

Leadership Style and Employee Performance in Nepalese Enterprises

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Abstract

Background: Leadership style is a vital factor influencing the performance of employees; however, there is little scientific literature on how different leadership styles jointly affect employee performance, especially in the public sector organizations of Nepal.

Objective: The present study analyzes the effects of six leadership styles, which include transformational, charismatic, transactional, democratic, autocratic, and bureaucratic styles, on employee performance, moderated by gender.

Methodology: The study adopted a quantitative, cross-sectional design where data collection was done through a survey of 310 academic staff members from 50 organizations in Nepal. Data analysis techniques used were descriptive statistics, correlation analysis, and regression analysis. Reliability of the test instruments was checked through Cronbach's alpha with an overall value of $\alpha=0.847$.

Findings: Democratic leadership ($r=0.234$, $\beta=0.166$), charismatic leadership ($r=0.220$, $\beta=0.212$), and transformational leadership ($\beta=0.245$) significantly positively influenced performance. On the other hand, bureaucratic leadership exhibited the highest negatively

correlated relationship with performance ($r=-0.725$, $\beta=-0.180$), whereas autocratic leadership showed the lowest negative relationship ($r=-0.161$). Little difference was observed between genders, but female staff experienced more creativity restrictions under transactional leadership. The regression model proved to be significant ($F=23.162$, $p<0.001$).

Conclusion: The democratic and transformational styles of leadership are beneficial for employee performance, whereas the bureaucratic and autocratic styles have negative impacts on it. Environmental influences affect leadership success in Nepali public colleges.

Implications: Organizations need to encourage participative leadership methods, reduce bureaucratic behavior, and consider gender-related perceptual distinctions in leadership training programs.

Keywords: Bureaucratic leadership; Democratic leadership; Employee performance; Organizational performance; Transformational leadership

Introduction

Innovation is widely recognized as a critical factor for organizational survival and competitiveness. It permeates various organizational facets, including structures, processes, products, and services ([Gunday et al., 2011](#)).

A substantial body of research has examined the relationship between performance and leadership. Consensus exists among most scholars that transformational leadership exhibits a positive and significant association with organizational creativity and innovation ([Al-Husseini & Elbeltagi, 2012](#); [Hu et al., 2012](#); [Tipu et al., 2012](#)). Additionally, multiple studies have established a positive link between innovation and enhanced financial performance ([Adegoke et al., 2012](#); [Durán-Vázquez et al., 2012](#); [Nybakk & Jenssen, 2012](#)). However, the literature presents inconsistent findings. Some studies report no significant relationship between innovation and performance ([Kandybin & Kihn, 2004](#); [Löf & Heshmati, 2006](#); [Selby, 2010](#)), while others yield mixed results, with some non-innovative firms outperforming innovative counterparts ([Forsman & Temel, 2011](#); [Kannebley et al., 2008](#); [Martin, 2012](#)).

[Zenger and Folkman \(2002\)](#) identified 16 competency groups linked to organizational efficiency. These characteristics include honesty and integrity, technical and professional knowledge, analytical and problem-solving skills, creativity, self-improvement, and a results-oriented mindset. Further competencies encompass setting high goals, taking responsibility for outcomes, communicating clearly, inspiring and motivating others, building relationships, establishing trust, encouraging collaboration, fostering innovation, accelerating organizational change, and effectively engaging external stakeholders. Their research also revealed that leaders excelling in multiple competency categories achieved higher overall success.

Notably, [Zenger and Folkman \(2002\)](#) found that certain competency combinations were more effective than others; for instance, providing feedback coupled with building trust had a greater impact than providing feedback alone. Similarly, listening abilities were beneficial primarily when paired with other social skills such as empathy and consideration. Contemporary leadership models highly value a "strengths perspective," which encourages leaders to build upon existing strengths and seek roles that best utilize their skills ([Buckingham & Clifton,](#)

2001). While [Zenger and Folkman \(2002\)](#) similarly advocate for focusing on strengths, they emphasize the necessity of addressing "fatal flaws," such as deficient interpersonal skills or an inability to learn from mistakes. [Igbaekemen \(2014\)](#) posits that organizations, as institutions with distinct visions, must establish short-, medium-, and long-term goals to realize that vision. Every organizational element is purposefully designed to contribute to achieving overarching objectives. Given education's critical role in shaping individual and collective experiences, efforts to enhance the educational system are paramount ([Jide & Ibrahim, 2013](#)). [Yukl \(2006\)](#) notes that different management levels require distinct skill sets; technical skills are prioritized at lower levels, whereas conceptual skills are more crucial at higher levels. However, all management levels require a balance of these abilities, with interpersonal skills being essential at every level ([Yukl, 2006](#)).

Despite substantial empirical evidence demonstrating relationships between leadership style and creativity, and between innovation and financial performance, relatively few studies have systematically examined the causal pathway linking leadership style to financial performance *through* innovation. Therefore, the purpose of this work is to conduct a comprehensive analysis of the existing literature concerning the relationships among three strategic variables: innovation, leadership style, and organizational success.

Leadership styles ultimately influence employee productivity and shape manager-subordinate interactions. In public colleges, ineffective leadership frequently manifests as significant issues, including poor staff performance, low employee engagement, and impeded institutional advancement. Failures in leadership can have far-reaching negative consequences, as university output serves as an input for the academic system and broader society.

[Khajeh \(2018\)](#) reported a negative association between organizational performance and transactional, bureaucratic, and charismatic leadership styles. Conversely, transformational, authoritarian, and democratic leadership styles were positively linked to organizational performance. It has been suggested that organizations should adopt leadership styles that maximize employee potential.

Achieving desired results and effectively completing tasks are fundamental components of organizational performance. However, due to its multifaceted nature, measuring organizational success from a single perspective is challenging. [Daft \(2000; Ejere & Abasili, 2016\)](#) defined organizational performance as an organization's ability to attain its goals through efficient and effective resource utilization. Similarly, [Yusuf-Habeeb and Ibrahim \(2017\)](#) described institutional performance as the comparison of actual results against planned goals, measured by specific standards for individuals, groups, or the organization.

It notably notes that few research has examined the indirect effects of leadership style on financial success by combining these two streams. Additionally, the text highlights a secondary gap: although general relationships between leadership philosophies (like transformational and authoritarian) and organizational performance have been established ([Khajeh, 2018](#)), the specific mechanisms—particularly in public college settings—where leadership shortcomings are identified as contributing to subpar employee performance are not. The study was conducted to close this gap and investigate the connection between performance and leadership

style. The specific objective of the study is to identify the impact of transformational leadership, charismatic leadership, transactional leadership, democratic leadership, autocratic leadership and bureaucratic leadership on employee performance.

