

**Demographic and personality factors predicting leadership style  
and coping strategies of working women in the public sector: A  
case of Vhembe District in Limpopo Province**

**By**

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## CERTIFICATION

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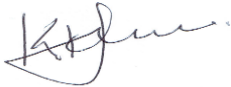


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## DECLARATION

I, Khathutshelo Edith Khashane (Student no: 8704156), hereby declare that this thesis, “Demographic and Personality Factors Predicting Leadership Style and Coping Strategies of Working Women in Public Sector: A Case of Vhembe District in Limpopo Province,” is submitted by me in fulfillment of the requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy Degree at the University of Venda and has not been previously submitted for a degree at this university or any other university and that this is my original work.

Student:



...

Date: 29/09/2021

Khathutshelo Edith Khashane

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## DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my children, Mikovhe, Silindile, and Mulamuleli. Thank you for believing in me. I appreciate your love, patience, sacrifices, support, and prayers during this journey. Without you, I would not have come this far.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENT

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To my late parents, Munyadziwa and Matodzi Khashane, this one is for you.

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## ABSTRACT

Considering the patriarchal nature of most African societies, the workload that most women in management have, and the pressures they are under as they enter the leadership/management field, which is not seen as traditional women's occupations. The existing leadership research is male-dominated, with few capture snapshots of women in management, especially those in the public sector. This study, therefore, is designed to investigate the demographic and personality factors predicting leadership style and coping strategies among working women in the public sector, Vhembe District Municipalities. This study is based on several conceptual frameworks of contingency and transformational theory, focusing on behavior style based on demographic, personality, leadership styles of female leaders, and the coping strategies used by these female leaders.

This study examines the influence of personality factors on leadership style and their coping strategies among women in public sector service of Vhembe District Municipalities in Limpopo Province. It also investigates the relationship between leadership style and coping mechanisms among these groups of participants. Four objectives were developed based on the study's aims in answering the objectives of this study; the quantitative approach was adopted.

A total of three hundred women leaders were surveyed using the Leadership style, coping strategies, Big five personality measures, and demographic factors, and two hundred and four were collected and analyzed. The sample was made up of all women who are in leadership in public sectors. The study measurements were self-administered questionnaires, and data was gathered systematically and analyzed through the statistical research process. This study utilizes a quantitative descriptive, correctional analysis, and stepwise multiple regression approach to gain a new perspective in testing the research hypotheses.

Item analysis was conducted to check the reliability of the scales, and all the scales obtained acceptable Cronbach alphas. In exploring the factor structure of the scales, exploratory factor analysis was conducted, and poor items were removed until a clear and desirable factor solution was obtained. Confirmatory factor analyses were

conducted to validate the data, and all the goodness of fit indexes achieved the required level.

The results shows that there is a significant positive relationship between personality and leadership style, ( $r = 0.318, p < 0.01$ ). There was also a significant positive relationship between personality and coping strategies ( $r = 0.226, p < 0.01$ ). However, there was no relationship between personality and the demographic variables of age, work experience and marital status ( $r = 0.071, p > 0.05$ ;  $r = 0.095, p > 0.05$ ;  $r = 0.052, p > 0.05$  respectively). A significant positive relationship was also found between leadership style and coping strategies ( $r = 0.404, p < 0.01$ ). Another significant positive relationship was also found between leadership style and work experience ( $r = 0.144, p < 0.05$ ). Nevertheless, there was no relationship between leadership style and age ( $r = 0.101, p > 0.05$ ). There was also no relationship between leadership style and marital status ( $r = -0.026, p > 0.05$ ).

