 2000). The servant leader's actions are directed by a commitment to a basic set of principles, values, and beliefs (Farling, Stone, &

Winston, 1999). In recognition of the reality that their primary responsibility is that of a servant, servant leaders prioritize the needs of their followers (Farling et al., 2003).

One of the primary characteristics of servant leadership, as articulated by Greenleaf and many who have elaborated on his notion, is to focus on the needs of people in your immediate surroundings. Providing this service was motivated by a desire to serve others (Bass, 2000; Sosik, 2000). A servant leader acts in line with the core principles, values, and convictions they maintain (Farling, Stone, & Winston, 1999). According to Farling et al. (1999), servant leaders are those who prioritize their followers' needs above their own because they recognize their primary role as servants.

Van Dierendonck and Patterson (2011) identify the following three primary areas of research: (a) a conceptual stream (Spears 1998; Laub 1999; Patterson 2003); (b) a measurement stream (Page & Wong 2000; Wong and Page 2003; Ehrhart 2004; Barbuto & Wheeler 2006; Liden et al. 2008; Van Dierendonck & Nuijte 2011); and (c) model development. Patterson (1998), Spears (1998), and Laub (1999) (Russell and Stone 2002; Vandierendonck 2011). There is a notable dearth of empirical research in the aforementioned field that focuses on the implementation of servant leadership within the setting of a single firm. This absence of research is clear. Moreover, despite the vast amount of research on the topic, there are still some authors that struggle to offer a precise explanation of the notion of servant leadership (Anderson 2009). Despite his caution that servant

leadership would be challenging to deploy and operationalize, Greenleaf (1977) did not include a management how-to manual. This was one of the future events that Greenleaf predicted will occur. Instead, he stressed the necessity for development via introspection and reflection (Frick 2004; Spears 1995).

Hong Kong's economy has shifted away from manufacturing and toward the service sector since the 1990s. As a result, the population of the region has grown more educated, indicating the necessity for a new approach while doing business there. According to the servant leadership concept, a leader's main responsibility is to meet the needs of people they lead. According to Lubin (2001), the most essential duty of a servant leader is to nurture relationships, since the achievement of corporate goals is seen less essential than the formation of good working partnerships. The notion that "people are more important than tasks" is presented here. The servant leader "must attend" to those under their supervision and must take a stand for what is morally and ethically better, even if it results in a financial loss for the organization (Yukl, 2002).

Principal notion of the study is that effective educators and trainers prioritize the needs of their students and exhibit servant leadership approaches. Educators would expect that their pupils not only develop themselves to the level of excellence, but also to the level of greatness via substantial behavioral change. In their status as servant leaders, educators have the opportunity to serve as an

example for the pupils they instruct. This specific working notion acts as the investigation's basis.

Educators who see their job as that of a servant leader and endeavor to foster the development of people under their tutelage are effective. They do this through mentoring those under their tutelage, fostering a sense of community among their pupils, demonstrating good classroom conduct, and providing students with chances to take responsibility for their education.

Bowman (2004) examines the interrelationships between servant leadership and education and provides five ideas for more successfully carrying out the duties of a servant leader in an educational context, such as a classroom or other educational environment. According to Van Brummelen (2005), educators who exemplify servant leadership are accountable for establishing communities with a strong sense of shared purpose that are also welcoming and inclusive (p. 21).

This research examines the personal, instructional, and organizational factors that influence the planning, delivery, and completion of training. In this examination, concepts and methods from previously done research in this sector were used. The research takes into consideration not only the unique features of each student, but also the organization's culture, its goals, and the specifics of the task or activities that must be taught.

Despite having been the topic of research for decades, the notion of leadership is still considered as somewhat enigmatic (Gupta, McDaniel & Herath, 2005). There are several leadership theories,

including trait-based and behavior-based interpretations. None of these ideas sufficiently explains the diversity of leaders and the dynamic nature of their relationships. On one level, leadership is often considered to be the relationship between a person who may influence the actions or behaviors of others and those whose actions or behaviors are impacted as a consequence. In another sense, leadership is the formation of a connection between the leaders and the led (Mullins, 1996). Mullins introduced the notion that leadership is a flexible process that can be adapted to a variety of management philosophies (Ehigie & Akpan, 2004). The organizational leadership is responsible for determining the company's overall direction and conveying this knowledge to all personnel. As a result, it is necessary for the development of future leaders to have a deeper knowledge of effective leaders (Gupta et al., 2005). EFQM (2009) defines leadership at the strategic level as "how leaders develop and facilitate the achievement of the mission and vision, develop values required for long-term success and implement these through appropriate actions and behaviors, and are personally involved in ensuring that the organization's management system is developed and implemented." The phrase "how leaders develop and aid in achieving the purpose and vision" refers to the manner in which leaders cultivate the values essential for long-term success and implement these objectives. It also examines how leaders build and enable mission and vision accomplishment.

It would seem that Robert Greenleaf's (1977) servant leadership model is especially well-suited to the task of providing workers with the empowerment and participative job features that are

associated to the degree of employee and customer satisfaction. This proposal was made by Greenleaf. According to Greenleaf's (1977) definition of servant leadership, the leader's attention should be on the people around him or her rather than on the leader himself or herself, and the emphasis should be made on recognizing the leader's role as a servant. According to Russell and Stone (2002), the servant leader assumes the role of a servant to the rest of the workforce and strives to meet the needs of those in their immediate area.

According to Page and Wong (2000), servant leadership is the act of aiding others by contributing to their advancement and well-being for the purpose of achieving objectives that are for the common good. This definition explains that servant leaders "distance[themselves] from using power, influence, and position to serve self" (Rude, 2003). Those leaders who place the needs of their followers above the goals of the organization are known as servant leaders. They have faith that their followers will make decisions that benefit the group (Stone, Russell & Patterson, 2004).

Since servant leaders focus an emphasis on building the leadership potential of their followers (Greenleaf, 1977; Liden et al., 2008), subordinates may assume informal leadership positions in their groups, aiding in the fulfillment of the needs and aspirations of other group members. This is achievable because servant leaders prioritize growing the leadership capacity of their followers. By giving training in a range of leadership styles to their leaders, companies may facilitate the

establishment of healthy connections between leaders and subordinates in large or diverse groups.

"Servanthood" (Liden, 2008) is responsible for developing a workplace culture that fosters a sense of autonomy and responsibility in workers, which in turn increases levels of productivity.

However, formal theory and research on the supposed characteristics of servant leadership are still in their infancy. These initiatives are still in their infancy. This is a problem that impacts the whole industry (Liden, et. al, 2008). To have a significant influence on outcomes such as performance or organizational success, we must have a greater awareness of multi-level problems such as the ways in which servant leadership may be executed at both the individual and group levels (Schriesheim, Neider, & Scandura, 1998; Yammarino, Dionne, Chun, & Dansereau, 2005). There is no agreement about whether or not the prevalence of servant-leader behaviors among all of a work group's followers affects an individual's level of commitment to an organization or performance while employed by that firm. This is something that need additional investigation. According to Smith et al. (2004), transformational leaders and servant leaders have different motivations and objectives, which eventually leads to the establishment of two separate organizational cultures. They describe servant leaders as those who are driven by "an underlying egalitarianism" (p. 85), in which the growth and development of the person are objectives in their own right. As a direct result of this desire, a unique culture has formed that positively helps to spiritual growth. This study focuses on the individual level since the target population should be able to articulate their training motivation,

their perception of trainers as servant leaders, and how trainers conduct training programs to enhance training effectiveness. This is the workers' (or trainees') opportunity to demonstrate how much they've learned from their trainers and how much their behavior has changed as a result of training; it is the fundamental indicator of training effectiveness.

1.2 Limitation in Prior Research

As a result of Hong Kong's move from the manufacturing sector to the service sector, the population of the territory has grown more educated, indicating the need for a new approach while doing business there. According to the servant leadership concept, a leader's main responsibility is to meet the needs of people they lead. Despite the growing popularity of servant leadership in both for-profit and non-profit organizations, there is a paucity of academic research on the subject (Farling et al. 1999). The great bulk of servant leadership research has been grouped around Greenleaf (1977) and the Greenleaf Centre's fundamental articles (Spears 1995, 1996; Vanourek 1995). The vast majority of these are case studies of servant leadership initiatives now being implemented inside businesses. In contrast, the great bulk of servant leadership study is based on anecdotes rather than empirical facts. This is the most important shortcoming of these studies (Bowman 1997; Northouse 1997; Sendjaya & Sarros 2002). The popularity of the servant leadership movement and its multiple linkages to encouraging follower learning, development, and autonomy, according to Bass (2000), implies that the unproven theory will have a role in the future leadership of the learning

organization (p. 33).

The concept of "servant leadership" arose in the West as a way for leaders to "serve" their followers and, as a consequence, indirectly reduce the power differential between themselves and their subordinates. The traditional Asian technique of leadership emphasizes the formation of a hierarchical structure and a clear separation of duties between the leader and their subordinates. This kind of leadership is exemplified by paternalistic leadership, which combines power with the paternalistic traits of compassion and protection (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008). Like servant leaders, paternalistic leaders exhibit concern and support for their employees (Farh & Cheng, 2000). In contrast to servant-oriented leaders, paternalistic leaders put a higher focus on formalized relationships. It is conceivable to trace the roots of paternalistic leadership all the way back to Asia, namely to the Confucian and Daoist philosophies. Daoism encourages a humanistic, value-based form of leadership in which the leader assists others, while Confucianism emphasizes hierarchical relationships and the preservation of social harmony (Chen & Lee, 2008). (Lee, Han, Byron, & Fan, 2008). Consequently, there are parallels between the paternalistic leadership style prevalent in Asia and the servant leadership style prevalent in the West; however, the hierarchical character of the connection between the leader and the follower is more prominent in the paternalistic relationship.

It has been noted that the rise of international business education and training, such as MBAs and

executive education programmes, as well as an increase in the amount of money invested in leadership development programmes by multinational corporations with subsidiaries in Asian countries, and the expansion of international trade and commerce, have contributed to the spread of Western models of leadership throughout Asia (Newman, Eva, & Herbert, 2018). This has led to a huge increase in the number of studies undertaken on Asian leadership (Liden, 2012). In Asian nations, 68 servant leadership research projects have been conducted (see Table 1). These studies provide promise since they demonstrate that servant leadership is applicable in a variety of Asian countries, including India, Indonesia, Korea, and Vietnam. This is a promising discovery since it reveals that Asian nations have many similarities. China has been the subject of the great majority of study in this discipline. In Table 1 are included Asian studies on servant leadership.

Table 1 Servant Leadership studies in Asia

	Quantitative			Qualitative	Total
	Individual	Team / Multi-level	Mixed		
Cambodia	1	0	0	0	1
China	14	10	0	1	25
Cyprus	1	0	0	0	1
Hong Kong	0	0	1	0	1
India	3	0	0	3	6
Indonesia	2	2	0	0	4
Iran	4	0	0	0	4
Israel	0	0	0	1	1
Korea	1	0	0	0	1

Malaysia	0	1	0	0	1
Pakistan	5	0	0	0	5
The Philippines	1	0	0	1	2
Singapore	1	0	0	0	1
South Korea	1	2	0	0	3
Taiwan	1	1	0	0	2
Thailand	0	0	0	1	1
Turkey	8	0	0	0	8
Vietnam	1	0	0	0	1

Scholars in the area of servant leadership have recently focused a great deal of attention on China as a consequence of its fast economic and social development (Newman et al., 2018). There have been a number of studies undertaken on servant leadership in the Chinese government sector. China has amended Chapter 5 of its Civil Service Law in an attempt to decrease the country's exposure to corruption. As part of the change, keeping one's integrity is now a required element of both performance evaluations and instructional programs (Liu & Dong, 2012). Recent arrests and imprisonments of prominent civil officials for corruption, as reported by Dong, Yang, and Wang (2010), indicate that training and growth in servant leadership may become even more crucial for Chinese public workers in the future. Chinese government officials have a long history of having their heads in the clouds while ignoring the needs of the people who elected them. The use of the revolutionary notion of servant leadership in this context stands out as novel. In stark contrast to the status quo, servant leadership is a paradigm change (Dong et al., 2010). As a consequence of

the widespread acceptance of global trade and the increasing focus on the individual that is consistent with Confucianism and Daoism, we expect the study of servant leadership and its application in Asia to continue to grow.

1.3 Research Question

When it comes to the study of human behavior and its effects on society, leadership is one of the topics that has been investigated the most. The direction given by a system's leaders is the single most influential element in determining its economic, political, and organizational success (Barrow 1977). It is vital to examine the management of a business in order to comprehend the aspects that contribute to its degree of success. A person who can motivate others around them to work together to achieve shared goals is capable of leading others. Leadership is one of the most important factors contributing to a company's success (Barrow 1977; Cyert 2006; Plsek & Wilson 2001). Given the relevance of the leader's inspiration, the author of this study believes it would be beneficial for academics and business professionals to investigate the following essential research questions:

1. How can business leaders in their firms best exhibit servant leadership to their employees?
2. What are the linkages between the behaviors of servant leadership shown by firm executives and the overall effectiveness of the training?
3. How do the organizational environment and the level of motivation of business leaders, who function as moderators, influence the capacity of company leaders to put servant leadership

concepts into practice and the effectiveness of the training?

1.4 Research Objectives

Excellent leaders are capable of seeing fresh courses of action for their organizations, communicating those courses of action to their teams, gaining support for the suggested courses of action, and then putting those courses of action into action (Kotter, 2001). According to Schneider (1987), the workers and volunteers of an organization are the most important aspect in defining the group's potential effect over time. Theories of leadership reflect various people's efforts to explain and categorize the complexity of leadership and its consequences (Bass & Bass 2008).

The connection between superiors and subordinates is now the most debated subject in the corporate sector. To get the best out of a team, it is essential to have a leader who is up to the challenge. The primary tenet of the servant leadership ideology is selfless service to others. This ideology acknowledges that it is the responsibility of companies to encourage the growth of future change agents. In 1977, Robert Greenleaf published a paper titled "The Servant as Leaders" in which he introduced the notion of servant leadership to the public for the first time. He proposed that a leader should see himself as a servant to the people he leads first and foremost. Since the beginning of time, servant leadership has been lauded for its ability to boost the morale and happiness of an organization's workers, two elements that have a direct impact on a company's

bottom line (Zhang et al. 2012). One of the key objectives of a servant leader is to encourage the growth, development, and education of their followers inside and outside the company (Greenleaf, 1977).

Moreover, servant leaders may be able to motivate their staff to engage in episodic future thinking. This gives their employees the opportunity to plan for the future and identify areas where they can enhance the quality of client service. When it comes to shaping the identities of frontline staff and, therefore, the level of service they deliver to clients, the servant leadership style is more influential than the transformational leadership approach. Consequently, staff service performance not only exemplifies "nonstandard, flexible, and inventive service," but also leads to an improvement in service quality (e.g., Borucki & Burke, 1999). This is due to the fact that service performance is "nonstandard, flexible, and inventive service" (Liao & Chuang, 2007). This includes both civic-minded action and citizen-like conduct (Bettencourt & Brown, 1997; Pelled, Cummings, & Kizilos, 2000).

To implement the notion of servant leadership, a leader who follows the servant leadership model is required to combine their passion to lead with their drive to serve. One of the major tenets of servant leadership is the concept of service, which is closely linked to stewardship. This service demonstrates putting the needs of one's immediate subordinates (in this case, trainees) ahead of

one's own needs (Patterson, 2003; Reinke, 2004; Sendiaya et al, 2008). If training leaders want to boost the overall quality of their programs and the performance of their teams, they will need to significantly improve the manner in which they instruct their trainees and their understanding of the elements that motivate their trainees. The primary objective of this study is to determine how the servant leadership traits of trainers influence the degrees of training motivation held by learners as well as training effectiveness.

In contrast, one definition of motivation is "variability in behavior unrelated to fixed individual characteristics (such as cognitive ability) or strong external compulsion" (Quiones, 1997). This is the conventional meaning of the term "motivation." Consequently, one definition of motivation is the disposition of an individual to try to engage in a certain schedule of activities. This is only one of the possible definitions of motivation. Motivation may influence training outcomes such as attendance (Maurer and Tarulli, 1994; Noe and Wilk, 1993), effort (Ryman and Bierschild, 1975), and transfer to the workplace (Baldwin and Ford, 1988). Therefore, if the trainees' motivation is not consistently taken into account during the program, it is possible that they will be unable to get all of the program's benefits. Multiple studies have shown that a person's degree of motivation is the single most important factor in determining how effectively they can finish their training. If a trainee has the intellectual ability to comprehend the course content but lacks the motivation to do so, the trainee will not benefit from the training (Colquitt et al. , 2000).

The objectives of this study are to:

1. investigate the concept of trainers as servant leaders providing a pathway and footprint to trainees, as a new style of training, so that trainees would follow the same path and training effectiveness would be maintained and enhanced from the bottom of their hearts.
2. conduct research on the ways in which servant leadership influences training in terms of motivation, organizational atmosphere, training delivery, and training effectiveness.
3. recommend a number of critical ramifications for any organization that makes an investment in training and strives to encourage excellent, effective, and supportive leadership among its members; these repercussions include the following: Workers and followers need to be seen as something more than just components of the manufacturing process. The findings of this research demonstrate to the favorable benefits that a supportive leadership style has on the motivation and learning of employees, which may be interpreted as an indication of how well training works.

1.5 Significance of the Problem

1.5.1 Significance of the Study

This study contributes to future studies on servant leadership and the efficacy of training by collecting the first-hand accounts of subordinates who have participated in such programs. There

is no evidence that servant leadership is related to the results of the current study on the efficacy of training; nonetheless, the research focuses on the effectiveness of teams and the connection between training motivation and performance. The great bulk of research on servant leadership strategies is quantitative and compiles and generalizes collected data. The few research on servant leadership and training efficacy has been based on personal views and experiences.

There was a strong and long-standing commitment to servant leadership among both executives and employees of the enterprises that participated in the study project. Top executives in organizations employ surveys and in-person feedback sessions to monitor and assess the impact of servant leadership. They supervise both the department of training and the department of human resources. In addition to measuring the success of training, the survey contained particular servant leadership characteristics. Companies may benefit from the study's triangulated results, which are based on data gleaned from prior surveys, research focus groups, and interviews with influential persons. These three information sources were used to construct the study's conclusions. This achievement contributes to the development and prosperity of all firms involved. The results are not specific to the firm that was researched; rather, they are applicable to other businesses with similar goals that utilize servant leadership as the operational foundation of their business, as well as to those that are contemplating a change in their leadership style. Participants will have the chance to reflect on their own experiences with servant leadership, and organizational leaders will

be able to study in more detail how servant leadership may be utilized to enhance the effectiveness of training.

1.5.2 Significance of the Study to Leadership

This study adds to the corpus of leadership expertise by providing first-person descriptions of subordinates' experiences working under a servant leader. The current corpus of research nearly seldom addresses the participants' perspective, preferring instead the perspectives of practitioners and academics. Not only did the material gained enhance our understanding of the benefits of servant leadership, but it also shed light on the necessary character traits for serving as a servant leader.

The characteristics of servant leadership were determined with the use of evaluation instruments and validated with the aid of questionnaires that grouped questions on related themes. There is a dearth of research examining how the practice of servant leadership may enhance the overall efficacy of training. Leaders who have not previously practiced a form of leadership based on a desire to serve others can use the increased knowledge of servant leadership and the data gleaned from real-world experience gathered during the course of the study to develop strategies that can change the culture of their organizations.

Chapter 2 Literature Review

2.1 Leadership

Leadership may be management's most crucial aspect (Wehrich et al., 2008). Good leadership influences the firm's health and performance. There are different kinds of leadership, including transactional, transformational, charismatic, ethical, servant, and other forms of leadership. Transactional and transformational leadership theories are the prominent ones. In the second half of the 1980s, new leadership ideas and methods took hold. One kind of transformational leadership is suggested by Bass (1985, 1996), among others. To grow into new leadership styles, several leadership styles may need to be acquired over time. This is determined by business culture and surroundings.

One "does the things that servant leaders do in a quiet and consistent way" in an environment that is not open to servant leadership (Keith, 2008). Training relies on servant leadership since trainers provide daily services, mentoring, advising, and support to trainees while also helping them reach their personal and academic goals via the training materials. In higher education, students are taxed for various degrees of service and professional competency, each of which comes at a price. A wide number of studies have shown that servant leadership's attributes, attitudes, duties, and outcomes have a major influence on organizations, their leaders, and their followers (Farling, Stone, &

Winston, 1999; Laub, 1999; Patterson, 2003; Russell & Stone, 2002; Spears & Lawrence, 2004).

The foundational literature includes Farling et al (1999)'s definition of servant leadership based on vision, influence, credibility, trust, and service. According to their study, servant leaders are driven by a spirit-centered code of behavior. Laub (1999) created a measuring instrument to analyze organizational and individual servant leadership styles. He also demonstrated servant leadership, for which The Organization Leadership Assessment (OLA) was the measuring instrument, and subsequent studies used it extensively.

Leadership, according to Laub (2004), is when leaders and followers work together to achieve a goal. Thus, leadership requires taking action to attain a goal shared by both the leader and the group they lead. Higher education instructors teach students with the goal of institutional development, making this leadership concept applicable. One study (Laub, 1999) used the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) to categorize leadership into three main types: transformative, transactional, and passive-avoidance. Transformational leadership is a process in which leaders may foster a shift in their colleagues' fundamental awareness while simultaneously pondering a new picture of themselves and the various opportunities and challenges in their environment. Transactional leaders, on the other hand, define possibilities and promote achievement, thus they are constructive and corrective. Passive-avoidance, a mix of management by exception and laissez-faire leadership, is the last leadership style. This leadership style reacts systematically to events and challenges (Bass

& Avolio, 2005).

Matteson and Irving (2006) identified a movement toward a leadership style that prioritizes organization followers. Power is frequently thought to determine leadership ability. Power is the capacity to lock the respondent's conduct, according to Burns (1978). In other words, power is the ability to satisfy a want through persuading another person to behave in a way that leads to the fulfillment of that goal. Servant leadership is a transformative leadership paradigm that emphasizes serving others rather than leading (Burns, 1978; Maxwell, 2005; Northouse, 2006). This creates an agent that motivates people to accomplish what they want without considering one's own self-interest. Thus, leadership means taking on others' aspirations and successes.

Schuyler (2006) states that "the person makes the selection both for the purpose of the result and for the delight of picking." Since if he is compelled to do it, he is exonerated, he does it gladly (p. 55). In other words, once a person is influenced, or more precisely, led in a given path, the leader then assumes responsibility for whatever purpose they are concurrently attempting to attain. The person who led them originally directed them in the direction. Thus, the leader's motive may forecast his or her leadership style at any particular moment. Morals, ethics, and spirituality are essential to the leader who emerges, whether he or she exhibits the same issues as the present crisis or adopts a servant leadership style that prioritizes others before self. A servant leader puts others'

needs before their own.

2.1.1 Transactional Leadership

Transactional leadership, also known as management leadership, oversees, organizes, and improves group performance. A transactional leader motivates people via rewards and punishment.

Transactional leaders want to maintain the current quo, unlike transformational leaders. These leaders look for errors and deviations in their followers' work. In emergencies and circumstances when work must be done a specific way, this leadership ability is helpful. Business leadership focuses on the lowest levels of Maslow's hierarchy of needs, whereas transactional leadership meets basic needs. Transactional leaders utilize the trade model to demonstrate gratitude for hard work or accomplishment. However, leaders who employ this approach are more prone to punish poor performance or adverse results before fixing the problem. Top management pays attention to low-level issues by emphasizing task fulfillment (Hargis et. al., 2001). By managing each component, the affairs department head may complete tasks.

Transactional leaders focus on the process, not the future. Contingent punishment (also known as contingent negative reinforcement) or contingent compensation are the focus of this leadership style (also known as contingent positive reinforcement). Praise will be given if the goal is met on time, ahead of schedule, or if subordinates work at a different speed. If performance falls below the production standard, objective, or assignment, unexpected consequences, such as work

termination, will be applied. When problems develop, exceptions are generally temporary sanctions. Managing exceptions involves active and passive routing. The manager observes the results of his subordinates' work, alters their assignments, and makes modifications throughout the process in "exceptionally active management." Leaders that utilize passive exception management wait until problems arise before fixing them. The transformational style of leadership is better for upper-level requirements than the transactional approach, which is better for lower-level needs.

2.1.2 Transformational Leadership

Change leadership is ethical, according to Burns (1978), since it motivates followers to put the group before themselves. However, because to the importance of this research, a discussion regarding the morality of change leadership has begun, and academics are taking it seriously. Canongo and Mendonka (1996) claimed that ethical influence on the process is important for transformational leadership but not transactional leadership. Transformative leaders' morality depends on their motivations, according to Bass (1985). Bass and Steidlmeier (1999) further supported this stance by distinguishing between real and fake change leaders. These scholars argue that moral leaders are transformative leaders because they follow moral principles like honesty and justice, pursue social objectives, and shun compulsion and influence. However, leaders of pseudo-change care more about politics and self-interest. Howell (1988) distinguished between socialized and individualistic leadership styles. Howell believes the socialized leadership approach is more ethical. Howell and Avolio (1992) offered qualitative evidence for this distinction.

Transformational leadership and leader integrity are also linked (Parry & Proctor-Thomson, 2002; Tracey & Hinkin, 1994). Ethical and transformative leadership emphasize individual talents and abilities. Leaders of ethics and change care about others, follow their moral beliefs (also known as integrity), evaluate the ethical consequences of their decisions, and set an ethical example for others. Ethical leadership and transformational leadership have different organizational structures, according to theory and research (Brown et al., 2005, Trevino et al., 2003). Ethical leadership and the idealized impact factor of change leadership are strongly correlated (Brown et al., 2005). Ethical leadership, on the other hand, predicts the consequences of deviating from ideals (Brown et al., 2005). This may be because ethical management components of ethical leadership are more like trade styles than leadership styles. Moral leaders provide clear moral standards and employ incentives and penalties to change their followers' moral behavior. Thus, this definition of moral leadership includes the transactional influence process that distinguishes it from change leadership. Visionary leadership that aligns with change leadership style is also excluded from ethical leadership.

Over the past several decades, leadership research has moved away from focusing just on the leader and toward a more holistic view of organizations, including followers, peers, and the workplace (Avolio, Walumbwa, & Weber, 2009). Due to its focus on follower development, servant

leadership has commonalities with seven other leadership paradigms. Transformational, honest, ethical, level five, powerful, spiritual, and self-sacrificing models are also available (Van Dierendonck, 2011). The transformational leadership approach is compared most frequently among these seven (Sendjaya & Sarros, 2002). Burns and Bass (1978 and 1985) introduced transformative leadership. This leadership style inspires people via influence, inspiration, introspection, and intellectual stimulation. Although these attributes are comparable to servant leadership's attention to follower growth, transformational leadership's main focus is the company's well-being (Graham, 1991). The notion of interpersonal acceptance is specific to servant leadership (Van Dierendonck, 2011).

2.1.3 Ethical Leadership

The ethical component of leadership is crucial since there have been major moral problems in almost all types of organizations. We must first define "it" to comprehend leadership and its ex-ante effects. Philosophers answered "what is ethical leadership?" from a normative standpoint and described "how to conduct" as ethical leaders (e.g. Ciulla, 2004). The social sciences tackle this topic by describing ethical leadership and determining its causes and effects. Observers have long believed that leadership effectiveness involves a knowledge of human traits like integrity, and research has confirmed this. For instance, survey research links a leader's success to their honesty, integrity, and trustworthiness (Den Hartogetal, 1999, Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991, Kouzes & Posner, 1993, Posner & Schmidt, 1992). Cognitive trust—care for one's work, professionalism, and

dependability—is also linked to leadership performance (Darks & Ferrin, 2002).

Trustworthy moral leaders inspire confidence. Moral leaders are also seen as fair and successful decision-makers who care about individuals and society as a whole and act ethically in both their personal and professional lives. Moral leadership's moral person component is called that by researchers. It shows the observer's understanding of the moral leader's personality and altruistic intentions. Moral managers make ethics part of the leadership agenda by communicating ethics and values, shaping ethical behaviors, and holding followers responsible for ethical conduct via pay and punishment. This puts leadership ethics first. This evident behavior helps moral leaders maintain a morally neutral corporate culture by displaying social status, using morality as leadership information, and attracting followers (Trevino et al., 2000, 2003).

Ethical leadership is favorably correlated with emotional trust and adversely correlated with supervisory abuse. However, ethical leadership does not depend on demographic resemblance. Subordinates' understanding of ethical leadership may indicate whether they will be pleased with the leader, whether the leader will be effective, if they will put in additional effort at work, and whether they would report concerns to management. All of these factors exceed the idealized influence dimension of change leadership, which may be the influence of the current leadership system closest to ethical leadership. However, these impacts exceed the desired influence

dimension of change leadership.

Burns (1978) defined transactional leadership as leadership for acts that are either helpful or destructive to followers, while transformational leadership was described as a system that helps each other in all aspects of life at a cost. Transformational leadership has many traits with transactional leadership. However, ethical leaders clearly state ethical standards, incentives and penalties, and follower roles. They seek to influence followers' ethical behavior this way. Thus, ethical leadership seems to contain transactional influence techniques.

Greenleaf (1977) states that servant leaders must gaze inward throughout their lives. Its principles and human-centered leadership philosophy set it apart (Clegg et al., 2007). In contrast to transformational leadership, ethical issues and follower needs were highlighted (1991). (Patterson 2003). The ideal of service is found in the relationship between a leader and a follower when the leader is a servant. Servant leaders care for people who follow social responsibility and equality, which is the biggest difference between servant leadership and other styles (Link 2004). 1977 (Greenleaf).

To influence their subordinates, servant leaders use persuasion rather than authority. The servant leadership concept also places leaders in the role of respected institution administrators more than

any other leadership theory (Link 2004). Parolini et al. found that servant leaders prioritize their constituents more than transformative leaders (2009). More than any institution, it's about personal allegiance. Thus, transformational leaders are their opposites.

2.1.4 Servant Leadership

2.1.4.1 Definition

Greenleaf was the first to suggest servant leaders (1977). He defined servant leadership as "serving first, serving first to a sense of nature." This is the cornerstone of servant leadership (Greenleaf, 1977, p. 7). "Whether it is a leader or a follower, as long as it is a servant, he always looks, listens, and hopes that a better period is developing" Greenleaf (1977). Leaders and followers must understand this. "The servants of nature are to examine the world clearly and attention to the prophetic sounds that are now making," he said thereafter. They are taking a firmer stance against the prevailing injustice and the mismatch between the quality of society they know is desirable and feasible with the available resources and the actual performance of the whole range of institutions that serve society." (p. 9).

"A servant took charge. His selflessness was what made him a man, not something he was given or assumed. (p. 21). Servant leaders are defined by their service motive (what they do), self-construction (who they are), and conscious choice of "doing" and "being" (Sendjaya and Sarros,

2002). Servant leaders put their followers' needs above their own, according to Greenleaf (1977). Serving others is the best course of action for a servant leader. "Becoming healthier, sharper, freer, and more independent while also increasing the probability that they would themselves become servants" was another goal of servant leaders (Greenleaf, 1977). Servant leadership emphasizes building long-term relationships with direct reports by understanding and encouraging employee behavior (Bartu & Wheeler 2006).

The cornerstone of servant leadership, according to Greenleaf (1977), is introspection. Its ethics and human-centered leadership philosophy make it stand out (Clive et al. 2007). It featured ethical aspects (Graham in 1991) and explicitly stated its followers' expectations (Patterson 2003). In servant leadership, service is expressed via a leader's relationship with their followers. Servant leaders care for people who follow social responsibility and equality, which is the biggest difference between servant leadership and other styles (Link 2004). 1977 (Greenleaf).

Spears (1995) listed eleven servant leadership attributes based on Greenleaf's teachings. These traits include listening, empathy, mending, recognizing, persuading, conceiving, foreseeing, managing, dedicating, and building a community. Spears (1995) is not the only scholar interested in servant leadership. Laub (1999) developed a conceptual model with six clusters of servant leadership traits (personal development, appraisal, building community, showing authenticity,

providing leadership, and sharing leadership). Russell and Stone (2002) identified nine functional attributes (vision, honesty, integrity, trust, service, modeling, development, evaluation of others, empowerment).

Patterson's model (2003) has seven dimensions (again, humility, altruism, vision, trust, empowerment, and service). Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) created a five-component servant leadership paradigm after a thorough literature assessment. These were altruistic calling, emotional healing, persuasive mapping, wisdom, and organizational management. Van Dierendonck (2011) also summarized another conceptual model that characterized servant leadership's six main attributes. Humility, sincerity, acceptance of interpersonal relationships, direction, and responsibility are these traits.

Last but not least, Liden et al. (2015) commented on (2008) 28 steps are used to evaluate servant leadership skills, and the findings are presented as seven phases. That is, the healing of emotional scars, the production of value for the area, the development of conceptual skills, the empowerment of followers, the support of followers in attaining growth and success, the prioritization of subordinates, and ethical behavior. These examples illustrate how Greenleaf's works may be understood in many ways using different terms. They all share the basic traits of servanthood, which may be summed up as a willingness to serve. The following table summarizes different

studies' attempts to measure servant leadership.

Table 2 Development and Dimensionality of Servant Leadership

Year	Theorist	Dimensionality of Servant Leadership
1977	Greenleaf	“servant as leader” (no concise conceptual definition)
1995	Spears	listening, empathy, healing, awareness, persuasion, conceptualization, foresight, stewardship, commitment, and building community
1999	Laub	personal development, valuing people, building community, displaying authenticity, providing leadership, sharing leadership
2002	Russell and Stone	vision, honesty, integrity, trust, service, modeling, pioneering, appreciation of others, empowerment
2003	Patterson	love, humility, altruism, vision, trust, empowerment, service
2006	Barbutto and Wheeler	Altruistic calling, emotional healing, persuasive mapping, wisdom, organizational stewardship
2011	Van Dierendonck	Empowering and developing people, humility, authenticity, interpersonal acceptance, providing direction and stewardship
2015	Liden et al.	Emotional healing, Creating value for the community, Conceptual skills, Empowering followers, Helping followers grow and succeed, Putting subordinates first, Behaving ethically

This doesn't mean servant leaders weren't worried about satisfying performance objectives. "As a leader, servants always feel the same and continually welcome people, but sometimes they also refuse to acknowledge people's efforts and performance," Ferch (2004) quoted Greenleaf as saying. Greenleaf emphasizes this key difference between acceptance and the reality that they do not accept effort or achievement. Thus, improving trust and effort may lead to better results (Kolp & Rea, 2006). Organizations can only survive if they satisfy their members (Covey, 2006). Servant leaders are responsive to others' needs and people-focused. They value human dignity and strive hard to help corporate employees improve personally and professionally (Russell, 2001). Finally, this approach works for most businesses.

Table 3 below summarizes servant leadership research. The focus is on the mediating effect of procedural justice (a wide term for evaluation, which does not include organizational justice) and related studies of servant leadership and trust, professional satisfaction, and spirituality. Therefore, one line of future study would be to examine how corporate culture affects servant leadership and training efficiency.

Table 3 Servant Leadership Correlational Studies

Study	Context	Moderator	Mediator	Dependent Variable / others
Beazley (2002)	TD industries employees			(Correlation with Spirituality)
Hebert (2003)	College employees			Job satisfaction
Ehrhart (2004)	Grocery store employees		Procedural justice climate	Unit-level OCB
Drury (2004)	College employees			(Correlation between servant leadership and Job satisfaction / organizational commitment)
Dillman (2004)	US and Australian pastors			(Cross-Cultural studies)
Reinke (2004)	County employees		Organizational Trust	Organizational Performance
Joseph & Winston (2005)	College students, religious school employees			(Correlation between servant leadership and organizational trust / leader trust)
Barbuto & Wheeler (2006)	Elected leaders			(LMX, organizational effectiveness, employees' extra effort : Scale Development)
Mayer, Bardes, & Piccolo (2008)	University students		Organizational justice; need satisfaction	Job satisfaction
Liden, Wayne,	University		LMX	Organizational

Zhao & Henderson (2008)	students			citizenship behavior
Walumbwa et al. (2010)			Procedural justice climate, employees' attitude	Organizational Citizenship behavior

2.2 Theoretical Background and Grounded Theory

2.2.1 Servant Leadership

"Other-oriented leadership" is servant leadership. "Manifested via one-on-one priority of follower individual needs and interests" and "outward reorienting of their care for self towards concern for others within the company and the greater community" are some ways to define it (Eva et al., 2019).