Hypothesis of the Study

- I. H₀₁: There is significant positive relationship with Leadership Style and Employee performance.
- II. H₀₂: There is statistically significant relationship between transformational leadership and employees' performance.
- III. H₀₃: There is significant impact on employee's performance by charismatic leadership style.
- IV. H₀₄: Transactional leadership style plays significant role in employee performance
- V. H₀₅: Democratic leadership style plays significant role in employee performance
- VI. H₀₆: Autocratic Leadership has significant impact on employee performance
- VII. H₀₇: Bureaucratic leadership has significant relationship with employee's performance
- VIII. H₀₈: Gender moderating effect on leadership style and employee's performance

Literature Review

A systematic review is a process for reviewing relevant literature using a comprehensive, pre-planned strategy in order to identify existing literature, evaluate its contribution, analyze and synthesize findings, and report on evidence to enable conclusions about what is known and what is not ([Denyer & Tranfield, 2009](#)). With its origins in the medical sciences, a systematic review differs from other review formats in that it aims to synthesize data in a clear, methodical, and reproducible manner ([Tranfield, et al., 2003](#)). According to [Clarke, et al., \(2007\)](#), a systematic literature review uses precise, thorough methods to locate, select, assess, and synthesize a group of research studies on a certain topic.

Leadership remains one of the most controversial topics in contemporary management because of its crucial role in determining organizational performance. Fundamentally, leadership is the ability and practice of guiding others. It involves a single individual or group taking the lead and leading by example, with others following suit. The qualities of effective leadership, such as vision, tact, caution, honesty, and the ability to lead by example, have been the subject of much discussion. According to [Ogbeidi \(2012\)](#), people are usually viewed as leaders when they help others accomplish significant goals or objectives.

Leadership, according to [David and Moses \(2014\)](#), is a dynamic process in which individuals collaborate to forge a shared vision and encourage change, helping them to make sense of their past experiences and influencing their future decisions. Persuading people to willingly go above and beyond the call of duty is a key component of leadership, according to [Ukaidi \(2016\)](#). Leadership is a relational activity that involves the leader and followers, according to [Eze \(1982; Igbaekemen, 2014\)](#); it is inferred that followers are required for leadership to exist.

According to [Khajeh \(2018\)](#), there is a negative correlation between organizational performance and leadership styles that are transactional, bureaucratic, and charismatic. In

contrast, the performance of the organization was positively correlated with transformational, authoritarian, and democratic leadership styles. It has been suggested that corporations employ a leadership style that maximizes employees' potential.

Achieving desired outcomes and completing tasks efficiently are essential elements of organizational performance. However, due to its complete character, it may be challenging to assess organizational efficiency from a single perspective. [Daft \(2000\)](#), [Ejere & Abasili \(2016\)](#) defined organizational performance as an organization's ability to accomplish its objectives by making effective and efficient use of its resources. Similar to this, [Yusuf-Habeeb and Ibrahim \(2017\)](#) argue that actual results in connection to intended goals are represented by institutional performance, which is defined by specific standards for individuals, groups, or organizations. As noted by [Cemaloğlu, et al. \(2012\)](#), low organizational commitment can hinder effectiveness and productivity and is often influenced by the quality of leadership. [Popper \(2000\)](#) continues by emphasizing the significance of leaders' actions and their effects on others. For the objectives of this study, organizational performance will be focused on the individual performance of academic staff members because their contributions directly affect the institution's overall success. An individual is considered to have worked effectively if they reach or surpass the objectives outlined in their job descriptions.

Leadership Styles

When leaders engage with their followers, they use a variety of traits, behaviors, and characteristics that are collectively referred to as their "leadership style" ([Mitonga-Monga & Coetzee, 2012](#)). According to [Mitonga-Monga and Coetzee \(2012\)](#), leadership comprises management behavior patterns used to achieve certain goals by balancing organizational and individual interests. In a similar vein, [Harris et al. \(2007\)](#) defined leadership style as the interpersonal tactic people employ to channel team activities toward a shared goal. According to [Harris et al. \(2007\)](#), modern leadership styles can be categorized into five groups: transformational leadership, transactional leadership, culture-based leadership, charismatic leadership, and visionary leadership.

Organizational Performance

Organizational performance, according to [Gavrea et al. \(2011\)](#), is a complicated concept that encompasses an organization's measurable outcomes in connection to its declared aims and objectives. Financial results (such as profits and returns on investment), shareholder value (such as economic value added and total shareholder returns), and product/service market performance (such as market share and sales) are the three primary categories that typically comprise this performance, according to [Gavrea et al. \(2011\)](#).

Relationship between Leadership Styles and Organizational Performance

By influencing corporate culture, which in turn impacts results, leadership styles have a major impact on organizational performance ([Klein et al., 2013](#)). [Klein et al. \(2013\)](#) used data gathered from 310 employees from different enterprises to illustrate this link using the four-factor theory of leadership.

Transformational Leadership and Organizational Performance

Supporting followers' personal growth while attending to their individual needs is the primary objective of transformational leadership. The development of employees' morality, skills, values, and motivation is highly valued under this style of leadership ([Bass & Avolio, 1994](#)). Transformational leaders inspire employees to prioritize the needs of the team over their own by fostering intellectual stimulation and attention to emotional needs. According to [Bass and Avolio \(1994\)](#), this is the case. [Wang et al. \(2011\)](#) found a positive correlation between transformative leadership and both individual and team organizational performance.

[Xu and Wang \(2010\)](#) assert that transformational leadership enhances knowledge, skills, motivation, and behavior—all of which have an impact on performance. Furthermore, transformational leaders develop a customized relationship with employees, which boosts job satisfaction and improves organizational performance, according to [Jyoti and Bhau \(2015\)](#). [Sofi and Devanadhen \(2015\)](#) used SEM and SPSS methods to further support the significant positive benefits of transformational leadership on organizational performance, particularly in financial organizations.

Charismatic Leadership and Organizational Performance

[Germano \(2010\)](#) asserts that by clearly expressing their goal, charismatic leaders encourage others to remain inspired and develop. This strategy's drawback is that followers could become overly reliant on the leader, which could cause them to drift off if the leader departs. [Germano \(2010\)](#) asserts that charismatic leaders usually fail to develop future leaders, which can negatively affect an organization's performance over the long run. A quantitative study by [Ojokuku et al. \(2012\)](#) on Nigerian bank employees supports this view, finding that charismatic leadership may have a detrimental effect on organizational performance due to its limited ability to boost motivation and productivity.