Servant leadership emphasizes the growth and development of followers rather than organizations or their goals (Eva et al., 2019). In today's business, when people are often disconnected, this leadership style builds strong ties. This makes the leadership style relevant in current workplaces.

Those who desire to be servant leaders support others regardless of who or what they are serving or how they feel (Greenleaf, 1977).

Servant leadership literature has gone through three key phases since its inception. Initially, the focus was on servant leadership paradigm development (Greenleaf, 1977). Next, the study examined servant leadership measurement methods. At this time, the research literature focused on

measuring and testing whether servant leadership leads to outcomes. In the third and current phase of servant leadership, sophisticated research designs have been prioritized. This study seeks to investigate servant leadership's nomological network, focusing on its positive impact on followers. These models examine servant leadership's mediation mechanisms and boundary conditions (Eva et al., 2019). Researchers first sought methods to distinguish servant leadership from other leadership models. Even though there are hundreds of studies on servant leadership, there are still questions about its distinctiveness compared to other leadership theories including transformational, transactional and ethical leadership (Eva et al., 2019).

Thus, various research have endeavored to intellectually and practically distinguish servant leadership from other leadership models. Although these other leadership theories are essentially similar to servant leadership, servant leaders' motivating concepts and prioritization of followers distinguish it. While both transformational and servant leadership emphasize followers' needs, a transformational leader does so for the company, while a servant leader does it for the follower (van Dierendonck, Stam, Boersma, de Windt, & Alkema, 2014). The main difference between servant and transformational leadership is that transformational leaders prioritize corporate needs above follower needs (van Dierendonck et al., 2014).

Both servant and ethical leadership models need ethical behavior, but the manner this trait is

recognized and rewarded differs. Ethical leadership is more prescriptive, according to Brown and Trevio (2006), with the emphasis on following ethical values. Servant leaders' ethics are more flexible and may be tailored to the followers' and company's needs (Eva et al., 2019). Authentic and servant leadership emphasize being real and showing people who you are. Servant leadership and authenticity share aims. Authenticity is valued differently by servant and genuine leaders (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Eva et al., 2019). Altruistic or spiritual impulses to assist others may drive the servant leader to be real (Eva et al., 2019; Liden, Wayne, Zhao, & Henderson, 2008). On the other hand, leaders prioritize being true to oneself and building honest connections with followers (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Gardner, Cogliser, Davis, & Dickens, 2011).

In recent years, new leadership styles like entrepreneurial leadership have emerged, which also care about their followers' advancement (Miao, Eva, Newman, & Cooper, 2018). A servant leader's interest is quite different. Unlike servant leadership, which values workers regardless of how they make them feel (Banks, Gooty, Ross, Williams, & Harrington, 2018; Hoch, Bommer, Dulebohn, & Wu, 2018), entrepreneurial leaders concentrate on followers' entrepreneurial interests and enhance their entrepreneurial self-efficacy.

Servant leadership has consistently outperformed other leadership approaches in follower outcomes. Based on empirical data, these studies first distinguished transformational leadership

from servant leadership (Liden et al., 2008; Peterson, Galvin, & Lange, 2012; Schaubroeck, Lam, & Peng, 2011; van Dierendonck et al., 2014). The researchers discovered that servant leadership consistently predicted higher follower results in each of these studies. As an example, servant leadership explained 19% of the variation in community civic activity and 5% of the variance in in-role performance, according to Liden et al. (2008). Hoch et al. (2018) examined how servant leadership may better predict variance than other leadership models. They found that servant leadership predicts higher variance than transformative (12%), ethical (6.2%), and authentic (5.2%) leadership (Hoch et al., 2018).

The second level of servant leadership included testing connections and building scales. This has shown that servant leadership has a huge impact on businesses, teams, and individuals. At the organizational level, servant leadership improves service and performance (Miao et al., 2018). At the team level, servant leadership improves organizational citizenship behaviors, performance, psychological safety, creativity, and innovation (Sendjaya, Eva, Butar-Butar, Robin, & Castles, 2018). Hu & Liden (2011) At the employee level, servant leadership has been demonstrated to improve work happiness, helpful behaviors, and performance (Schaubroeck et al., 2011). As servant leadership research enters its third phase and models get more complex, it's important to remember their theoretical foundations. We couldn't define how servant leadership affects follower behavior without these theoretical frameworks. To explain the relationships between elements,

servant leadership research has used several conceptual frameworks. Most of the time, the social learning theory (Bandura, 1977) and the social exchange theory are used (Blau, 1964).

2.2.2 Social Learning Theory

Social learning, created by Bandura (1977), holds that individuals learn key acts by imitating others' attitudes, beliefs, and behavior. It is based on modeling, the premise that individuals learn their habits and attitudes by watching famous people (Han, Kakabadse, & Kakabadse, 2010; Miao, Newman, Schwarz, & Xu, 2014; Schwarz, Newman, Cooper, & Eva, 2016). Bandura (1986) and Brown and Trevio (2006)'s social learning theory states that watching others can teach you whatever you can learn from firsthand experience. This underpins the idea. Due to the leader's stature and authority, employees often turn to them to model good and poor conduct. This is because people look to their leader to discern right and wrong.

Bandura (1977) based social learning theory on four conative processes: attention, retention, reproduction, and motivation. People pay attention to the many traits of the model. Schwarz et al (2016). Exposing a pupil to a model's behaviors doesn't ensure that they'll pay attention or choose the model's most essential traits (Bandura, 1977). Many factors may alter this technique. First, one's propensity to notice others' activities depends on their relationships with others around them (Bandura, 1977). For instance, a person's workplace will influence the leadership they get and, hence, their conduct (Bandura, 1977). Due to their charming features, certain group members will

attract more attention than others. Because of this, their acts may have a bigger influence than those of others (Bandura, 1977). For instance, a leader with more appealing attributes is more likely to influence their followers' attentional processes.

"Long-term retention of modeled activities" is the second phase, retention (Bandura, 1977). To replicate a model's activities, a learner must have an active mental representation. The learner must deem prior behavior relevant enough to remember (Bandura, 1977).

The third mechanism, reproduction, outlines how individuals "put together" acts based on prior behavior patterns (Bandura, 1977). The extent to which a student may demonstrate observational learning depends on their skill level. Because certain talents cannot be learnt just through behavioral observation (Bandura, 1977). Unlike intricate financial analysis, which requires a unique set of skills that cannot be learnt through observation, helping colleagues is easy to imitate.

Motivation—the degree to which individuals are inclined to repeat the activities they have witnessed, absorbed, and replicated—is the final mechanism (Bandura, 1977). Positive incentives reward learners for mimicking the behavior they saw, sustained, and replicated (Bandura, 1977). A manager would provide good feedback if they praised an employee for helping another.

Social learning theory has been used with numerous leadership theories to describe how followers learn from their leaders and mimic such actions in their jobs. Leaders may influence and promote employee behavior by communicating expectations and matching incentives and penalties (Schwarz et al., 2016). Brown and Trevio (2006) argued that ethical leaders' followers emulate their leader's ethical conduct. Ethical leaders' moral talks with employees support this. According to Miao et al. (2018), entrepreneurial leaders' followers copy their leaders' risk-taking, proactive, and creative behaviors. They also said entrepreneurial leaders' followers want to copy their creative ways. Followers should emulate leaders, according to servant leadership literature.

2.2.2.1 Servant Leadership and Social Learning Theory

As previously said, leaders are generally considered as necessary and trustworthy role models due to the organization's impact. Because they put their staff's needs before their own, act selflessly, and serve others without asking anything in return, servant leaders are trusted role models (Sendjaya et al., 2018). Workers are also more inclined to learn from and emulate leaders they think are excellent and attractive if they think those leaders are good and beautiful themselves (Liden, Wayne, Chenwei, et al., 2014a).

According to Liden, Wayne, Liao, and Meuser (2014b), servant leadership teaches followers via a trickle-down effect. In this form of leadership, the servant leader "walks the talk" and then inspires others to do the same. Across the literature, servant leadership results in follower replication of

servant actions (Graham, 1991). According to Greenleaf (1977), servant leaders breed servant leaders. This is consistent with social learning theory and a fundamental result of servant leadership. The social learning hypothesis is commonly used to describe how servant leadership affects followers' behavior. Most often, the social learning theory is used to explain how servant leaders influence followers' behavior, especially positive ones. Because servant leaders exemplify these traits and teach others via social learning, Team leaders' actions affect not just their followers but also the teams they manage, according to servant leadership study (group).

At the individual level, servant leaders have been shown to influence followers' public service motivation (Liu & Dong, 2012; Schwarz et al., 2016; Tuan, 2016), affective organizational commitment (Newman, Neesham, Manville, & Tse, 2017a), helping behaviors (Hunter et al., 2013; Neubert et al., 2016), employee job crafting (Bavik, Bavik, & Tang, 2017), and core self-evaluation (Lacroix & Verdorfer, 2017).

At the team level, social learning describes how servant leadership affects culture. Servant leaders exemplify excellent behavior and ethics in the workplace, helping create positive and ethical teams. According to Liden et al. (2014b), servant leadership may help create a service-oriented culture. Similar to how social learning theory was used to explain the relationship between service climate (Hunter et al., 2013), socio-moral climate (Pircher Verdorfer, Steinheider, & Burkus, 2015), ethical-

work climate, and knowledge-sharing climate (Jaramillo, Bande, & Varela, 2015), it was also used to explain the relationship between knowledge-sharing climate and ethical-work climate (Song, Park, & Kang, 2015). Social learning theory was used by Linuesa-Langreo, Ruiz-Palomino, and Elche-Hortelano (2018) to examine how servant leadership affects group citizenship.

Recently, team behaviors have been explained by social learning theory. Go here to discover all servant leadership study that used social learning theory (see Table 4) A servant leader's role modeling has several boundaries that restrict its impact (moderators). Trust in the supervisor increases the effect of servant leadership on the trust and responsibility component of ethical work climate and decreases its impact on peer unethical behavior (Jaramillo et al., 2015). In addition, the degree to which a follower feels their present leader is similar to their ideal leader influences the relationship between servant leadership and a follower's predisposition to reject leadership roles (Lacroix & Verdorfer, 2017).

Table 4 Social Learning Theory and Servant Leadership

Level	Outcome	Moderator	Mediator	Author
Individual	Core Self-evaluation			Lacroix and Verdorfer (2017)
Individual	Corporate social responsibility		Sales person satisfaction	Grisaffe, Vanmeter, and Chonko (2016)
Individual	Ethical work climate	Trust in supervisor		Jaramillo et al. (2015)

Individual	Job satisfaction		Sales person satisfaction	Grisaffe et al. (2016)
Individual	Knowledge sharing	CSR	Public service motivation	Tuan (2016)
Individual	Leadership avoidance	Ideal leader prototype		Lacroix and Verdorfer (2017)
Individual	Leadership avoidance		Core Self-evaluation	Lacroix and Verdorfer (2017)
Individual	Motivation to lead		Core Self-evaluation	Lacroix and Verdorfer (2017)
Individual	OCB		Sales person satisfaction	Grisaffe et al. (2016)
Individual	Organizational cynicism		Socio-moral climate	Pircher Verdorfer et al. (2015)
Individual	Public service motivation			Liu, Hu, and Cheng (2015)
Individual	Sales performance		Sales person satisfaction	Grisaffe et al. (2016)
Individual	Sales performance		Ethical work climate	Jaramillo et al. (2015)
Individual	Socio-moral climate			Pircher Verdorfer et al. (2015)
Individual	Workplace deviance		Socio-moral climate	Pircher Veorfer et al. (2015)
Multi-level	Affective organizational commitment			Newman et al. (2017a)
Multi-level	Creativity		Serving culture	Liden et al. (2014b)
Multi-level	Customer service behavior		Serving culture	Liden et al. (2014b)
Multi-level	Employee identification with store		Serving culture	Liden et al. (2014b)

Multi-level	Employee job Crafting			Bavik et al. (2017)
Multi-level	Followers' innovative behavior			Newman et al. (2017a)
Multi-level	Followers' public service motivation			Schwarz et al. (2016)
Multi-level	Helping Behavior		Service climate	Hunter et al. (2013)
Multi-level	In-role performance		Serving culture	Liden et al. (2014b)
Multi-level	Interpersonal citizenship behavior		Employee job crafting	Bavik et al. (2017)
Multi-level	Job performance		Followers' PSM	Schwarz et al. (2016)
Multi-level	Service Climate			Hunter et al. (2013)
Multi-level	Turnover Intention		Serving culture	Liden et al. (2014b)
Team	Group citizenship behavior			Linuesa-Langreo et al. (2018)
Team	Group social Capital		Group citizenship behavior	Linuesa-Langreo et al. (2018)
Team	Serving Culture			Liden et al. (2014b)
Team	Store performance		Serving Culture	Liden et al. (2014b)
Team	Team performance		Knowledge sharing Climate	Song et al. (2015)

2.2.3 Social Exchange Theory

Reciprocity is the basis of the social exchange hypothesis. This hypothesis states that individuals

mimic the good actions they see in those with whom they interact (Blau, 1964). Most of the time, one person's actions influence the other's (Jaramillo et al., 2015). When employers take care of their employees, social exchange ties between employers and workers typically form via a positive sequence of interactions. Thus, when employers take care of their workers, social exchange ties usually form (Blau, 1964; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005).

Reciprocity, or "repayment in kind," governs social exchange (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005) identified three types of reciprocity in their investigation of social interaction. These were reciprocity as a norm and individual orientation, reciprocity as interdependent transactions, and reciprocity as folk belief. Interdependent exchanges emphasize "contingent interpersonal interactions, when one party's action leads to a response by another" Blau (1964) and Cropanzano & Mitchell (2005). This process is constant since one action mimics another. For instance, when a leader supports a follower, the follower will return the favor (Gouldner, 1960).

According to common belief, reciprocity is the societal assumption that individuals will get what they deserve. Organizational behavior research has not yet examined this idea (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). This notion takes several forms depending on the circumstances, but it commonly uses karma and simplistic world views (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). (Cropanzano & Mitchell,

2005). Reciprocity should be a standard and an individual attitude, the final and most crucial guideline. Unlike a folk belief, a norm is a commonly accepted standard of conduct, and those who follow it are expected to reciprocate the actions of others (Bies & Tripp, 1996). However, this rule accounts for the fact that different people value reciprocity differently.

This variance would affect how social exchange relationships form and how much individuals engage in reciprocity (Lerner, 1980). An expanding body of research examines how a person's disposition affects their willingness to participate in this process of reciprocity. The degree to which others support social exchange may depend on this variation in individuals (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Gouldner, 1960). Thus, social exchange interactions vary depending on each participant's reciprocity belief (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Eisenberger, Cotterell, & Marvel, 1987). The social exchange theory holds that the exchange of goods and services between amoral creatures is purely transactional (Emerson, 1976).

The unemotional perspective of social exchange theory must be reconsidered as relational leadership techniques like servant leadership appeal to followers' emotions. Relational leadership approaches include (Lawler, 2001; Lawler & Thye, 1999). Based on Eva, Newman, Miao, Cooper, and Herbert (2018)'s research on the emotional exchange between participative leaders and their followers, the emotional bond between a servant leader and their followers is crucial to building a

cohesive exchange relationship. Based on the authors' research, this argument is made. In particular, the idea that servant leaders can participate in fruitful trade relationships because of the covenantal bonds they form with each follower (Sendjaya, 2015).

The social exchange theory states that when people generate expectations on others and expect that certain behaviors will get certain rewards in the future, the belief that this expectation will promote social exchange between individuals and others, it is possible for people to gain knowledge from social experience or past experience and then form and change personal expectations based on that knowledge. Another central tenet of the social exchange theory is that people can learn from social or past experience (Blau, 1964). Thus, when workers have individual-oriented achievement motivation and expect work behaviors to have expected consequences, they are more likely to be truly engaged in their work. This expectation also increases the likelihood that employees will develop individual-oriented achievement motivation (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2010).

The social exchange theory states that healthy giving and receiving are the foundation of human interactions (Blau, 1964). An organization's promise to provide its workers with rewards, respect, and justice will increase workers' trust in the organization, which will increase their willingness to put in extra effort and improve job performance (Masterson and Taylor, 2000).

2.2.3.1 Servant Leadership and Social Exchange Theory

Social exchange theory has been used in servant leadership research to explain how followers act. When company leaders treat employees well, they form strong bonds. Thus, if an employee is treated well, they will likely behave well (Eisenberger et al., 1987). This is especially relevant to servant leadership due to the servant leader's conduct and the connection they form with their followers (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Eisenberger et al., 1987). A servant leader's nature is to serve their followers, so they can instill a sense of duty in their followers so they feel compelled to provide the same level of service (Hunter et al., 2013). The follower's actions depend on the servant leader's. The servant leader doesn't expect their followers to act a certain way to please them. The servant leader does not want their followers to emulate their positive behavior. The constant interdependence between a servant leader and their follower makes the follower feel obligated to the leader (Eva et al., 2019; Liden, Wayne, Liao, et al., 2014b).

Social exchange theory is often used to explain the relationship between servant leadership and followers' varied outcomes. Because servant leaders form deep bonds with their followers. These results indicate that they have repaid the servant leader's kindness. They reciprocated with these actions. These results are usually behavior-based and defined by followers doing more than expected. Social exchange theory is often used to explain the relationship between servant leadership and organizational behavior (Newman, Schwarz, Cooper, & Sendjaya, 2017b; Ozyilmaz

& Cicek, 2015; Park, Miao & Kim, 2015; Shim, Park, & Eom, 2016; Walumbwa, Hartnell, & Oke, 2010; Wu, Tse, Fu, Kwan, & Liu, 2013).

Understanding how servant leadership affects performance requires drawing on processes that mediate the relationship. These studies examine how servant leadership affects one result through the social exchange process, which then affects a performance-related consequence. These mediating processes are usually applied to the person. The mediating effect of organizational commitment was used by Zou, Tian, and Liu (2015) and Park et al. (2015) to explain the impact of servant leadership on performance. Social exchange theory was followed. Because of a servant leader's good behavior toward their followers, followers are likely to reciprocate. This makes them more loyal to the leader and company, which boosts performance. Liden et al. (2015) investigated how servant leadership affects in-role performance through organizational citizenship behavior. However, several of these mediating processes operate at the group level. Linuesa-Langreo et al. (2018) examined how servant leaders can create a service climate through social exchange, which impacts customer service quality. Ling, Liu, and Wu (2017) similarly explained how servant leadership can improve performance by building trust through social exchange. This increases productivity.

To better understand servant leadership's border conditions, social exchange theory-informed

servant leadership research has examined many moderating variables. These boundary requirements indicate organizational cultures like procedural justice and service climate. Such as (Walumbwa et al., 2010). The majority of border conditions studied so far are at the person level under servant leadership models that use social interaction literature. These criteria often indicate human tendencies and qualities. Extraversion (Panaccio, Henderson, Liden, Wayne, & Cao, 2015), a proactive personality, and organization tenure are some of them (Chan & Mak, 2014). Zou et al. (2015) investigated the boundary conditions under which servant leadership improves performance through an exchange relationship. This study examined how individual beliefs about reciprocity affect this relationship.

The social exchange relationship between servant leadership and helping behavior (through LMX) was stronger for followers with high positive reciprocity beliefs, according to Kashyap and Rangnekar (2016). These followers felt their actions were reciprocated, which led to this finding. These findings suggest that a person's positive reciprocity views are linked to the strength of social exchange ties between servant leaders and their followers. These relationships are thought to vary in strength from person to person. These findings suggest that social exchange ties between servant leaders and their followers are related to an individual's positive reciprocity belief. The strength of these relationships seems to depend on who is serving. The next table, table 5, will summarize these relationships.

Table 5 Social Exchange Theory and Servant Leadership

Level	Outcome	Moderator	Mediator	Author
Individual	Affective Organizational Commitment			Miao et al. (2014)
Individual	Affective Organizational Commitment		Affective trust	Miao et al. (2014)
Individual	Affective Organizational Commitment		Cognitive trust	Miao et al. (2014)
Individual	Creativity		Helping	Liden et al. (2015)
Individual	Disengagement			Hunter et al. (2013)
Individual	Employee extra-role behavior		Psychological contract	Panaccio et al. (2015)
Individual	Employee extra-role behavior	Employee extraversion	Psychological contract	Panaccio et al. (2015)
Individual	Employee extra-role behavior	Proactive Per	Psychological contract	Panaccio et al. (2015)
Individual	Employee extra-role behavior	Collectivism	Psychological contract	Panaccio et al. (2015)
Individual	Employee turnover intentions		Employer brand perception	Kashyap and Rangnekar (2016)
Individual	Employee turnover intentions		Trust in leaders	Kashyap and Rangnekar (2016)
Individual	Employee voice behaviors		Affective commitment	Lapointe and Vandenberghe (2018)
Individual	Employee voice behaviors		Normative commitment	Lapointe and Vandenberghe (2018)
Individual	Helping behavior	Positive reciprocity beliefs	Leader-member exchange	Zou et al. (2015)
Individual	Helping behavior	Positive reciprocity	Team-member exchange	Zou et al. (2015)

		beliefs		
Individual	In-role performance		Organizational commitment	Park et al. (2015)
Individual	In-role performance		Organizational trust	Park et al. (2015)
Individual	Innovative behavior		Psychological contract	Panaccio et al. (2015)
Individual	Innovative behavior	Employee extraversion	Psychological contract	Panaccio et al. (2015)
Individual	Innovative behavior	Proactive personality	Psychological contract	Panaccio et al. (2015)
Individual	Innovative behavior	Collectivism	Psychological contract	Panaccio et al. (2015)
Individual	Job satisfaction			Ozyilmaz and Cicek (2015)
Individual	Knowledge sharing	Corporate social responsibility	Public service motivation	Tuan (2016)
Individual	Leader-member exchange			Amah (2018)
Individual	Leader-member exchange			Zou et al. (2015)
Individual	Managerial accountability		Organizational commitment	Park et al. (2015)
Individual	Managerial accountability		Organizational trust	Park et al. (2015)
Individual	Normative organizational commitment			Miao et al. (2014)
Individual	Organizational citizenship behavior			Amah (2018)
Individual	Organizational citizenship behavior			Ozyilmaz and Cicek (2015)
Individual	Organizational citizenship behavior		Job satisfaction	Ozyilmaz and Cicek (2015)
Individual	Organizational citizenship behavior		Psychological climate	Ozyilmaz and Cicek (2015)

Individual	Organizational citizenship behavior		Procedural justice	Shim et al. (2016)
Individual	Organizational citizenship behavior		Trust in leadership	Shim et al. (2016)
Individual	Organizational citizenship behavior			Walumbwa et al. (2010)
Individual	Organizational citizenship behavior		Commitment to the supervisor	Walumbwa et al. (2010)
Individual	Organizational citizenship behavior		Self-efficacy	Walumbwa et al. (2010)
Individual	Organizational citizenship behavior	Sensitivity to others' favorable treatment	Leader-member exchange	Wu et al. (2013)
Individual	Organizational citizenship behavior		Psychological contract	Panaccio et al. (2015)
Individual	Organizational citizenship behavior	Employee extraversion	Psychological contract	Panaccio et al. (2015)
Individual	Organizational citizenship behavior	Proactive personality	Psychological contract	Panaccio et al. (2015)
Individual	Organizational citizenship behavior	Collectivism	Psychological contract	Panaccio et al. (2015)
Individual	Organizational commitment			Park et al. (2015)
Individual	Organizational trust	Corporate social responsibility		Park et al. (2015)
Individual	Procedural justice			Shim et al. (2016)
Individual	Psychological capital	LMX		Coggins and Bocarnea (2015)
Individual	Psychological climate			Ozyilmaz and Cicek (2015)
Individual	Psychological			Panaccio et al.

	contract			(2015)
Individual	Subordinates' job satisfaction	Organizational tenure	Trust in leader	Chan and Mak (2014)
Individual	Team member exchange			Zou et al. (2015)
Individual	Trust in leadership			Shim et al. (2016)
Individual	Turnover intentions			Hunter et al. (2015)
Multi-level	Customer value co-creation		Organizational citizenship behavior	Hsiao et al. (2015)
Multi-level	Customer value co-creation		Positive psychological capital	Hsiao, Lee, and Chen (2015)
Multi-level	Employee organizational commitment		Trust climate	Ling et al. (2017)
Multi-level	Helping			Liden et al. (2015)
Multi-level	In-role performance		Organizational citizenship behavior	Liden et al. (2015)
Multi-level	Job satisfaction		Leader-member exchange	Amah (2018)
Multi-level	Leader-member exchange			Amah (2018)
Multi-level	Leader-member exchange			Newman et al. (2017a)
Multi-level	Organizational citizenship behavior			Hsiao et al. (2015)
Multi-level	Organizational citizenship behavior			Liden et al. (2015)
Multi-level	Organizational citizenship behavior			Newman et al. (2017a)
Multi-level	Organizational citizenship behavior		Leader-member exchange	Newman et al. (2017a)

Multi-level	Organizational citizenship behavior		Leader-member exchange	Newman et al. (2017a)
Multi-level	Organizational citizenship behavior		Psychological empowerment	Newman et al. (2017a)
Multi-level	Organizational citizenship behavior		Psychological empowerment	Newman et al. (2017a)
Multi-level	Organizational citizenship behavior	Procedural justice climate	Commitment to the supervisor	Walumbwa et al. (2010)
Multi-level	Organizational citizenship behavior	Procedural justice climate	Commitment to the supervisor	Walumbwa et al. (2010)
Multi-level	Organizational citizenship behavior		Procedural justice climate	Walumbwa et al. (2010)
Multi-level	Organizational citizenship behavior	Procedural justice climate	Self-efficacy	Walumbwa et al. (2010)
Multi-level	Organizational citizenship behavior	Service climate	Self-efficacy	Walumbwa et al. (2010)
Multi-level	Organizational citizenship behavior		Service climate	Walumbwa et al. (2010)
Multi-level	Positive psychological capital			Hsiao et al. (2015)
Multi-level	Psychological empowerment			Newman et al. (2017a)
Multi-level	Trust climate			Ling et al. (2017)
Multi-level	Work engagement		Trust climate	Ling et al. (2017)
Multi-level	Work performance		Trust climate	Ling et al. (2017)
Team	Customer service performance		Service climate	Linuesa-Langreo et al. (2018)

Team	Team performance		Knowledge-sharing climate	Song et al. (2015)
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Mediation processes are crucial to understanding how servant leadership affects performance. These studies investigate how servant leadership's social exchange process affects one result, which then affects performance. The person is where these mediating processes are usually applied. Zou, Tian, and Liu (2015) and Park et al. (2015) explained servant leadership's impact on performance through organizational commitment. According to social exchange theory. As a result of the servant leader's positive behavior, followers are likely to reciprocate. This increases their commitment to the leader and company, which improves performance.

Liden et al. (2015) investigated how servant leadership affects in-role performance through organizational citizenship behavior. Several of these mediating processes are group-based. Linuesa-Langreo et al. (2018) examined how servant leaders can use the social exchange process to create a service climate that improves customer service. In a similar manner, Ling, Liu, and Wu (2017) explained how servant leadership can improve performance by fostering trust through social exchange. It may boost productivity.

This investigation will focus on social exchange. Developing a model based on the above concepts will be the main focus of the next session. Instead of relying solely on economic incentives or power, servant leaders can form "social exchange connections" with their followers (Liden et al.,

2008). Social interaction requires a minimum of reciprocity, which ensures that both parties will feel like they're benefiting from the relationship and want to keep it (Blau, 1964). A servant leader is expected to help employees develop professionally and personally. The leader or leader's organization receives the followers' obligation to reciprocate.

Researchers studying servant leadership examined social exchange mediators. These mediators included leader-member exchange (LMX; for example, Newman et al., 2017), followers' need satisfaction, commitment to the leader, and affective trust in the leader (e.g. Schaubroeck et al., 2011). Social exchange implies future responsibilities, according to Blau (1964). Social interaction creates the same expectation as economic transactions. However, unlike economic transactions, that return is not specified.

2.3 Training Effectiveness

In this age of intense global competition and rapid change, businesses of all sizes are concerned with making the best use of their human resource capital. Training is more important today because professions are changing and becoming more complex. Workers must be trained to maximize human resources. Management in all types of companies wants to know how training affects workplace performance and the company's overall results. As the economy worsens, corporate leaders are becoming more cost conscious and more sensitive to training ROI. The ongoing

economic crisis has increased these pressures. In order to justify training costs, HR managers and training experts must demonstrate the positive impact of training on company results. Due to this, determining training success has become a much more important issue in recent years.

Over the past four decades, workplace learning and development professionals have done a lot of work assessing training efficacy. Kirkpatrick (1976) pioneered this field and created the "four level assessment model," which is still widely used in training. Later, other knowledgeable people modified models and contributed to this field. This study found many factors that affect training efficiency, both positively and negatively. The study also describes many researchers' methods for assessing training efficacy, which will help managers evaluate training in their companies. It will also help implement training programs and resolve issues. The study also emphasizes the importance of training and development in organizational improvement and analyzes prior research to inform researchers of current research and identify gaps. Both of these are crucial to organizational performance. The study's authors used training effectiveness, implication, and importance reviews to develop future research directions. Thus, the study as a whole emphasizes training effectiveness and how to improve it.

Training is crucial to building a workforce. Training is increasingly seen as a way to develop employees and the business as a whole in today's environment. Training involves learning a set of

actions. Training is applying previously learned information and experience. It informs people of the rules and regulations that govern their behavior. According to Flippo (1971), "training" is "the act of enhancing the knowledge and competence of an employee for the purpose of doing a certain job". Beach (1980) stated that "training is an organized system through which individuals gain information and/or skills for a specific goal." In fact, training bridges the gap between job requirements and employee skills. The training program's methodology and results are evaluated before completion.

A systematic approach to measuring and evaluating training programs is crucial to their success. Kalemci (2005) states that acknowledging training methodologies and measuring tools is crucial to an organization's training success. "Training Effectiveness" is the degree to which the training achieves its goals or produces the expected effects. Understanding the training objectives is the best way to determine if it was successful. The rationale behind a training course or program is one of the most important factors in determining its success. To ensure the training goes as planned, the goal must be set before starting. An organization's training programs can be evaluated by establishing a genuine demand for training. Training is an essential part of human resources, but how it has been done to make it more effective is even more important. Training is a waste of money if it doesn't achieve its goals. Training must improve both the individual and the company. If the training fails to make the individual and company more competent, the organization will lose

money and reputation. Training results are maximized when workers are motivated to participate (Tai, 2006).

All metrics measure how much the pre-training state differs from the post-training state. Absolute metrics don't exist. In comparison to other relevant data sets, the measurements assess the training interventions' effectiveness. Thus, the business must collect data or set a benchmark on the same dimensions as the training interventions before the training. Dayal (2001) states that the trainer must understand two things: (i) that the training objectives are clear and (ii) that the training material and methodology can achieve the desired results. Any organization's training program can use the Measuring Training Effectiveness approach. Kirkpatrick's (1967) hierarchical model of training outcomes is often used to assess training success using any combination of the criteria. This hierarchy of training outcomes includes four layers: (a) trainees' reactions to the program content and training process (reaction); (b) knowledge or skill acquisition (learning); (c) behavior modification (behavior); and (d) improvements in concrete individual or organizational outcomes like turnover, accidents, or productivity (results).

2.3.1 Models of Training Effectiveness

A training program's effectiveness is difficult to assess. This directly impacts a training program's outcome. Kirkpatrick (1976) is credited with introducing the four-level training assessment system. The Level-1 responses criterion assesses how trainees' attitudes and feelings have changed after

training. It assesses students' opinions on a program by analyzing their responses. Level-2 learning criteria assess how much students have learned and gained new knowledge from a training program. By analyzing student outcomes, it shows how a training program works. After training, students' conduct and performance are assessed using Level 3 behavior criteria. The fourth level of evaluation, the results criterion, assesses how much the training program has improved departmental or organizational outcomes like sales or profits. The fourth level discusses how a training program increased company efficiency. Noe (1986) briefly explained the Kirkpatrick model and training motivation. Thus, trainees will be more motivated to do well in training if they believe that (1) high effort will lead to high training performance; (2) high training performance will lead to high work performance; and (3) high job performance is crucial to getting desired outcomes and avoiding unwanted consequences. Noe's model focuses on the subject's motivation, which affects performance and training results.

Swanson and Sleezer (1987) defined the three methods of training effectiveness assessment in the same order. The effectiveness assessment plan, instruments for measuring training effectiveness, and evaluation report are the three steps. Shepherd (1999) lists the following criteria for determining whether training was successful: direct cost, indirect cost, efficiency, performance to schedule, responses, learning, behavior change, and performance change. Zaciewski (2001)

examined how employee motivation, attitude, and basic ability affect a training program's effectiveness in the healthcare industry. Examples:

Setting is another important aspect of a good training program. Burke and Baldwin (1999) believed that using real-world organizational problems could improve training transfer. Case studies, real-life situations, and project assignments can help transfer training. Dahiya and Jha (2011) explained how to build a training program. These stages include planning, program implementation, program assessment, and follow-up. They believe a training program is not complete until its methods and results are reviewed.

2.3.2 Factors affecting Training Effectiveness

The reviews before this one were about how to quantify training's effectiveness. Now we'll talk about the literature that examines the factors that affect training effectiveness. An organization's training and development success depends on many factors in the real world. The human resource policy of training and development, discovered by Haywood (1992), is similar. He noted that too many training programs focus on convenience, defeating the original purpose and goals of training, which are learning, skill development, and behavioral change. The weather affects everything, including training efficiency, which can be affected by many factors. Birdi (2005) found that creativity training's ability to influence idea implementation may be reduced by a lack of management support or an unfriendly department. Training is less effective in unfavorable

conditions. If the department doesn't provide enough support or the training environment is unsuitable, it will hurt training, he says. According to Fischer and Ronald (2011), open-mindedness is also important in training. Both participants and trainers benefit from open-mindedness.

Driskell (2011) found that the training style, training material, and learner competence all affected training results. A training program's success depends on its delivery, content, and instructor. Haslinda and Mahyuddin (2009) found that training efficacy is affected by top management and peer support, workers' attitudes, job-related issues, and training practice deficiencies. If top management and peers don't support a training program, the job isn't going well, or there's no training practice, it's less likely to succeed.

Emotional training improves service quality, according to Beigi and Shirmohammadi (2011). Since the service industry is heavily reliant on marketing and verbal communication, emotional training can benefit it. Saks and Haccoun (2007) found that trainees' motivation, self-efficacy, perceived control, and organizational reality all affect training outcomes. Tai (2006) also found that general self-efficacy partly arbitrated the link between training framing and training motivation, affecting training results. However, Black and Mendenhall (1990) found that three key factors determine cross-cultural training success. These variables include cross-cultural skill development, adjustment, and performance.

2.3.3 Training Motivation

As we've discussed, motivation is the main factor that affects training results. Various factors that motivate people to exercise have been studied. Steers and Porter (1975) found that motivation affects the application of new knowledge in training. It also motivates participants to learn and master the program. Finally, program enthusiasm is affected by motivation. Tabassi et al. (2012) found that training and motivation can maintain or boost worker productivity.

The level of an employee's motivation may affect how motivated they are to follow the training program, how much effort they put into it, and how easily they can apply what they learn on the job. Bumpass (1990) suggests that workers' motivation and work ethic can affect training and development. If workers are highly motivated to participate in the training program, they are more likely to pay attention to every aspect of it, increasing its likelihood of success. The motivation, attitude, and basic competence of participants affect a training program's potential effectiveness, according to Tracey et al. (1995). However, Colquitt and colleagues (2000) stated that training motivation is influenced by locus of control, conscientiousness, anxiety, age, cognitive ability, self-efficacy, valence, and job involvement.

According to Sahinidis and Bouris (2008), employees' perceptions of training success are strongly correlated with their motivation, work satisfaction, and commitment. Tsai and Tai (2003) also

studied motivation. When management assigned workers to a training program, they were more motivated to attend than when they were given the choice. As shown by their increased motivation when given the chance to participate in a training program, an employee's attitude is directly related to their motivation about the program.

2.3.4 Significance of training function

Training is viewed as an essential function of human resources since it gives a firm an advantage over its competitors. In the 1980s, Japanese management approaches showed that having a well-trained and developed team was the key to firm success based on performance criteria (Brown and Read, 1984). Recent research reveals a causal association between high-commitment activities like training and development and an organization's performance and competitive advantage. (Patterson et al., 1998; Rajan et al., 1996).

Training is the best way to retain top talent in a company. (Kate Hutchings, Cherrie J.Zhu, Brain K. Cooper, Yiming Zhang, and Sijun Shao, 2009). Lowry, Simon, and Kimberley (2002) found that training maximizes employee potential and promotes employee commitment. Training employees is one of the most common ways to boost productivity and convey a company's goals (Ekaterini Galanou, constantinos-Vasilios priporas, 2009). Organizational training activities increase worker productivity (Ng & Siu, 2004), making them a potential source of competitive advantage (Barney, 1995). As the demand for competent managers, both current and future, expands across all types

of organizations, training programs and evaluation methods are becoming more important (Eseryel et al., 2001; Tennyson, 1999).

Training and other facets of human resource management are becoming more crucial tools for firms to achieve their strategic objectives (Martocchio & Baldwin, 1997; Noe, 2002; Robinson & Robinson, 1989). Training programs boost workplace performance. (Hall. L. Michael and Nania Sharon, 1997). A well-designed and well-executed training program should result in positive trainee reactions, learning of critical information, behavior change on the job, and performance increases (Cheri, 1991). Training encourages learning and behavioural change. (Huse, 1975). Manju.S and Dr. Suresh (2011) found that educating employees' technical skills improves the quality of a firm's products and services in a competitive market.

2.3.5 Perceptions of employees towards training effectiveness

Employees should be treated fairly and equitably when it comes to training, and it should be designed and delivered to meet their needs. Steven W. Schmidt (2009). Again, servant leaders, such as trainers in this research, will constantly look out for their followers, who are also company stakeholders. It's crucial to investigate their interests. In China, Kate Hutchings, Cherrie J. Zhu, Brian K. Cooper, Yiming Zhang, and Sijun Shao (2009) examined 310 semi-skilled and skilled employees (technicians)' evaluations of training and development's efficacy. Age and position affected employee attitudes. 52.3% of respondents claimed their training did not increase their

wages. 36.2% of respondents felt their training prevented them from advancing. 25.2% of respondents claimed they had considerable training when they began working. However, respondents felt that training and development activities improved their technical, interpersonal, collaboration, job confidence, and work drive. These behaviors made them more productive, which led to these rewards. Training and development's perceived effectiveness varied by age, gender, and job:

When compared to their younger counterparts, older workers are more likely to hold the belief that:

1. Training had resulted in a rise in compensation for them.
2. more possibilities for career advancement
3. made themselves available for greater employment assignments.
4. Acquired the abilities necessary to do a variety of occupations.
5. increased their knowledge and comprehension of business.
6. boosted their self-assurance to the point that they could complete the work.

Employees who are older are less likely to agree with the following statements:

1. They received training when they initially started working for the firm.
2. Serves as an inspiration for people to continue working for this organization.
3. Encourages collaboration across the company.

It was shown that females had a lower likelihood of agreeing with the following statements:

1. Training has boosted their technical ability.
2. The training had done a better job of preparing them for upcoming work duties.

Workers, when comparing with managers / supervisors, are less likely to say that:

1. Training had offered increased chances for promotions and increases in compensation. This is in contrast to managers and supervisors, who are more likely to state that training had provided such opportunities.
2. The training has improved their ability to perform technically.
3. An enhanced comprehension of business concepts
4. better prepared them for future tasks and responsibilities.
5. Acquired the abilities necessary to do a variety of occupations.
6. increased self-assurance to take on job responsibilities.
7. We educated them on the ideals of the company.
8. The training program is more effectively conducted here than it was at previous places where the employees had been working.

2.4 Organizational Climate

Employee performance is believed to be influenced by servant leadership and a positive organizational atmosphere. This research examines and explains how servant leadership and organizational environment affect training effectiveness. Organizational climate was first studied quantitatively about 1970. In the early phases of organizational climate research, there was no unanimity on the definition of "organizational climate," no conceptual orientation to the early measures employed to assess it, and paradoxically an almost complete disdain of the term "organizational." Thus, early organizational climate research (up until the early 1980s) employed a more traditional approach that focused on individual characteristics. This technique was typical of industrial psychology at the time. Organizational culture studies exploded in the early 1980s after Pettigrew (1979) introduced them to organizational studies. At the same time, organizational climate research struggled with levels-of-analysis, causing it to recede into the background (at least for a while). In the 1980s, organizational culture became popular because it appeared to reflect the richness of the corporate environment better than climate studies. Because it appeared to convey the richness of companies' environments, it was interesting. "[There is] the sensation that climate studies have been boxed in by the emergence in the nest of this very over fed, raucous, and enigmatic cuckoo termed organizational culture" Pettigrew (1990). The subject's resurgence led to significant advances in conceptual thinking and research methodology (Kuenzi & Schminke 2009).

2.4.1 Climate Dimension

Schneider (1975) states that a single organizational climate has numerous climatic characteristics. The academics who originally identified organizational climate tried to create a measure-to-measure organizational climate that took into consideration all its qualities. The researchers immediately concluded that a single evaluation should not incorporate too many dimensions. Schneider stated that it is not necessary to examine all characteristics of the organizational environment, but rather to focus on those relevant to the inquiry. Thus, one needs include various climatic factors to correctly study climate. The present study examines how an organization's trustworthiness, coherence, and forgiveness impact servant leadership.

2.4.1.1 Trust in Organizational Climate

According to Lencioni (2005), trust is the most important leadership characteristic. Leading or managing change requires trust since taking risks requires it (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1995; Simons, 1999). Trust has been shown to affect group performance, job satisfaction, and commitment (Dirks, 1999; Dirks, 2000; Kegan & Rubenstein, 1973). Trust also affects perceptions of fairness (Roberts & O'Reily, 1974) and information accuracy (Roberts, 1974). In conclusion, trust affects acceptance, including goal acceptance (Oldham, 1975), choice acceptance (Tyler & Degoe, 1996), and decision compliance (Oldham, 1975). Mishra (1996) defined trust as "one party's readiness to be exposed to another party based on the conviction that the other party is (a) competent, (b) open, (c)

concerned, and (d) dependable." Mishra's definition of trust is "one party's readiness to be susceptible to another party based on the conviction that the other party is competent (p. 265). Trust was described by Rousseau et al. (1998) as "a psychological state including the choice to accept vulnerability based upon positive expectations about the intentions or acts of another" (p. 395). This idea highlights that trust is the willingness to take chances, not that it is solely about taking risks. Trust boosts confidence, which boosts collaboration. Because the individual must choose to accept the risk of change relying on the other person or organization, higher trust increases confidence (Rudolf, 2009).

2.4.1.2 Cohesion in Organizational Climate

The notion of cohesion has varied throughout literature's history. Festinger (1950) defined cohesion as "all the forces working on the members to remain in the group" (p. 274). Group cohesiveness is when group members have positive feelings, according to Lott & Lott (1965). Cartwright and Zander (1968) noted that the group is attractive. According to Shaw (1981), cohesion emerges when group members like each other and want to remain. According to Carron (1982), cohesiveness is "a dynamic process that is expressed in the desire for a group to stick together and remain united in the pursuit of its interests and objectives" (p.124). According to Langfred (1998), cohesion is "the degree to which group members feel that they are a part of the group and their desire to remain in the group" (p. 127). Work-unit cohesion, according to Naumann and Bennett (2000), is "the

degree to which group members are attached to a group, have a strong desire to remain in the group, and mutually impact one another" (p. 882). In a cohesive environment, people are less inclined to behave in their own self-interest and more likely to act in the group's best benefit.

2.4.1.3 Forgiveness in Organizational Climate

Lopez and Snyder (2003) define forgiveness as reframing a violation from a negative emotion to a neutral or positive one. Forgiveness, according to McCullough, Pargament, and Thoresen (2000), is "intraindividual prosocial change toward a perceived transgressor that is positioned with a specific interpersonal context" (p. 9). Cox (2008) also defined forgiving environments as "the work-units of their collective willingness to forgive" (p. 51). "Forgiveness environment" was defined by Fehr and Gelfand (2012) as "the general assumption that caring, beneficent answers to conflict from victims and offenders are rewarded, encouraged, and expected in the firm" (p. 666). Like other climate elements, forgiveness environment can only be understood by understanding employees' perceptions of the acts that occur regularly and are reinforced by the firm (Schneider et al., 2011).

2.4.2 The Scope of Analysis

Early organizational and management literature regarding climate and climate-like phenomena (e.g., Argyris 1957, Lewin et al. 1939) focused on aggregates rather than individuals. Early

quantitative research on climate, which flourished in the late 1960s and early 1970s, was done by individual-differences-oriented industrial psychologists (e.g., Schneider & Bartlett 1968). Even though Researchers spent the 1970s trying to solve this issue, but they didn't make much headway until the 1980s. In summary, climate is either a unit/organizational trait or a construct of human experience.

To put it another way, there was confusion about the difference between theory and facts and analysis. Glick (1985) stated that climate research was no different from other individual-level attitudinal research unless (a) climate survey items assessed organizational functioning, (b) the data were aggregated to the organizational level of analysis, and (c) the climate measurement was focused on important organizational outcomes (more on this later). Glick argued that climate research was no different from previous individual-level attitudinal studies since (a) climate survey questions examined organizational functioning, Even while some academics still study climate on an individual level, it was a major advance for climate research when it was discovered that climate is a collective or organizational attribute. However, psychological climate research like James et al. (2008) is irrelevant to this review's issue of organizational climate. Climate research may be best represented as a referent-shift consensus model, according to Bliese (2000), Chan (1998), Klein & Kozlowski (2000), and LeBreton & Senter (2008). (Chan 1998). The referent-shift strategy asks

survey questions on the unit or organization rather than individuals. Referent-shift consensus items are theoretically relevant since they relate to the level to which individual replies will be aggregated and tend to increase agreement when aggregated. Referents shift indicates the level at which individual answers will be pooled (LeBreton & Senter 2008).

A shared opinion is necessary for consensus. Evaluations of "sharedness" frequently focus on interdependence and agreement. Interrater agreement refers to the degree to which various raters produce equivalent absolute assessments of the climate, allowing their ratings to be interchanged. The average deviation index (Burke et al. 1999) and aWG (Brown & Hauenstein 2005) are alternatives, but the rWG(J) (James et al. 1984) is the most used indicator of this sort of agreement in climate research. The consensus limit for legitimizing aggregation based on agreement is 0.70 or higher, however its usefulness has been questioned in recent years (see LeBreton & Senter 2008). Interrater reliability measures the consistency of rating rank ordering within units. Climate researchers often publish ICC(1), a ratio of between-unit variation to overall variance (similar to analysis of variance, or ANOVA; Bliese 2000). This makes ICC(1) a measure of both interrater reliability and agreement (LeBreton & Senter 2008). In his early review, James (1982) found a median value of 0.12, while LeBreton and Senter (2008) proposed minor, medium, and high impacts of 0.01, 0.10, and 0.25. In his early analysis of ICC(1) investigations, James (1982) found

a median value of 0.12. In addition, researchers often publish ICC(2), also known as ICC(K); see LeBreton & Senter (2008). ICC(2) indicates group mean dependability and is related to ICC(1) as a function of group size (Bliese 2000). ICC(2) values of 0.70 or above are considered good, in line with other reliability measurements (Bliese 2000, LeBreton & Senter 2008). Low group sizes make it harder to create such high-quality values (e.g., 5–6 individuals per group). Climate researchers often include measures of interrater agreement and dependability. To aggregate individual viewpoints to unit and organizational levels of analysis, this is done.

In addition, climate survey questions should be worded to reflect the degree of analysis to which individual impression data would be aggregated. The correct phrasing of these items is crucial to such proof of agreement and dependability. In climate research, studying climate at multiple levels is a novel topic. Over the years, "organizational" climate studies have mostly focused on organizational subunits rather than organizations themselves, let alone several levels of study. This has been true for most of these studies. In their most current research on safety environment, Zohar and Luria (2005) found that safety behavior is strongly influenced by organizations and their components (groups). In addition, they showed that the subunit's safety environment mediated the company's safety climate's effect on employee safety. This suggests that workers in firms are able to distinguish what happens in their subunits from the wider organizational emphasis on safety, but

that subunits within a company have greater safety climate agreement than subunits of other companies. According to Zohar and Hofmann (2012), this implies that workers may differentiate what happens in their subunits from the greater corporate safety emphasis. To conclude, level issues are hard to grasp since they occur simultaneously within and across companies. However, it seems that both levels' main effects are on its members and their conduct.

2.4.3 The Focus of Organizational Climate Theory, Research, and Practice

Organizational climate research has also led to focused climate research. By focus, we mean that early climate research focused on a climate for well-being and leadership and supervisory style. The emphasis was on leadership and supervisory style (Schneider et al. 2011). Industrial psychologists' early climate assessments were six to ten aspects, although the dimensions picked for examination seemed to cover a wide range of regions from a number of scholars. Validity studies using such measurements yielded widely diverse findings due to this molecular conceptual and measuring approach to climate. Because the measured climate was general, it was not effective for predicting particular results. Schneider (1975) was the first to recognize this issue and propose that climatic measurements should match the anticipated result's bandwidth and emphasis. He suggested that climate measurements follow human selection's technique of first identifying the outcome of interest. Here is an example of a generic climate survey topic and its strategically targeted variant to demonstrate the difference between molar climate and focused climate: "My

supervisor says a positive word every time he sees a task well done" rather than "My supervisor gives a good word whenever he sees a job done according to the safety guidelines." This will assist distinguish molar climate from focussed climate (Zohar 2000).

Climates for customer service and safety are the two most important strategic climate studies. These texts have been written. Service climate consequences were tested most convincingly by Schneider et al. (2009). Longitudinal data at the organization level showed that organizations with greater service atmosphere had higher customer satisfaction and better financial success. Service climate outcomes are best tested here. This study replicated earlier studies on service environment and customer satisfaction. Service climate research currently encompasses studies on the phenomenon's origins, effects, and modifiers. For instance, Schneider et al. (2005) found that customer-oriented citizenship behavior at the unit level mediated the effects of service environment on customer satisfaction and sales at the department level. The service's leadership also affects its culture, according to this study. Leadership has become a major antecedent issue in service climate study, according to the findings. For instance, servant leadership (Walumbwa et al. 2010) and transformative leadership (Liao & Chuang 2007) strongly influence service atmosphere.

The leader's personality is also important, according to other research. For instance, a manager's service orientation completely moderated the relationship between their fundamental self-evaluations and their department's service culture (Salvaggio et al. 2007). Service atmosphere may also be predicted by antecedents other than leadership. High-performance work methods, organizational resources, and unit-level participation (Salanova et al., 2005) are these elements (Chuang & Liao 2010). Mayer et al. (2009a) confirmed that service atmosphere had a greater impact when the product was more intangible and when service employees were more interdependent. Finally, in terms of modifiers of the climate-outcome link, Dietz et al. (2004) and Mayer et al. (2009a) found that service climate had bigger impacts when customer interaction was higher. The notion of safety climate has been consistently confirmed in safety climate studies. Meta-analytic research confirms the continuous association between safety environment and accidents (Christian et al. 2009, Clarke 2006). Beus et al. (2010b) stated that greater accidents may impact common views of the unit's (bad) safety atmosphere.

Even though meta-analytic research indicates the constant association between safety climate and accidents (Christian et al. 2009, Clark et al. Reporting accidents is also linked to a safety atmosphere. Therefore, accidents are underreported more at companies with poor safety cultures (Probst et al. 2008). A general transformational leadership (Zohar & Tenne-Gazit 2008), a safety-

specific transformational leadership (Barling et al. 2002), the safety climate of higher organizational levels (Zohar & Luria 2005), and both management employee relations and organizational support have been identified as safety climate antecedents (Wallace et al. 2006). Neal and Griffin (2006) utilized longitudinal data to show how safety atmosphere affects individual safety motivation and behavior, which predicts work unit accident rates. Safety climate results are examined in this study. Finally, there is evidence for safety climate moderators. Hofmann and Mark (2006) discovered that when the patient's condition was complicated, the workplace's safety culture reduced back injuries and prescription errors.

In addition to climates for specific objectives, scholars have researched climates for a range of organizational activities. This research examines organizational process rather than strategic objective when assessing climate. Some of the initial study on process climates focused on procedural justice environments (e.g., Naumann & Bennett 2000). Team size, collectivism, servant leadership, and leader personality may influence procedural justice environment (Colquitt et al. 2002, Ehrhart 2004, Walumbwa et al. 2010). (Mayer et al. 2007). Procedural justice atmosphere is also linked to unit-level outcomes including turnover and customer satisfaction (Simons & Roberson 2003), team performance and absenteeism (Colquitt et al. 2002), and unit-level citizenship behavior (Ehrhart 2004). The cross-level effects of justice environment are varied by

individual (justice orientation; Liao & Rupp 2005) and structural variables (group power distance; Yang et al. 2007).

People are becoming more interested about diverse climate. Recent examples are noteworthy. For instance, McKay and colleagues (2008) found that organizations that supported diversity had less performance gaps across racial and ethnic groups. According to Pugh et al. (2008), workforce racial diversity and diversity climate are greater in communities with fewer individuals of various races. Unit sales increased highest when managers and subordinates said their business supported diversity, according to McKay et al. (2009). Last but not least, Gonzalez and DeNisi (2009) showed that a good diversity climate is substantially connected with racial and ethnic diversity, which is favorably correlated with organizational performance. In recent years, scholars have also studied ethical climate (Martin & Cullen 2006, Mayer et al. 2009b, Schminke et al. 2005), empowerment climate (Chen et al. 2007, Seibert et al. 2004), voice climate (Morrison et al. 2011), and initiative climate (Morrison et al. 2011). Baer & Frese 2003, Michaelis et al. 2010. In reality, climate change may be used to study and understand all organizational processes. For instance, one might think about organizational processes like organizational transformation (Weick & Quinn 1999), performance appraisal (Rynes et al. 2005), work motivation (Latham & Pinder 2005), and trust in organizations in terms of climate (Kramer 1999).

These may be examined from a climatic perspective to reveal their contextual process factors and perhaps their antecedents. The move in climate research toward a strategic focus on outcomes and processes has improved climate research's validity and understanding of the conditions that are likely to produce these targeted climates. The climate construct is now more accessible to practitioners due to this more concentrated approach. This is because it actually focused on crucial organizational processes and outcomes and suggested particular techniques and behaviors that businesses might apply to improve performance in those areas (Burke 2011). The relationship between process and outcome climates, however, has not been well studied. Schneider et al. (2011) proposed that outcome climates are based on process climates. Thus, workers are more responsive to management's attempts to focus on strategic outcomes that benefit the firm when they believe their employer cares about them. The organization's focus on justice, diversity, integrity, and trust shows this concern.

Schneider et al. (1998) and Wallace et al. (1998) give empirical evidence for the idea that fundamental climates must be in place before strategic climates may form (2006). Foundational and outcome-focused climates were investigated by these scholars. Recent study by Schulte and colleagues (2009) shows that the arrangement of employee-supportive aspects and strategy-focused

elements (in their instance, the emphasis on service) is the most important determinant for meaningful strategic results (such as financial performance and customer satisfaction). In addition, their results suggest that a moderate environment for well-being may be enough to create a strategic climate. In a sample of retail businesses, McKay et al. (2011) discovered a three-way interaction between diversity climate, service climate, and minority representation to predict consumer happiness. Customer satisfaction was best when diversity climate and service climate were high, according to this interaction's graphs. Previous research supports this result. More research on concentrated climates and molar climates is needed.

2.4.4 On Climate Strength

In a previous section on levels concerns, we covered the many approaches researchers employ to explain the aggregate of individual perspectives to produce a score that is indicative of the relevant unit of study. Methods include: The following fascinating topic has been raised by scholars recently: What does it signify when the units or organizations being investigated have different levels of agreement? This is about climatic severity and how it may affect various scenarios. Since it is linked to situational strength, the concept of climatic strength has been around for a while (Mischel, 1976). Meyer, Dalal, and colleagues' work has brought this construct back into the spotlight (Meyer & Dalal 2009; Meyer et al. 2009, 2010). Zohar (2000; Zohar & Luria 2005) states that a negative atmosphere may develop when rules and procedures are inconsistent or when their practices are

contradictory. Inconsistent policy and process practices may also create a bad atmosphere. Research on climate's power has focused on molar and generic climate (e.g., Gonzalez-Rom'a' et al. 2002, Lindell & Brandt 2000), as well as procedural justice climate (Colquitt et al. 2002), service climate, and safety climate (Schneider et al. 2002). (e.g., Zohar & Luria 2004, 2005). The usual model for such research postulates that the strength of the climate will operate as a moderator in the relationship between the climate and the outcomes of interest, making the association stronger when the climate strength is high. Due to the notion that workers are more likely to behave consistently as a group if their experiences are uniform, this relationship is conceptually expected.

Therefore, the positive end should have more good results and the low end more bad consequences. Strong agreement (low variability within units) provides for a more dependable mean, which should lead to improved validity in conceptually relevant correlations with outcomes. Recent research have shown that strength moderates the association between climate level and outcomes (Colquitt et al. 2002, Gonzalez-Rom'a' et al. 2002, Schneider et al. 2002). Gonzalez-Rom, Schneider, and Colquitt performed these experiments. As a consequence to Schneider et al. (2002)'s initial study, branch customers' judgments of service quality were proportionate to the degree of staff consensus in bank branches (i.e., the poorer the service climate was).

Other studies do not suggest that climatic severity moderates outcome prediction (Dawson et al. 2008, Lindell & Brandt 2000, Rafferty & Jimmieson 2010, Schneider et al. 2002, Sowinski et al. 2008, Zohar & Luria 2004). We must be cautious not to leap to conclusions when offering an explanation for this data conflict, but a possible serious issue presents an interesting paradox: Climate researchers have spent decades attempting to create climate survey questions that yield high values for the consensus indicators that were addressed earlier, legitimizing aggregation. Climate strength will not act as a moderator if consensus is consistently high. In contrast, some studies that did not find evidence for strength as a moderator appear to have had very little fluctuation in the level of agreement across various units (e.g., Dawson et al. 2008, Sowinski et al. 2008, Zohar & Luria 2004). There is clearly a need for additional research on the conditions in which climate strength will operate as predicted, however there is some evidence on the conditions most likely to produce strong climates. For example, climates are more robust when units are smaller and less diverse (Colquitt et al. 2002), when within-unit social interaction is high (Gonzalez-Rom 'a' et al. 2002), when the unit's communication network is denser (Zohar & TenneGazit 2008), when units are more interdependent and have higher group identification (Roberson 2006), and when units are more cohesive (Luria 2008). Leadership is the most studied antecedent of climate strength, and research has shown that units have stronger climates when leaders are described as providing more information (Gonzalez-Rom'a et al. 2002), being more straightforward and less variable (Zohar & Luria 2004), and being more transformational.

Transformational leaders are more likely to motivate people to alter their behavior (Luria 2008, Zohar & Luria 2004, Zohar & Tenne-Gazit 2008). When work units interact more, communicate more, and are more interdependent, and when leaders communicate more and have a clear strategic goal for the work, the atmosphere in those work units will be stronger.

To sum up, work units will have a better atmosphere when leaders communicate more and have a clear strategic goal. Despite advances in climatic stability research, there are still issues to resolve. However, we may conclude the following pragmatically: A positive and vigorous environment is nearly always better than an unfavorable one, and a negative one is definitely worse. Practice is affected by the following: To achieve the organization's process and outcome performance goals, a pleasant, focused environment must be created routinely.

2.4.5 Organizational Climate and Leadership

It's hard to define organizational climate, even though there have been numerous studies since the 1960s. The researchers' viewpoints impact their definitions (Heyart, 2011). Some studies use climatic elements to define an organization's climate. Forehand and Gilmer's concept of organizational climate is one of the first and most commonly recognized (James & Jones, 1974; Johannesson, 1973; Moran & Volkwein, 1992; Woodman & King, 1978). They defined it as a set of features that define an organization, distinguish it from others, stay relatively consistent through

time, and influence its members' behavior. Cooke and Rousseau defined culture and climate in their 1988 research. They reasoned that organizational climate reflects perceptions of organizational structures and how it feels to be part of an organization, whereas organizational culture reflects notions about how to behave. This implies that climate and culture are separate yet connected.

Organizational culture also includes a company's core values, beliefs, and principles, which underpin its management methods. The systems are called after these management strategies and behaviors because they reinforce essential principles (Denison, 1990). Organizational culture is influenced by the symbols, rituals, myths, narratives, and interpretations of these employees' social groupings. This is why workers value corporate culture (Frost, 1985). According to Alvesson (2002), corporate culture should emphasize social reality's assumptions and beliefs.

Castro and Martins believe climate and culture should be considered separately (2010). According to them, organizational culture is deeply embedded in firms and is based on employees' values, beliefs, and assumptions (Castro & Martins, 2010). Organizational climate, on the other hand, is a "snapshot" of an organization at a certain period. Castro and colleagues (2010) suggest the following dimensions: immediate manager leadership, transformation and diversity, personal growth and development, interpersonal belonging and fit, general job satisfaction, employee wellness, image, pay, challenging and interesting work, physical work environment, recognition

and acknowledgement. The leadership variables in this study are similar to these dimensions. As shown in table 6, organizational climate measures how people feel about their organizations, whereas organizational culture measures the shared views, values, and standards of distinct groups within an organization (Mok & Au-Yeung, 2002; Cameron & Quinn, 2011). In summary, the community's past forms the organizational culture, which the community socially develops through time. The community's beliefs, norms, values, behaviors, artifacts, and physical structures guide interactions and provide members a feeling of identity and meaning.

Table 6 Differences between Organizational Culture and Climate

Organizational Culture	Organizational Climate
Enduring, slow-to-change core characteristics	Prone to dramatic and quick change
Includes implicit, indiscernible aspects of organizations	More observable attributes of organization
Includes core values and consensual interactions	Includes individualistic perspective modified quickly due to situational change or new information

Leadership affects organizational climate, according to Cloete (2011). The author found this by reviewing relevant literature. "Organizational climate" is a comprehensive look at how companies interact with their environments and employees. Internal elements, most of which are under managers' control, develop it inside organizations (Ostroff & Schmitt, 1993). Greyvenstein (1982) found that a company's culture is affected by its leadership style. This affected workers' motivation,

job performance, and job satisfaction. Climate affects return on sales, revenue growth, efficiency, and profitability, according to Goleman (2000). Goleman discovered that the two are linked. He also found that companies with leaders who had a positive impact on the workplace had better financial results.

Executives are increasingly realizing that people are a company's most valuable resource (Lawler, 2003). This research's FMCG firm aims for growth, productivity, customer satisfaction, and employee engagement. According to Cloete (2011), service company dynamics affect not only customers but also employees' performance and attitudes. Every company has its own characteristics. They include the company's customs, culture, and ways of doing things, as well as its client interactions. High-quality customer service companies have a number of consistent and recognizable characteristics. Because services are intangible, managers, workers, and customers sometimes have trouble measuring real service production and quality when reviewing them. Thus, business leaders must understand their employees' experiences and the environment in which they work to ensure that the necessary organizational climate and their organizations' goals are aligned.

As a result, managers must regularly conduct climate surveys to assess employee perceptions and take corrective action. They may also focus on organizational aspects identified in the 2012 International Labor Organization Report on global employment trends or Castro and Martins

(2010). This necessitates that companies create one or more tests to monitor employee conduct. Forehand and Gilmer (1964) suggest several methods for systematically observing this tendency. Organizations assess organizational climate using field studies, employee perception surveys, objective organizational property observations, and experimental variations in organizational properties. Field measurements and observations are also used.

2.5 Motivation

In a complex and dynamic environment, the leader must create an atmosphere where employees feel trusted and empowered to make decisions. This motivates workers, which boosts company performance. Individual motivation affects performance, according to Smith and Rupp (2003). Smith and Rupp (2003) also found that organizational strategy, structure, and resistance to change affect employee motivation. In a similar vein, Luthans and Stajkovic (1999) found that developing human resources through rewards, monetary incentives, and organizational behavior modification has caused a lot of controversy in sales and human resource performance. According to Orpen (1997), the quality of the relationship between mentors and mentees in a formal mentoring program affects the degree to which mentees are driven to work long hours and are dedicated to their company. Malina and Selto (2001) conducted a corporate case study using the balance score card (BSC). They concluded that employee motivation would improve organizational performance. By setting operations-based targets, strategic feedback can be compared to the set goals. Goal-directed

behavior and strategic feedback are expected to boost company performance (Chenhall, 2005). Kunz and Pfaff (2002) stated that extrinsic incentives do not threaten an individual's intrinsic drive. Decoene and Bruggeman (2006) found that strategic alignment empowers and motivates working executives. They developed and tested a BSC model of strategic alignment, motivation, and organizational performance. Leaders motivate people to follow a participatory work design in which they are responsible and get it together, which makes them accountable for their performance. Leaders are responsible for their subordinates.

2.5.1 Dimensions of Motivation

2.5.1.1 Training

Training is "the systematic accumulation of skills, command, ideas, or mentality to improve performance." Bombelli and Lazzara (2011). Baldwin et al. (1991) found that people who are more willing to attend training have better learning outcomes than those who are less willing. These individuals' willingness to attend training supports this conclusion. According to Commeiras et al. (2013), traineeship participation is rising. "Context training" in business refers to teaching workers the skills and knowledge they need to perform their jobs and succeed in their organizations. Employees are motivated to work harder and achieve the organization's and their own goals when they receive training on how to work. In today's competitive business environment, every company

seeks an edge over its competitors. Management must use a variety of methods to motivate employees to achieve this advantage.

2.5.1.2 Monetary incentives

In Park (2010)'s summary, monetary incentive boosts activity and enthusiasm for work. It also aids in success recognition. In a similar vein, Beretti et al. (2013) stated that monetary incentives are used to create a positive environment and maintain a consistent job interest among employees, as well as to motivate them to perform better. This was done to maintain consistency and inspire employees to perform better. For this reason, monetary incentives are used to motivate and inspire workers. They also psychologically fulfill a person, which leads to job satisfaction, and change subordinates' attitudes toward their work in the firm.

2.5.1.3 Job transfer

Job rotation and cross-training employees can increase workforce flexibility, according to Azizi and Liang (2013). Eguchi (2004) found that job transfer was a key factor in reducing employee influence actions for private aid. Job rotation benefits employees and management, according to Asensio Cuesta et al. (2012). Musculoskeletal problems are prevented, weariness is eliminated, and job satisfaction and morale are increased. This allows transferred workers to learn new skills and expand their horizons. It prevents repetitive work from becoming boring and helps manage a

variety of situations at different levels, making technological work more efficient. Additionally, it facilitates organizational learning.

2.5.1.4 Job satisfaction

Job satisfaction, as defined by Parvin and Kabir (2011) study on pharmaceutical company job satisfaction, is the degree to which an employee is satisfied with their job. Despite the fact that job satisfaction and motivation are closely related, they thought they were different. Pantouvakis and Bouranta (2013) found that work satisfaction was caused by physical traits and interactive elements. Work satisfaction was found to be influenced by gender and tenure by Wickramasinghe (2009). The extent to which actual results match or exceed expectations affects employee satisfaction. For instance, a pleasant work environment and good working conditions may increase employee job satisfaction. This boosts employee productivity by encouraging workers to do their best.

2.5.1.5 Promotion

Garca et al. (2012) found that promotion schemes affect work satisfaction and organizational fairness. In a similar vein, Koch and Nafziger (2012) said that promotions are beneficial for most workers because they work harder to compensate for their "incompetence." As a result, promotions at regular intervals have an optimistic outlook and are usually offered to firm employees to meet their psychological needs.

2.5.1.6 Achievement

According to Hunter et al. (2012), accomplishment is a unique form of organizational performance.

According to Satyawadi and Ghosh (2012), workers are inspired by their own accomplishments and self-control. Now it's clear: a worker who wants to succeed sets achievable but challenging goals and improves their work environment. There is a need for business leaders to provide feedback on accomplishments and growth, as well as a sense of accomplishment.

2.5.1.7 Working conditions

Jung and Kim (2012) suggest that a positive work environment and good working conditions may boost job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Thus, workers will strive to do their best, which should improve job performance. Cheng et al. (2013) found that age may moderate the relationship between psychosocial work and health. After establishing the importance of working conditions and the need for them, we can describe or define the physical environment by identifying its components or parameters. Due to the mental and physical demands of their jobs, employees need good working conditions to perform well. Poor workplace conditions lead to poor performance.

2.5.1.8 Appreciation

In order to engage employees, Mahazril et al. (2012) found that companies must regularly express gratitude and provide other rewards, such as financial compensation. Employees disagree with this

behavioral statement because "workers offering immaterial incentives (appreciation, respect, etc.) as much as materiel rewards with working department." Appreciation is the abstract of immaterial incentives, according to Kingira and Mescib (2010). Because of this finding, workers in different sections can raise their different viewpoints. It's well known that "success of employers will always be valued with education," which contributes to feeling appreciated and responsible. The more effective, quality, and practical workers' education is, the more they will contribute to businesses.

2.5.1.9 Job security

According to Yamamoto (2013), an employee's performance will naturally improve if they believe they will be rewarded for great work and their job is secure. In a similar vein, Zhang and Wu (2004) found that job security makes employees feel more confident about their career and more willing to work hard to achieve company goals. Thus, work satisfaction is the most powerful motivator. It relieves mental stress, which motivates employees to work hard and boosts profits.

2.5.1.10 Recognition

Candi et al. (2013) report a growing awareness that staging past events might spark creativity. Mahazril et al. (2012) found that rewards, recognition, and communication might encourage them. Recognizing a one-time performance or a progressive activity at work boosts productivity and performance and encourages employee behavior.

2.5.1.11 Social opportunities

According to Harvey's 2013 remark, an employee gets welcomed into the social group or team. The majority of employees want to feel respected and acknowledged. Organizations must go beyond career opportunities and remuneration to address social and lifestyle factors outside of work. In a similar research, Kingira and Mescib (2010) discovered that workers had diverse viewpoints on behavioral statements such "Social opportunities offering at the greatest level with working time allows the employee to fulfill their objectives of the business." Thus, an employee's motivation is increased by a social opportunity, which helps the company accomplish its goals.

2.5.2 Training Motivation

2.5.2.1 Pre-training individual attitude and attributes

Motivation to transfer influences the relationship between learning and behavior change, according to Noe (1986). He also proposes that environmental favorability affects incentive to transfer. Noe's work is very impactful. Theories have usually addressed how individual attributes affect transfer motivation before training since 1986. It's significant. Training motivation has been studied in relation to training attitudes, incentive to learn, personality traits, and job devotion. The motivation to apply learning on the work is linked to training attitudes (Bates, 2001; Naquin & Holton, 2002; Noe & Wilk, 1993; Rowold, 2007; Seyler, Holton, Bates, Burnett, & Carvalho, 1998). Actions usually follow attitudes (Ajzen, 2001). The effects of trainees' perceptions on training material on

their motivation and intent during transfer need more study. Given that intentions based on attitudes are effective predictors of behavior, further study on attitudes that affect transfer motivation may help us understand why trainees are driven to apply what they learn in the classroom in real-world circumstances. This is elaborated below. The association between pre-training incentive to learn and post-training desire to transfer may be inferred from prior studies: 0.33-0.75 are the correlation coefficients (Bell & Ford, 2007; Chiaburu & Lindsay, 2008; Kontoghiorghes, 2002, 2004; Kuchinke, 2000; Machin & Fogarty, 1997, 2004; Naquin & Holton, 2002; Noe & Wilk, 1993; Rowold, 2007; Seyler, Holton, Bates, Burnett, & Carvalho, 1998; Tai, 2006; Warr, Allan, & Birdi, 1999). We may study forms of motivation rather than degrees of motivation when we move beyond typical ideas of job motivation (Gagné & Deci, 2005). Thus, research on autonomous and regulated forms of learning motivation and transfer motivation may focus on employee transfer motivation quality rather than quantity. Transfer motivation is distinct from learning motivation.