Transactional Leadership and Organizational Performance

[Uchenwamgbe \(2013\)](#) asserts that transactional leaders are primarily focused on transactions and offer rewards such as raises in pay, promotions, or new responsibilities in return for meeting pre-established goals. [Longe \(2014\)](#) asserts that transactional leadership improves organizational performance by fostering an environment that allows for the acquisition of both tangible and intangible advantages. This leadership style promotes the development of organizational and interpersonal skills while clearly articulating the company's vision for success. According to [Sofi and Devanadhen \(2015\)](#), transactional leadership, on the other hand, does not instantly impact organizational performance and does not encourage creativity and innovation, which may impair employees' ability to meet organizational requirements.

Democratic Leadership and Organizational Performance

[Tannenbaum and Schmidt \(2012\)](#) define democratic leadership as a decentralized decision-making process where authority is shared among subordinates. Despite the potential for poor decision-making and execution, this leadership style usually motivates employees by valuing their viewpoints and encouraging participation. One major disadvantage of this strategy is the assumption that every participant has an equal stake and skill level ([Rukmani et al., 2010](#)).

According to [Elenkov's \(2002\)](#) research, democratic leadership improves an organization's ability to function. This leadership style fosters a sense of accountability and encourages staff members to participate in decision-making alongside management by offering constructive criticism as well as fair praise. Similarly, [Bhargavi and Yaseen \(2016\)](#) found that democratic leadership enhances organizational performance by allowing employees to participate in decision-making and share creative ideas, which eventually benefits the firm and prepares future leaders. Furthermore, democratic leaders promote group participation and conversation, which improves employee performance ([Choi, 2007](#)).

In general, democratic leadership has been shown to enhance the effectiveness and performance of organizations ([Elenkov, 2002](#)).

Autocratic Leadership and Organizational Performance

Autocratic leaders are typically authoritative and demand that their subordinates accept their instructions without question, according to [Obiwuru et al. \(2011\)](#). One characteristic of this leadership style is centralized decision-making, and leaders usually impose strict execution plans. According to [Iqbal, et al., \(2015\)](#), autocratic leadership, often referred to as authoritarian leadership, discourages creativity and encourages one-sided communication, which deters employee motivation and satisfaction. Despite its drawbacks, this strategy can be helpful in the short term for achieving goals under pressure, according to [Bhargavi and Yaseen \(2016\)](#). However, it can also lead to conflicts that negatively affect performance over the long run.

Bureaucratic Leadership Style and Organizational Performance

[Germano \(2010\)](#) asserts that bureaucratic leaders place a high value on strict adherence to rules and procedures and usually give the impression that they are distant from their staff. Under this leadership style, task performance is usually prioritized over employee motivation and development. [Ojukuku et al. \(2012\)](#) claim that when bureaucratic leadership fails to inspire employees to meet performance criteria, it negatively impacts organizational performance. According to [Sougui et al. \(2015\)](#), bureaucratic leadership also has minimal effect on personnel and organizational performance. This method works best for tasks that need to be completed methodically over an extended period while following certain protocols.

Methodology and Data Analysis

Methodology

This study adopted a quantitative approach to address the research question. Research approaches generally fall into three categories: qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods ([Creswell, 2014](#)). [Kumar \(2005\)](#) asserts that a quantitative approach is typically used when the objective is to identify relationships between variables. In this case, the focus was on examining the relationship between organizational performance (dependent variable) and leadership styles (independent variable). The causal comparative Research design has been applied to find the effect of independent variables on the dependent variable.

Sampling and Data Collection

Leadership styles for this research were measured using the framework proposed by [Zhu \(2002\)](#). Organizational performance was assessed based on employees' perceptions of how their organization compares to its competitors. The study's findings might not be generalizable, but they could be used in locations where convenience sampling was used to acquire the information. The primary data has been collected in the study. Data was collected from employees of 50 randomly selected organizations through survey questionnaires. The necessary permissions for conducting the survey were obtained from the respective authorities. Respondents completed the questionnaires, which included a five-point Likert scale to measure frequency of performance, ranging from "highly disagreed" to "highly agree."

Data Analysis

The reliability of the data was assessed using Cronbach's Alpha coefficient. The values for leadership styles were as follows: charismatic leadership (0.725), bureaucratic leadership (0.577), transformational leadership (0.594), transactional leadership (0.434), democratic leadership (0.577), and autocratic leadership (0.874). The impact of leadership styles on organizational performance was evaluated using a performance scale, which compares the organization's performance against competitors. The reliability of the organizational performance scale was confirmed through item analysis, yielding a reliability alpha value of (0.952), which is considered reliable. The overall reliability shows alpha value 0.847 which confirms the consistency of the components used in this study. The transactional leadership questionnaire's consistency was determined to be inconsistent due to its 0.434 Cronbach alpha. Future researchers are advised by the researcher to revise ensure consistency.

The variables were explained by the questionnaire, and the performance is measured by four components, transformational leadership by six components and charismatic leadership with five components. The transformational leadership was measured by four components, democratic leadership, autocratic leadership, and Bureaucratic leadership by four components each.

A survey method was employed for this study. The questionnaire results were analyzed using descriptive statistical tools such as tables and percentages. A four-point Likert scale (Strongly disagree = 1, to strongly agree = 4) was used to assess the views of respondents. A total of 350 questionnaires were distributed among academic staff across 50 enterprises running in Nepal and 310 valid responses returned. A mean score between 0.0 and 1.5 indicated disagreement, while scores between 1.5 and 5.0 indicated agreement.

As the descriptive statistics mean, standard deviation was used in this study. As inferential statistics correlation analysis, regression analysis was used as per the need of the study.

The performance is measured using 4 components, transformational leadership style and transformational leadership style by using six components. To measure the charismatic leadership style through the five components and transformational leadership style by four components. Democratic leadership has been measured by using four components followed by four components of autocratic leadership style. The study uses the four components to measure Bureaucratic leadership style which was identified from the literature.

Descriptive statistics such as mean; standard deviation was used to identify the status of working performance, correlation was used to identify the relationship between dependent variables and dependent variable, and regression analysis was used to identify the impact of transformational leadership, charismatic leadership, transactional leadership, democratic leadership, autocratic leadership and bureaucratic leadership on the employee performance.

The autocorrelation between the autocratic and bureaucratic leadership style and transactional and transformational leadership style has been corrected using the factor high variance inflation (VIF) before calculating the Regression model.