2.5.2.2 Scope of Training

This is crucial to understand transfer motivation and pretraining interventions that frame the training session. Quiñones (1995, p. 234) states, "Organizations must take into account the way in which diverse training programs are considered by organizational members." Employees' training assessments impact their attitudes. If HRD professionals wish to promote good education and development attitudes, they must enhance training program perceptions. Training may be designed to achieve this. To structure training for learner preparation, (a) determine the nature of the training

program (mandated vs optional); (b) disseminate correct information before training; and (c) allow trainees to offer input (Holton et al., 2000; Russ-Eft, 2002). Baldwin and Magjuka (1991) discovered that required training leads in greater transfer motivation than voluntary training, and that learners with previous knowledge are more motivated to transfer their training at work than trainees without prior information. Both data support the idea that forced training is better than voluntary training. Framing the training helps express the company's expectations, which improves learner preparation and transfer motivation, according to Bates and Holton (2004) and Tai (2006). Due of trainee diversity in a global economy, this may become more important. Thus, a training requirements analysis should establish who needs to be taught and whether training should be mandatory or optional. However, needs assessments and transfer incentives have not been studied.

2.5.2.3 Organizational Culture

Much of the study on transfer motivation has focused on organizational culture, not the pretraining work environment. Training success and transfer motivation depend on culture (Bunch, 2007). It was shown that trainees' transfer motivation is positively correlated with an organizational learning culture that values and emphasizes workplace learning (Bates, 2001; Bates & Holton, 2004; Egan, Yang, & Bartlett, 2004). Transfer motivation is high when learners feel accountable for applying the training in the job, according to Baldwin and Magjuka (1991) and Kontoghiorghes (2002). According to Bates and Holton (2004) and other studies (Bates, Holton, Seyler, and Carvalho, 2000; Devos et al., 2007), trainees' reluctance to change considerably limits their willingness to invest

energy in transfer efforts. More research on transfer incentive and an organization's numerous subcultures may illuminate the relationship. In order to minimize negative repercussions during the first phase of a training application, when more mistakes are expected to occur, employees in an organization that prioritizes error avoidance will avoid making many efforts to apply new skills or processes at work. Job devotion may moderate the effects of company culture, the last pretraining component. Before training, organizational culture is analyzed. Even after training, an organization's culture should be examined.

2.5.2.4 Transfer of Training

This is to understand motivation to transfer, which focuses on attributes trainees demonstrate throughout training that determine whether they are motivated to utilize what they learn on the job. Yelon, Sheppard, Sleight, and Ford (2004) found that training increases transfer motivation. Comparatively few studies have examined training methods. These studies emphasize intervention design and trainee learning. Intervention design strategies are tools or methods used to manipulate training (Broad & Newstrom, 1992).

Training research has examined relapse prevention, action planning, and goal setting. Experimental groups trained in relapse prevention report equal (Tziner et al., 1991) or even less (Burke, 1997) willingness to apply learning than control groups. Action plans decrease transfer motivation, according to Foxon (1997). Machin and Fogarty (1997, 2003) and Smith et al. suggest the goal-

setting model best explains transfer motivation (2008). Intervention design may affect transfer motivation via training responses. Experimental study on how instructional design or technology affects training effectiveness and skill transfer is needed. Simulations and games may motivate participants to transfer information more than classroom-based instruction. If the simulation training encourages trainee involvement, participants may be even more motivated (Van Merrinboer, 1997). Educational technology and HRD may help us understand how professional training framework affects worker transfer motivation.

Post-training work environment and individual variables impact transfer motivation, according to research. Compared to Baldwin and Ford's (1988) research, post-training organization studies on transfer motivation have proliferated. Post-training variables focus on job aspects and social support, whereas pre-training variables focus on corporate culture. Autonomy, workload, chance to perform, and environmental restrictions influence organizational behavior by supporting or limiting transfer incentive. Transferring requires time, energy, and mental space (Holton et al., 2000; Russ-Eft, 2002).

Leitl and Zempel-Dohmen (2006) found that trainees who think they have a lot of work autonomy had a far smaller drop in motivation three months after training than those who think they have little. Transfer incentive affects autonomy, according to Axtell et al. (1997). Workload influences

transfer motivation, according to Bates and Holton (2004) and Kirwan and Birchall (2006). Opportunities to perform increase transfer motivation (Bates et al., 2000; Bates & Holton, 2004; Devos, 2007; Kirwan & Birchall, 2006; Ruona, 2002; Seyler, 1998), but situational limits decrease it. A mediation analysis is needed to determine how much self-efficacy affects employment characteristics' effects on job switching. Researching the trainee-workplace relationship may help predict transfer motivation. Employee-environment interactions are thought to motivate workers (cf. Locke & Latham, 2004; Latham, 2007). However, person–environment fit and transfer motivation appear to be overlooked.

Social support is one of the most researched transfer motivation markers. Social assistance used to be extensive (Noe & Wilk, 1993; Tziner et al., 1991; Tziner & Falbe, 1993; Warr et al., 1999). Recent study has identified four types of social support: supervisor support, peer support, supervisor sanctions, and performance coaching/feedback. First, there is evidence that supervisor aid boosts worker transfer incentive (Axtell et al., 1997; Bates et al., 2000; Bates & Holton, 2004; Devos et al., 2007; Foxon, 1997; Kirwan & Birchall, 2006; Leidl & Zempel-Dohmen, 2006; Ruona et al., 2002; Seyler et al., 1998). Nijman and colleagues (2006) found that trainee-rated supervisor support decreased transfer motivation. This surprising result may be due to the fact that some employees see encouraging supervisors as authoritarian since they jeopardize their autonomy when it comes to using new skills on the job (Deelstra, Peeters, Schaufeli, Stroebe, Zijlstra, & Van

Doornen, 2003). This will be done by studying how trainee personality influences social support and training motivation. Second, peer assistance is more effective than supervisor support (Bates et al., 2000; Bates & Holton, 2004; Devos et al., 2007; Kirwan & Birchall, 2006; Leidl & Zempel-Dohmen, 2006; Ruona et al., 2002; Seyler et al., 1998). Third, and most recently, performance coaching and feedback improve training motivation (Bates and Holton, 2004; Devos et al., 2007; Kirwan and Birchall, 2006), whereas supervisory sanctions decrease it (Bates et al., 2000; Bates & Holton, 2004; Devos et al., 2007; Seyler et al., 1998). Supervisor sanctions may be catastrophic for trainees who lack motivation to advance. Management sanctions affect transfer motivation, although person-oriented research is scarce.

The work environment does not affect training motivation. Instead, workplace perspectives motivate job changes. Some trainees may perceive supervisor support for a training application as encouraging, while others may view it as an external controlling force meant to guide their behavior. Workload's impacts on training motivation are moderated by each trainee's coping methods and self-management. To conclude, job attributes do not affect transfer motivation; rather, how a person views the workplace does. Because individuals see work settings differently.

2.5.2.5 Self-Efficacy, Expectancies and Training Reactions

Training motivation is affected by many aspects before and during training. Training motivation is impacted by several factors following training. Research shows that training motivation affects

performance self-efficacy, training responses, and expectations. Individual antecedents are this study's emphasis.

In social cognitive theory (Bandura, 2001), efficacy beliefs are the best predictors of training motivation (Axtell et al., 1997; Bates & Holton, 2004; Bell & Ford, 2007; Chiaburu & Lindsay, 2008; Devos et al., 2007; Kirwan & Birchall, 2006; Machin & Fogarty, 1997, 2003, 2004; Noe & Wilk, 1993; Ruona et al., 2002; Seyler et al., 1998; Smith et al., 2008; Tai, 2006; Warr et al., 1999).

Training motivation was best predicted by post-training performance self-efficacy. Other characteristics were learning confidence, computer confidence, general self-efficacy, and performance self-efficacy.

Due to two scales of the learning transfer system inventory (Holton et al., 2000): (a) transfer effort-performance expectations measuring the expectation that investing effort to use trained skills and knowledge at work will improve future job performance and (b) performance outcome expectation measuring the expectation that investing effort to use trained skills and knowledge (Bates, 2001; Bates & Holton, 2004; Devos et al., 2007; Kirwan & Birchall, 2006; Naquin & Holton, 2002).

After training, trainees' emotional, content, and utilitarian reactions to the program determine if and how they are motivated to use learning in the job. Job satisfaction and enjoyment (Burke, 1997;

Kuchinke, 2000; Smith et al., 2008; Warr et al., 1999), content validity and job relevance (Axtell et al., 1997; Bates et al., 2000; Bates & Holton, 2004; Devos et al., 2007; Kirwan & Birchall, 2006; Seyler et al., 1998), despite the fact that such reaction scales demonstrate a refinement of rather general training reaction scales (Bell & Ford, 2007; Machin & Fogarty, 1997; Tzi et al Alliger, Tannenbaum, Bennett, Traver, and Shotland (1997) wrote, "By acquiring response data 1, 3, or 6 months following training, learners will have experienced whether the training was in fact beneficial, and should be in a better position to rate the effectiveness of the training" (p. 355). Because of the ongoing changes in work and labor markets, employees must actively interact with their environment and adapt to change rather than just reacting to new situations (Billett, 2006). Consideration of trainees' dynamic and contextual affects may help explain transfer motivation in constantly changing settings.

2.6 Organizational Identification

According to the Social Identity Theory, a person's social identity is "knowledge of his participation in a social group (or groups) paired with the value and emotional relevance related to that membership" (Tajfel, 1978). The interactions between workers and employers have been extensively studied using social identity theory (Ashforth, et al., 2008; Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Dutton et al., 1994; Hogg & Terry, 2001). Since the organization is a potentially major social category, people might feel a connection to it (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Hogg & Terry, 2000).

"Organizational identification," or "OID," occurs when employees feel a feeling of oneness with their employer and think they are a part of it (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Thus, organizational identity development (OID) is a member's self-identification with the organization (Ashforth & Mael, 1989).

OID has been characterized as a "feeling of oneness with or belonging to the organization" (Ashforth and Mael, 1989). "Organization's success or failures as one's own" happens when a person's self-identity comes from their participation in an organization (Mael and Ashforth, 1992). Social identity theory and social exchange theory form the basis of OID (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005). With the increasing volatility of societies and organizations and the precariousness of connections between people and organizations, people require profession-based identities more than ever (Ashforth, Harrison, & Corley, 2008). Organizational identification is when employees feel like they belong to the firm they work for (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). OID may lead to a range of positive employee and organizational outcomes, including reduced turnover intention, organizational citizenship behavior, employee satisfaction and well-being, and employee performance (Ashforth, et al., 2008; Riketta, 2005).

Several meta-analyses have shown a positive relationship between OID and employee performance (Riketta, 2005; Van Knippenberg, 2000; Van Knippenberg & Van Schie, 2000). Indeed, many recent studies have shown that OID improves task and job performance (Walumbwa, Avolio, & Zhu, 2008;

Weiseke, Ahearne, Lam, & Von Dick, 2008). Recent research have begun to examine how occupational exposure to OID impacts various elements of employee performance and behaviors related to performance, such as creative output.

"Employee creativity" is when employees come up with new ideas to improve their work and the firm as a whole (Amabile, Conti, Coon, Lazenby, & Herron, 1996). Employee creativity is essential to organizational innovation and effectiveness, according to research. Recent research have examined how employee OID explains employee inventiveness. OID has been shown to boost employees' creativity (Hirst, van Dick, & van Knippenberg, 2009; Madjar, Greenberg, & Chen, 2011). This impact is compatible with OID theory, which states that when employees recognize that doing so aligns their self-interest with the organization's, they are more inclined to put in more creative effort and be more innovative. Hirst et al. (2009) found that creative effort mediates the effect of employee OID on creativity. This shows that one way OID affects workers' creativity is by encouraging them to work harder to improve the company and their duties.

Leaders may shape OID (Avolio, Walumbwa, & Weber, 2009; Ellemers, De Gilder, & Haslam, 2004; Lord & Brown, 2001; Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993). Leaders may change the identity of their followers. In a firm, employees' immediate bosses have a big impact on their daily job. Thus, leaders' behaviors may affect how employees see their workplaces and their relationships with them.

Transformational leadership (Carmeli, et al., 2011; Epitropaki & Martin, 2005; Liu, Zhu, & Yang, 2010) and ethical leadership have been linked to employee OID (Walumbwa et al., 2011).

Transformational leadership is defined by four traits. These features are as follows: individualized consideration, which refers to the practice of attending to the followers' individual needs; intellectual stimulation, which refers to the practice of providing job meanings for followers; challenging assumptions; taking risks; and soliciting followers' ideas; inspirational motivation, which refers to the practice of articulating a vision that inspires followers; and idealized influence, which refers to the practice of providing followers with (Bass & Avolio, 1994). Transformational leadership strengthens followers' organizational identification (OID), which affects their behavior and performance (Kark, et al., 2003; Liu, et al., 2010; Walumbwa, et al., 2008). Walumbwa et al. (2008) found that transformational leadership increases employee identification with the work unit, which promotes follower job performance. This is one reason why this leadership style works. In a similar line, Liu et al. (2010) found that transformational leadership enhances follower OID, which promotes voice behavior.

2.7 Research Gap

Innovative thinking and employee well-being are being prioritized, making ethical and compassionate leadership crucial. Positive organizational behavior, a new field, recommends

leadership for engaged employees and successful firms (Luthans, 2002).

As said previously, most servant leadership research focused on scale expansion, but few of the results were applied in organizations, leaving a big research gap that must be addressed by further study. They focused on the mediating influence of procedural justice atmosphere and the association between servant leadership, trust, work happiness, spirituality, and other themes. However, training motivation, organizational identification, and training efficiency are seldom studied. According to Greenleaf (1970), "servant leadership" adds social responsibility to transformational leadership, making it relevant today (Graham, 1991). It stresses follower needs more than any other leadership paradigm. Greenleaf coined "servant leadership" (Patterson, 2003). Servant leadership emphasizes service in the leader-follower relationship rather than influence, which is typically considered the most essential part of leadership. Thus, this leadership paradigm may be underutilized.

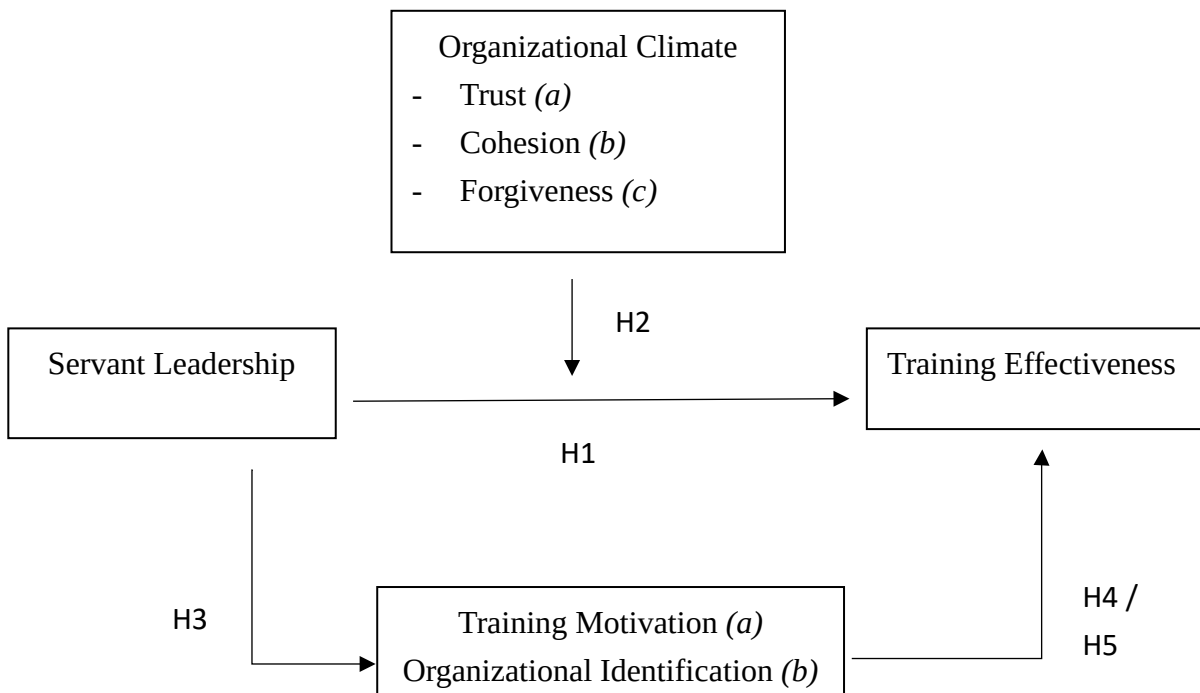
This study examines servant leadership, organizational culture, and training effectiveness. Researching the relationship between servant leadership and workforce training and how employees see various leadership styles may reveal effective leadership. However, servant leadership and its effects on followers are little documented. Few studies have examined servant leadership in the for-profit sector. Servant leadership aims to enhance society, which Hong Kong

sorely needs, through harmonizing leaders and subordinates, equipping subordinates, improving performance, and maintaining an organization's competitiveness. This study seeks to deepen that corpus' comprehension.

Chapter 3 Conceptual Framework and Hypothesis

Development

3.1 Conceptual Framework



3.2 Definitions of Variables and Other Terminology

Variable	Description
Servant Leadership	As opposed to being only a management style, servant leadership is a philosophy that focuses on putting others above one's own needs. According to (Greenleaf, 1977).
Training Effectiveness	For training to be effective in an organization, leaders must be able to identify and evaluate its various approaches (Kalemci, 2005). Training effectiveness refers to the extent to which the training produces the intended outcomes or immediate benefits that were anticipated at the outset.
Organizational Climate	The qualities of a group's culture are what define it, set it apart from other groups, make it relatively stable through time, and have the power to influence the actions of its members (Forehand and Gilmer, 1964).
Trust	“The willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other party will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control the other party” (Mayer et al., 1995)
Cohesion	Perception of interpersonal relations among workers in the organization (Koyts and Decottis, 1991).
Forgiveness	“Intraindividual, prosocial change toward a perceived transgressor that is situated within a specific interpersonal context” (McCullough et al., 2000)
Training Motivation	Learning transfer at work has been demonstrated to be influenced by how people feel about training (Bates, 2001; Naquin & Holton, 2002; Noe & Wilk, 1993; Rowold, 2007; Seyler, Holton, Bates, Burnett, & Carvalho, 1998). Behavior is often a direct result of one's mindset (Ajzen, 2001).
Organizational Identification	"Knowledge of his membership in a social group (or groups)

	along with the value and emotional importance associated to that membership" is the definition of a person's social identity (Tajfel, 1978).
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3.3 Hypothesis Development

3.3.1 Relationship between Servant Leadership and Training Effectiveness

The idea of "servant leadership" was initially presented in Robert Greenleaf's seminal book from the 1970s, which was a ground-breaking work in its field. To paraphrase what he has said, "servant leadership" evolves from an inner drive to serve others into an ambition to take control. This idea is derived from his work. In contrast to the majority of leadership paradigms, which place an emphasis on the success of the business, servant leaders put the needs of their followers first (Liden et al., 2008). A leader who really cares about his or her followers has a better chance of earning their trust and inspiring them to perform to the best of their abilities (Van Dierendonck, 2011). It is also essential to emphasize that servant leadership does not inherently entail that subordinates are barred from having a voice on significant affairs. Instead, superiors need to encourage those under them to take initiative and think critically in order for those subordinates to be able to carry their share of the load when future development is made (Liden et al., 2014).

A servant-leader is someone who prioritizes the success of the company above their own personal benefit. They do this by placing the requirements of their subordinates ahead of their own. They

demonstrate their real concern in their subordinates' professional growth and development by providing outstanding resources, guidance, and opportunities to their subordinates, so assisting those subordinates in thriving. In addition to this, servant leaders provide their staff the autonomy to choose when and how they get their work done on their own, and they also encourage their employees to take on a greater share of responsibility for their own accomplishments (Liden et al., 2008). In point of fact, "servant leaders" are leaders who "want their subordinates to develop for their own benefit, and regard the growth of followers as a goal, in itself, not merely as a means to reach the leader's or organization's objectives" (Ehrhart, 2004). Therefore, followers who receive noteworthy services, resources, and guidance from their servant leaders pay more attention to their own improvement and accumulate a greater number of career competencies, which indicates that they are value added to the organization and more competitive in the labor market, and may be more satisfied with the achievement of their career goals. This is because servant leaders focus on the needs of their followers (Eby et al., 2003). In conclusion, the "people-centered" and "servant first" characteristics of servant leadership may increase the likelihood of subjective career success, as seen by high levels of both job satisfaction and employability. This success can be seen as high levels of both job satisfaction and employability. In this connection, we hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 1:

Servant leadership positively relates to training effectiveness.

3.3.2 Relationship of Organizational Climate to Servant Leadership and

Training Effectiveness

The organizational climate may be defined as the common thread that runs between particular experiences and the actions of individuals working in the company (Shafarila & Supardi, 2016).

According to Kelley, the term "organizational climate" refers to an individual's impression of a collection of defining features that differentiate an organization (from another organization) and impact the behavior of the people who work there (Shafarila & Supardi, 2016). According to Litwin and Stringer, the organizational climate is a set of measurable characteristics of a work environment that is either directly or indirectly perceived by employees working in an organizational environment that influences and motivates their behavior. Litwin and Stringer define organizational climate as a set of measurable characteristics of a work environment (Shafarila & Supardi, 2016).

As a result of the information presented above, it is possible to draw the conclusion that the organizational climate is a state or atmosphere that is experienced by someone in their place of employment and that has the potential to influence how that person behaves while working.

According to DeVito (2007), individuals are committing a fundamental attribution error if they ascribe behavior to purely internal factors while downplaying or disregarding the influence of external dynamics. "that people, as adaptive creatures, adjust attitudes, behavior, and beliefs to their social environment and the reality of their own prior conduct and position" is the central tenet of the theory of social information processing. This tenet states that "people adjust their attitudes,

behavior, and beliefs to their social environment and the reality of their own prior conduct and position" (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978, p. 226). This indicates that the emergence of climate features takes place when followers choose how to react to the things that they and their peers value in the workplace. Walumbwa et al. (2010), for example, discovered that loyalty to one's supervisor is impacted more by a pleasant service environment and a climate of procedural fairness. Ehrhart (2004) ran an experiment in which he discovered that the environment of procedural fairness in work units partially mediates the connection between leadership behavior (servant leadership) and organizational citizenship behavior at the unit level. This was discovered as a result of the findings of the experiment. Similarly, Walumbwa et al. discovered that a climate of positive service and an atmosphere of procedural fairness both have a role in strengthening an individual's commitment to the superior within the context of corporate citizenship activity. According to Johns (2006), "contextualization includes relating observations to a collection of pertinent facts, events, or points of view that comprise a viable study hypothesis and that form part of a broader totality." In other words, "contextualization includes relating observations to a collection of pertinent facts, events, or points of view that form part of a Studies have demonstrated that a number of elements in the workplace have the potential to have an effect on the attitudes of employees (Ehrhart, 2004; Liao & Chaung, 2007; Schulte et al., 2009).

In the context of rational choice, Gabarro (1978) discovered that the factors that are perceived to

be the most important to trustworthiness are integrity, motives, consistency, openness, discreteness, functional competence, interpersonal competence, and decision-making judgement. These are the factors that are considered to be the most important by leaders. On the other hand, the research that was conducted by J. K. Butler (1991) and McCauley and Kuhnert's (1992) involved subordinates. These researchers discovered that the perceived factors of trustworthiness that are most important are as follows: availability, competence, consistency, fairness, integrity, loyalty, openness, overall trust, promise fulfilment, receptivity, and attention to personal and professional development. In addition to this, there is a confidence in the procedures that is founded on the organizational structures and the relationships between those structures. This kind of trust is very impersonal, much like role-based trust, and it is considered an act of rational choice since it "confirms the anticipated social order and an accepting of risk" (Rudolf, 2009, p. 15). It has been shown that faith in organizational authority and processes may lessen the impact that negative judgements have on a company when workers have such trust. To put it another way, if a company is going through a period of downsizing and the workers have confidence in one another, then the employees are acting in a manner that is beneficial to the business. However, if there is a lack of trust, the survivors could think that the decision was taken because the person in charge of the organization was looking out for just themselves when they made the choice.

When support managers take on the role of servant leaders, they refrain from trying to exert

coercive power or compete with line managers for positions of authority. Instead, they place the needs of line managers and other members of the organization at the forefront of their concerns and make meeting those needs their top priority. Support managers earn others' trust, dependability, and respect by the service behaviors they model; as a consequence, people are more likely to pay attention to what they have to say and to follow their lead (Greenleaf, 1977). This is significant because people are more likely to accept the influence of a person who is humble and genuinely concerned for others and who downplays his or her own ego than they are to accept the influence of someone who is assertive, controlling, and status seeking. This is important because people are more likely to accept the influence of a person who is humble and genuinely concerned for others and who downplays his or her own (Graham, 1991; Ou, Tsui, Kinicki, Waldman, Xiao, & Song, 2014). Because the job of support managers often focuses on dealing with administrative, relational, or technological difficulties that might greatly burden followers, whose primary emphasis is on company operations, the service that support managers provide can be very helpful to them. In this context, Sun, Liden, and Ouyang (2019) shown that servant leadership results in favorable outcomes by boosting followers' levels of appreciation for the leader's efforts. It's possible that increasing followers' access to opportunities to support their bosses' servant leadership may help them become better servant leaders themselves. When support managers demonstrate servant leadership, they concentrate on enhancing the growth of their followers in activities that are relevant to their work, encouraging their followers to be creative in developing new ways to pursue

their work, and providing resources that enable their followers to better serve their followers and communities (Chiniara & Bentein, 2016; Liden, Wayne, Zhao, & Henderson, 2008; Neubert et al., 2008).

To the degree that followers model servant leadership after their leaders, these behaviors should subsequently have an effect on the connections that managers have with the workers who report to them. According to the servant leadership paradigm developed by van Dierendonck (2011), advances in servant leadership should especially enhance their followers' views of justice and the quality of social interaction with the leader. Because servant leadership is used to describe a broad, general approach to leadership (Lemoine et al., 2019), it is a more appropriate predictor of broad rather than specific dimensions of employee perceptions. For example, it is more likely to be a factor in how employees feel about their opportunities for growth (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012). According to Chen et al. (2015), servant leaders are those who treat their followers with respect and approval. As a result, their followers are more likely to trust them and to respond positively to the leader's beneficial, caring, and developmental behaviors by pursuing collective goals, demonstrating loyalty, having positive attitudes, and participating in reciprocal exchanges (Chiniara & Bentein, 2016; Hunter et al., 2013; Peterson, Galvin, & Lange, 2012).

Second, the conceptual framework developed by van Dierendonck (2011) implies that followers'

perceptions of the quality of the leader-member interaction (LMX) are influenced by servant leadership. LMX is the quality of the dyadic connection that exists between a leader and a member—specifically, how the member views the nature of the relationship with the leader (Gerstner & Day, 1997). It is likely that line managers' relationships with their subordinates will become increasingly based on sharing, trust, understanding, and mutual obligation as their followers become more focused on their own interests, development, and well-being. These are all characteristics of high-quality LMX. As line managers become more focused on their followers' interests, development, and well-being, they will become more likely to become more focused on the well-being of their followers (Gerstner & Day, 1997). In agreement with this school of thought, Ehrhart (2004) said that servant leaders serve the people they lead by cultivating high-quality connections with those they lead. According to Chen et al. (2015), followers are more likely to perceive servant leaders as in-group members. By this definition, in-group individuals are seen as trustworthy partners with whom the follower has a high-quality LMX (Sparrowe & Liden, 2005). This is partly due to the fact that servant leadership makes followers feel compelled and leads them to become willing to reciprocate the positive, caring, and developing actions of their leader with a greater level of dedication, loyalty, and trade (Chiniara & Bentein, 2016; Hunter et al., 2013; Peterson et al., 2012). The practise of servant leadership almost always results in a beneficial social interaction between the leader and the followers (Walumbwa et al., 2010).

Therefore, in this connection, we hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 2a:

The level of trust in organizational climate moderates the positive relationship between servant leadership and training effectiveness.

According to the expectancy hypothesis that was proposed by Vroom (1964), an employee will be motivated to execute a task if he or she believes that the activity can be done effectively and efficiently, provided that all other factors remain the same. An individual's level of desire to succeed may be affected by a number of elements, including an optimistic attitude, a more cohesive group, and a readiness to forgive failures, among other things.

The term "group cohesion" refers to the affinity that members of the group have for one another as well as their willingness to continue their commitment to the group throughout the course of time (Lu, 2014). According to Bambale (2014), group cohesion is the relative feature of a group that defines the amount to which members of the group continue to be coherent with each other. The highly cohesive groups are characterized by members' strong sentiments of attraction toward one another, as well as their friendliness, collaboration, mutual like, and favorable thoughts about one another (Bambale, 2014). Members of these kinds of groupings have a high regard for one another and desire to be a part of the group for the foreseeable future. There are a number of different theories that have been elaborated upon to explain why cohesive groups exhibit good civic behavior.

The first explanation is that members of groups with high levels of cohesion are more likely to create pleasant and powerful sentiments with each other than members of groups with low levels of cohesion. As a result of this, members of these groups are more inclined to support one another in the process of completing organizational duties (Bambale, 2014). The second reason is that individuals who are a part of cohesive groups are more likely to experience an intense desire to continue being a part of the group in the long term. Because of this, kids develop a sense of loyalty toward the group and demonstrate sentiments of affiliation with one another. A third argument is that members of groups that are cohesive demonstrate a higher level of identification with the group as compared to members of organizations that are not cohesive. In this regard, such communities are more likely to protect their members against dangers originating from the outside world. According to Lu (2014), members of highly cohesive groups reported higher levels of satisfaction with the group, and they also reported higher levels of trust in their relationships with one another. This suggests that members of cohesive groups are more likely to put in additional effort for the purpose of completing tasks that have been allocated to the group members.

The research suggests that there is a connection between cohesiveness and productivity, even if it is difficult to establish a straight link between the two concepts. According to Wolfe and Box (1987), highly cohesive groups have excellent performances because they need less energy to maintain the group; as a result, the group is able to devote the majority of its energy into the achievement of its

goals. According to Wech, Mossholder, Steel, and Bennett's (1998) findings, there is evidence to indicate a positive association between perceived competence and group performance, with cohesion serving as a potential explanation for variations in performance. Nevertheless, there does not seem to be any clear connection between cohesiveness and productivity, especially when cohesion is considered outside of group norms. Janis (1972) presented the argument that there are circumstances in which high levels of group cohesion can, in fact, reduce the efficacy of decision-making, which would result in lower levels of productivity. According to the research that has been published, there is no such thing as group cohesiveness that does not depend on the establishment of group norms (Lott & Lott 1961; Tuckman, 1965). If this is the case, then leaders who are early in the process of developing a group might try to apply cohesion measures to assure greater conformance to the group norms of task-oriented conduct, which will ultimately result in higher productivity. Therefore, in this connection, we hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 2b:

The level of cohesion in organizational climate moderates the positive relationship between servant leadership and training effectiveness.

Fehr and Gelfand (2012) explained that in recent years there has been an increase in the amount of research in the cases and consequences of forgiveness from researchers such as Fehr, Gelfand, and Nag (2010) and Karremans, VanLange, and VanLange (2012). Fehr and Gelfand (2012) also

mentioned that Karremans, VanLange, and VanLange (2012) were among the researchers who contributed (2008). In spite of this, the field of organizational sciences suffers from a significant dearth of study on the topic of forgiveness. Organizational academics have instead concentrated their attention almost exclusively on the repercussions of workplace conflict, including avoidance, hostility, and even retaliation (Fehr & Gelfand, 2012). There has been research done on forgiveness in the workplace; however, virtually all of it has focused on the person (Aquino, Tripp, & Bies, 2001, 2006), and researchers have, for the most part, neglected the influence that the organizational setting plays. Despite the fact that, to this day, organizational researchers have only offered anecdotal evidence that the environment of forgiveness in an organization affects organizational productivity (Cox, 2008). According to Hess and Cameron (2006), firms that exhibit virtues such as compassion and morality have an advantage over their competitors. According to Kerns (2009), "forgiveness practices at work may boost employee retention, improve inventive problem solving, promote profitability, and allow flexibility in adapting to changing market circumstances." (pp. 81-82). According to findings published by Fincham and Beach (2007), the consequences of forgiving someone might last for at least a year depending on the nature of the connection. According to Terzino and Cross (2009), this is true not just for long-term partnerships but also for relationships that have only recently been created.

Relatively recently, the concept of forgiveness has been used in the context of "conflict resolution

and to the repair of relationships in organizations leadership practices (D. S. Butler, 1997; Enright, Gassin, Longinovic, & Loudon, 1994; Levin 1992; Nelson, 1992)". (Grace-Obeleye, 2003, p. 12).

In his commentary on the topic, Kurzynski (1998) noted that forgiveness has the potential to play a significant part in the upkeep of strong organizational connections. Furthermore, the cost of unforgiveness may be rather substantial, including expenses such as missed productivity, reduced work satisfaction, increased or even overwhelming stress, and diminished goal commitment. These costs can all be traced back to the inability to forgive (Schermerhorn, Hunt, & Osborn, 1994). Researchers have discovered that forgiving someone lessens the amount of negative emotions they feel (Hebl and Enright, 1993; Kearns and Fincham, 2004). This has direct benefits at the individual, dyadic, and social level, including the reduction of stress, the possibility of reestablishing or repairing relationships, and the compelling of the social norms that exist within the organization. Additionally, the results of a number of studies suggest that forgiving others has positive effects on both one's physical and mental health (Lawler et al., 2003; Witvliet, Ludwig, & Vander Lann, 2001).

According to the research, one of the most important qualities of an effective leader is the ability to forgive workers (Arasaratnam, 2009). Research conducted on organizations has shown that acknowledging workers as valuable assets rather than seeing them as casual labor or manual labor is an essential component of effective leadership. This has been recognized as an important facet of effective management (Kaijun & Ichwatus Sholihah, 2015). The effectiveness of an organization

may be improved by servant leaders who respect, honor, and serve the best interests of their subordinates. These leaders have found that this helps increase the performance of the company (Faulk, 2002). Because of the activities taken by the leaders, there is also an increase in the initiative and responsibility of the employees. The act of choosing to forget an offence and abstain from taking revenge is one definition of forgiveness. We are all aware that maintaining healthy relationships is essential to the successful running of any organization.

Therefore, in this connection, we hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 2c:

The level of forgiveness in organizational climate moderates the positive relationship between servant leadership and training effectiveness.

3.3.3 Relationship of Training Motivation to Servant Leadership and Training Effectiveness

3.3.3.1 Relationship between Servant Leadership and Training Motivation

Any company that is serious about achieving financial success and elevating the level of employee commitment must place a strong emphasis on its leadership (Sabir et al., 2011). Recognition, service, and empowerment were found to be the three fundamental activities carried out by parish servant leaders by Ebener and O'Connell (2010) in their study. Recognizing entails taking notice of, supporting, and banding together in support of the charisma, talents, and efforts possessed by

the congregation. When someone serves another, they put the needs and desires of the recipient ahead of their own, and they do it with humility. This kind of behavior helps to cultivate relationships that are more cooperative and mutually beneficial to both parties. Empowerment comes from doing actions that help others develop their potential further. The characteristics of an empowering strategy are the establishment of shared authority as well as consensus.

The degrees of motivation, devotion, and interest of individuals are all potentially amenable to being altered by servant leadership. This is because servant leadership places a greater focus on "the moral, emotional, and relational components of ethical leadership behavior" as opposed to "competency inputs" and "performance outputs," which are often used to measure the effectiveness of a leader (Reed et al., 2011). The commitment of employees to the team is strengthened when servant leaders demonstrate the importance of following their own exemplary acts (Donghong et al., 2012). According to the research (Sendjaya, Sarros, & Santora, 2008), servant leadership is a powerful kind of spiritual leadership that places an emphasis on service, ethics, humility, and trust. The authors cite this as one of the benefits of servant leadership.