Research Questions

- How have leadership styles improved employees’ performance by reaching their stated goals?
- Are your leaders always present when needed to give the necessary assistance?
- Will you attest that your leaders always motivate you to achieve your goals and that they do delegate responsibilities?

To address the questions raised above, the following research framework is developed and according to the framework the research activities are carried out.

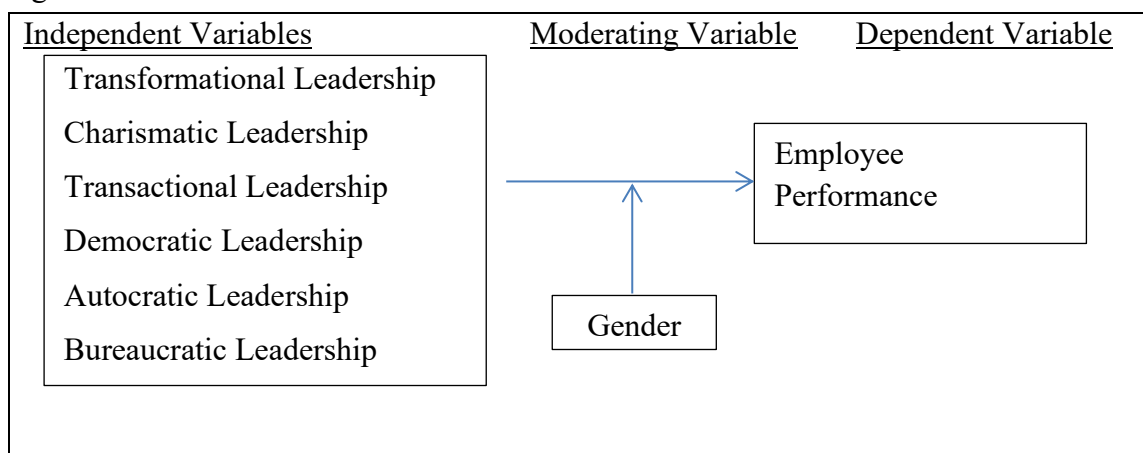


Figure:1 Conceptual Framework

Cronbach’s Alpha (α) is a measure of internal consistency, or how closely related a set of items are as a group. It ranges from 0 to 1, with higher values indicating better reliability.

Reliability

Table 1 Reliability of the Variables

Variables	Cronbach’s Alpha	No. of Items
Performance	0.952	4
Transformational Leadership	0.594	6
Charismatic Leadership	0.725	5
Transactional Leadership	0.434	4
Democratic Leadership	0.577	4
Autocratic Leadership	0.874	4
Bureaucratic Leadership	0.577	4
Overall, Alpha	0.847	31

Overall reliability (alpha = 0.847, 31 items) was determined to be good, indicating that the scale is internally consistent even though some of its subscales were a touch low.

Analysis of Discussion

The facts and conclusions obtained from the survey are analyzed in this section of the study. In order to support and validate similar findings from the researchers' earlier work, the study also offers a discussion of the findings.

Table 2 Descriptive analysis of Performance with Gender effect

Particular	Male		Female		Total	
	Mean	Std.	Mean	Std.	Mean	Std.
My organization enhance Skills of the organization	3.76	.708	3.74	.727	3.75	.716
We have an opportunity to enhance Knowledge	3.64	.653	3.61	.728	3.63	.688
Organization motivates us for higher results	3.66	.685	3.75	.769	3.70	.726
All we have the good behavior appreciated by others	3.69	.640	3.72	.702	3.71	.669

Female No. 145, Male No. 165 and Total No. is 310

According to Table 2, it explored the improvement of Skills with comparable standard deviations, the mean score for skill increase is almost the same for both sexes (males: 3.76, females: 3.74). This implies that perceptions of organizational support for skill development differ little depending on a person's gender. Opportunities for Enhancing Knowledge perceptions are similar for both sexes, with men's mean (3.64) being marginally higher than women's (3.61). Female replies are slightly more variable, as indicated by the greater standard deviation (0.728). Drive for Better Outcomes Compared to men, women reported a little higher mean score (3.75), indicating that they believe the organization is slightly more motivated to help them achieve better outcomes. Indicating different perspectives, the standard deviation is also marginally larger for females. Regarding an appreciation for Good Behavior both males (3.69) and females (3.72) report similar scores, implying consistent organizational appreciation across genders.

Table 3 Descriptive analysis of Transformational Leadership with Gender effect

Particular	Male		Female		Total	
	Mean	Std	Mean	Std	Mean	Std
Our Leader creates the situation to foster the personal growth	3.67	0.531	3.59	0.583	3.64	0.554
Our leaders look at the personal needs of the followers	3.81	0.732	3.71	0.669	3.76	0.716
Our Leaders emphasize the development of employees' values, skills, morality, and motivation emphasize the development of	3.90	0.754	3.79	0.709	3.85	0.734

employees' values, skills, morality, and motivation						
leaders inspire employees to transcend self-interest for the collective goal	3.98	0.604	3.94	0.592	3.96	0.598
A leader fosters intellectual stimulation and meeting emotional needs.	3.82	0.665	3.86	0.677	3.84	0.670
Leaders personalize connection with employees, leading to greater job satisfaction and improved organizational performance	3.78	0.663	3.74	0.635	3.76	0.649
No. 310						

Table 3 explored the exception of "Fostering intellectual stimulation and meeting emotional needs," where females (Mean = 3.86) rated higher than males (Mean = 3.82), males generally gave transformational leadership activities slightly higher ratings than females. Gender may not be a significant factor impacting perceptions of transformative leadership in this population, as seen by the minor variations between male and female scores across all measures. The "Inspiring collective goal" standard deviation is the lowest (0.604 for men and 0.592 for women), suggesting that participants are more in agreement about this leadership style.

Table 4 Descriptive analysis of Transactional Leadership with Gender effect

Particular	Male		Female		Total	
	Mean	Std.	Mean	Std.	Mean	Std.
Focused on exchanges, offering rewards such as promotions, pay raises, or new responsibilities in return for achieving specific goals	4.03	0.499	3.86	0.540	3.95	0.525
Supports the development of organizational and human capabilities while articulating a clear vision for the organization's success	3.82	0.580	3.85	0.680	3.84	0.679
Lacks encouragement for creativity and innovation, potentially limiting employees' ability	3.58	0.495	3.79	0.529	3.68	0.521
My organization enhance Skills of the organization	3.93	0.421	3.92	0.363	3.92	0.395
No. 310						

According to Table 4, the mean is higher for men (4.03) than for women (3.86), suggesting that men view exchange-based rewards (such as raises and promotions) from transactional leadership more favorably than do women. The overall mean (3.95) points to a largely positive opinion. The mean results for males (3.82) and females (3.85) are extremely close, suggesting that there aren't many gender variations in how this leadership trait is perceived supports

development with a clear vision. On the other hand, the overall mean (3.84) suggests that both genders typically agree with this statement.