Numerous studies have shown that when followers believe they are being supported by great leadership, their levels of commitment to an endeavor rise. Conduct and style of a leader have a considerable influence on the level of commitment shown by followers, the level of excitement

shown by individuals working under the leader's direction, as well as the general tone and environment of an organization as a whole (Simosi & Xenikou, 2010). By bringing about change in their communities, servant leaders may transform themselves into "cultural catalysts" and contribute to the revitalization of the cultural characteristics of their communities. The active servant leadership traits that are taught in the church have the potential to inspire all of the parishioners, not just the "cultural citizens" who are immersed in and actively contributing to the culture. Cultural citizens are people who are actively contributing to the culture (Piderit & Morey, 2008). Hence, in this connection, we hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 3a:

Servant Leadership will be positively associated with Training Motivation.

3.3.3.2 Relationship between Training Motivation and Training Effectiveness

"Variability in conduct that is not related to fixed individual attributes (such as cognitive ability) or considerable situational compulsion" (Quinones, 1997). Variability in behavior that is not linked to fixed individual characteristics. To put it another way, motivation may be defined as the mental state in which an individual is willing to exert effort in order to attain a goal. The level of an employee's motivation to participate in, learn from, and use the training they get may have a substantial influence on the results of their training (Maurer and Tarulli, 1994; Noe and Wilk, 1993; Ryman and Biersner, 1975). Therefore, unless learners are motivated to participate in the training, it is doubtful that they would appreciate all of the benefits that training has to offer. Research (Noe

and Wilk, 1993; Fecteau et al., 1995; Mathieu et al., 1992; Quinones, 1997) has revealed that there is a connection between training motivation and training results.

Research from a number of different fields has converged on the conclusion that an individual's level of intrinsic motivation is the single most critical factor in determining how well they do in training. Colquitt et al. (2000) advanced the hypothesis that trainees may not benefit from training even if they are capable of comprehending the subject matter covered in the programme. This indicates that the "g-centric" approach to trainability should be addressed with the trainee's motivation to train, since it is vital and should be considered alongside it. Some research (Fleishman and Mumford, 1989; Quinones, 1997) suggests that elements unrelated to the training itself, such as the students' motivation and attitude, are more important in determining the effectiveness of the programme than the training itself. Baldwin and Magjuka (1991) have put forward the idea that training motivation might act as a mediator between pre-information and training outcomes. In this connection, we hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 4a:

Trainees who possess higher training motivation will demonstrate more training effectiveness (i.e. reactions, learning, and transfer motivation) than those who have low training motivation.

Hypothesis 5a:

The relationship between servant leadership and training effectiveness will be partially mediated

by training motivation.

3.3.4 Relationship of Organizational Identification (OID) to Servant Leadership and Training Effectiveness

3.3.4.1 Relationship between Servant Leadership and OID

The social identity theory is the logical basis for the concept of organizational identification. The conceptual foundation for this theory was laid by Henri Tajfel's research that was conducted in the 1950s and 1960s on social elements in perception (for example, Tajfel, 1959) and on cognitive and social belief components of prejudice, discrimination, and racism. This research served as the basis for this theory (e.g., Tajfel, 1969). On the other hand, throughout the middle and later halves of the decade of the 1970s, Tajfel and his colleague John Turner worked to further develop and perfect the social identity theory (e.g., Tajfel & Turner, 1979).

According to the social identity theory, the self-definition of one's participation in a group is the single most significant factor to consider (Van Knippenberg & Sleebos, 2006). In particular, this theory proposes that people don't just identify themselves in terms of the distinctive qualities and characteristics that are unique to them as individuals; rather, they do so in terms of the distinguishing qualities and characteristics that are specific to the groups to which they belong. In other words, people don't just identify themselves in terms of the qualities and characteristics that

are exclusive to them as individuals (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). The former refers to a person's sense of their own personal identity, while the latter describes how a person views themselves in relation to the community in which they live.

As a result of their organizational identification, employees have a tendency to define themselves in terms of their organizational membership. This can be seen as a subset of the social identity phenomenon known as organizational identification, which itself can be seen as a subset of the phenomenon known as organizational identification (Mael & Ashforth, 1992; Dutton, Dukerich, & Harquail, 1994). To be more explicit, it refers to the "sense of oneness with or belonging to the organization" (Ashforth & Mael, 1989) or "the degree to which a member defines himself or herself by the same attributes that he or she thinks comprise the organization" (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). (Dutton et al., 1994). Previous studies have shown that organizational identification may result in significant advantages for workers, such as increased levels of job satisfaction, lower rates of employee turnover and absenteeism, increases in health and well-being, and enhanced job performance (Van Dick, Wagner, Stellmacher, Christ, & Tissington, 2005).

Evidence from previous studies suggests that factors that increase the perceived attractiveness of the organization (Van Knippenberg, Van Dick, & Tavares, 2007) and factors that boost employees' feelings of self-worth (Mael & Ashforth, 1992) have the potential to foster organizational

identification in employees.

A leader is considered to be a servant leader if they prioritize the requirements of their followers, work toward meeting those requirements, provide chances for their followers' personal growth and development, recognize the efforts of their followers, and so on. A good illustration of this would be allowing followers to participate in the decision-making process in some capacity (Liden et al., 2008; Van Dierendonck, 2011; Hunter et al., 2013). Because the leader is acting in such a favorable manner, the employees may be misled into believing that they are valued members of the organization as a direct result of the leader's activities. This, in turn, has the potential to improve the workers' feelings of self-worth, which, in turn, has the potential to develop the employees' organizational identification (Fuller et al., 2006). In addition, the implementation of these activities has the ability to create an environment at work that is not only safe but also abundant in resources. This, in turn, may pique the interest of prospective workers in working for the company (Schaubroeck et al., 2011). To put it another way, servant leadership has the ability to raise the attractiveness of the organization in the eyes of its constituents, which, in turn, will result in an increase in the constituents' perception that they are a part of the group (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006). Previous research provides supportive empirical evidence that servant leadership may boost employees' affiliation with their company. In this connection, we hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 3b:

Servant Leadership will be positively associated with OID.

3.3.4.2 Relationship between OID and Training Effectiveness

When we speak about organizational identity, we are referring to the experience of having a sense of belonging to an organization or being at one with it (Ashforth and Mael, 1989). When a person is in the process of creating a sense of who they are as a member of an organization, it is advantageous for that individual to have a strong identification with the organization. When workers have a strong connection with the firm they work for, their sense of survival is inextricably tied to the survival of the company for which they work. Because of this, it is more likely that the employees will focus on responsibilities that help the company as a whole as opposed to those that are just in their personal self-interest. This is referred to as OCB (Dutton et al., 1994). Even if the work contract or the control mechanism does not expressly compel members to think and behave according to the group's norms and values, members who have a high degree of organizational identification will think and act from the viewpoint of those norms and values anyhow. This is due to the fact that members who have a high degree of organizational identification have integrated the standards and principles of the group with their own sense of who they are as individuals.

According to the social exchange hypothesis, employees would feel a feeling of duty to give some kind of reciprocity, such as by participating in behaviors that are beneficial to the organization, as a result of the social interactions that take place in the workplace. Given that the degree to which

an employee's work effort is impacted by how the business treats them, these sorts of interactions will be at their highest among employees who score higher on the exchange ideology scale (Eisenberger et al., 1986). In this connection, we hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 4b:

Organizational Identification will be positively associated with Training Effectiveness.

Hypothesis 5b:

The relationship between servant leadership and training effectiveness will be partially mediated by organizational identification.

Chapter 4 Research Methodology

Leadership is a complex topic, and one of the primary challenges that organizational leaders face today is figuring out how to motivate employees to become more engaged in the activities that will lead to the achievement of corporate objectives. Existing leadership theories and models (such as transformational, transactional, charismatic, and ethical leadership, among others) provide ample evidence for the logic behind leaders' approach to leading (Northouse, 2004). However, none of these models illuminates the need for leaders to serve their followers. Furthermore, these theories and models do not address how leaders should connect with the people they are responsible for leading in order to accomplish the firm's intended goals. Using the concept of servant leadership may allow for an alternative way to comprehending the obligations associated with leadership positions. A servant leader must have a mindset centered on assisting others and the capacity to operate as a steward over the sphere of influence under his or her authority (Greenleaf, 1977).

4.1 Research Design

For the research project, qualitative inquiry was employed to examine the employees' perspectives and get an understanding of the servant leadership implementation as experienced by the participants. This was done to maximize the benefits of the project. According to Creswell (2005), qualitative research is best suited when it relies on the interpretation of words and ideas gleaned

through interviews. In other words, qualitative research is ideal when the research topic relies on the interpretation of words and concepts. Because this sort of research allowed for an inductive assessment of servant leadership based on the direct experiences and responses of subordinates working in an atmosphere controlled by a servant leader, it was judged suitable to gather qualitative data for the study. If this research employs a qualitative technique, it may be able to contribute more to the continuing conversation about servant leadership and training effectiveness.

This kind of study relied heavily on interviews, observations, and data collection in order to get a comprehensive grasp of the respondents' feelings and perspectives (Finlay, 2009). By analyzing the themes that emerged from the replies to the interview questions, the researcher is able to get a comprehensive knowledge of servant leadership and the external elements that impact servant leadership. In contrast to quantitative research, qualitative research (and theme analysis in particular) focuses on the individual experiences of a smaller sample number of participants rather than the aggregated input from a larger sample size of people. Through interviews, participants are able to provide narratives describing their experiences, which are often unavailable through the use of questionnaires. These tales may be used to describe the experiences of the participants.

A qualitative technique is appropriate for this study because it gives a deeper knowledge and allows participants to express themselves more fully than a survey (Creswell, 2005). The information

gathered from these individuals was examined in an effort to gain meaning and comprehension, resulting in the compilation of a list of terms and themes that emerged from the investigation. The objective of phenomenological research, according to Finlay (2009), is to "capture subjective, 'insider' meanings and what it feels like for individuals who have lived through an experience." (p. 475). A phenomenological approach was selected as the technique for this study because it would allow the researcher to obtain the most personal understanding of the features of servant leadership via working in an environment dominated by servant leaders. Over the course of time, it is possible to see attributes such as healing and empathy.

Due to the multiple-choice and closed-ended nature of the survey questions, respondents were unable to elaborate on their personal experiences with servant leadership qualities. This limited the ability of respondents to make meaningful replies to the poll. A grounded theory design was inapplicable since the design "represents an educational process of events, activities, action, and relationships that occur across time" (Creswell, 2005). In the suggested study, only isolated observations were employed; data collected over an extended period of time were excluded. Due to this, it is uncertain how much impact servant leadership has on training effectiveness. This effort will not have as its major purpose the creation or validation of a theory. The culture of the people themselves is the major emphasis of ethnographic study, as opposed to the organizational culture resulting from servant leadership in a particular company. Since the purpose of the study is to

determine the relationship between different people's opinions of the same shared experience and differing degrees of training effectiveness, narrative research was also disregarded. A case study was considered a viable option, but it was ultimately rejected since the planned research does not investigate the cause and effect of servant leadership via a single event. Instead, the research will examine the long-term effects of servant leadership on firms. Instead, the goal of the proposed study is to examine the influence servant leadership has on a company after it has been practiced there for a period of time. A case study may analyze how the implementation of servant leadership contributed to the healing of a group if the research was focused on an event or a group of individuals who had all experienced the same kind of sadness, for instance.

The phenomenological technique, also known as thematic analysis, makes it possible to get a deeper understanding of servant leadership by exploring the lived experiences of these participants and evaluating the words, phrases, and languages they used. This was done by researching the employees' life experiences and analyzing the words, phrases, and languages they used. In addition to the replies, the words and languages will be triangulated with research data on servant leadership and training effectiveness. The found themes have the potential to provide a deeper understanding of the effects of servant leadership on the training effectiveness. These additional insights might be supplied by the detected themes.

4.2 Confidentiality

Throughout the duration of the study, the participants received written information about the topic of the research, and the researcher followed protocols meant to preserve the participants' right to confidentiality. One of the possible disadvantages of participating in the research is the risk of having one's privacy compromised in some manner, especially as a direct result of being asked questions during the interview. The data collection method did not include the use of names or the selection of specific numbers since the researchers want to minimize the chance of potential dangers (Houghton et al, 2010). Participants had the choice of obtaining a verbal or written explanation of the procedure. Each alternative was presented to them. The participants choose a random number to serve as their identification for the duration of the interview, and the researcher displays that number in plain view in front of where the participants are seated (Houghton et al, 2010). There is also the chance that other participants in the interview would divulge the private information they discussed, which would constitute a breach of confidence. Even though it was difficult to keep everything under control, the participants were given specific instructions to maintain secrecy verbally and in writing, with an emphasis on respecting their contemporaries' private.

The researcher vowed to maintain the privacy and anonymity of each participant who participated in the study, and they agreed to retain all study-related notes, audio transcriptions, and other

materials in a locked filing cabinet in their home office (Wester, 2011). After the conclusion of the study, the researcher will dispose of all research-related materials, followed by a three-year period of inactivity. In addition to the permission form that needed each participant's signature, they were handed the agreement to read and sign upon arrival at the event.

Both anonymity and confidentiality will be maintained throughout the thesis as well as any research outcomes that are released. In addition, all data protection regulations, such as data accessibility, data disposal criteria and methods, as well as compliance with the Hong Kong Personal Data (Privacy) Ordinance, must be considered.

4.3 Data Collection

Semi-structured interviews will be conducted with each of the twenty individuals who will participate in the proposed research. Managers from the firm, trainees who are actively participating in the event, and instructors involved with the event are all participants. Every interview would be digitally recorded and transcribed word-for-word; for interviews done in Chinese, the material would be translated into English in real time.

Before the interview was planned, confidentiality and consent agreements were sent to the managers, and they were given the opportunity to ask questions at the beginning of each session.

After acquiring sufficient information, managers' written approval will be obtained prior to data collection. During the interview, managers would have entire choice over whether they participated in or withdrew from the data collection process, as well as whether they answered any questions. There would be no adverse consequences for any option. After the interviews, the managers had the opportunity to ask any questions they had about the applicants. All information collected was for the sole aim of the study project, and it will be kept totally confidential and only made public under anonymized circumstances. The use of number-coded interviews with the managers enabled for their identities to be concealed inside the interview transcripts. The questions presented in Appendix A served as the framework for the interviews, and the participants were given the opportunity to elaborate on their earlier comments as they saw fit. The duration of each interview, which ranged from around one to two hours, was dictated by the questions answered. Interviews were conducted on-site at the participants' respective places of work. After each interview was completed, the audio files were forwarded to a professional transcriber who also committed to respect the confidentiality of the material. The typist provided the researcher with both the written transcripts and the actual audio recordings so that he or she could check and assess the data.

4.3.1 Storage of data

Each research must be conducted in line with Hong Kong legislation, namely the Hong Kong Personal Data (Privacy) Ordinance (PDPO). In addition, after gaining consent from the participants, the whole data set will be collected. The collected information will be saved securely on a computer

designated for that purpose and will be password-protected. It will only be available when absolutely necessary to the researcher who performed the study, the supervisor who supervised the study, and the director of studies. Once every month, a backup will be produced and stored securely on external media that is both encrypted and password-protected.

Chapter 5 Findings and Discussion

There are a total of twenty interviews carried out. Every person who was interviewed was personally approached and asked in person whether they would be interested in taking part in the study. If they were willing to participate in the interviews, a time and location for them were scheduled in advance.

Participant	Gender	Years working experience	Job title/work nature
A	Female	25	Chief Executive Officer / Beauty and care
B	Female	20	Training Manager / Beauty and care
C	Female	18	Senior Operator / Beauty and care
D	Female	2	Operator Trainee / Beauty and care
E	Female	28	Chief Operation Officer / Insurance
F	Male	30	Head of Training / Insurance
G	Female	17	Branch Manager / Insurance
H	Male	20	Unit Manager / Insurance
I	Female	25	Senior HR Manager / Consultancy
J	Male	20	Senior Training Manager / Consultancy
K	Male	20	Senior Account Executive / Consultancy
L	Female	36	Senior Account Executive / Consultancy
M	Male	40	Chair of the Group / Catering
N	Male	30	Head of Training / Catering
O	Female	20	Workman / Catering
P	Male	3	Workman / Catering

Q	Female	18	HR Manager / Cruise
R	Male	30	Senior Technician / Cruise
S	Male	2	Trainee Technician / Cruise
T	Male	1	Trainee Technician / Cruise

5.1 Data analysis

Coding, classifying, and thematizing are all parts of a more broad inductive approach to data processing, which is the approach that this research takes. After that, these meaning units are grouped together for categories using the precise methodologies for phenomenological data analysis that were outlined by Moustaka (1994). The elimination of classifications brings about overarching themes. A total of 10 themes were identified, as shown below:

1. The effect of training would depend much on if trainer would follow up after training and trainer-trainer engagement throughout the process.
2. Trainee(s) would be provided very much opportunities of personal growth and build up long term relationship with trainer(s) in such a way that training is indeed a on-going process.
3. If concepts of servant leadership are being applied, training environment would become a family-like one, such that training would tend to be more natural learning style.
4. There is mutual trust between trainer and trainee, for whom trainee would become more co-operative and willing to have a trial after training.

5. Empowerment is normally given to trainee and training is more than just classroom, but it is actually including both on-the-job and off-the-job training for those trainers applying servant leadership.
6. Trainee(s) would normally be given much responsibilities as well as accountabilities and finally organizational identification is formed.
7. The extent to which the servant leadership could be applied in training program would be depended on managerial level.
8. Servant leadership would tend to be more industry-specific to those sales / labor-intensive industries.
9. There is non-monetary benefit as training motivation and training effectiveness would thus be enhanced under servant leadership.
10. Servant leadership is quite difficult to be applied in design stage of the training program, but would subject very much to the implementation of trainers.

After everything is said and done, the meanings of the experience are broken down into their fundamental components. The use of textual description helped to provide light on what took place, while the examination of structural meanings shed light on how the phenomena was felt. In the Findings section, we present a composite textural and structural description of the phenomenon.

These procedures or analytical methods employed are in accordance with the standards outlined in Creswell (2007).

5.2 Findings and Discussion

Theme 1: The effect of training would depend much on if trainer would follow up after training and trainer-trainer engagement throughout the process.

Before class began, the lecturer would remark, "Before we begin, I'd want to tell you about one activity." Which is, in my judgment, inexplicable. But you can do it.' Then, he would explain an exciting activity that was akin to an inner voyage and was something that most people would consider impossible. Several researchers (Erik R. Eddy, Caroline P. D'Abate, Scott I. Tannenbaum, Susan Givens-Skeaton, and Greg Robinson, 2006; Harris, A., Busher, H., and Wise, C., 2001) have observed that helping trainees realize their ability through discovery or action research is an effective way to do so (Erik R. Eddy et al., 2006; Harris, A., Busher, H., and Wise After then, he would add something along the lines of, "Now that we've moved on, keep it in the back of your mind." By doing so, he would engage both the conscious and subconscious minds, so obtaining total involvement. In addition, as the training advances, he will inform learners about the option of adding a terrific activity and request that they remind him of it during the second portion of the session. He would be aware of when the thoughts of learners may stray away from the instruction

and how to bring them back at the proper moment. He understands that when folks are given with a task to which they have committed, they will participate. In addition, he makes an effort to make the trainees feel valued and caters to their requirements throughout the training. By employing a statement with such persuasive power or by offering an example from inside the training group, he is attempting to encourage them as well. The trainees are making an effort to sustain their involvement since they are aware that they will get something they truly desire.

Participant J: "...for example, I used to walk around marketplace, quite a sudden shouted "Sir!", which I was being shocked and looked back...that was my trainee and she told me she did not work in insurance but in another industry, and she even asked me to calm down and relax since she didn't get rid of anything I taught..."

Participant A: "...the trainer is so inspiring...I was being touched from the bottom of my heart, it's all over about work or job duties..."

According to Smith (2017), trainee engagement is one of the most effective ways to ensure that trainees recall what they have learnt from such training (2006). After that, he would give each participant a sheet with a preprinted template for their most recent encounter. He did not neglect to amaze, excite, or question them about the nearly impossible actions he had previously outlined throughout the breaks. Some persons who were on the edge of wandering from the text or who

were not paying complete attention were clearly reminded to reflect on it for a few seconds. In addition to this, he often brought up the pledges made at the outset by both sides. Therefore, it would be impossible for trainees to remain unproductive and unmotivated. He would circulate among the students and sneak looks at their work, offering praise and criticism as appropriate. In addition, he would personally participate in the activity, complete the form, and endeavor to finish first. Therefore, he is enjoying the scenario, establishing a sense of being in a competitive atmosphere, and maintaining momentum. He starts a sheer recitation without notice (Hindi verse-poetic lines). There was a loud round of applause and a strong sense of wah-wah (appreciation) in the air since it was so striking and pertinent to the circumstance. Those persons who were on the edge of experiencing a full loss of energy would have it restored.

In general, his approach to training would raise the morale of every participant. On both the bulletin board in the training room and the accompanying workbook, the information was presented in a typeface that was both quite bold and rather large. During the two days, he would also administer a quiz, immediately begin a new workout, screen a film, have participants sing, sit, stand, run, dance, and perspire, and ensure that there was an abundance of laughter, smiles, and other happy emotions. The trainees are enjoying themselves despite the pain of activating their brain cells via intense exercise and putting a great deal of effort, both physically and mentally, to think in order to solve a range of challenges. Even if it is in the form of training material, you get to participate in

activities that you like and look forward to completing. In the meanwhile, those who make progress are rewarded in a strange, often humorous, and engaging manner. This happens as the individual continues to advance.

If a trainee is feeling unable to accomplish the assignment or disheartened due to their persistent attempts, the trainer will share his experience with them. He would also demonstrate and participate in some of the activities. There are times when an outsider would have difficulty recognizing him from other students, since he often sits with and is dressed similarly to other students. He would be cognizant of the reality that he had to lead some and guide others. He is aware that trainees will not perspire unless they see him doing so. He would assist by granting liberty to make errors and recognizing the efforts made. In order to empower the students, he would make it a point to promote their confidence and self-esteem at all times. The workbook was designed in such a manner that it prevented a person from sitting quietly, while also ensuring that a trainee regularly reflects on what they are doing. The workbook is concise, has a superficial level of substance, and contains just the most essential information.

Smith (2017) believes that in order to increase the training effectiveness, the course material should be limited to a minimum and have a clear emphasis. There are also students who find it difficult to manage the area on their own. In order to guarantee that no one felt excluded, he would begin with

a group competition. Experience-based learning is the only method that makes the subject more accessible. The broken squares game, the funny faces game, the search game, etc. The trainees would first record their most significant and difficult event, then share it with others, and then listen to the experiences of others. This crucial and well-designed experience-sharing activity would be carried out. Consequently, their prior understanding of themselves aids them in assimilating and absorbing new information received through listening to the experiences of others and their educators. This is due to the fact that past information about oneself facilitates the learning process (Healy and Lyle, 2013).

Participant F: "...being a trainer, it is amazing if training is not a one-off one, but on a continuous basis. If trainee has any problems, they would think of me, chat with me after training..."

Smith (2017) bolstered the importance of experience sharing by suggesting that employees' experiences should be seen as an important learning tool. In addition, he referenced Benjamin Franklin, who emphasized the value of involving others in the learning process. The trainer would empathize with you so that you could successfully participate, but they would also ask you to answer difficult questions. You must endure the agony of periodic disappointments and challenges. Participants in the training would get a feeling of who they are and have the chance to hypothesize

about what they are capable of; they would then be astounded when they or a peer really accomplished the feat. In this strategy, the trainer pushes people to take chances by believing in their true potential, valuing them, and chasing them to accept the challenges provided to them throughout training. When we refer to the "Training Difficulty principle," we are referring to the notion that putting individuals through difficult situations provides them a stronger sense of success and helps them retain what they've learned long after their training has completed (Healy & Lyle, 2013). In order to learn from a difficult activity or aim, a person must concentrate their attention, engage all of their senses, engage their intellect in a sequence of in-depth ideas, and engage their hands in the work. The trainer assists the trainees in enhancing their feeling of self-efficacy, which allows them to perform more successfully in novel and unconventional ways. While individuals are actively engaged in learning, it is essential to give the tools for them to acquire correct and comprehensive knowledge.

After the first portion of the first day of class, the teacher would inquire, "Do you see the arrow hitting the center of the wheel on page X?" In the same spirit, take two minutes to reflect on the insights you've obtained so far and record them in the relevant part of the workbook. ' Therefore, trainees examine and reflect on their acquired knowledge. What we remember is what we encounter and execute often and again over a little period of time. A large proportion of them raise at least one point. The same practice is repeated the next morning, and everyone is invited to elaborate on

what fresh facts or insights have struck them. The most important element is that they are then requested to come to the podium, share the information with everyone, and suggest locations where it might be used in their career and personal life. Some individuals may be hesitant to participate in this exercise, but when they do, the trainer and other trainees are quick to remind them of their commitment to full participation. This is due to the fact that they are now completely brainwashed to put up their best effort. According to Healy et al. (2014), the practice of recalling training-acquired material enhances retention. In addition, this acts as an evaluation of the trainee's learning outcome, which, according to Zimmerman (2000) and Schmitz & Wiese (2006), is the third phase of learning as outlined by Cristophel (2014). At the conclusion of the course, a session will be devoted to the development of an action plan. This plan must be signed by both the individual learner and their immediate supervisors, and it will be sent to the human resources or training team. It is a way for ensuring that classroom learning is transferred to one's life and career. The use of acronyms, which may be repeated in order to remember numerous parts of training, is yet another way trainers use to keep participants interested. As a single example, seven Ps or three Es, etc. Another approach he will use is associating learning points with music or melodies, which will make it easier for students to recall the knowledge. In their research article, Healy et al. (2014) presented memory methods as a strategy to increase one's capacity to recall freshly learned knowledge. In the last section of the course, participants are urged once again to choose the most significant item they have learned and to explain how they plan to use it.

The trainer will instantly send an email to each participant the following morning, thanking them personally and highlighting the most significant lessons from the session. After some time had elapsed, he would also send an email with a training-related problem. This was done to guarantee that students had the necessary assistance to retain training information and so that he could assess how well they had kept it.

Smith (2017) advises using post-training quizzes to measure how well training was recalled and how effective it was. Inferring from his personal experiences, the author came to the conclusion that, in addition to the trainees' motivation and commitment to learning, the support of an immediate superior, the organization, and the training team is crucial for advancing learning in a true working environment. Transfer of training is achievable if the action plan created at the completion of the training experience is reviewed with the superior, signed by him, and monitored by the training team. This would ensure the true success of the course. The objective here is not to compel or pursue individuals, but rather to make them aware that the organization, its management, and its trainers take training and its application for the betterment of both individuals and the organization extremely seriously. Consequently, there is no reprimand, but there is a subtle push and a sort of commitment fulfillment request via amicable dialogue and follow-up. Learning is a somewhat lengthy and sluggish process that involves patience, tolerance, numerous efforts, and a

desire to endure this unpleasant time period, which is necessary to assimilate information and apply it with sufficient precision. Internalizing knowledge requires patience, tolerance, numerous tries, and a willingness to endure an unpleasant time period. Nonetheless, a few studies (Healy & Lyle, 2013) have discovered that the idea of engaging trainees, which we refer to here as the notion of including challenge in training to make it tough for trainees, may be implemented in complicated situations, although under certain circumstances.

Theme 2: Trainee(s) would be provided very much opportunities of personal growth and build up long term relationship with trainer(s) in such a way that training is indeed a on-going process.

Rather than a one-time event, training efforts inside a company should be a continuous activity. It is a continual process that applies to all employees, whether they are new, old, transferred, or promoted. According to Armstrong (1995), a training plan takes a long-term view of the skills, degrees of knowledge, and levels of competence that an organization's employees need. Training must be an integral part of the management process, necessitating that managers conduct periodic performance evaluations with their teams and the workers who report to them in relation to the agreed-upon objectives.

Participant K: "... as a friend, he will care about me and give me suggestion for my development such as asking us to get different license to acquire knowledge so as to better serve / satisfy customer needs..."

Participant H: "...I have put different colleagues into different division, but sometimes I will let them to try different division ,let them try new things , before hand it over will give a brief introduction and let them try . This can make sure they are updated in this industry but this is hard since the people getting older is hard to learn new things..."

The best way to comprehend workplace learning is from the viewpoint of the ever-changing nature of work and the employee competence issues that this involves. This perspective more closely aligns workplace learning with the current challenges faced by businesses. There have been two big paradigm shifts in the way people do their jobs. First, there has been a growing focus on embracing knowledge as a fundamental aspect of one's work (Ackerman, 1998). Knowledge work is the process by which people acquire information from several sources, use that information to derive a set of answers, and generate new sets of information as a result of their own inputs (Mohrman, 2003). Work in the knowledge industry often entails the manipulation of information with tangible objects or things. The move toward knowledge-based work has grown pervasive across all occupational levels and settings, although to varying degrees. According to Lee (2004),

the trend toward knowledge work was seen at all levels of a bank, although it was more pronounced among customer service employees as opposed to those in middle or upper management.

The second alteration is that the life cycles of work materials have grown much shorter. In other words, even while people's occupations are undergoing change, the period before the next change event is reducing. An increase in the relative unpredictability of work schedules is a frequent second-order result of changes in the business operations of a company. According to Osman-Gani and Jacobs (2005), the key factor responsible for driving employment transformation across the board in Singaporean firms operating in all industrial sectors was information technology. The deployment of new information technology, whether to enhance management or production capacity, often results in significant changes to the organization and execution of work. These changes may be either favorable or bad. For instance, lean manufacturing, an adaptation of the Toyota production method that is adopted by several organizations, is a substantial organizational transformation effort that incorporates the Kaizen performance improvement process. This always necessitates considerable modifications to processes and the manner in which work should be performed.

Two ongoing changes that are affecting the nature of work are the shift toward knowledge-based work and the shortened lifespan of job content itself. As a consequence of these two changes, firms

must recognize and manage employee capability more effectively. Jacobs (2002) developed the notion of a hierarchy of employee competence, which ranges from the most fundamental level, known as the novice level, to the most advanced level, known as the master level. The five categories indicate how individuals enhance their capacity to do a certain activity or unit of labor. Due to the amount of time necessary to attain each level, only a tiny fraction of employees ever reach the expert or master level. This is related to the frequent occurrence of employment transitions. It is a typical observation that people may operate at a reasonably high level of competence for a length of time, but as soon as a change is made, their level of competence plummets, needing some time and effort to recover. This tendency is seen in several environments, including companies, schools, and military sites.

Participant B: "...If a person keep doing the same thing they will be bored so I want them to learn more..."

Participant E: "...well, apart from self interest, as servant leader, I would demand myself being motivative, reflecting for how much I could inspire, and for how much my followers could learn further..."

Participant D: "...trainer would keep in touch with me by asking me not only my work but also my family, health, life...he is all-rounded, comprehensive..."

This gives a quick summary of current knowledge about workplace learning. Ellinger (2005), Lohman (2005), Boud and Garrick (1999), and Sambrook (2005) are just few of the authors who have given considerable space to the issue of workplace learning and its obstacles. The material given here makes it clearly clear that learning on the job includes both very complex human and institutional processes. In general terms, learning on the job has been described as the connection between two fundamentally essential human activities: working and learning (Barnett, 1999; Hodkinson & Hodkinson, 2004; Sambrook, 2005). According to Barnett (1999), education has inevitably become an essential part of employment, and employment has in turn become an integral part of education. Barnett argued further that the relationship between learning and working must be resolved on numerous organizational and human levels, as well as in different modes, namely formal and informal. Hodkinson and Hodkinson (2004) created a matrix of learning types that categorized learning based on intentional/planned and unintentional/unplanned aspects of learning, as well as three criteria: learning that is already known to others, development of existing capability, and learning that is new in the workplace or treated as such. Then, they categorized workplace learning into the following six categories:

1. Preparatory education that is already considered common knowledge.
2. Incorporation into a working network of professionals that is already in existence.
3. Education or training that is organized or arranged with the purpose of enhancing a current competency.

4. The ad hoc improvement of established protocols for standard operating procedures.
5. Acquiring knowledge with the goal of doing something that has never been done before.
6. The surprise development of competence on a topic that had not been discussed before in the discussion.

Sambrook (2005) sought to provide a more exact definition of "workplace learning" by distinguishing between "learning at work" and "learning in work." Frequently, the administration of specified education and training programs facilitates learning on the job. Observing, asking questions, solving problems, working on projects, mentoring and coaching others, and participating in ad hoc dialogues are examples of informal procedures that contribute to workplace learning. These sorts of activities include the following: Sambrook continues by stating that there are opportunities for learning beyond the limits of the workplace. This kind of learning is often known as learning outside of the workplace.

According to Billett (2001), referring to the workplace as an environment suitable to informal learning is unnecessary and unnecessarily bolsters the ambiguous nature of this kind of education. Billett said that labor practices are not intrinsically informal, unstructured, accidental, or ad hoc, despite his use of each of these terms to characterize them. Rather, the requirements of the work practices are what establish their character and should serve as the guiding principle for their

behavior. Mocker and Spear (1982) used three criteria to define lifelong learning: (a) who establishes the learning objectives, (b) what is to be taught, and (c) how it is to be learned. Consequently, obtaining knowledge of each specific learning instance should be based, at least in part, on the locus of control of the situation under discussion. Moreover, they propose a model that divides learning into four distinct categories: formal learning, in which learners have little control over the objectives or means of learning; nonformal learning, in which learners control the objectives of learning but not the means of learning; informal learning, in which learners control the means of learning but not the objectives of learning; and self-directed learning, in which learners control the means of learning but not the objectives of learning (learners control both the objectives and means of learning).

According to the approach proposed by Colley, Hodkinson, and Malcom (2003), workplace learning may be classified as formal, informal, or nonformal. They said that it may be more accurate to see formality and informality as aspects or characteristics that are present in all sorts of learning settings. In order to categorize these qualities, they determined that there are four separate components of learning: the location of the learning, the technique used, the purpose of the learning, and the content. Clarke (2005) suggested that the most often defined characteristics of workplace learning are planned vs unplanned learning, formal versus unstructured learning, nonformal versus accidental learning, and on-the-job versus off-the-job learning. This was done to distinguish what

may be termed workplace learning. The terminologies are largely used to distinguish between various kinds of learning environments; nevertheless, due to the many ways in which these concepts have been defined, there is still space for confusion. Some authors, for instance, have used the terms "informal learning" and "incidental learning" interchangeably or in a manner that makes it difficult to distinguish between the two. In summary, the study suggests that formal learning, often known as training, and informal learning are the characteristics of workplace learning on which professionals are most commonly in agreement.

The majority of HRD specialists and practitioners agree that formal training is the most visible aspect of workplace learning. Formal training consists of scheduled educational activities designed to help participants in acquiring knowledge, awareness, and abilities in certain areas. Formal training often comprises participation in institutionally sponsored and funded programs. This would include the overwhelming majority of staff training and development programs offered by firms. This notion assumes that formal training takes place in an environment created with learning in mind, which strongly indicates that learning takes place in a setting different from the actual workplace.

Informal learning occurs in contexts where obtaining information may not be the primary goal of the activity; rather, the learning process is triggered by the desire to find a solution to a problem,

either anticipated or already existing. Informal learning may result from a range of activities, including job shadowing, mentoring and problem-solving groups on the job. For informal learning, it may be necessary to seek out individuals who are recognized to have superior degrees of expertise or insight on a topic. This is achievable despite the fact that no one individual may serve as the official trainer or facilitator for any of these activities.

In a casual atmosphere, learning may take place either via contact with others or self-directed study. Because it occurs in response to unique requirements, the bulk of this education is unplanned and influenced by chance. Lohman (2005) defines informal learning as the employee-initiated learning activities that entail the expenditure of physical, cognitive, or emotional effort and lead to the development of professional knowledge and skills. In other words, workers actively pursue new knowledge while at work. In a similar vein, Garavan, Morley, Gunnigle, and McGuire (2002) defined informal learning as the set of processes that occur within particular organizational contexts and focus on the acquisition and assimilation of an integrated cluster of knowledge, skills, values, and emotions that results in individuals and teams refocusing and fundamentally altering their behavior. In addition, sanctioned learning may take place within the framework of informal education via mentoring, coaching, work rotation, job shadowing, and specialized projects or tasks (Marsick & Watkins, 1997).

Theme 3: If concepts of servant leadership are being applied, training environment would become a family-like one, such that training would tend to be more natural learning style.

A servant leader puts a premium on their ability to serve others and often prioritizes the needs of others before their own. Many servant leaders take satisfaction in ensuring that their exterior duties and obligations entail caring for others around them, whether it their workers, community members, church members, or students. This may be accomplished in several circumstances. Being a servant leader entails putting one's internal responsibilities (including one's family, social life, etc.) on hold, which may be difficult.

Participant J: "...he will work with us, like partner, there is no hierarchy between us, everything can be discussed. he will do the jobs and help us with the things that are not yet finished..."

Participant O: "...the atmosphere of the company is harmonious...In the working environment, there will be no conflict..."

Participant G: "...trainer would organize a WhatsApp group...throughout the communication, he would ask us to reply in words, which he considers meaningful, while emoji not..."

Understanding who is important and caring about how others feel as a consequence of your leadership through serving as an example are crucial to the notion of servant leadership. When

there is a true servant leader, the idea that the client or customer should come first frequently becomes a reality, which is congruent with the notion of servitude. Blanchard (2018) outlined the dilemma that happens when the typical hierarchical pyramid gets inverted as a consequence of adopting servant leadership. According to the implementation/servant role, rather than becoming accountable, the members of the organization become responsive. They often serve meals from the bottom up, rather than from the top down. Blanchard proclaimed,

When you turn the organizational pyramid upside down, rather than your people being responsive to you, they become responsible – able to respond, and your job as the leader/manager is to be responsive to your people. This creates a very different environment for implementation. (p. 11)

This paradigm shows what it means to have genuine servant leadership when it is applied systematically throughout organizations. I have seen that servant leaders often possess patience, persistence, and a strong desire to ensure that their teams are developed and taught to appreciate the value of putting the customer, student, or team members first. This is what I have seen to be the case. It is typical for them to lead their teams with the same fervor with which they lead themselves. They are no longer bystanders who observe from a distance, but rather active team members. They do not ask their team to do anything that they are unwilling to do themselves, and they do not expect their team to do anything that they are unwilling to do themselves. One of the first portrayals of servant leadership is found in Matthew 23:11 of the Holy Bible. In this text, Jesus instructs his disciples and a throng of onlookers about the pitfalls of following leaders who do not follow their own example. After speaking to the congregation about those who want to be recognized for their

actions and others who want to be recognized by many for their good deeds, Jesus cautions them against exalting themselves too much and urges them to strive toward acquiring the servant's humility. In verse 11 of this chapter, Jesus declares, "The greatest among you will be your servant." This is a basic assertion. This is at the heart of what servant leadership entails.

Mentoring has been widely used in a variety of sectors, including the arts, health, business, and, more recently, education, as shown by a considerable body of literature on the topic. This information supports mentoring's broad popularity. This study's results are used to demonstrate a link between the notions of mentoring as a natural outcome of effective leadership and coaching. The bulk of mentoring research focuses on organized programs meant to track the outcomes and experiences of all people involved. The parties involved in mentoring are the mentee, the mentor, and the organization providing the mentoring. Relationships developed as a consequence of mentoring and coaching relationships are often long-lasting and purposefully aimed toward the individual's growth. Patterns of successful mentorship are defined by objectively observable attributes such as trust, confidentiality, and character. Kent et al. (2013) stated:

In order for mentoring to commence, some type of relationship formation must occur and the quality of these relationships correlates to the effectiveness of the mentoring that ensues. Some mentoring relationships can be defined as "high quality," as the mentee learns from the mentor and uses the knowledge gained to have a more productive and meaningful life, while other mentoring relationships can be defined as "nonproductive," as the mentor and mentee have a dysfunctional relationship that has proven to be non-effective as the mentor and the

mentee has a dysfunctional relationship that has proven to be noneffective.
(p. 3)

Mentoring may also include coaching. It is comparable to the collegial inquiry in that it allows adults to widen their views, question their preconceptions, and share their experience and leadership; however, it occurs in a more private setting—typically one-on-one as opposed to in a group. The word "mentoring" may apply to a range of actions, including the transfer of information and the provision of emotional support to new or less experienced staff members or principals. When structuring mentoring relationships in educational settings, it is essential to take into account the compatibility between the mentor and the mentee, as well as the compatibility between the principal's expectations for teachers and the teachers' developmental capacities to engage in this practice. The ways in which a person is knowledgeable influence what they expect and need from a mentor, as well as the kind of assistance and challenges that will aid in their personal growth. The mentor may need to assist the mentee in reframing their thinking and bringing it into a more precise focus in order to assist them if the mentee is a very large thinker, i.e., they tend to think broadly and primarily outside the box. In this method, the knowledge is presented in a much more developing manner, allowing the mentee to access and apply the content in accordance with their learning style. This is achievable because the information is provided in a much more developmentally appropriate manner.

Participant L: "...Maybe some issues will be the same but applying to different customers will have different changes and results, so it is hard to give training. I do prefer my supervisor share his experience, I think this is an easier way to learn from others experience. When we have make mistake , he will try to protect us..."

Participant N: "...we do not have formal training programme, frankly, because we are in university canteen...instead, we may sit, chat and coffee when we have time..."

It is likely that these leaders would be labeled as servant leaders since they would remain highly mission-driven and attentive to the needs of their followers (Stone et al., 2004). During times of crisis, this kind of leadership becomes especially vital (Doraiswamy, 2012). Throughout the early phases of the crisis and the duration of the epidemic, persons in positions of authority saw their leadership style as one in which power was widely dispersed. When using a person-centered and participatory leadership style, the participants maintained a focus on their employees and consumers. In actuality, eight out of ten CEOs admitted that their staff are the company's genuine experts. According to the results, each respondent said that ensuring the health and safety of their customers and workers was their top priority throughout the crisis. All of the leaders seemed to have a great relationship with both their team and their clients, and they were all eager to provide instances of how their personnel went above and beyond the responsibilities of their professions to ensure that customers and peers felt supported and protected throughout the crisis. The inability of

many individuals to engage with their customers and workers in the same manner as before the pandemic was highlighted by many as one of their most important losses as a consequence of the pandemic. The majority of poll respondents agreed with the following assertion made by one of the leaders:

Due to the pandemic, we were unable to see one another, which constituted a significant barrier to our capacity to communicate. As a consequence, both our communication and organizational leadership styles developed. I feel that even the way in which we communicated needed to be improved significantly. Not only did we have to adjust to not seeing each other in person, but we also had to get familiar with Zoom. It took some getting used to since we weren't going to be sharing handshakes, side hugs, or any of the other things we used to routinely do to establish leadership and energy synergy. I feel the fact that our interactions with one another have been so dissimilar has been the most influential aspect. Therefore, we needed to grow used to it and determine what was going on.

The several leadership techniques mentioned in this article highlight the disparities in the ways that various approaches may be useful for the development of skilled and successful leaders. A person's care and value for the organization may be exhibited if they have gotten coaching or mentorship from a transformational leader who is motivated by love, talent, and worth to achieve results and

success. Providing a sense of ownership within an organization helps to drive success in ways that meet the goals and implement sound strategies, and provides a sense of ownership that leads to a sense of inclusivity among the staff and fosters a spirit of collegiality or even a "family-like" atmosphere that fosters a sense of belonging among teams. Creating a sense of ownership inside an organization helps drive performance in ways that achieve objectives and execute solid strategies, and creates a sense of ownership that leads to a sense of ownership. These features of the three various kinds of leadership styles have been shown to promote bold and optimistic results of success and team growth due to their interconnectedness.

Theme 4: There is mutual trust between trainer and trainee, for whom trainee would become more co-operative and willing to have a trial after training.

Participant I: "...I will treat my colleagues like a partner, works like a partnership, because the company income is linked with the colleagues' income, so we don't have an obsession of hierarchy, I won't be too harsh and imperative to my colleagues, I will try to pamper and pursuit them to do what I want to achieve..."

Participant N: "...some university students speaking Putonghua, and I did try, so that my staff would also know I care...and what I expect is to gain support from each other..."

Based on their first impressions of the other, both the trainers and trainees begin to develop a basic level of trust. Basic trust is often unconnected to the trainee's education and consists of a broader trust in other folks. The cornerstone of the relationship of trust between trainers and trainees is basic trust. It is hard to describe the process of establishing even a little amount of confidence. When it occurs, both trainers and trainees describe it as a "feeling" or "click" that they share with one another. The method in which the trainers and trainees talk with one another and the calm mood that develops during the first encounter have been recognized as trust antecedents with the goal of fostering the growth of basic trust in the relationship between the two parties. In this first period, personality compatibility and a feeling of mutual understanding are also beneficial to the process of establishing trust. According to both the trainers and the trainees, initial impressions have a crucial influence in defining the amount of trust between them. Even when events emerge that have the potential to influence the degree to which one person is trusted by another, it is typically difficult to adjust a trust relationship after it has been established.

As soon as trainers and trainees begin collaborating in daily clinical practice, the focus of the trust relationship shifts to the process of teaching the trainee based on the experiences obtained while working and learning in daily clinical practice. Trainers and trainees approach the process of developing trust from different viewpoints and with different goals in mind; nonetheless, the conditions essential for the development of trust are shared by both parties. Trainers' behavioral

trust involves entrusting trainees with the duty of visiting patients independently. Respect shown by trainees to patients, trainers, and practice staff is a significant trust antecedent that impacts trainers' behavioral trust in their trainees. Other trust antecedents that impact trainers' behavioral trust in their learners include the trainee's working and learning performance.

Trainee success in working and learning is demonstrated by the trainee's transparency, openness about how they conduct their task, and capacity to learn from earlier comments. Similarly, a trainee's success in working and learning is mirrored in his or her capacity to learn from past comments. Trainers tend to focus on how trainees communicate about their positive and negative (learning) experiences in the workplace, how they respond to feedback from trainers, whether trainees recognize their own limitations and know when to seek assistance, and whether trainees recognize their own limitations.

In order for students to have a pleasant and secure educational experience, they must have trust in their teacher. Two of the trust antecedents that contribute to the establishment of a trainee's behavioral trust are the trainer's availability and accessibility, as well as the trainer's ability to create an environment in which the trainee feels the trainer is ready to listen to them and help them. If trainers are accessible whenever and wherever learners want them, this instills a feeling of security in the trainees and decreases the amount of risk they perceive they are exposing themselves to,

hence boosting their degree of trust in their trainer. The trainers' personal interest in their trainees is another trust antecedent that contributes to the development of trainees' trust. A deep personal interest fosters a feeling of proximity, which in turn stimulates the development of trust. When trainees feel safe with and connected to their trainer, it is simpler for them to be candid about their performance and learning, especially in the event of difficulties and bad situations faced during daily clinical practice.

Integrity is a crucial element in the formation of trust between trainer and learner. The trainers and trainees judge each other's honesty by observing the consistency of each individual's behavior. They do this by comparing one another's actions with their own work in daily practice and ethical norms. When they display consistent behavior, as well as convergent working practices and moral standards, their trust in one another is often enhanced.

The amount of self-assurance a trainee has is essential to the development of trust between trainers and trainees. The trainees' self-confidence will improve if instructors provide them with more opportunity to display their independence throughout everyday practice. The effect is magnified if trainers regard trainees as equals and are willing to share their daily responsibilities with them. When trainers and trainees share the same expectations for the trainee's performance, trainees' confidence increases. However, if a trainee's level of self-confidence is inconsistent with their

trainer's expectations, the trainer may lose trust in the trainee, since trainers consider that excessive or insufficient degrees of self-confidence may threaten patient safety. These misalignments between the trainer's expectations and the trainee's real degree of self-confidence may also affect the trainee's faith in their teacher. This is because, in these instances, trainees believe their trainer is not giving them with enough assistance at the level trainees believe they need. This strategy will also have a negative impact on the trainees' sense of self-worth, since they feel unsupported by their instructor.

When two individuals meet for the first time, basic trust is built based on their first impressions of one another, which starts the process of mutual trust development. Once a trusting relationship has been established, it is exceedingly difficult to modify the ensuing feeling of trust, as recognized throughout the process of establishing basic trust. This is consistent with the model presented by Das and Teng (2001), as it is recognized that a person's activities may influence their sense of self-confidence. As soon as trainers and trainees begin working together in daily clinical practice, the focus of the trust-building process shifts to working and learning on the job. This transition happens because trust is created through working and learning in the workplace. Before trainers can entrust their trainees with the care of patients, they must instill confidence in their trainees. For a safe learning environment to exist, it is necessary that students have trust in their teacher. The process of creating mutual trust encompasses not only features of the trainer and the trainee, but also

components of the shared conditions for the development of mutual trust, such as the trainer's honesty and the student's self-assurance. The interaction between the joint conditions exemplifies how the behavioral trust of both the trainer and the trainee influences the process of gaining subjective trust in both themselves and the other person, resulting in a relationship built on mutual trust. The findings of this study lend validity to the claims made by Das and Teng, namely that the process of creating trust is iterative and bidirectional.

When developing confidence in the other person, subjective trust and perceived risk in the trainer–trainee connection are influenced by the other person's competence (capability to do the job) and intentions (integrity and willingness to complete the work). This suggests that high evaluations of a person's great ability and good intentions are associated with high levels of subjective trust and low levels of perceived risk, while low estimates of either attribute are associated with higher levels of felt danger. The process of creating mutual trust between trainers and trainees is considerably facilitated by the trainers' abilities and goals. Trainees are accountable for evaluating a trainer's skills in terms of being an accessible trainer and the trainer's aspirations to be willing to provide help. Trainers are accountable for determining whether or not trainees are capable of having insight into their own learning processes and whether or if they want transparency about their working and learning processes. Trainers and trainees may benefit from understanding the role that competence and intentions play in the process of building trust, as well as the disparities between trainers and

trainees in competence and intentions. This may expedite the recognition of trust and risk by both parties. Due to the fact that an individual's personal circumstances may impact how they perceive trust and risk, various persons, including trainers and trainees, may have varying conceptions of these notions. However, understanding the factors and processes that contribute to the formation of trust can help both trainers and trainees not only discuss differences in their understanding of the mutual trust relationship, but also pay special attention to these factors when establishing a trusting relationship or resolving a trust-related issue.

It is general known that the establishment of a trustworthy relationship between two persons occurs in stages. The first phase is for participants to get acquainted with one another and the procedure. When they have acquired a degree of familiarity with one another, the process of establishing trust will become more dependent on the knowledge each person knows about the other, as well as the relationship they have formed. According to the findings of Tschannen, Moran, and Hoy (2007), it is considered that students go through four stages as they gain trust in their professors. These phases include the phase of first impression, the period of exploration, the phase of limit testing, and the phase of stability.

The majority of the findings reflect the stage of first impression, which is the stage of establishing basic trust, as well as the stages of exploration and boundary testing (trust development focusing

on working and learning in daily practice). The stage of creating basic trust, also known as the initial impression stage, seems to have a substantial effect on later stages of developing trust. This result is consistent with the results of earlier studies, which indicate that the degree of trust established at the outset influences the likelihood of encountering events and conditions that progressively erode confidence.

In the second stage of trust building, which focuses on working and learning in everyday practice, trainers and trainees trust one another in various ways and for different reasons. This is due to the fact that in the second stage of trust formation, the process focuses on working and learning. In their study on this phenomenon, Hauer et al. (2014) and Sagasser et al. (2017) discovered that the same characteristics that impact the trainers' confidence in their trainees also influence the learners' trust in their trainers. Trainees who have reached the second stage of trust development have started to develop trust in their trainer based on the trainer's availability and accessibility, as well as their personal interactions with the trainer. This is consistent with the factors that Sutkin et al. (2008) identified as student criteria for effective clinical teachers, as well as with previous research indicating that a caring attitude toward learners may facilitate the development of trainees' confidence in their trainer. This may explain why trainees lay a greater premium on the personal connection while acquiring trust in their instructor than trainers do.

Theme 5: Empowerment is normally given to trainee and training is more than just classroom, but it is actually including both on-the-job and off-the-job training for those trainers applying servant leadership.

The open flow of information and the transfer of power to employees are also essential motivators for employees. When given the chance, employees are afforded the power to make independent decisions, which helps to the preservation of their autonomy. As a consequence, they develop a sense of responsibility, which encourages them to do their duty more successfully. Autonomous employees are more motivated, and this is evident in the quality and quantity of their output, which adds to greater productivity (Thomas & Velthouse, 1999; Koberg, et al., 1999). The empowerment of employees is an essential motivator and a technique through which the performance of employees may be enhanced (Meyerson & Dewettinck, 2012). As a consequence of the delegation of power, the employees assume increased responsibility and are granted more independence. The fact that faculty members at educational institutions have power enables them to direct their energy in constructive ways and develop useful, unique ideas for the students (Phillips & Gully, 2012). On the other hand, employees may sometimes misuse their position of authority to further their own personal interests.

Participant R: "...By cooperating one can achieve more. Usually we will deal with the customer individually, sometime we face problem together, I will ask him for advice, or maybe after a chat , some ideas will pop out and that may improve the situation..."

Participant B: "...everyone will have training and we will hold a meeting between staff and leader, talk about what should improve and any problem that they are facing in the work place, all of them will voice out ideas and discuss together..."

Empowering employees without simultaneously giving them with sufficient training might cause a diversion from the organization's main objectives. Employees that have undergone training will have a thorough grasp of their duties and how they relate to the organization's overarching objectives. According to Gullu (2016), employees who get quality training become more enthusiastic and motivated, which has a positive effect on their performance. There is a considerable positive relationship between the training delivered and the employee motivation. According to Naong (2014), persons who engage in a range of training programs are much more committed to their job than those who do not. In addition, job security, a pleasant work environment, and discipline act as additional motivators for the personnel (Lindner, 1998).

Every employee wants to develop their career. The advantages of expansion extend beyond improved remuneration, promotion, and other bonuses. It is about being willing to experiment with

your current job, obtaining new skills, seeking for opportunities to grow, gathering additional knowledge, etc. In contrast, achievement refers to the feeling of having achieved greatness in a certain subject. The degree of desire and ambition each worker has to achieve a goal varies considerably. It varies based on the individual being questioned. For some employees, feeling good about their vocation and the beneficial impact it has on students and society is a driving force. This indicates the employee's perspective on success, which will vary from person to person depending to the topic matter.

Effective education for career advancement

According to Castelli, Centeio, and Nicksic (2013) and Viens, Dubé, and Guay 2019 (cited in Castelli, Centeio, and Nicksic 2013), professional development is the process through which practitioners gain an understanding of their own strengths and limitations and consolidate and update knowledge pertinent to their profession. According to Feyfant (2013) and Viens, Dubé, and Guay (2019), for a change in educational practice to be durable, the change must be embedded in educators' daily practice and support must be offered. A paper analyzing 35 studies on professional teacher development identified seven elements of effective professional development that have a positive impact on the pedagogical practices of teachers and the outcomes for students. 1) a focus on content; 2) active learning; 3) participant engagement; 4) delivery of examples of excellent practice; 5) coaching and help from experts; 6) feedback and reflection; and 7) a program that is

sustained for a long length of time (Darling-Hammond, Hyler, and Gardner 2017). Physical education teacher-specific professional development should encourage individual and collective reflection, provide opportunities for interaction and collaboration, challenge teachers' practices by providing theoretical support, provide opportunities for interaction and collaboration, and be delivered by a competent professional who is aware of and understands what is involved in teachers' day-to-day work (Armour and Yelling 2010; Armour and Makopoulou 2012; Aelterman et al. 2013; Castelli, Centeio, and Nicksic 2013). To this end, the educational consultant plays a crucial role in assisting physical education teachers while taking into account school circumstances. As demonstrated by Castelli, Centeio, and Nicksic (2013) and applied in the present study, the focus of professional development should be content-specific (for example, comparing and contrasting the effects of various motivational strategies) and aligned with teachers' goals regarding students' outcomes (for example, motivating students) (e.g. motivation, effort and intention).

Previous research on intervention studies to train teachers to become more need-supportive (Su and Reeve 2011; Aelterman et al. 2013; Aelterman et al. 2016; Sparks et al. 2017) suggests that effective training should be based on theoretical foundations and empirical evidence presented in brief group sessions (maximum of 3 h) utilizing a variety of media. In addition, good training should include chances for experimentation and practice in the field, and it should be presented in a way that is need-sensitive. To attain this objective and satisfy the standards of action research, participants

must be actively involved in the training process (autonomy-support). In addition, the trainer (such as an educational consultant-EC) should plan activities that will help teachers assimilate motivational strategies (competence-support: structure), provide helpful feedback during field experiments (competence-support: mastery), and provide opportunities for teachers to discuss and share personal experiences with one another (relatedness-support).

Instructions for Employees

Training is one of the most important factors that contributes directly to the development of a company's human resources, making it one of the most important functions. It is a sequence of activities planned by an organization to increase the job knowledge and skills of its workers or to modify the attitudes and social conduct of its members in a manner consistent with the company's goals. Its objective is to increase the organization's success. Therefore, employee training is a process that emphasizes instruction and interaction with employee participants. One of the most essential variables in determining an employee's level of satisfaction and enjoyment at work is the opportunity for them to continue acquiring new skills that will be beneficial to their jobs and careers.

By enrolling in a training program that gives them particular knowledge or skills, employees may increase their overall productivity in their current position. According to Nwachukwu (2004), the objectives of employee training should include increasing productivity, decreasing attrition,

enhancing morale, and promoting goal congruence. According to the results of Shubbin (2007), training and organizational commitment are positively correlated. To demonstrate to organizational decision-makers that employee training and development contributes to desired workplace attitudes, which in turn may influence behaviors such as absenteeism and turnover, he suggested that professionals working in human resource development adopt new research methods. Additionally, Shubbin discovered a favorable correlation between training and organizational commitment. The word "skills development" refers to a larger approach that focuses more on an employee's overall growth and future success than on his or her current role. With the assistance of excellent training and development programs, organizations may increase their profitability and retain the most qualified employees.

Participant J: "...But sometime, colleagues may think that their point of view are right, and this point , I have to let go and let them to try to loss then they will know they are wrong. Some of the clients are trials, which means those are used for them to learn, this may cost a loss for the company but this is a must for training a new colleague..."

Training employees is one of the most crucial components in a company's success. Despite the need of training, a trainer may encounter hostility from both employees and management. It is feasible for members of either group to claim that their training hinders their ability to do their

duties. On the other hand, a trainer may dispute this impression by demonstrating that training is, in reality, an integral part of the work performed by employees and managers. According to Lee and Ejiofor (2004), comprehensive training activities have a positive relationship with productivity, employee desire to resign, and overall firm performance. According to study done by Stoner and Freeman (2007), the availability of learning opportunities in the workplace contributes significantly to an employee's job satisfaction. The workplace employs a wide variety of educational techniques and strategies. Among them are learning ideas and instructional methodologies, goal setting and self control, and a strategy or policy for anticipating decline (Drucker, 2010). Consequently, businesses want to get an early start in planning their programs. According to Ejiofor et al. (2004), some training programs are designed to trigger specific causes, while others concentrate on the general strengths and weaknesses of employees prior to training. There are two different instructional methods. There is off-the-job training, which takes place outside of the workplace, and there is on-the-job training, which takes place inside the office. Training that is both effective and efficient has a positive influence on the productivity of its recipients. When employees get proper training, they report increased job satisfaction and a stronger commitment to the organization's goal and core values.

Training Outside the Workplace

"Off-the-job training" refers to the process of identifying areas of your skill set that might need development and then working to develop and perfect them. It is crucial since the degree of success you will have in achieving your objectives depends on your abilities. The ability and capacity acquired via purposeful, systematic, and prolonged effort to do complex tasks or job duties involving ideas (cognitive abilities), objects (technical skills), and/or people in a fluid and adaptable manner. This talent and capacity may be gained in order to do difficult tasks or work duties (interpersonal skills). Generally speaking, there are three main types of abilities: Both literacy and numeracy represent cognitive abilities. They pertain to the ability to grasp complex ideas, adapt to one's environment, acquire information via experience, and reason. Socio-emotional abilities are the ability to properly handle interpersonal and social situations. Leadership, cooperation, self-control, and perseverance are examples of socio-emotional skills. The word "technical skills" refers to the acquired knowledge, experience, and interactions required to do a certain activity, including the mastery of any required materials, equipment, or technology (Levin, & Indhira, n.d). Employee skill development is at the core of this initiative, which is practically universally recognized as a strategic instrument for an organization's ability to continue to grow, boost productivity, and retain important employees. If firms fail to address particular issues, the process of employee development will become burdensome for the organization, annoying for employees, and ambiguous in terms of its worth to both the organization and the employees.

On-the-job training, often known as OJT, occurs in the setting of a normal working environment, with learners using the same real mechanical assembly, equipment, reports, or documents that they would use after completing their official schooling. It is often assumed that on-the-job training is the most useful way for specialized occupations. The phrase "on-the-job training" refers to the process by which new or newly recruited employees learn on the job by observing how their colleagues or superiors do their jobs and trying to imitate their behavior. The training is either spontaneous or well-planned, and the people under the supervisor's direct supervision receives it from the point bosses. The goal of the work instructional meeting is to equip workers with particular skills and information applicable to the work zone. The information and abilities given during employment training are directly related to the position's requirements. Apprenticeship training, product knowledge training, work course frameworks, and onboarding are some of the most essential types of on-the-job training. While participating in on-the-job training, understudies must complete a progression of activities in sequential order; this is an organized method to the management of training. The technique employs a behavioral framework, lays an emphasis on the development of skills, and mandates the attainment of certain data integrity and procedural objectives. This method is effective for task-oriented responsibilities, such as running a machine. The job teaching approach consists of four stages: planning, demonstrating, experimenting, and tracking. The instructor or supervisor builds a role breakdown while seeing a competent worker do each step of the job function (Mullins, 2002).

Induction training refers to the orientation that a new employee gets when joining a firm or joining a group. The induction training is essential since it allows new workers to get acquainted with the company's operations as early as possible. It is advantageous for both the new employees and the company since it avoids both parties from making expensive errors due to unfamiliarity with the procedures and systems of the new position. Thanks to induction training, new workers are able to become productive and competent in their professions more rapidly (Foot and Hook, 2008). According to Mullins (2002), induction teaches newly recruited staff members a new way of life inside the organization, as well as the norms and procedures of the association and the other staff members. On the other hand, Bailey (2002) makes it clearly evident that the vast majority of onboarding trainings are created with the purpose of fulfilling the association's objectives and have a tendency to be filled with formal authoritative norms and procedures. Product knowledge training aims to equip employees with the knowledge, applicability, capabilities, elements, use, and support needs of the products and services they deliver to consumers. A person like a business deals agent is an example of the kind of person who is often believed to have extensive understanding of the client-facing products and services. Product knowledge is a crucial element of sales ability. Understanding product features helps a business to effectively and convincingly convey to consumers the advantages of its services. Customers are more inclined to buy from companies

whose sales staffs are enthusiastic, passionate, and ready to learn about the product advantages (Koskinen, 2010).

Theme 6: Trainee(s) would normally be given much responsibilities as well as accountabilities and finally organizational identification is formed.

Participant A: "...what makes an organization? Two or more people come together, not to mention war, but playing mahjong, table for four...we need guideline, control, rules...and for how much we commit in the team..."

Participant E: "...through communication, I would be more aware of the difficulties from my staff, in such a way that I would think ahead of how to make behavioral changes...and in most cases actually I would recognize why they behave like this, and thus, I would let them go and do their work as usual..."

Participant M: "...for each branch, I would regard as profit centre. In such circumstance, each branch manager is in charge of his respective branch and he should consider each decision more details, while I would also let him to get certain profit sharing as reward..."

Organizational identification, sometimes referred to as OID, is a different kind of social identification based on the concept of social identity. Over the last two decades, OID is essential for characterizing the behavioral and emotional impacts among employees, has received increasing

attention (Van Dick, 2004; Mael & Ashforth, 1992). According to Mael and Ashforth, OID is "the perception of affiliation or oneness with an organization" (1992). When an employee defines himself or herself in terms of the company to which he or she belongs. Due to the fact that OID serves as a psychological link between the individual and the organization, the individual has a strong cognitive and emotional connection with the organization as a social entity. This friendship is mutually beneficial (Edwards & Peccei, 2007). Organizational identity is regarded to provide a variety of potentially crucial benefits, not just to companies but also to their employees. According to Tüzün and aalar (2008), the extent to which an employee identifies with the organization also increases the extent to which the employee thinks and acts from the organization's perspective. Individuals are more inclined to behave in accordance with their organizations' aims and expectations to the degree that they have a closer connection to such organizations (Dutton, Dukerich & Harquail, 1994).

Over the last few decades, the focus of research has shifted toward constructive organizational scholarship. In contrast, the vast bulk of earlier literature on corporate well-being research has focused on the avoidance of adverse impacts. Within this pattern, the concept of work engagement has evolved as one of the most prominent workplace attitudes and has been linked to individual and organizational success in the context of work. On both the individual and organizational levels, work engagement has been connected with favorable results. Employee engagement is often

characterized as a contributor's emotional and intellectual interest in a firm (Baumruk, 2004), or as the extent to which employees go above and beyond in the execution of their tasks (Frank, Finnegan, & Taylor, 2004). The notion of employee engagement is unique from other work-related concepts, such as intrinsic motivation, job involvement, and job happiness, and it has a greater influence on an organization's capacity to increase the performance levels of its workers (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008).

The researcher used Schaufeli et al.'s "work involvement" for the purposes of this inquiry (2002).

This definition of "work engagement" includes the following elements:

"...a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigour, dedication, and absorption". "Engagement refers to a more permanent and systemic affective-cognitive state instead of a momentary and specific state, which is not based on any specific event, object, individual, or behavior."

According to Schaufeli et al. (2002, p. 74), work engagement consists of the following elements:

(1) a sense of purpose; (2) a sense of belonging; and (3) a sense of autonomy ""Vigor" refers to an elevated level of energy and mental stamina while working, the motivation to exert effort in one's task, and resolve, particularly in the face of obstacles. ; (2) Being actively immersed in one's job and having a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride, and challenge are examples of what is meant by "dedication."; (3) "Absorption" is defined as the state of being completely focused and pleasantly absorbed in one's job; time passes quickly, and one has difficulty detaching from work."

Due to the clear financial and behavioral benefits of employee engagement, its significance cannot be overstated; thus, concern over employee engagement is rising. If it is shown that a culture of employee engagement is helpful to a company's bottom line, then there is no reason not to actively cultivate such a culture. Due to this need, businesses are always searching for ways to push their staff to be more invested in the job they do. 2007; Cole & Bruch, 2006; Avery, McKay, and Wilson, 2007; Cole & Bruch, 2006).

According to global surveys, a significant portion of the workforce is disengaged, distrustful of the company's efforts, and more likely to participate in infectious negativity, which is a gloomy reality for leadership (Dernovsek, 2008; Ellis & Sorensen, 2007). This underlying truth poses a huge challenge for organizational scholars and practitioners who are attempting to increase employee engagement. This has an effect on the performance outcomes of a company, such as employee happiness, productivity, profitability, customer loyalty, and safety. (Ellis & Sorensen, 2007).

A examination of relevant literature indicates that engaged employees are important assets for any organization. However, acquiring an understanding of employee engagement is most effective when done within the context of HR policies, which control the day-to-day experiences of employees at work. Even though it is believed that major HR practices have an impact on

organizational outcomes, there is a scarcity of research that tries to define the employee attitudes that are impacted by certain policies.

Employee engagement is believed by researchers to be a core pro-organization work attitude that may be extracted from OID. It is believed that when workers have a psychological connection to the company and a sense of belonging, they will also feel a strong connection to their work (Giessner, 2011). This extensive link is what motivates employees to be engaged in both their job and their work role.

Both academic academics and seasoned professionals in the area of organizational practice have acknowledged the relevance of the cognitive part of organizational culture for quite some time (Rousseau, 1990). Significantly, the emotional culture of a company, also known as the affective component of organizational culture, has been seen as a mysterious black box that only impacts a select number of the attitudes and behaviors of workers. In contrast to cognitive culture, which determines how members of an organization think and behave, emotional culture provides the limits for how employees feel about their job (Men & Yue, 2019). According to Barsade and O'Neill (2016), some organizations, although a minority, use programs to track how much fun their employees are having at work, while others hire technology professionals to assess employees' emotions monthly, weekly, or even daily. Despite the fact that some progressive organizations are

beginning to find ways to harness a positive emotional culture to achieve organizational effectiveness (Barsade & O'Neill, 2016; Kumar 2017), emotional culture is frequently either poorly managed or not managed at all (Barsade & O'Neill, 2016; Kumar 2017). Numerous organizations are utterly naïve to the importance of emotions in developing the proper culture. Recent empirical research identifies a variety of positive outcomes of a healthy emotional culture. These outcomes include employee job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, employee advocacy, and quality employee-organization interactions, as well as hard measures like as financial performance and absenteeism (Barsade & O'Neill, 2016; Men & Yue, 2019).

Although emotional culture is often referenced in academic, professional, and commercial literature, it has not received a significant amount of scholarly research (Barsade & Knight, 2015). In this study, we built a normative model and experimentally demonstrated the importance of emotional culture in fostering worker identification with organizations, as well as the role of internal communications in fostering emotional culture. Moreover, we highlighted the significance of emotional culture in enhancing employee identification with firms. The objective of the study is a positive emotional culture defined by enjoyment, companionate affection, pride, and gratitude. A culture of enjoyment should govern daily staff interactions (Boyle, 1986; O'Neill & Rothbard, 2017). This culture should be defined by wit, sociability, pleasure, and enjoyment. Companies such as Ubiquity and Vail Resorts, as well as a huge number of start-up enterprises, emphasize having

fun as one of their management guiding principles. Employee flourishing (Hazelton, 2014), goal achievement (e.g., Rhee, 2007), physical and social resource attainment (e.g., O'Neill & Rothbard, 2017), and job success (O'Neill & Rothbard, 2017) are all closely connected with an emotional culture of pleasure.

According to O'Neill and Rothbard (2017) and Rhee (2007), a culture of enjoyment promotes team performance by bringing team members closer together and lowering work-related stress (O'Neill & Rothbard, 2017). In addition, it is linked to the company's profitability, the happiness of its workers, and the satisfaction of its customers (Barsade & O'Neill, 2016; Joyce, 2003). A culture of companionate love, according to Barsade and O'Neill (2014), is characterized by the pervasive presence of support, care, compassion, and affection among the different organizational levels. It differs from the passionate love so prominent in intimate relationships and at home. Companionate love, sometimes referred to as the love between employees, is characterized by warmth, support, and regard for others (Sternberg, 1986). People who reported better levels of job satisfaction, commitment, group connection, increased cooperation, and personal responsibility for work performance worked in cultures that stressed companionate love (Barsade & O'Neill, 2016; Baumeister & Leary, 1995).

In addition, it raises the desire of external stakeholders to be involved in the organization's activities (Barsade, 2002; Barsade & O'Neill, 2014). The frequent use of "us" and "we" by employees suggests a strong emotional culture that puts a premium on companionate attachment. The following is an extract from an interview that Barsade and O'Neill conducted: "We are a family... Everyone watches out for one another... We all watch out for one another" (2014, p. 554). When their teams accomplish success and the group performs cohesively as a unit, employees who feel relevant, valuable, and respected about their professions and firms may foster a culture of pride (Todd & Harris, 2009; Swanson & Kent, 2016). Proud employees are those who have a good feeling of their own self-worth and self-respect and who find their employment rewarding (Tracy & Robins, 2007). In addition, a culture of pride influences a number of organizational outcomes, as evidenced by an increase in organizational identification (Todd & Harris, 2009), work satisfaction (Tyler & Blader, 2001), organizational commitment (Ellemers, Kingma, van de Burgh, & Barreto, 2011), and desire to remain (Ellemers, Kingma, van de Burgh, & Barreto, 2011), and desire to remain (Ellemers, Kingma, van de (Todd & Harris, 2009). (Kraemer & Gouthier, 2014). Therefore, a company's success is seen to benefit from a culture of pride (Katzenbach, 2003). A culture of thankfulness corresponds to an attitude of gratitude and appreciation. An strategy to tackling workplace issues such as rudeness, excessive turnover, and a feeling of entitlement among employees is to cultivate a culture of gratitude among those employees. A culture such as this may be fostered by initially encouraging employees to participate in modest acts of appreciation, such

as hand-written thank-you letters and verbal compliments. Additionally, firms may demonstrate their appreciation for their workers by launching internal public relations or human resources campaigns that emphasize thankfulness (Fehr, Fulmer, Awtrey, & Miller, 2017).