It's interesting to note that women (3.79) feel more strongly than men (3.58), that they are not encouraged being creative. This suggests that women may feel more limited under transactional leadership styles. A moderate level of agreement is indicated by the total mean (3.68). The means for improving organizational abilities are about the same (3.93 for men and 3.92 for women), indicating that there is no discernible gender difference in perception.

Table 5. Descriptive Analysis of Charismatic Leadership with Gender effect

Components	Male		Female		Total	
	Mean	Std.	Mean	Std.	Mean	Std.
My leaders articulate a clear vision	3.69	.621	3.79	.512	3.74	.574
My Leaders encourages followers to innovate and stay motivated	3.82	.671	3.77	.653	3.80	.662
My leader has the succession planning for future leader	3.64	.862	3.49	.921	3.57	.892
organizations' performance is higher compared to others	3.78	.578	3.75	.618	3.76	.596
Organizational Leaders have ability to foster motivation organizational productivity	3.69	.621	3.81	.514	3.75	.576

No of Respondents: 310, Std. =Standard Deviation

Table 5 pointed out with less variability (smaller SD), female respondents gave their leaders a slightly better rating than male respondents for clearly explaining their vision (3.69, 0.621 male and 3.79, 0.512 female correspondingly). This component received strong ratings from both sexes, with a slightly higher mean for men (3.82, 3.77). Comparable variability in responses is indicated by the same standard deviations (0.671, and 0.653 for male and female, respectively). Men gave this component a significantly higher rating (3.64, 0.8862) than did women (3.49, 0.921). There may be more variations in individual views within the group, as indicated by the higher standard deviation for females. There is a minor variability gap (0.578 and 0.618 Std.) and little mean differences between the two genders' perceptions of organizational performance (3.78 and 3.75 mean value). Female respondents give this quality a higher rating than male respondents (3.69 versus 3.81), suggesting that they believe leaders are better at inspiring employees and increasing output. A more consistent perspective is suggested by the lower SD among females.

Table 6 Descriptive analysis of Democratic Leadership with Gender effect

Particular	Male		Female		Total	
	Mean	Std	Mean	Std	Mean	Std
decentralized decision-making process where authority is shared among subordinates	3.93	0.421	3.92	0.363	3.92	0.395
leadership style carries the risk of poor decision-making and weak execution	3.99	0.406	4.01	0.400	4.00	0.402
motivates employees by valuing their opinions and encouraging participation	3.97	0.373	3.95	0.319	3.96	0.349
all participants have an equal stake and share the same level of expertise	3.93	0.421	3.83	0.408	3.88	0.417

No. 310

Table 6 identified that the dimension is rated about the same by men and women (3.93 for men and 3.92 for women). The standard deviations (around 0.39–0.42) show that the replies varied quite little, and the overall mean of 3.92 indicates a very minor preference for decentralized decision-making. The standard deviations are comparable, indicating that ratings from men and women are equally consistent. The means of the two sexes are extremely close (3.99 for men and 4.01 for women), suggesting that they both perceive the possible hazards associated with the leadership style. Additionally, the standard deviations are close, indicating that there is little difference in the distribution of responses between males and girls.

The mean scores for this question are about the same for both sexes, with men scoring slightly higher at 3.97. Women may hold a significantly more consistent opinion about how leadership promotes involvement, as seen by the slightly lower standard deviation for females (0.319) compared to males (0.373). Here, there is a clear disparity in the means: women gave this dimension a somewhat lower rating of 3.83, while men gave it a 3.93 rating. This discrepancy can be the result of different opinions on who has an equal stake and level of skill in a democratic leadership setting. Nonetheless, the standard deviations are comparable (0.408 for women and 0.421 for men), suggesting that there is a constant variance in viewpoints between the sexes.

Table 7. Descriptive Statistics of Autocratic Leadership with Gender effect

Particular	Male		Female		Total	
	Mean	Std	Mean	Std	Mean	Std
Autocratic leaders are typically authoritative	3.82	0.662	3.78	0.731	3.80	0.694
expect their subordinates to follow directives without question	3.58	0.813	3.53	0.817	3.55	0.814
involves centralized decision-making	3.65	0.818	3.60	0.730	3.63	0.777

limits creativity and encourages one-sided Communication	3.59	0.672	3.52	0.578	3.56	0.630
No. 310						

Table 7 identified that men are somewhat in agreement (3.58) that autocratic leaders demand mindless compliance. There is greater variation in their viewpoints, as indicated by the higher standard deviation (0.813). With a little lower mean (3.53) and a similar degree of variability (0.817), female respondents are slightly less likely to agree with the notion of blindly following instructions. The overall mean (3.55) is nearly the same as the means for the male and female groups, suggesting that there is moderate agreement that autocratic leaders demand uncritical obedience.

Male respondents give this a higher rating (3.65), indicating a greater degree of agreement with authoritarian leadership's centralized decision-making. Compared to men, women give it a somewhat lower rating (3.60) and a lower standard deviation (0.730), suggesting that their answers are a little less variable. With just slight variations across the sexes, the overall mean (3.63) indicates a common understanding of autocratic leadership involving centralized decision-making.

With comparatively little variation in answers (0.672), men generally agree (3.59) that autocratic leadership stifles creativity and promotes one-sided communication. Women's answers show a little less agreement and more consensus, as evidenced by their somewhat lower mean (3.52) and standard deviation (0.578). Although the agreement is marginally stronger among men, the overall mean (3.56) indicates that both sexes share the belief that autocratic leadership stifles creativity and encourages one-sided communication.

Table 8 Descriptive Statistics of Bureaucratic Leadership with Gender effect

Particular	Male		Female		Total	
	Mean	Std.	Mean	Std.	Mean	Std.
Focus on strict adherence to established policies and procedures	3.66	0.610	3.63	0.610	3.65	0.609
Prioritize task completion over employee development and motivation	3.72	0.764	3.70	0.690	3.71	0.729
Systematic execution following detailed procedures	3.79	0.745	3.84	0.684	3.82	0.716
Leaders Detached from their subordinates	3.90	0.646	3.92	0.651	3.91	0.647

No. 310

Table 8 Describes the male respondents had a slightly higher mean (3.66) than female respondents (3.63), but the means for male and female respondents are fairly close. There is comparable diversity in answers within each gender group, as indicated by the fact that the standard deviation is the same for males and females (0.610). A balanced distribution between genders is suggested by the overall mean (3.65) being so near to the gender-specific averages.