Given the importance of organizational identification to the well-being of both the company and its employees, scholars from a variety of disciplines, including as management, social psychology, and communication, have studied it for decades (Edwards & Peccei, 2010; van Knippenberg & van Schie, 2000). The contemporary idea of organizational identification, which emphasizes a person's strong commitment to and unity with an organization, is developed from the social identity theory (SIT, Tajfel, 1978; Tajfel & Turner, 1986). Tajfel (1978) defines social identity as "the individual's knowledge that he belongs to certain social groups, together with the emotional and value significance of that membership to him." (p. 31). Therefore, identification occurs when individuals identify themselves as members of social categories and attribute to themselves the traits of those categories. Identification also occurs when members of a social group have a sense of belonging and when their participation in the group is recognized (Ashford & Mael, 1989; Smidts et al., 2001). The cognitive and affective components of identification, which are reflected in the conceptualization of identification, suggest that individuals have two fundamental motives: the need for self-categorization, which helps individuals define their place in society, and the need for

self-enhancement, which requires that group membership be rewarding for members' feelings of self-worth (Pratt, 1998; Smidts et al., 2001).

When employees begin to experience a feeling of belonging in a business, they begin to mentally and emotionally identify with that organization. Alternately, they see themselves as members of the organization, feel a feeling of loyalty to the organization, and take pride in being members. Employees that feel a sense of ownership and belonging in their workplace are more likely to adopt the company's basic values, beliefs, and goals, as well as its culture, and to act in a way that benefits the firm (van Knippenberg & van Schie, 2000). Employees also tend to display supportive attitudes and behaviors toward the firm with which they identify, and they like to make decisions that align with the business's objectives (Smidts et al., 2001). Numerous studies in management and communication have demonstrated the positive effects of organizational identification on a variety of employee and organizational outcomes, including increased interpersonal trust, employee retention, collaboration, positive job attitudes, organizational commitment, perceptions of the work environment, and organizational citizenship behavior (Riketta, 2005). In the academic literature, a variety of elements that encourage organizational identity have also been identified. Communication is one of the most important of these factors (Neill, Men, & Yue, 2019; Sha, 2009; Smidts et al., 2001), alongside organizational leadership (Epitropaki & Martin, 2005), perceived organizational support (Edwards & Peccei, 2010; Wiesenfeld, Raghuram, & Garud, 2001),

perceived external image or construed external image (Edwards & Peccei, 2010; Wiesenfeld (Epitropaki & Martin, 2005).

According to Myers et al. (2016), the cornerstone of organizational identification is the symbolic tie between organizational members and the organization, and such a connection cannot be established without proper leadership and organizational-level communications. Cheney (1983) stated that firms might facilitate employee identification by communicating their values and goals to their workers. The positive communication climate of an organization, exemplified by openness and trust in communication, participation (the perception of having a voice in decision making), and supportiveness (the feeling of being taken seriously), is a significant factor in employees' feelings of identification with the organization, according to the findings of some research (Neill et al., 2019; Smidts et al., 2001). In a similar manner, employee satisfaction with the organization's overall communication atmosphere and supervisory communication were both associated with increased employee identification. This discovery was reported by Nakra (2006), who underlined the importance of communication not just from the organization's leaders but also from the organization itself. In keeping with this line of thinking, the current study suggests that leadership communication in the form of deploying motivating language and the organization's symmetrical internal communication have the ability to favorably influence how employees perceive organizational identity.

To be more specific, when leaders communicate to employees the organization's fundamental values, mission, vision, history, and cultural heritage by employing meaning-making language (Mayfield & Mayfield, 2018), it helps reveal the organization's unique identity and distinctiveness, thereby facilitating members' ability to self-categorize. Moreover, leaders that use meaningful language make it their duty to connect the personal objectives of their employees with the corporate goals. This kind of technique aids employees in internalizing organizational characteristics, values, and practices as elements of their own self-identity, which has the potential to improve organizational identification. In fact, leadership researchers have long established that charismatic and transformational leadership actions, such as articulating a compelling vision, emphasizing shared values, and stimulating the collective level of workers' self-identity, increase employees' identification with the organization (Epitropaki & Martin, 2005; Kark & Shamir, 2002). Similarly, workers have a propensity to connect themselves with beneficial affiliations (Ashford & Mael, 1989). Therefore, the employment of supportive, loving, and compassionate empathetic language by leaders may influence workers to have a good attitude toward the business, so boosting their identification and ties with it. According to this line of reasoning, the use of direction-giving language by leaders clarifies role and task expectations, provides feedback for employee improvement, and reduces ambiguity, all of which promote an atmosphere of openness and

transparency; such characteristics could also enhance employees' positive experiences within the organization, thereby enhancing their sense of belonging to the organization.

Scholars have conceptualized the potential effects of leadership styles and/or supervisory actions on workers' self-concepts inside the organization, such as employees' degrees of identification with their bosses. Specifically, since workers have connections with their leaders, the actions and attitudes of their leaders inside the business serve as contextual clues. This not only helps workers to perceive their work settings, but also transforms their direction away from their personal self-interest and toward the organization's general interest. In this regard, employees often acquire the feeling that their bosses, who are representatives of their firms, value them; hence, they tend to form a strong affiliation with the organizations for which they work.

We propose the positive effects of servant leadership on employees' organizational identification, which is consistent with the line of research that suggests there is a connection between desirable leadership styles and employees' identification with the companies for which they work. To be more precise, servant leaders represent the organization as one that cultivates and supports an environment conducive to the personal development of followers and a positive perception of the organization's image held by those followers. As a result, individuals (i.e., employees) are more likely to find the business attractive and to strongly connect with the organization. In addition, since

leaders are seen as embodiments of the company, servant leadership helps build the bond between employees and the corporation. When their leader exhibits a leadership style based on the principle of servanthood, employees will perceive that their specific needs are being satisfied. This may be shown by activities such as providing concerns, supports, and resources. As a consequence, employees tend to develop a strong attachment with the organization.

Theme 7: The extent to which the servant leadership could be applied in training program would be depended on managerial level.

Participant P: "...it is hard to apply since staff are mostly frontline...in which the skill set is not demanding, or just routine..."

Participant E: "...it is all about managerial training, in which leadership skills are discussed..."

There are several leadership styles, but servant leadership stands out from the others. This type of leadership differs from others in that it focuses a greater emphasis on addressing the needs of followers, encourages followers to get active in the wider community in which the business is located, and displays servant leadership characteristics for followers to imitate (Greenleaf, 1970). If the leader is to prioritize the needs of the followers above his or her own, he or she must have a thorough awareness of each follower's unique values, concerns, and talents. This presents an issue that is not experienced by managers who utilize command and control tactics to enforce compliance.

However, the study reveals that remarkable outcomes may be achieved when leaders make the effort to identify the exact ways necessary to bring out each follower's greatest potential. Even when controlling for two theories that dominate the leadership literature, leader-member exchange (LMX) and transformational leadership, servant leadership has been shown to be more effective (Dinh et al., 2014; Eva, Robin, Sendjaya, van Dierendonck, & Liden, 2019; Lee, Lyubovnikova, Tian, & Knight, 2020; Lemoine, Hartnell, & Leroy, 2019). (Peterson, Galvin, & Lange, 2012).

Those with a strong sense of self-interest are more inclined to prioritize their own health. This may lead individuals to be less confident and certain about how to help others; in contrast, those with a low degree of self-interest tend to have a stronger belief in their ability to aid others. Using the social learning theory as a basis, we claim that servant leadership plays a greater role in enhancing the serving self-efficacy of people with a high degree of self-interest in order to encourage these individuals to participate in acts that benefit others. Greenleaf (1970) introduced servant leadership was profound in many respects; nevertheless, his argument that servant leaders may inspire followers to engage in servant leadership activities was perhaps the most significant feature. Greenleaf's paper is more of a philosophical claim than a theory, and it is up to succeeding academics to create and confirm a theory that can explain the text's underlying premises (Graham, 1991; Liden, Panaccio, et al., 2014; van Dierendonck, 2011).

The social learning theory of Albert Bandura (1977) claims a range of mechanisms through which people acquire skills via interactions with others, often from those with higher rank, experience, or influence, such as leaders. This action is taken to achieve this objective. As agents of behavioral change, leaders may influence their followers not only by providing direct encouragement, instruction, and corrective feedback (Bandura & Cervoni, 1986), but also by demonstrating desired behaviors via the practice of role modeling. Bandura stressed the significance of the credibility and expertise of the source of change for any of these strategies aimed to alter target behaviors. If one desires to effectively alter the behavior of another person, the source of change must be trustworthy and educated. Leaders that prioritize servicing their followers are in an advantageous position to influence the conduct of their followers. Because servant leaders prioritize the needs of their followers and exhibit a genuine concern for their welfare (Liden et al., 2008), followers see servant leaders as trustworthy agents of change. As a result, they are more open to attempts to adjust their behaviour (Powell, 1965).

Although conceptual and empirical analyses of the effect of servant leadership on followers are enlightening, a crucial point that is often overlooked is whether or not followers are equally susceptible to the influence of servant leadership. To circumvent this limitation, we are interested in finding the role that follower dispositional self-interest plays in deciding the extent to which servant leaders are effective at developing helping behaviors among their followers. A large number

of academic subdisciplines, including evolutionary biology, economics, and psychoanalytic theory, hold as a core principle that people's behaviors are largely driven by their own self-interest (Miller, 1999). Self-interest has been acknowledged in social psychology for a very long time as a powerful motivation (Gerbasí & Prentice, 2013). Individuals with a focus on the self are preoccupied with achieving personal accomplishment and actively engage in actions designed to fulfill their own objectives. This concern motivates the person to take actions geared toward accomplishing their objectives. Survival requires that all people devote at least some attention to self-preservation, yet there is a vast variation in the extent to which individuals prioritize their own self-interest. Despite the fact that all persons must pay at least some attention to self-preservation, this is the case (Darwin, 1859; De Dreu, 2006; Meglino & Korsgaard, 2004, 2006). Although the pursuit of one's own personal objectives may serve as a source of motivation for individuals to accomplish activities and achieve goals that help to the success of their professions, an excessive emphasis on one's own wants might inhibit actions aimed towards benefiting others (De Dreu & Nauta, 2009).

Narcissism is a psychological characteristic defined by an inordinate preoccupation with oneself. As shown by studies on narcissism (Grijalva, Harms, Newman, Gaddis, & Fraley, 2015), a personality characteristic defined by an excessive concentration on oneself, the propensity of people to concentrate attention on themselves varies considerably. It should not be surprising that followers give leaders who are more narcissistic lower scores for servant leadership behaviors

(Peterson et al., 2012). We argue that, in the same manner that self-focused leaders are less likely to be focused on helping others, followers with a high level of self-interest are unlikely to participate in servant leadership practices if they are not encouraged to do so by self-focused leaders. This is due to the fact that self-focused followers are more likely to be driven by self-interest. We argue that manager servant leadership is crucial to persuading highly self-interested followers to engage in activities that benefit others.

According to Grant and Patil (2012), a person's tendency to be self-centered may be overcome when a high-status individual challenges the emphasis on self-interest by demonstrating activities that benefit others. Grant and Patil define challengers as individuals who labor for a goal that is against their own self-interest (2012). One of the most essential tasks of servant leaders, according to our view, is to act as challengers who call into question the status quo of focusing on one's own self-interest by assisting followers in gaining the skills required to become servant leaders themselves (Greenleaf, 1970). In actuality, we contend that followers with a high degree of self-interest are the ones most likely to be persuaded by a servant leader. Followers with a high level of self-interest are more likely to participate in beneficial behaviors independent of the leader's activities, while followers with a low level of self-interest have the ability to experience major behavioral change. This is because their natural inclination is to focus on what is most advantageous for oneself, to the exclusion of thinking how others may be helped (Miller, 1999). Therefore,

servant leaders have a greater opportunity to convince followers who are strongly driven by their own self-interest to engage in a greater degree of service-oriented activities. People with a high degree of self-interest are incapable of considering the needs and interests of others since they are preoccupied with their own desires and objectives (De Dreu & Nauta, 2009).

As a consequence, servant leaders play a vital role in transforming those driven by their own self-interest into servant followers by demonstrating serving behaviors for these individuals. By obtaining expertise from servant leaders, these individuals may develop the skills required to consider the needs of others and give assistance to others. As a consequence, individuals have a better feeling of self-assurance in their abilities to serve others, and they engage in more activities that involve assisting others. Conversely, there is a ceiling effect for followers with low self-interest since they are already focused on assisting others. This is because they have no desire to increase their own fortune. In summary, servant leaders need not necessarily persuade followers who are already highly immersed in serving behaviors to participate in serving behaviors. This is due to the fact that such followers already demonstrate servant qualities. In actuality, they already have complete confidence in their capacity to serve others. As a result, servant leaders play a lesser role in influencing the activities of their followers towards servicing the needs of others.

According to common wisdom, servant leadership primarily influences the helping actions of followers when those followers are strongly driven by their own self-interest, as was found. In addition, we shed light on the mediation process and demonstrate that the interaction impact of manager servant leadership and follower self-interest on follower serving actions is communicated through follower serving self-efficacy. This was achieved by examining the results of a survey sent to a group of individuals who had previously participated in a research on servant leadership.

Even though it has been claimed that servant leaders foster follower participation in helping behaviors via modeling and direct connection with followers, it was previously unclear if servant leaders could do this with all followers. Because it was unknown if servant leaders were capable of achieving this (Liden, Panaccio, et al., 2014). Prior to this time, neither the underlying psychological mechanism that underlies the link between manager servant leadership style and follower serving behavior had been investigated. We suggested, based on the social learning theory, that in the presence of a servant leader, followers who are high in self-interest would enhance their confidence in serving and participation in serving behaviors to a larger degree than followers who are low in self-interest.

This would be the case regardless of the servant leader's own degree of self-interest. We reasoned and discovered that persons with a low degree of self-interest need less instruction or incentive to

engage in behaviors that benefit others. This is due in part to their existing trust in their ability to aid others. In actuality, people do not need the supervision of servant leaders in order to engage in service-oriented activities. In fact, extremely self-interested followers would benefit more from servant leaders, since servant leaders play a significant role in increasing their serving self-efficacy. This is due to the fact that servant leaders play a crucial role in improving their serving self-efficacy. Because servant leaders make it their goal to understand the attributes, needs, ambitions, and potential of each of their followers, they may identify those who are mainly driven by their own self-interest and then seek to improve their ability to aid others. It is conceivable for servant leaders to attempt to inspire confidence in their followers who are driven by self-interest in terms of their capacity to aid others. Although this hypothesis was not tested in the current study, it is possible that servant leaders make more efforts to instill servant leadership in those who follow them with self-serving purposes.

Trickle-Down Effect of Servant Leadership

The influence of a servant-leadership model on the level of service offered by workers is supported by Greenleaf's 1970 premise that servant leaders meet the needs of their followers by fostering the growth of other servant leaders among those followers. This shows that servant leadership has a cascading impact along the organizational structure (Aryee et al., 2007). In a hierarchical organization, supervisors in lower-level positions may see their immediate superiors as role models

and watch them to acquire the values, standards, and behaviors that are desirable or acceptable in the company. This is due to the fact that supervisors learn the values, standards, and acceptable behaviors of the business through watching their immediate superiors (Bandura, 1977). In the current study, we assume that managers would see their immediate superiors (i.e., high-level servant managers) as role models and will model their own leadership styles after those of their immediate superiors, so becoming servant leaders themselves. In addition, given that one of the primary objectives of servant managers is to promote servant leadership among their followers (Greenleaf, 1970), a servant manager may inform his or her followers that he or she expects them to become servant leaders and, as a result, provide professional and personal guidance to followers (i.e., immediate supervisors) to encourage them to adopt servant leadership. Because one of the key purposes of servant management is to develop servant leaders among followers, this is the case (Liden et al., 2014).

The ripple effect of servant leadership will ultimately influence the service performance of frontline employees. In other words, the servant leadership shown by managers has the potential to have a cross-level effect on the service performance of frontline employees through the mediating role provided by analogous leadership behaviors demonstrated by direct supervisors. People have a tendency to copy models with status, competence, and authority; nevertheless, the extent to which people believe they resemble the models is a significant variable that has the ability to influence

the actual modeling process (Bandura, 1977; Goldstein and Sorcher, 1974). People prefer to pick a socially and psychologically close individual as a model for learning and imitating acts, rather than a remote one. This is because people find it simpler to connect to others in close proximity. Therefore, the leadership of direct supervisors may have a greater impact on the attitudes and behaviors of employees (Cole et al., 2009). Such effects may develop as a consequence of direct managers having tighter and more frequent relationships with employees, as well as a stronger capacity to correctly interpret rules and swiftly implement incentives or penalties (Liu et al., 2012; Mayer et al., 2009). Therefore, we argue that high-level managers may instill their service-oriented ideas and practices in frontline employees if they are able to persuade the direct supervisors of their direct reports to become servant leaders. As a consequence, we predict a trickle-down effect, in which the servant leadership of senior-level managers will first trickle down to direct supervisors and then influence the service performance of front-line employees.

Theme 8: Servant leadership would tend to be more industry-specific to those sales / labor-intensive industries.

Participant K: "...since it is special for our industry, we may need to handle for all process. our boss can help, although every company are different, the process are the same, we need to

think what customers wants. my boss is willing to help and he is open minded and he can give a lot of good suggestion...”

Participant H: “...we are quite different from other general office work...in insurance industry, personality and value would be changed over time and influenced by each other, including your boss and teammates...”

Participant L: “...we could not compare performance of staff from different functions...or we could not compare if staff could cross-selling how much the quantity of certain tea set...everyone has his function and job duty in the company...”

The sales industry is sometimes referred to be a labor-intensive sector since interactions and contacts between managers, employees, and consumers are so prominent. This is because the sales sector is mostly focused on individuals. During times of crisis, it is more sensitive than other industries since any change inside the company or in the external environment impedes the normal operation of the organization. This renders it more vulnerable to the crisis's impacts. Despite this, it is impossible to overstate the significance of leadership on the activities of managers and on achieving the maximum possible performance (Kim & Brymer, 2011; Zumitzavan & Udchachone , 2014). It is plausible to predict that leadership may have a substantial influence on both the human resources and organizational performance of a company, given the sector's tendency to face additional challenges during times of crisis and its more competitive environment. As a result, it

may be advantageous to have leadership skills in order to handle the pressures of a dynamic workplace and a crisis.

The first notions of leadership focused almost exclusively on the effort to get a greater understanding of the leader's impact on the performance of the company, as well as the behaviors and talents that led to enhanced effectiveness. One opinion asserts that some leaders, almost invariably males, are born with certain natural attributes that give them an edge over others and contribute to their greater stature (Mann, 1959). Zumitzavan and Udchachone (2014) described a variety of leadership styles, including transformational leadership and transactional leadership, which positively impact an organization's success. Behavioral theories postulated that individuals may be taught and trained to become leaders by using certain skills and methods. In addition to behavioral characteristics, scholarly research suggests that training in emotional intelligence, which emphasizes social skills and emotional regulation, may aid leaders in communicating their enthusiasm to their followers (Shum et al., 2018). When examining what creates a successful leadership strategy, contingent theories include the several circumstances-dependent leadership components (Taormina, 2008). The contingency hypothesis states that leaders should be more adaptable in terms of their specialities, skills, and competences while confronting diverse situations (Taormina, 2008).

In more recent study done by Clarke (2018), the author concluded that the most popular approaches to leadership in organizations are based on three components: the qualities of leaders, the actions of leaders, and the setting. Researchers examining leadership behaviors want to understand how leaders organize their teams of employees so that they may advance the business by focusing on the completion of certain tasks (Ogbeide, 2011). In order to successfully inspire subordinates' job performance and reactions to workplace changes, it has been shown that leaders need not necessarily adapt their own behavior to be more participatory, supportive, and directive, as other studies have advised (Ogbeide, 2011).

According to Yukl (1989), transformational leaders are individuals who shift an organization's perception of its members and endeavor to improve employee commitment to the organization's goals. Transformational leaders, as described by Bass et al. (2003), are individuals who are capable of altering the attitudes of an organization's members about the most crucial components of their employment. If their leaders embrace the aforementioned approach, it is likely that workers will be driven to redefine how they think about their own growth and the obstacles presented by the environment. (Bass et al., 2003). Boyne (2010) studied the studies on leadership in the hotel sector and concluded that leaders must use a more flexible approach to successfully manage continuous change. He stated that the transformational leadership paradigm would be a suitable tool for this

objective. According to the conclusions of Mutch's study (2020), the hotel industry's dynamic environment needed that executives be able to manage organizational change by offering vision and direction, as well as by considering the broader picture. This was important so that the groups could assimilate into their surroundings.

Transformational leadership varies from conventional leadership in terms of (1) charisma, (2) inspiring motivation, (3) intellectual stimulation, and (4) personalized consideration, according to Kara et al. (2013). These charismatic leaders establish trust, provide vision, and instill a sense of purpose, all of which are based on their ability to form and maintain relationships with people (Stone et al., 2004; Van Velsor & Ascalon, 2008). They encourage others who follow them by establishing high standards for themselves and encouraging them to strive towards accomplishing common goals. The climate created by transactional leadership encourages workers to be innovative, which in turn increases job satisfaction in the business.

A transactional leader, on the other hand, has a propensity to rely largely on penalties and rewards to motivate employee performance and place more emphasis on the completion of tasks. This style of leader focuses achieving results (Tracey & Hinkin, 1994). For instance, the subordinates "exchange" awards for their effort, loyalty, and performance with their supervisors. Therefore, the major objective of transactional leadership is to enhance the performance of subordinates in order

for them to fulfill the criteria indicated in their job descriptions. These executives often participate in behaviors associated with contingent remuneration and expectation-based management (Kara et al., 2013). However, in contrast to transactional leadership, transformational leadership motivates followers to exert greater effort toward the achievement of organizational goals, and as a result, followers are able to go beyond what was previously expected of them (Boyne, 2010).

In the hotel industry, studies from a new perspective, namely the servant leadership style, are gaining greater attention. Instead of being in command of the whole business, executives who practice servant leadership prioritize the welfare of people they oversee. A servant leader is one who prioritizes the needs, individual growth, goals, and well-being of their subordinates above the needs, aims, and well-being of the firm (Brownell, 2010; Van Dierendonck, 2011; Bouzari & Karatepe, 2017). Several empirical studies have been undertaken to determine what differentiates servant leadership from other types of leadership (Eva et al., 2019, Liden et al., 2008; Van Dierendonck, 2011). Both servant leadership and transformational leadership have similar objectives, but servant leadership emphasizes the influence of leaders serving their followers and enhancing their job satisfaction, whereas transformational leadership emphasizes the influence of leaders serving their followers and enhancing their job satisfaction. This contrast in core emphasis distinguishes servant leadership from transformative leadership. (Bavik, 2020; Liden et al., 2008; Van Dierendonck, 2011).

Employees that demonstrate customer-oriented behavior (also known as COB) are becoming an increasingly crucial success component for service-oriented firms. In the real world, a growing number of companies that wish to differentiate themselves on the basis of superior customer service require their frontline service employees to demonstrate appropriate behaviors that meet customer expectations, deliver the service, and increase customer satisfaction, commitment, and loyalty. In this context, scholars have investigated the elements that may predict COB and highlighted the influence that various leadership styles, such as transformational leadership and empowering leadership, have on enhancing the quality of service that employees provide to customers. Because a leader is the closest influencer in social circumstances, it is crucial to comprehend how a leader's behavior may serve as a model that influences the behavior of employees. In this line of research, a rising number of studies have emphasized the benefits of servant leadership as a helpful leadership method for encouraging employees to produce desired outcomes such as service quality and organizational citizen behaviors. One of the most essential characteristics of servant leadership is that it prioritizes the needs of the followers before the leader's own. Servant leadership is a style of people-centered leadership that emphasizes serving both internal employees and external customers or clients. The term refers to "developing employees to their fullest potential in terms of task effectiveness, community stewardship, self-motivation, and future leadership capabilities." Frontline service employees who are led by servant-leadership go beyond the limitations of self-

interest and are held accountable for the customers' welfare. However, previous study provides little evidence of a potential positive relationship between servant leadership and employees' COB.

A sense of service is the cornerstone of servant leadership and one of its most important traits. In other words, a servant leader has a strong conviction that assisting others (such as workers and customers) is his or her primary job, and as a result, his or her leadership action is naturally influenced by service consciousness. This is what makes a servant leader distinct from other sorts of leaders. Specifically, servant leadership is characterized by three important characteristics. These include a focus on the firm rather than on themselves as individuals and an orientation toward others. The objective of servant leaders in the workplace is to prioritize the psychological and material needs of their employees and to acquire a knowledge of those needs in order to foster an environment in which individuals may realize their full potential. Employers increase the probability that their employees will attain both high levels of professional success and personal growth when they take this action.

We propose a favorable relationship between servant leadership and workers' COB based on past research demonstrating the advantages of servant leadership in supporting employees' preferred outcomes in the service sector. This relationship is predicated on the notion that servant leadership is positively associated with employee results. Customer oriented behavior (COB) refers, in

principle, to the goal of attaining customer pleasure while providing services, the practice of giving client interests greater priority based on customer needs, and the quick changing of service behavior. According to the study results, there are three key factors that contribute to COB: the physical characteristics of the service personnel, the service environment, and the constancy of the service workers' emotions. Therefore, as a service-oriented contextual factor, servant leadership is expected to foster employees' motivation to provide service to their customers; this expectation is based on the service-orientation of the contextual factor.

Empirical study indicates that employees with a strong sense of emotional identity are more likely to put in extra effort to finish their task (such as serving their customers), exhibiting a higher level of dedication to their profession. On the other side, when employees are not treated and supported reasonably, they are more prone to exhibit poor service behaviors. Given that the service environment has a direct effect on the service behavior of service employees toward customers, a pleasant service environment assists service workers in providing better service. In addition, employees often see their leader as a role model and imitate his or her behavior. When a servant leader runs an organization, employees are more inclined to prioritize the needs of others before their own (e.g., customers). In other words, employees with this service orientation are more likely to provide customers with high-quality service in an attempt to gain their pleasure.

Theoretically and empirically, organizational identification has positive effects on interpersonal behaviors such as organizational citizenship behaviors and cooperative behaviors. The favorable impacts of organizational identity on organizational citizenship activities are suggested to account for these advantages. Positive attitudes attributable to employees' positions at work may be bolstered by expanding chances for organizational identification, which may increase the frequency of such occurrences. Thus, when an employee has a strong connection to his or her employer, he or she is more likely to perceive the task's significance, which in turn pushes him or her to invest more energy and effort while working. To be more precise, employees demonstrate COB because service-oriented professions need a high level of employee engagement. In addition, studies have observed that organizational identification greatly increases an individual's positive emotional connection to a company, given that it signifies the bond between workers and businesses. This is because organizational identity represents the bond between workers and their organizations. According to previous study, the ability or motivation to offer acceptable service to one's customers is connected with the degree to which one consistently feels positive emotions.

In addition to serving as role models to influence the behaviors and viewpoints of their followers, leaders also reflect the enterprise's management philosophy. A servant leader's service-oriented behavior indicates to followers that the organization prioritizes meeting the needs of others. In this scenario, employees who identify strongly with their companies see their servant leaders as role

models by watching, mimicking, and adopting their (i.e., the leaders') actions and attitudes. As a consequence, these employees have a predisposition to participate in servant-oriented workplace activities, such as delivering more and better customer service.

Theme 9: There is non-monetary benefit as training motivation and training effectiveness would thus be enhanced under servant leadership.

Participant N: "...Flexible work schedule, like xxx, he is 60 , he has a baby daughter , he is able to take care about family and business..."

Participant O: "...In food and beverage, it really depends on the size of the company. if it is a small company, the Promotion chance will be fewer because it is less people. If there is a branch, The chance of promotion increases. When it has been promoted the training will be increased to since there will be different things to do and working scope will be larger, therefore It is depends The company size to give a training to staff..."

According to Maslow's (1943) theory of hierarchy, the most basic needs of any worker are their physical needs, such as hunger or thirst. These are the kind of requirements that cannot be addressed without sufficient financial resources. One of the most significant contributors to an employee's level of motivation is his or her income or compensation (Sutton, 1985). In most circumstances, it

has been seen that an employee's motivation increases when they get enough remuneration for the task they do, resulting in an increase in their productivity (Bishop,1987). The benefits also play an important role in the equation. When employees are rewarded with incentives for reaching a certain objective, it not only increases their motivation, but also has a significant impact on their level of productivity (Lai, 2009). The institution's leadership must make a commitment to preserving impartiality in all of its judgments. It is of the highest significance that monetary awards be allocated evenly across employees, since this has a direct influence on employee motivation and also increases their overall level of performance (Garbers & Konradt, 2014).

Employees are motivated when they are rewarded for their outstanding performance. It has turned into one of the most essential sources that may drive employees at present moment. Management is responsible for establishing an effective incentive structure inside the organizational structure. This will motivate employees, ultimately leading to an increase in their output (Richard & Burton, 2014). Utilizing an incentive system strategically may increase the amount of productivity obtained by staff (Thompson et al., 2005).

In addition to monetary gains, there are other non-monetary incentives, each of which plays a significant role in the big picture. There are times when a person's compensation is insufficient to motivate them. It's likely that a worker's salary is the single most important element in determining

their degree of motivation, but when combined with other sorts of incentives, you'll get far greater outcomes (Houran & Kefgen, 2007).

The importance of non-monetary benefits should not be underestimated. Employees may be inspired to do their duties more effectively and efficiently if they are acknowledged for their efforts (Fuhrmann, 2006). This assertion was further supported by Laliberte, Hewitt, and Larson (2003), who emphasized that valuing employees' labor increases both productivity and employee retention. This assertion was corroborated by Laliberte, Hewitt, and Larson, among others (2003). In addition to the monetary advantages, they get from their professions, employees increasingly seek for other kinds of motivation. They put equal importance on these intangible rewards and monetary remuneration. Employees may be encouraged by benefits such as prolonged vacations and team-building exercises (Whitaker, 2010).

According to Kazi et al. (2012), while evaluating the competitiveness of various organizations, leadership, and enterprises, the relevance of job satisfaction and organizational growth should be taken into account. It is feasible to claim that employees are the organization's most significant asset, given that without them, many organizations would be unable to continue developing and leaders would not be exposed to new difficulties that enable them to develop their skills. Employees often decide whether or not to stay with a firm based on their level of job satisfaction. According

to Kazi et al. (2012), an individual's behaviour and attitude toward his or her work are associated with job satisfaction. Several distinct emotions may contribute to an individual's sense of work satisfaction. One aspect of an employee's employment may be enjoyable, while another may drive them insane.

Job satisfaction is described as a comprehensive appraisal, a combination of psychological and environmental variables that generates a positive emotional state of experience, attitude, and belief about the job, as well as a positive emotional state of being at work (Han and Kakabadse, 2009). According to Currivan (2000), work satisfaction is only the degree of a person's favorable attitude toward his occupation. According to Vroom (1964), who was quoted by Raziq (2015), job satisfaction is a crucial component of an employee's motivation, and it contributes to improved overall performance. Goris et al. (2000), on the other hand, identified five major components of work satisfaction. In addition to salary, these factors include the job itself, the quality of supervision, the relationship with coworkers, and the potential for growth.

Job satisfaction is one of the key areas of attention in the study of organizational behavior and practices connected to the management of human resources, since it reflects both an employee's attitude toward their work and their loyalty to the company. Therefore, leaders are morally obligated to create a fulfilling work environment for their workers, since they are aware that pleased

individuals contribute positively to the firm via improved productivity, better quality goods and services, and less waste. Consequently, it may be prudent to investigate how human resources policies and processes influence job satisfaction. According to the claims of some academics, a company's human resources have the potential to become its only sustainable source of competitive advantage (Porter, 1985; Berisha, 2015). According to Pfeffer (1998), a human resources system may aid in the creation of a work force that generates contributions that are valuable, unique, and difficult for rivals to reproduce. At the organizational level, Arthur (1994) and Huselid (1995) conducted research to illustrate that human resources strategies influence organizational outcomes by altering the behavior and attitude of members. Their separate conclusions were published in 1994 and 1995. According to Whitener (2001), members of an organization may consider actions made by the organization, such as human resource processes and management's trust, as evidence of the organization's commitment to the members. Members of the organization constantly modify their level of dedication to the group.

Several studies have examined the influence of organizational culture on the various kinds of human resources development programs performed by firms. Several researchers, including Hofstede (1980), Ouchi (1981), Hofstede and Bond (1988), Kotter and Heskett (1992), Magee (2002), and Omotayo (2013), have argued that organizational culture contributes to the provision of opportunities and broad structures for the development of technical skills and human resources

behavior within an organization. Given that ethical ideas are the motivating force behind moral behaviour, this makes perfect sense. By incorporating ethical principles into an organization's culture, leaders may influence the behavior of their people. Alternatively, cultural features may be a source of competitive advantage, resulting in variances in organizational dominance (Barney, 1991; and Peters and Waterman, 1984). The fast expansion of technology has had an influence on human resource development activities at both the global and organizational levels, which are experiencing substantial alterations. Furthermore, the sequence in which relative trust, values, and assumptions are developed differs amongst organizations.

During the 1990s, both the theory and practice of servant leadership expanded significantly. The long-term goals of servant leadership, as described by Spears (1998), include a transformation in life and work as a consequence of a more optimistic outlook. According to Beekun and Badawi (2004), the core tenet of Islamic tradition is servant leadership. "Leaders are the servants of the people they lead; they watch out for the well-being of their followers and steer them in the right direction." Beekun and Badawi alluded to a saying ascribed to a Muslim prophet that relates a leader's sincere concern for his people with their salvation. Teamwork, a sense of community, a flat organizational structure, and a focus on people are all promoted by servant leadership, which also emphasizes ethics, vigilance, and quality inside an organization (Greenleaf in Spears, 1998). Moreover, San Juan (2005) defined servant leaders as people in positions of leadership who see

power in terms of responsibility and service. These leaders have the intestinal fortitude to address concerns of personal and society growth. San Juan elaborated that a servant leader is someone who freely assumes the position of change agent and leads with spirituality, honesty, and truth. (Paramita et al., 2016) Multiple studies have shown that servant leadership and organizational culture have a positive and large effect on job satisfaction. Additionally, it has been shown that human resource procedures have the same effect (Adhinugroho, 2016).

The word leader is the most essential component of the notion of leadership. A leader is a person who may have either direct or indirect influence on the others he leads (Wirawan, 2013). A leader is a person with the ability to exert influence on others and managerial authority (Setyowati, 2013). According to the same source, leadership is the power to exert influence on others and inspire them to do their assigned tasks efficiently. According to the opinions of some academics, leadership is an activity that has the capacity to inspire individuals to collaborate for the achievement of common goals (Ali, 2012).

A leadership style called as servant leadership places an emphasis on assisting others around you above everything else (Daft, 2014). The notion of servant leadership emphasizes assisting others, adopting a complete approach to one's work, fostering a deeper sense of community, and including others in decision-making (Smith 2005). According to Northouse, who is referenced in the same

source, "servant leadership" is a leadership style that is strong in terms of compassion and ethics, and it requires the leader to pay close attention to the needs of the group members and to have empathy for them. To fulfill the position of a servant leader, a person must demonstrate care for the people under their charge by trying to enhance their physical and mental health, as well as their autonomy and degree of freedom. According to Lantieri, the 10 attributes of servant leadership include listening, empathy, healing, awareness, persuasion, conceptualization, the capacity to anticipate, stewardship, dedication to people's progress, and community building (2007). In a following research, Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) incorporated a new feature dubbed "Calling." Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) developed a scale for gauging servant leadership by categorizing these 11 characteristics into five distinct groups. The following five factors should be considered: The five pillars that comprise the altruistic calling are wisdom, emotional healing, persuasive mapping, and organizational stewardship.

Human resource management strategies, which are routine business processes, are the most effective means of managing the activities of people inside a company. It is often referred to as management (Delaney and Huselid, 1996). According to the results of previous research, HR methods may be "best practices" or "advanced" (Hornsby and Kuratko, 1990; Goss et al., 1994; Golhar and Deshpande, 1997; Quansah, 2013). According to Quansah (2013), the term "human resources practices" is the one that best represents this issue. The functional activities and strategic

plans that comprise human resources practices are what contribute to an improvement in the quality of service offered to employees and an increase in the organization's revenues (Mayhew, 2012). The term "best practices" refers to a process that has been used effectively to attain a particular outcome. Each discipline within the field of human resources has its own set of best practices. However, recruitment and selection, employee relations, and compensation and benefits are the areas where optimum human resource strategies may provide the best return on investment.

According to Mansour (2015), human resource management activities include Human Resources Planning, recruitment, participation and engagement, training and development, performance evaluation, and compensation. According to Bratton and Gold's (2007) definition, human resource planning is "a process of methodically anticipating the future demand and supply for individuals and spreading their talents in accordance with the strategic goals of the business." Human resource planning helps firms to predict how changes in company strategy will affect their requirement for personnel (Werner and DeSimone, 2006). Planning for people needs is of the utmost importance, especially in view of the rapid fluctuations in demand from the external market. Koch and McGrath (1996) found a connection between strategic human resource planning and enhanced worker productivity. According to Bratton and Gold (2007), recruitment is the process of developing a group of individuals who are employable by the company, while selection is the process by which managers and others use specialized tools to pick the best qualified applicant(s) for the position.

Recruitment and selection are procedures that occur prior to an individual's employment with an organization (s). All potential candidates are made aware of the management's objectives and legal requirements. Employers that apply efficient selection methods throughout the recruiting process may be certain that they will be able to fill available jobs with competent and qualified candidates (Pfeffer, 1994; Huselid, 1995). Koch and McGrath (1996) discovered a link between the recruitment, selection, training, and development of human resources and higher labor productivity. Moreover, they discovered that this association was positive.

Theme 10: Servant leadership is quite difficult to be applied in design stage of the training program, but would subject very much to the implementation of trainers.

It is widely acknowledged that leadership is the major determinant of an organization's success or failure (Blanchard & Miller, 2014). In view of the significance of leadership, academics have developed a range of theoretical and practical leadership models (Zhu et al., 2019). The notion of servant leadership has received the greatest attention from academics in recent years, out of the several leadership theories and models that have been developed (Najam & Mustamil, 2020) The growing body of literature on servant leadership is evidence that researchers and practitioners see servant leadership as a viable solution to the difficulties facing contemporary enterprises (Eva et al., 2018). The notion of servant leadership evolved to address unanswered problems about the

moral character and skill sets of leaders (Dinh et al., 2014; Sousa & van Dierendonck, 2017). Several firms' successful turnarounds have been associated with the practice of servant leadership. Due to the executed turnarounds, businesses such as Starbucks, Intel, Marriott, and Southwest Airlines were able to grow their operations (Eva et al., 2018; Glenn & Cuerdo, 2016). On the other hand, the only way to get explicit access to activities that may aid in the formation of servant leaders is to pay pricey consulting firms. In the huge corpus of literature on leadership, such training activities are uncommon.

The image of a dynamic person with leadership abilities is engrained in the concept of leadership. He continues by stating that leaders are to fault for the major tragedies that have transpired throughout history and are now happening. In addition, according to Parry and Bryman (2006), despite the historical perspective, leadership continues to attract the interest of scholars since this concept is seen as being vital to the success of individuals, organizations, and society as a whole. According to Janda (1960), this expression was stolen from the general language and improperly introduced into the scientific profession. As a result, there is uncertainty around the concept of leadership. Bennis (1959), who considered the concept of leadership to be so baffling owing to its complexity, has investigated this topic in his work. Bogenschneider (2016) argues that scientific research on leadership has put an inordinate amount of focus on the cause-effect relationship. According to Yukl (2013), despite the fact that the role of a leader is advantageous in that it may

encourage and convince others to achieve certain goals, there is dispute over the kind of influence leaders wield. Despite the fact that the role of a leader might be advantageous, this is the case. Either leadership requires using the authority that comes with one's position, or it has nothing to do with one's place within an organization.

Participant F: "...normally, I would spend the first half day of training to brief what would happen in the following training programme. I would leave the decision making to trainees and ask them to come back after lunch break only if they really want to learn..."

Participant R: "...the trainer I met has three important attributes, one is follow up...he would make sure you learn; another is attitude, he would teach wholeheartedly...and finally the third is emotion, he is not blaming, but just nervous, intense if you have any questions, or if you did learn before you leave..."

According to Bass (1990), the notion of leadership has changed through time, much like other ideas. Scholars do not rely on a single notion to define leadership, as seen by his references to a number of leadership definitions. Due to the fact that people define leadership within the context of their own unique circumstances, they regard each leadership definition to be unique. In contrast, Othman al-Huzaim (2011) noted that the role of leaders is evident in each of these portrayals. Despite the many explanations provided by other scholars, he referred to it as the "power to influence"; this

was his term. According to Daft and Marcic (2016), there is not the slightest question that leadership is recognized as the component responsible for achieving one's objectives and producing the desired results. There is evidence that leadership is crucial to both the devotion of employees and the success of organizations. In addition, Macik and Frey, as well as other academics, have discovered evidence supporting this claim (2009). In recent years, the concept of organizational integrity, whether seen from inside or outside the organization, has been related to the concept of leadership integrity. Van Eeden Jones and Lasthuizen have provided a definition for this statement (2018).

The evolution of leadership theory led to the notion of servant leadership, a style of leadership that emphasizes service to others (Ertel, 2017). The issue of unethical and immoral conduct in the workplace is becoming more urgent for businesses (Md. Mahi et al., 2015). The concept of servant leadership is a moral philosophy that focuses on character flaws that may exist in leaders (Dinh et al., 2014). A servant leader is someone who prioritizes the needs of others before their own and is willing to provide more to their society. It is claimed to Greenleaf (1970) that he coined the term "servant leadership." The book "The Journey to the East," which emphasized the significance of Christian beliefs, served as his inspiration for the notion (Hess, 1956). This indicates that servant leadership is more closely related with religion and may be more effective when conducted within a religious framework. Greenleaf stated that servant leadership goes beyond a person's self-interest

and that a person's desire to serve trumps that person's desire to lead (Greenleaf, 1977).

Despite possessing many of the same characteristics as other forms of leadership, servant leadership is distinguished by a number of special characteristics. For example, servant leaders are entirely devoted to the development of those they supervise (Laub, 1999). When a servant leader demonstrates humility (Van Dierendonck, 2011) and genuine concern for their followers' health and happiness (Ehrhart, 2004), they become a source of emotional healing for people who follow them (Barbuto et al., 2006). Aspirers to a servant leadership style must exhibit characteristics such as empathy, stewardship, and self-awareness (Greenleaf, 1977; Greenleaf & Spears, 1998). Leaders that prioritize the needs of their followers above their own secure their followers' physical and financial well-being, as well as their continuous employment (Cooper & Thatcher, 2010). Openness is the communication style of servant leaders. In addition to these characteristics, servant leadership is marked by honesty, compassion, and regard for others (Kool & van Dierendonck, 2012). According to Rodriguez-Carvajal et al. (2018), servant leaders' lives are imbued with a greater sense of purpose as a direct outcome of their commitment to meeting the needs of their followers. Similarly, servant-leaders want to foster these leadership traits in those they lead via their followers.

However, servant leadership and its associated characteristics should not be confused with just being ethical or moral. Rather, it is an action-oriented approach in which morality and effectiveness

are intertwined. In contrary to commonly recognized norms, servant leaders with higher hierarchical positions and more power are more effective than those whose major focus is on their work and whose behavior is less service-oriented (Sousa & van Dierendonck, 2017). Those organizations that thrive in terms of human and organizational performance are those that follow a servant leadership approach (Christensen-Salem et al., 2021; Huertas-Valdivia et al., 2021; Liden et al., 2014). Starbucks, Intel, Southwest Airlines, and Marriott are just a few of well-known corporations that have achieved success via the concept of servant leadership (Eva et al., 2018).

Literature explores the concept of leadership, starting with ancient Greek thinkers and extending to modern academics. The Aristotelian philosophy was given more than 2,500 years ago, but it did not account for the complex and demanding commercial environment of the contemporary world. Peter Drucker demonstrated the applicability of Aristotelian virtue ethics to current leadership approaches. Drucker is often considered as the corporate world's Aristotle of the 21st century (Kurzynski, 2012). Both Aristotle's ethics and Drucker's approach to management emphasize the morality of the person. In addition, Aristotle's and Drucker's beliefs, according to Kurzynski (2012), are based on the character and integrity of persons in leadership positions. It is conceivable to conclude that Aristotle and Drucker would have agreed that company leaders have a duty to regard the welfare of their staff and clients. Drucker argues that a business corporation is not just an economic entity, but also a social organization and a micro-society inside a broader macrosociety.

This is what he means when he describes a business as a micro-society. Drucker argues that the moral standards that govern human experience should likewise regulate the collective and professional activities of organizations. Drucker thinks that a person's moral character is one of the most significant parts of their personality (Drucker, 2000). Those who demonstrate the highest level of moral integrity must be the only ones elevated to positions of leadership. Drucker says that persons in leadership positions in organizations have a moral duty since their actions affect the lives of their workers.

Participant B: "...he would not teach owing to his position to teach, but would teach owing to trainees' needs..."

Participant M: "...If I, as chairman of the corporation, also sweep the floor, what do you think / expect the feeling or reaction of frontline staff...he / she should not refuse from taking that responsibility and he / she would also think of the best effective and efficient way of finishing his / her tasks..."

According to Aristotle's Nicomachean Ethics, a human being is a social and political entity that needs the existence of a community in order to operate properly. While Aristotle believed that the state should be accountable for the benefit of the people (Crisp, 2014), Drucker believed that organizations should be given the responsibility to do so. He believes that the commercial

enterprise is the contemporary community (Drucker, 1993). Prior to the global financial crisis of 2006, the business community did not give Drucker's philosophy much attention. According to Sendjaya et al. (2008), there is a link between the absence of moral leadership and the downfall of big commercial firms. Some firms that spring to mind include Global Crossings, Enron, and Tyco. Lehman Brothers, WorldCom, and Sanlu Milk are more instances. These commercial failures drew considerable attention to the relationship between immoral judgments taken by executives, the majority of which benefited the leaders' own self-interest, and the impact those decisions had on the company (Ahmad & Gao, 2018). As a result, the corporate world began searching for models of leadership that were character-driven and capable of protecting the interests of all stakeholders. Both before and after the global financial crisis, literature has addressed the ethical orientation and performance of businesses.

Given that each action performed by an organization starts with the people responsible for its execution, it is logical for any stakeholder management plan to begin with focusing on the business's own employees. To be clear, this does not include routinely giving in to worker demands, allowing flexibility to the point that it affects production, or providing staff with extra latitude or compensation (Hartnell, Lemoine, Ghahremani & Stotler, 2020a). To the servant-leader, prioritizing employees entails treating them with respect, opting to persuade rather than coerce so that they can personally buy into the organization's mission and goals, and developing them through

feedback, personalized coaching, and continuous encouragement to improve their own skills and abilities (Greenleaf, 1977a). A servant leader's objective is to help their followers become servant leaders themselves, so that they esteem and respect one another, and seek to assist each other in achieving personal development and maximizing their team's potential. This is achieved by encouraging their followers to also become servant leaders.

SAS, a data analytics firm, is a great example of a business that embraces the servant leadership concept and implements this idea through investing in its employees. This business is a prime example of a corporation that does both. Jim Goodnight, the company's chief executive officer, owes the company's success to its employee-centered ideals. These values have guided the company in prioritizing helping attitudes in hiring, giving employees unprecedented autonomy in their career paths, schedules, and working methods, focusing on demonstrating to employees how their work contributes to the greater good, and providing generous benefits, leave, and perks (Crowley, 2013). As a consequence of his experiences with substantial staff turnover while working for NASA on the Apollo program, Goodnight acquired a deep dedication to his employees. SAS has a high degree of employee loyalty due to its accommodating work environment, which prioritizes the professional development and well-being of its employees (Eanes, 2019). Fortune has recognized SAS as one of the Best Places to Work for almost two decades (Fortune, 2020), and Monster.com rates SAS as one of the top 10 employers worldwide in terms of employee growth

(Thottam, 2020). Even though the costs associated with this people investment are substantial, they have not stopped SAS from attaining decades of record profits (Crowley, 2013) or from being recognized as an industry leader.

Peer-reviewed research on servant leadership supports the need of putting workers first and making significant investments in them. This indicates that research regularly concludes that the employee-centered part of servant leadership has a substantial and positive impact. (Walumbwa, Hartnell, & Oke, 2010) Likewise, servant leadership has a proven effect on workers' confidence in their ability to do their job, as well as employees' commitment to their work (Walumbwa, Hartnell, and Oke, 2010). (Tang, Kwan, Zhang & Zhu, 2016). In addition, servant leadership fosters inclusive and productive workplaces by promoting open lines of communication, collaborative effort, and creative ideas (Chiniara & Bentein, 2018; Schaubroeck, Lam & Peng, 2011). Importantly, servant leadership is excellent in motivating followers to act as servant leaders themselves, particularly among employees who do not have official management responsibilities (Wu, Liden, Liao, and Wayne, 2021). (Lemoine & Blum, 2021).

How precisely can managers put into practice the attention on followers that is a crucial component of servant leadership, given the studies demonstrating its effectiveness? There are times when it is necessary to make personal connections and gestures: Sheldon Yellon, the CEO of Balfor, takes the

time to hand-write and distribute birthday cards to everyone of his 7,000 employees as a manner of demonstrating that he values them above all else (Ward, 2016). By paying close attention to the language they use, servant-leaders may convey to their followers the value of their job in the business in a surprisingly straightforward way. Using the plural pronouns ("we" or "us") as opposed to the single pronouns ("I" or "you") might convey the importance of the team, for instance. To prove this, leaders may film themselves during public appearances such as speeches and meetings, as well as contacts with followers, and count the number of times they employ collective pronouns as opposed to ones that relate to themselves alone. In the context of feedback interventions, the method in which servant-leaders use language is equally significant. This is because the selection of a few words may change a question into either an accusation or a chance for active listening. You should avoid using the word "you" while delivering constructive criticism, since it may be construed as an accusation. Consider expressing, "I believe our project is behind schedule; please explain how we can get back on track," rather than, "You are behind schedule and I want to know why," as an example. The first alternative creates a linguistic separation between "you" and "me" and is psychologically equivalent to pointing the finger in an accusing way. To clarify, the servant leader does not avoid difficult encounters and does not let subordinates to deflect responsibility or accountability. The purpose of servant leaders is to build up their followers, not tear them down, even though it is inescapable that they will need to present their employees with constructive criticism and display "tough love." This demonstrates respect for the follower's knowledge of the

situation, utilizes team-building language, and enables the leader to give support and advice without creating an atmosphere of blame, which is a barrier to effective collaboration.

5.3 Theoretical Contribution

In contrast to its traditional directorial and performance roles, leadership is increasingly taking on characteristics of an enabling, participatory, and distributive nature. The "Great Man" theory of leadership, set leadership attributes, and simplistic dichotomies like being task- or relationship-oriented are examples of concepts that have grown hopelessly out of date. In addition, leadership can no longer be considered the exclusive domain of a single person or a small group of individuals at the very top of a company. Leadership talents need to be created and dispersed across the company for it to be successful in an environment where the organizational landscape is constantly shifting. Therefore, the goal of the modern strategy for leadership development is not to generate more followers but rather more leaders.

The cultivation of desirable characteristics in a leader, whether those characteristics relate to behavior, thinking, or emotion, is the primary focus of leader development. This means that the emphasis is placed on developing the person, also known as human capital. On the other side, leadership development is concerned with the creation of social capital; it focuses on the development of leadership as a process of influence rather than leadership as an end in itself. This

process takes into account the interpersonal relationships, affective experiences, social influence processes, and team dynamics that exist between the leader and his or her team, as well as the contextual factors that surround the team, such as the perception of the organizational climate, and the social network linkages that exist between the team and other groups within the organization. It entails assisting individuals or groups of people in becoming more successful in the process of problem-solving in a variety of settings. These kinds of nuanced differences are seldom stated; rather, the terms "leader" and "leadership development" are almost always used interchangeably, with "leadership development" acting as the common denominator in almost all cases.

As a disclaimer, it is necessary to point out that there is now a growing realization that creating leaders entails more than simply developing individual leaders. This is something that has to be said. As was said before, placing an exclusive emphasis on the growth of individual leaders ignores the intricate interplay that exists between communities of people and the important function that reciprocal connections play in social contexts. Because both of these approaches are insufficient on their own (leadership development transcends but does not replace the development of individual leaders), the systemic point of view, which takes into consideration the entirety of the system, has emerged as the method that is most frequently used. This, in turn, has led to a greater attention on the environment in which leadership is produced, a deliberate assessment about how to effectively employ leadership abilities, and how to deal with difficulties pertaining to work-life

balance (McCall 1998; Conger, 1999; Charan, Drotter et al., 2000; Tichy and Nancy Cardwell, 2002).

Putting aside any potential misunderstandings over the language used, the truth of the matter is that the development of an organization's potential future leaders is the single most important factor in determining how well it will function. Leadership development has become an important strategic concern for modern organizations, and there is now a growing body of evidence to suggest that companies that do not have processes in place that are appropriately structured for leadership development are at a disadvantage in the current environment of intense competition (Jaques, 1989; Tichy, 1997; Ulrich, 2007) In contrast, businesses that invest significant resources into leadership development consistently outperform their rivals.

However, it is not always evident what the ideal technique is for training leaders, nor is it always clear how to identify among the present parade of leadership development programs those that are effective from those that deliver very little return on investment. In the contemporary climate of leadership development programs, individual learning modules may take place everywhere from the classroom to the great outdoors to the participant's place of employment or even anywhere in the middle of all of these settings. Learning opportunities may be of a "McDonald's-like" kind, which refers to a high degree of standardization, or they can be of a "haute couture" variety, which

refers to a high degree of personalization.

In most cases, the growth of leaders takes place after the provision of a conceptual knowledge of leadership, after the practice of leadership skills, and after an awareness of abilities that are not readily taught is established. When a participant is at an earlier point in their career and has more time to devote to this kind of training, they are able to accomplish a significant portion of their leader development goals. On the other hand, when participants reach this stage in their careers, they often lack the context for the training content since their real experiences in leadership roles tend to be limited. In recent years, we have seen an increase in the number of efforts made to cultivate individuals who are in later phases of the professional life cycle (after all, we are living and working longer). In order for businesses to continue generating effective leaders, leadership development programs need to be a systematic and organized undertaking. This is true regardless of the technique that is adopted or the mix of approaches that are used (Ulrich, Zenger et al., 1999).

There is a feeling of immediacy to get things done that permeates both the people and the teams who make up vanguard companies. Their leaders are fixated on change, and they are intent on ensuring that every member of the company shares the same perspective. They also provide the enthusiasm that is necessary to maintain one's dedication to change. In addition, the processes of change management are connected with measurable business outcomes; the crucial success and

failure elements in change initiatives are regularly analyzed; and a vision is developed and conveyed in order to offer clear mandates to the people who work in the company. In addition, resistance to change may be overcome both in the short term and in the long run. A culture of change has developed into an integral part of the way of life in businesses like these.

Leadership development programs are going to be an absolute need in order to facilitate such a culture of change. To guarantee that leaders at every level are produced based on essential key skills and competencies, several of these highly successful firms have built leadership competency models. The business has done a good job of articulating and communicating the capabilities across the whole company. In addition, actions with regard to the intended competencies are stressed, measured, and development programs to acquire these skills and competencies are put into place. This ensures that the desired outcomes are achieved.

In these types of businesses, there is an emphasis placed on cultivating future leaders and preparing for their succession, which results in the establishment of a program that guarantees a continual supply of candidates for key positions within the corporation. From the management of oneself to the management of others to the management of teams to the management of the company as a whole, there will be a methodical path to follow (and especially the corporate culture). Every one of these stages ushers in a fresh set of difficulties that call for a unique set of development efforts.

Problem solving, discovering and implementing the next generation of best practices, and having a thorough grasp of how to design better business processes are some of the many cognitive skills that are examined in these developmental programs. However, the development of people skills, particularly emotional intelligence, will be essential, regardless of the specific talents that are necessary.

It doesn't matter whether a leader aims to lead by example or not; they always do. The development of leaders requires the presence of role models inside an organization, whether such models are official or informal. They demonstrate how things ought to be carried out. In order for their followers to satisfy their own need for personal growth, they provide knowledge, support, and challenges to those followers. A subordinate's ability to establish their own personal brand of leadership may also be influenced by the role models they look up to. This will also have an affect on leaders themselves, in the sense that it will strengthen the efficacy of their own honest approach to leadership. The development of leadership skills is thus served from both a follower's and a leader's point of view.

A leader's job entails a great deal more than just coming up with novel concepts and methods for resolving issues. They are able to do great things thanks to the efforts of others, and as a result, they are able to gain followers and take the leadership role. For this reason, a leadership

development program should include the mentoring and training of prospective leaders in how to coach others, how to create attractive performance goals, how to give performance feedback, how to motivate and inspire others to excellence, and how to build a team (Kilberg, 2000; Kets de Vries, Korotov, and Florent-Treacy, 2007; Kets de Vries, Guillen, Korotov, and Florent-Treacy, 2010).

A senior executive assists a younger executive in both their professional and personal development throughout the course of a longer-term mentoring relationship. Mentoring may be seen of as a partnership that promotes both the professional and personal growth of the mentee. The junior executive is able to gain the abilities essential for the next generation of leadership via this arrangement, which may either be official or informal. It is possible for leaders to improve their coaching abilities via the usage of executive coaching. Executive coaching is a form of leadership coaching in which a client with managerial authority and responsibility in an organization forms a working relationship with a leadership coach who employs a wide variety of behavioral techniques and methods in order to assist the client in achieving a set of goals that have been mutually determined to improve the client's professional performance and overall level of life satisfaction. This type of coaching is sometimes referred to as "one-on-one mentoring." One way to look at it is as a concerted group effort to get a deeper understanding of the difficulties and limitations that the coach must contend with while also investigating fresh opportunities. A coach may utilize multi-party feedback evaluations to help future leaders understand their strengths and limitations while

also experiencing personal growth as a result of bringing out emotions. This is done to aid leadership coach and coach in addressing areas of development that need improvement. During the course of a program that places a heavy emphasis on providing feedback, development entails assisting a person in better recognizing significant patterns of behavior, gaining an understanding of the attitudes and motivations that lie beneath these patterns, reevaluating what makes the individual more or less effective in relation to the goals that they wish to achieve, and assessing alternative approaches to achieving these goals.

5.4 Practical Significance

Despite the fact that we have spent a considerable amount of time discussing research on servant leadership in general rather than the specifics of this topic in Asia, we recognize the importance of thinking about how servant leadership can be applied most effectively for all managers, particularly those in Asia. As a result of the proliferation of international media sources, social media, Western schooling, and the impact of the US MBA model, a significant number of younger Asian workers have been brought up in a world that is more interconnected (Lee Cooke & Saini, 2012; Liden, 2012). As a result, a significant portion of the younger generation of Asian workers prefers alternative leadership styles, such as servant leadership, in which the leader focuses on the needs of the person, is willing to empower staff, and engages followers in the decision-making process. This is in contrast to the command and control tactics that were prevalent in the past (Newman et

al., 2018). In addition to this, a number of academic studies have shown the benefits of using a servant leadership model in Asia. This adds to the weight of this evidence (e.g. Schwarz et al., 2016). As a result, we are able to state with complete conviction that servant leadership is not just common in Asian businesses, but also suitable. As has been shown, adopting a servant leadership style has a beneficial effect on employee performance, creativity, as well as favorable attitudes and behaviors on the part of the workforce. However, it is important to keep in mind that servant leadership is not a quick-fix solution. It does it in a manner that is not directly relevant to the results of the organization. In other words, servant leaders make an investment in their followers so that their followers are able to fulfill their full potential and build a culture of service in which the team works for each other. When all of these things are in place, the culture has a significant impact on the good results for the company (Eva et al., 2019).

For the application of servant leadership in the training, it may be especially useful to apply or improve the Knowles' (1970) Androgen. In Knowles's Androgen, as people mature, they become more motivated by various internal incentives, such as self-esteem. For servant leadership, it begins with "serving first, serving first to a feeling of nature." (Greenleaf, 1977, p. 7). "Servant leadership positively influenced work engagement, organizational citizenship behavior, creativity and innovation, organizational commitment, trust, 'self-efficacy', job satisfaction, person-job fit or person-organizational fit, leader-member exchange, and work-life balance." (Michiel Frederick

Coetzer et al., 2016). It is some extent of internal incentives. The servant leadership could be applied when in the design phase of training as to enhance the training motivation of the whole training program. When the training methodology is chosen as Behavior Modelling, the servant leadership could be applied as a role-model for the trainee to observe the model to imitate in their daily tasks and in thus they will learn and become the servants one day. It coincides with the servant leaders worked on the transformation of their followers, encouraging them to "become healthier, smarter, freer, and more independent while also increasing the likelihood that they would themselves become servants" (Greenleaf, 1977).

For leadership training, it leads to improvements in perceptions of utility and satisfaction, learning, transfer to the job, organizational outcomes, and subordinate outcomes (Lacerenza et al., 2017). By using trainer as a servant leader in a leadership training, it is the role model and thus the trainee could imitate what the trainers do. As a move from the frequently self-interested standards of certain managers, servant leadership is a transition that has to be understood by companies, which means that they need to recognize that there needs to be time and resources placed into the development of servant leaders. Although training for leadership development is not a novel concept in Asia, there is a pressing need for more financial investment in education in this field.

According to research that was carried out by Mercer (2013), the United States spends more than twice as much on leadership development training for each employee than Asia does. Leadership development is being used as a strategy to ensure the best talent stays at the organization as turnover of high potential young employees (Agrawal, Khatri, & Srinivasan, 2012) is one of the biggest problems facing by Asian companies (Newman et al., 2018). In order to make the most informed decision on which managers should get training in servant leadership, Hunter et al. (2013) suggested using personality tests that gauge an individual's degree of concern and care for the welfare of others (e.g. prosocial motivation).

For servant leadership, it builds the trust between the managers and the followers. The relationship between the managers and the follower will be keep it good as the leaders using a heartfelt manner to treat the followers. They build up the trust related to them and which is the moderator in our finding. This trust will help in build up a trustful organization. For the implementation, the trust build up with the trainees with the trainers and which in turn could use to apply in the classroom and thus build up the trustful organization. As the same time, as servant leaders emphasis on developing long-term relationships with direct followers (Bartu & Wheeler 2006), it build up a relationship between the leader and followers which in turns as the work cohesion between them in the working environment.

One of the characteristics of Servant leadership is “healing”. It helps in building up an organization with a harmonious organizational climate. The organization members will construct an organizational identity and they feel as a family in this organization. Similarly, businesses could find it helpful to employ the servant leadership behavioral scale developed by Sendjaya et al. (2018) to conduct 360-degree evaluations of a manager's servant leadership characteristics. Second, companies should provide managers at all levels with training in the development of servant leadership. This will guarantee that the trickle-down impact of servant leadership is more ubiquitous across the company (Eva, Sendjaya, Prajogo, Cavanagh, & Robin, 2018). Thirdly, the training for servant leadership should consist of a combination of seminars and projects that are role-specific (Schwarz et al., 2016). This may include attending workshops that are centered on specifics such as putting employees first and empowering employees, as well as participating in in-role initiatives such as shadowing senior staff members who already display servant leadership and gaining an understanding of how they engage in ethical conversations and carry out daily acts of service with their employees. Other post training follow up may include role play, simulation, action learning as well as behavior modelling. These proposed workshops on soft skills are in direct opposition to many of the existing Asian leadership development programs, which place a greater emphasis on measurable outcomes, such as attendance in classroom lectures and participation in international internships, rather than the cultivation of the soft skills necessary for engaging in

servant leadership (Mercer, 2013). As a result, the way we think about the training of the next generation of Asian managers has to undergo some fundamental change.

Chapter 6 Limitation & Further Research Directions

During the course of this investigation, it was noticed that the present state of the economy makes it even more difficult to keep control over working environments. This was one of the primary findings of the study. Because of this, leaders need to devise a variety of methods to motivate workers so that workers can continue to be enthusiastic while contributing to the overall success of the organization in achieving its goals. This will allow workers to continue to contribute to the overall success of the organization. It is essential for study to evaluate whether or not the present-day economic situation fosters a transition in the style of leadership. When it comes to the formulation of their leadership philosophies, are leaders susceptible to being swayed by the atmosphere that predominates inside the organization? To phrase the question another way, does the company's management philosophy change based on the state of the company's finances?

People at all levels of an organization are able to actively participate and interact in the day-to-day operations of a company when it is run according to the principles of servant leadership, which is important for cross-sectional study and cultural settings in Asian contexts. However, the servant leaders who took part in this research indicated that, despite the fact that it has been demonstrated that the application of the servant leadership philosophy can produce positive results, there is still some reluctance within certain organizations to adopt the philosophy as the standard for all of their

leaders. This is something that the servant leaders who took part in this research indicated. Does the size of the firm or the area where the business is based have any influence on the question of whether or not the culture of the organization will support the implementation of the concept of servant leadership inside the organization?

Men and women often have divergent views on the effectiveness of various leadership styles and techniques. In addition, the implementation of leadership approaches could be different for a number of reasons (for instance, an organization would be more open to the idea of attempting something new if it was presented by a male as opposed to a woman), as well as in various fields and cultural contexts. In forthcoming research, it should be studied whether or not the amount of difficulty required in putting servant leadership concepts into action differs between men and women. This is important since it might have important implications for the field.

Chapter 7 Conclusion

Literature and this study's results support the claim that the ultimate measure of a leader's performance is the extent to which he or she is permitted to display his or her features and attributes. Both of these sources corroborate the validity of this statement. Through their interactions with followers and other leaders in the company, servant-leader qualities and behaviors are exposed. The qualities and features of servant leaders include a dedication to the personal growth of others, stewardship, and community development. It has been found that leaders who participate in servant leadership techniques have the potential to undergo change and may also urge followers to undergo transformation. This study confirmed what other researchers had suggested (Promote, 2000): firms that adopt servant leadership methods establish a feeling of community inside the corporation and foster an atmosphere where followers have the chance to prosper and grow.

The application of the servant leadership paradigm has a substantial effect on the organizational culture. According to studies, something as simple as speaking truthfully with others facilitates the establishment of trust, the exchange of information, and an increase in loyalty between organizational leaders and organization members. Adopting the philosophy of servant leadership has a variety of other benefits, including an improvement in the decision-making process, an increase in production, an improvement in staff morale, and a reduction in employee turnover. It is

surprising that more firms have not realized the need to increase the help they offer their leaders so that they can implement the servant leadership philosophy.

Despite the fact that the research supports the claim that the practice of servant leadership provides a variety of advantages, this study demonstrated that leaders who practice servant leadership have difficulties persuading others of the philosophy's practicality and success. When firms do not endorse the servant leadership philosophy, neither servant leaders nor followers are able to realize their full potential.

This study's findings are consistent with those of previous research, leading the researchers to conclude that the most common obstacles to the implementation of servant leadership practices are the organization's culture, the fear of change caused by the absence of other servant leaders within the organization, and a lack of understanding of the philosophy underlying servant leadership practices. A lack of confidence in the efficacy of the servant leadership philosophy, a lack of time, and paradigms regarding the type of business environment that most effectively supports servant leadership practices are additional obstacles preventing leaders from practicing the servant leadership philosophy (e.g., nonprofit vs. for-profit organizations).

Because the act of sharing ideas promotes accountability for the results of the leaders' actions,

servant leaders thrive wherever they are given the opportunity to communicate their opinions. However, organizational constraints severely decrease the collaboration between servant leaders and their followers that would otherwise occur. As a result, followers' participation in the decision-making process is quite restricted. In times such as these (when the economy necessitates that leaders make difficult decisions in order to keep their organizations afloat), it is essential to emphasize that followers want leaders to act in their best interests as well as the best interests of the organization. This expectation is particularly crucial in these times (when the economy mandates that leaders make difficult decisions in order to keep their organizations afloat). Therefore, it is necessary to incorporate followers in the decision-making process. If followers are not included in the decision-making process, they lose confidence in the organization's leadership, which in turn leads them to doubt the organization's ability to weather the economic storm. Due to the volatility and insecurity, they experience as a result of the circumstance, the cumulative impact causes followers to want to leave the organization.

People who assert that firm leaders must choose between enhancing performance and serving stakeholders are crafting 'straw man' argument by presenting a false dichotomy. The research conducted on servant leadership demonstrates that this interpretation of the call for a focus on stakeholders is incorrect, despite the fact that it would be simple to interpret the call for a focus on stakeholders as suggesting that firms should redirect resources from shareholders to stakeholders.

Rather, servant-leaders enhance shareholder value by focusing on the organization's many stakeholders. Despite the fact that it is a reasonable question to ask how a manager can realistically balance all stakeholder expectations, servant leadership provides a blueprint that is backed by examples of what this looks like in practice.

Ethical leadership in business emphasizes justice, equality, and the absence of discrimination and harassment, which is a pretty low standard in terms of moral character and the development of shareholder value. This is because it is often believed that ethical leadership in business entails these characteristics. The outcomes of the research make it clearly clear that the most effective strategy to enhance a company's performance is to concentrate on a broad range of stakeholders. By focusing on the individuals and groups that are essential to the success of the company, servant leadership provides managers and enterprises with a tried-and-true technique that is simple to apply.

In conclusion, servant leaders are hopeful about future. Despite the fact that leaders in today's economy are under added pressure to maintain a focus on profitability and development, servant leaders think that it is still possible to capture the essence of servant leadership. The intention is that servant leadership concepts will aid firms in their efforts to become more accountable in the future. In reality, companies will be required to be more responsible in the future. Ultimately, the spirit of the servant leadership philosophy should drive businesspeople to think more globally,

considering the ramifications of each action and understanding that each transaction builds upon the previous one.

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Appendix A – Questionnaire

HR Manager (x1)

1. Could you provide any evidence of applying servant leadership in your company?
2. How could you determine whether training needs are met?
3. To what extent you would consider assigning any elements of servant leadership into training needs?
4.
 - a. Do you think organizational climate would affect the relationship between servant leadership and training needs / training effectiveness? If so, how and why?
 - b. Do you think motivation (or training motivation) would affect the relationship between servant leadership and training needs / training effectiveness? If so, how and why?
5. Do you think organizational climate and / or motivation (or training motivation) would affect the relationship between servant leadership and training effectiveness? If so, how and why?

Training Manager / Leader (x1)

1. Could you provide any evidence of applying servant leadership during your training session?
2. How could you determine whether training objectives are fulfilled?
3. To what extent you would consider assigning any elements of servant leadership into the training programmes?
4.
 - a. Do you think organizational climate would affect the relationship between servant leadership and training programmes / training effectiveness? If so, how and why?
 - b. Do you think motivation (or training motivation) would affect the relationship between servant leadership and training programmes / training effectiveness? If so, how and why?
5. Do you think organizational climate and / or motivation (or training motivation) would affect the relationship between servant leadership and training effectiveness? If so, how and why?

Subordinates (x2)

1. Do you feel / notice any evidence of servant leadership from your supervisor / trainers / company?
2. Do you learn any from the training programmes?
3. To what extent you would consider the training programmes are being tailor-made for you and meeting your needs?
4.
 - a. Do you think organizational climate would affect your intention to join training programmes? If so, why?
 - b. Do you think motivation (or training motivation) would affect your intention to join training programmes? If so, why?

- c. Is there any other consideration would affect / prevent you from being more participative in the training programmes? Why is it important?
5. Do you think organizational climate and / or motivation (or training motivation) would affect the relationship between servant leadership and training effectiveness? If so, how and why?