Males once more had a somewhat higher mean (3.72) than females (3.70), indicating a minor difference in averages. Male replies are more dispersed or variable than female responses, as seen by the somewhat larger standard deviation for males (0.764) than for females (0.690). There is no discernible gender difference in the overall mean (3.71), which represents the general propensity to put task completion ahead of employee incentive.

The mean for female respondents is 3.84, which is somewhat higher than the mean for male respondents (3.79). This suggests that female respondents may place a slightly higher emphasis on systematic execution. Male replies show slightly greater variety than female responses, as evidenced by the slightly larger standard deviation for males (0.745) compared to females (0.684). The total mean of 3.82 indicates a general preference for systematic execution, but there is no major gender-based discrepancy. The means for males (3.90) and females (3.92) are again very close, with a slight tendency toward females indicating a slightly stronger perception of leaders being detached from their subordinates. The two groups appear to have comparable variability, as indicated by the nearly identical standard deviations (0.646 for males and 0.651 for females). According to the overall mean (3.91), respondents generally believe that the overall mean (3.91) suggests that, on average, respondents feel that leaders are somewhat detached from their subordinates.

Table 9 Association of Variables under study (r)

		PER	TRFL	CHL	TRSL	DL	AL	BL
PER	Pearson's R	1						
	Significance (2 tailed)							
TRFL	Pearson's R	.009	1					
	Significance (2 tailed)	.881						
CHL	Pearson's R	.220**	.326**	1				
	Significance (2 tailed)	.000	.000					
TRSL	Pearson's R	.179**	-.706**	.133*	1			
	Significance (2 tailed)	.002	.000	.019				
DL	Pearson's R	.234**	.053	.187**	-.255**	1		
	Significance (2 tailed)	.000	.350	.001	.000			
AL	Pearson's R	-.161**	.035	.570**	.055	.038	1	
	Significance (2 tailed)	.004	.541	.000	.334	.502		
BL	Pearson's R	-.725**	.068	-.152**	-.044	-.152**	-.222**	1

Significance (2 tailed)	.000	.230	.007	.441	.007	.000
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** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed), . * . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). PER= Performance, TRFL= Transformational leadership, CHL= Charismatic Leadership, TRSL= Transactional Leadership, DL= Democratic Leadership, AL= Autocratic Leadership, BL= Bureaucratic Leadership

Table 9 indicates that Charismatic Leadership and Performance have a 0.220 connection, which is significant at the 0.01 level (p-value = 0.000). The correlation between transformational leadership and performance is 0.179 (p-value = 0.002), which suggests a marginally significant yet positive association. Performance and democratic leadership have a significant but weakly positive association, as seen by the positive correlation (0.234, p-value = 0.000). There is a weak but statistically significant negative association between autocratic leadership style and performance (-0.161, p-value = 0.004) according to the correlation. a significant negative connection (-0.725, p-value = 0.000), suggesting that performance tends to decline with an increase in bureaucratic leadership. The strongest and most important relationship in the table is this one.

Table: 10 ANOVA

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	9.136	6	1.523	23.162	0.000
	Residual	19.918	303	0.066		
	Total	29.054	309			

a. Dependent variables: performance
 b. Predictors: (Constant) revised bureaucratic, revised autocratic, revised transformational, revised transactional, Charismatic Leadership, Democratic Leadership

According to Table 10 the null hypothesis, which states that all regression coefficients are equal to zero and that the independent variables cannot account for the variation in the dependent variable, is tested using the F-statistic (23.162). This is the F-statistic's corresponding p-value. The null hypothesis, according to which the model cannot account for the dependent variable, is tested by the p-value. You may rule out the null hypothesis because the p-value is less than 0.05 (in this instance, 0.000). This implies that the performance variance is substantially explained by the model taken as a whole.

Model		Unstandardized coefficient		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	0.438	0.295		1.483	0.139
	Charismatic	.218	.050	.212	4.333	.000
	Democratic	.144	.043	.166	3.337	.001
	Revised Transformational	.206	.041	.245	5.001	.000
	Revised Transactional	.092	.037	.121	2.490	.013
	Revised Autocratic	.139	.034	-.196	4.047	.000
	Revised Bureaucratic	.124	.034	-.180	3.651	.000
a. Dependent Variable: Performance b. Predictors: (Constant) revised bureaucratic, revised autocratic, revised transformational, revised transactional, Charismatic Leadership, Democratic Leadership						

Table 11 explored the independent variables (leadership styles: bureaucratic, democratic, charismatic, transformational, transactional, and autocratic) significantly contribute to the explanation of performance variance, as indicated by the statistical significance of the model (p-value = 0.000). In comparison to the residual errors, the model offers a good fit to the data, as indicated by the F-statistics of 23.162. Although the model itself is significant, the big Mean Square for Residual (19.198) in comparison to the Mean Square for Regression (0.066) indicates that there is still a significant amount of unexplained variation.

Discussions

This study's main goal was to investigate how several leadership philosophies; transformational, charismatic, transactional, democratic, autocratic, and bureaucratic, affect worker performance, with a particular emphasis on Nepali organizations. The results produced several theoretically and practically important conclusions, some of which are consistent with previous research while others show clear inconsistencies.

Transformational Leadership and Employee Performance

The findings showed a weak but favorable relationship between employee performance and transformative leadership ($r = 0.179$, $p < 0.01$). A considerable favorable influence was also confirmed by regression analysis ($\beta = 0.245$, $p < 0.001$). This result is consistent with a large body of earlier studies. For example, Wang et al. (2011) discovered a favorable correlation between individual and team organizational performance and transformational leadership. In a similar vein, Jyoti and Bhau (2015) found that transformational leaders cultivate individualized relationships with staff members, which increases work satisfaction and enhances organizational performance. The results of this study are consistent with those of Sofi and Devanadhen (2015), who used SEM and SPSS techniques to show that transformational leadership significantly enhances financial companies' organizational performance.

However, research that has found significantly stronger connections are contradicted by the weak correlation ($r = 0.009$ when considering the original correlation prior to regression). For instance, Khajeh (2018) discovered a high and positive correlation between organizational performance and transformative leadership. The study's poor bivariate association ($r = 0.009$, $p = 0.881$) indicates that success in Nepalese public colleges may not be as highly correlated with transformational leadership on their own. Cultural or contextual considerations, such as the likelihood that leaders in this setting are not completely performing transformative behaviors as scored by the scale or that employees in public universities emphasize other leadership traits, could account for this gap.

Charismatic Leadership and Employee Performance

Regression analysis indicated a strong beneficial influence ($\beta = 0.212$, $p < 0.001$), and the study found a significant positive association between charismatic leadership and employee performance ($r = 0.220$, $p < 0.01$). This result defies the claims made by a number of academics. According to Germano (2010), charismatic leaders frequently fail to produce future leaders, which can have a detrimental long-term impact on an organization's success. Similarly, Ojokuku et al. (2012) discovered that while charismatic leadership has a limited capacity to increase motivation and productivity among Nigerian bank employees, it may have a negative impact on organizational performance. Additionally, Khajeh (2018) found a negative correlation between organizational performance and charismatic leadership.

The good results of this study may lend credence to the idea that charismatic leadership can be successful in some situations, especially when workers are looking for inspiration and a clear vision. According to descriptive statistics, female respondents gave leaders higher ratings for creating motivation (mean = 3.81) and communicating a clear vision (mean = 3.79), indicating that charismatic traits are appreciated in this group. The disparity between the current results and those of Ojokuku et al. (2012) could be explained by variations in assessment tools, industry (public colleges versus banks), or national culture.

Transactional Leadership and Employee Performance

Regression analysis verified a significant beneficial influence ($\beta = 0.121$, $p = 0.013$), and the study discovered a significant positive association between transactional leadership and employee performance ($r = 0.179$, $p < 0.01$). This result runs counter to the findings of Khajeh

(2018), who found a negative correlation between organizational success and transactional leadership. Additionally, it runs counter to Sofi and Devanadhen's (2015) contention that transactional leadership does not immediately improve organizational performance and does not foster innovation and creativity, which may hinder employees' capacity to fulfill organizational demands.

The current results, however, corroborate Longe's (2014) claim that transactional leadership enhances organizational performance by creating an atmosphere that permits the acquisition of both tangible and intangible advantages, as well as by encouraging the growth of organizational and interpersonal skills while clearly communicating the company's success vision. According to the study's descriptive findings, transactional leaders prioritize exchanges that offer rewards for reaching particular objectives (mean = 3.95) and encourage the growth of organizational and human capacities (mean = 3.84). However, the researchers pointed out that the transactional leadership scale's dependability was low (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.434$), suggesting that the results for this variable should be evaluated cautiously.

Democratic Leadership and Employee Performance

Regression analysis indicated a strong favorable influence ($\beta = 0.166$, $p = 0.001$), and the study found a significant positive association between democratic leadership and employee performance ($r = 0.234$, $p < 0.01$). This result is highly consistent with previous research. Elenkov (2002) discovered that by enabling employees to take part in decision-making and cultivating a sense of accountability, democratic leadership enhances an organization's capacity to operate. In a similar vein, Bhargavi and Yaseen (2016) discovered that democratic leadership improves organizational performance by enabling staff members to express innovative ideas and take part in decision-making. According to Choi (2007), democratic leaders encourage group engagement and dialogue, which enhances worker productivity.

These conclusions are supported by the descriptive data in this study: respondents concurred that democratic leadership entails decentralized decision-making (mean = 3.92) and inspires workers by respecting their perspectives and promoting involvement (mean = 3.96). The overall positive impact on performance in this sample indicates that the advantages outweigh the disadvantages in the Nepalese public college context, despite the potential disadvantage mentioned by Rukmani et al. (2010)—that democratic leadership assumes all participants have an equal stake and skill level.

Autocratic Leadership and Employee Performance

Regression analysis revealed a strong beneficial influence ($\beta = -0.196$, $p < 0.001$) and a slight but statistically significant negative association ($r = -0.161$, $p < 0.01$) between autocratic leadership and employee performance. The regression coefficient's positive direction runs counter to both the correlation coefficient's negative direction and the majority of the research currently in publication. Since the researchers indicated that autocorrelation was adjusted using variance inflation factors before to creating the regression model, this discrepancy could be caused by multicollinearity or suppression effects.

However, the negative correlation supports the findings of Iqbal et al. (2015), who discovered that autocratic leadership discourages creativity and encourages one-sided communication,

detering employee motivation and satisfaction, and Obiwuru et al. (2011), who described autocratic leaders as authoritative and demanding unquestioning acceptance of instructions. According to Bhargavi and Yaseen (2016), authoritarian leadership may be useful in the short term for accomplishing objectives under duress, but it can also result in disputes that have a long-term detrimental impact on performance. These theoretical claims are supported by descriptive data from the current study, which reveals that respondents believed that authoritarian leaders restrict innovation and promote one-sided communication (mean = 3.56) and expect subordinates to accept orders without question (mean = 3.55).

Bureaucratic Leadership and Employee Performance

The study's most notable conclusion was the significant negative connection ($r = -0.725$, $p < 0.001$) between employee performance and bureaucratic leadership. A strong beneficial influence ($\beta = -0.180$, $p < 0.001$) was also verified by regression analysis; nevertheless, the sign mismatch between correlation and regression indicates complex interrelationships across factors. The present literature is clearly supported by the strong negative association. According to Germano (2010), bureaucratic leaders prioritize task performance over employee motivation and growth and place a great priority on rigorous adherence to rules and processes. They also tend to appear remote from their team.

According to Ojukuku et al. (2012), organizational performance suffers when bureaucratic leadership is unable to motivate staff members to fulfill performance standards. Similar findings were made by Sougui et al. (2015), who discovered that bureaucratic leadership has no beneficial impact on employee and organizational performance. According to the study's descriptive data, respondents thought bureaucratic bosses prioritized job completion over employee growth (mean = 3.71) and were disengaged from their subordinates (mean = 3.91). The remarkably strong negative correlation ($r = -0.725$) indicates that bureaucratic leadership is especially harmful to employee performance in the Nepalese public college setting, possibly because academic staff members need flexibility, autonomy, and creativity—qualities that bureaucratic systems naturally restrict.

Gender as a Moderating Variable

The study examined how various leadership ideologies were viewed by different genders. Descriptive studies revealed minimal gender differences in the majority of leadership factors. For example, perceptions regarding opportunities to expand knowledge (male mean = 3.64, female mean = 3.61) and skills (male mean = 3.76, female mean = 3.74) were nearly identical. However, there were some notable differences: female respondents rated leaders higher on intellectual stimulation and meeting emotional needs under transformational leadership (mean = 3.86 vs. 3.82 for males) and felt more constrained in their creativity under transactional leadership (mean = 3.79 vs. 3.58 for males).

These findings suggest that although gender has no discernible impact on the relationship between leadership and performance, there are slight differences in perception. This supports the need to consider gender in leadership studies, even if the study did not contain inferential statistics for the moderating effect (H_08), leaving this hypothesis only partially addressed.

Overall Model and Unexplained Variance

The entire regression model was significant ($F = 23.162$, $p < 0.001$), suggesting that a substantial amount of the variance in employee performance may be explained by the six leadership styles taken together. However, a significant portion of the variation is still unaccounted for, as evidenced by the huge Mean Square for Residual (19.918) compared to the Mean Square for Regression (1.523). The researchers' original hypothesis that there aren't many studies that have thoroughly investigated the causal relationship between leadership style and financial performance through innovation is supported by this result. To account for the unexplained variance, future studies should include mediating variables like employee involvement, organizational culture, and innovation.

Limitations and Reliability Concerns

The researchers found that the transactional leadership scale's dependability (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.434$) was inconsistent. This runs counter to the 0.70 acceptable threshold that is frequently mentioned in the literature (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). To establish uniformity, it is recommended that future researchers update the transactional leadership questionnaire. Furthermore, the transformative leadership scale showed performance-related marginal reliability ($\alpha = 0.594$). However, a significant portion of the variation is still unaccounted for, as evidenced by the huge Mean Square for Residual (19.918) compared to the Mean Square for Regression (1.523).

The researchers' original hypothesis that there aren't many studies that have thoroughly investigated the causal relationship between leadership style and financial performance, is supported by this result.

Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to investigate how employee performance in Nepalese firms is affected by six different leadership philosophies: transformational, charismatic, transactional, democratic, autocratic, and bureaucratic. The results highlight the significance of contextual elements in influencing leadership effectiveness and add to the body of knowledge on leadership by highlighting both similarities and differences with previous studies.

In line with the findings of Elenkov (2002), Bhargavi and Yaseen (2016), and Choi (2007), the results showed a consistent and favorable relationship between democratic leadership and employee performance ($r = 0.234$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta = 0.166$, $p = 0.001$). This implies that in Nepalese corporate contexts, leaders that value employee engagement, share decision-making authority, and promote group discourse are likely to improve performance outcomes. Wang et al. (2011) and Jyoti and Bhau (2015) were supported by transformational leadership, which also demonstrated a significant positive impact in regression analysis ($\beta = 0.245$, $p < 0.001$). However, its weak bivariate correlation ($r = 0.009$, $p = 0.881$) suggests that its isolated effect may be context-dependent, possibly because of cultural factors or incomplete enactment of transformational behaviors in Nepalese public colleges.

In contrast to the negative results of Germano (2010), Ojukuku et al. (2012), and Khajeh (2018), charismatic leadership showed a substantial positive connection with performance ($r = 0.220$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta = 0.212$, $p < 0.001$). The fact that female respondents rated charismatic leaders highly on expressing vision (mean = 3.79) and encouraging motivation (mean = 3.81) implies that charismatic leadership might be effective in situations where employees seek inspiration and a clear vision. Additionally, transactional leadership produced a significant beneficial influence ($\beta = 0.121$, $p = 0.013$), which contradicted Khajeh (2018) and Sofi and Devanadhen (2015) but supported Longe (2014). However, because of the transactional leadership scale's poor reliability (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.434$), these results should be regarded with caution.

Regression results revealed a positive coefficient ($\beta = 0.196$, $p < 0.001$), indicating potential multicollinearity or suppression effects, but autocratic leadership demonstrated a weak negative correlation with performance ($r = -0.161$, $p < 0.01$), supporting Obiwuru et al. (2011) and Iqbal et al. (2015). Significantly confirming Germano (2010), Ojukuku et al. (2012), and Sougui et al. (2015), bureaucratic leadership showed the largest negative link with employee performance ($r = -0.725$, $p < 0.001$). This result suggests that bureaucratic leadership is especially harmful at Nepalese public universities. This is probably because academic staff members need autonomy, inventiveness, and flexibility—qualities that bureaucratic systems naturally restrict.

Descriptive analyses of gender as a moderating variable showed negligible gender differences in most leadership traits. On the other hand, female respondents reported feeling more limited in their creativity under transactional leadership (mean = 3.79 vs. 3.58) and rated transformational leaders higher on intellectual stimulation (mean = 3.86 vs. 3.82). Although inferential statistics for the moderating impact (H_08) were not completely disclosed, these small perceptual variations underscore the necessity to take gender into account in leadership studies. The entire regression model was significant ($F = 23.162$, $p < 0.001$), suggesting that a substantial amount of the variance in employee performance may be explained by the six leadership styles taken together. The researchers' hypothesis that few studies have methodically investigated the causal pathway relating leadership style to performance is supported by the huge residual mean square (19.918) compared to the regression mean square (1.523), which indicates that significant variance remains unexplained.

Practical Implications

Organizations in Nepal, especially public colleges, should take into account the following suggestions in light of the findings. First, since democratic and transformational leadership styles consistently improve worker performance, they ought to be encouraged. Second, given their detrimental correlations with performance, bureaucratic and autocratic leadership styles ought to be reduced. Third, according to Buckingham and Clifton (2001), leadership development programs should build on current strengths while addressing the "fatal flaws" noted by Zenger and Folkman (2002), such as poor interpersonal skills or an incapacity to learn from failures. Fourth, in order to foster inclusive work settings, it is important to recognize the small disparities in gender perspectives of leadership.

Limitations and Future Research Directions

In view of the findings, organizations in Nepal, particularly public colleges, should consider the following recommendations. First, transformational and democratic leadership approaches should be promoted since they continuously enhance employee performance. Second, bureaucratic and autocratic leadership styles should be minimized due to their negative associations with performance. Third, leadership development programs should build existing strengths while correcting the "fatal flaws" identified by Zenger and Folkman (2002), such as a lack of interpersonal skills or an inability to learn from mistakes (Buckingham and Clifton, 2001). Fourth, it's critical to acknowledge the minor differences in gender viewpoints on leadership in order to promote inclusive work environments.

To explain the significant unexplained variance, future studies should look at mediating factors including employee involvement, company culture, and innovation. Furthermore, cross-cultural comparisons could clarify contextual factors modulating these connections, while longitudinal studies could show causal directions between leadership styles and performance. Lastly, qualitative research may offer more in-depth understanding of how staff members at public universities encounter various leadership philosophies and how these perspectives affect performance results.

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