The personality factor was significant and positively related to transformational leadership style ( $R^2 = .413, F(1, 185) = 129.991, \beta = .177, t = 5.429, p < 0.01$ ), extraversion is also a significant negative predictor of transformational leadership style ( $R^2 = .550, R^2 \text{ change} - \Delta R^2 = .137, F(2, 184) = 112.419, \beta = -.517, t = -7.689, p < 0.01$ ). Neuroticism was also a negative significant predictor of transformational leadership style ( $R^2 = .583, R^2 \text{ change} - \Delta R^2 = .033, F(3, 183) = 85.155, \beta = -.186, t = -3.701, p < 0.01$ ). Openness to experience was significantly correlated to transformational leadership style ( $R^2 = .599, R^2 \text{ change} - \Delta R^2 = .016, F(4, 182) = 67.984, \beta = -.152, t = -2.731, p < 0.01$ ). Agreeableness was not a significant predictor of transformational leadership ( $\beta = .107, t = 1.496, p > .05$ ). Age was not a significant predictor of transformational leadership style ( $\beta = -.064, t = -1.345, p > .05$ ) and work experience was also not a significant predictor of transformational leadership style ( $\beta = .025, t = .531, p > .05$ ).

Conscientiousness was significant and positively related to transactional leadership style ( $R^2 = .267, F(1, 179) = 65.311, \beta = .240, t = 3.577, p < 0.01$ ). extraversion, was also a significant negative predictor of transactional leadership style ( $R^2 = .354, R^2 \text{ change} - \Delta R^2 = .087, F(2, 178) = 48.868, \beta = -.611, t = -4.596, p < 0.01$ ). neuroticism was also a significant negative predictor of transactional leadership style

( $R^2 = .371$ , R square change -  $\Delta R^2 = .017$ ,  $F(3,177) = 34.796$ ,  $\beta = -.226$ ,  $t = -2.156$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ).

Age was a significant positive predictor of laissez-faire leadership style ( $R^2 = .052$ ,  $F(1, 188) = 10.349$ ,  $\beta = .085$ ,  $t = 3.132$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), extraversion was also a significant positive predictor of laissez-faire leadership style ( $R^2 = .099$ , R square change -  $\Delta R^2 = .047$ ,  $F(2,187) = 10.261$ ,  $\beta = .360$ ,  $t = 3.113$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). Openness to experience was not a significant predictor of laissez-faire leadership style ( $\beta = -.114$ ,  $t = -1.559$ ,  $p > .05$ ) and agreeableness was also not a significant predictor of laissez-faire leadership style ( $\beta = .146$ ,  $t = 1.924$ ,  $p > .05$ ), work experience, was also not significant in predicting laissez-faire leadership style ( $\beta = .016$ ,  $t = .224$ ,  $p > .05$ ).

Conscientiousness was a significant positive predictor of engagement coping strategy ( $R^2 = .298$ ,  $F(1,180) = 65.311$ ,  $\beta = .692$ ,  $t = 4.129$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), agreeableness was also a significant positive predictor of engagement coping strategy ( $R^2 = .337$ , R square change -  $\Delta R^2 = .038$ ,  $F(2, 179) = 45.466$ ,  $\beta = .626$ ,  $t = 3.221$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). Extraversion was not a significant predictor of engagement coping strategy ( $\beta = .032$ ,  $t = .455$ ,  $p > .05$ ) and openness to experience was also not a significant predictor of engagement coping strategy ( $\beta = -.021$ ,  $t = -.340$ ,  $p > .05$ ). Neuroticism was also not a significant predictor of engagement coping strategy ( $\beta = .067$ ,  $t = .829$ ,  $p > .05$ ).

Agreeableness was a significant negative predictor of disengagement coping strategy ( $R^2 = .150$ ,  $F(1, 181) = 32.017$ ,  $\beta = -.912$ ,  $t = -4.578$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), openness to experience was also a significant positive predictor of disengagement coping strategy ( $R^2 = .287$ , R square change -  $\Delta R^2 = .136$ ,  $F(2,180) = 36.178$ ,  $\beta = 2.559$ ,  $t = 7.137$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), extraversion was also a significant positive predictor of disengagement coping strategy ( $R^2 = .349$ , R square change -  $\Delta R^2 = .062$ ,  $F(3,179) = 31.944$ ,  $\beta = 1.706$ ,  $t = 4.127$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). Conscientiousness and neuroticism were not significant in predicting disengagement coping strategy ( $\beta = -.077$ ,  $t = -.856$ ,  $p > .05$ ;  $\beta = .061$ ,  $t = .779$ ,  $p > .05$  respectively).

The results provide sufficient evidence that personality factors predict working women's leadership styles and coping strategies in leadership. Leadership style is influenced by coping strategy and the work experience gain. Personality factors reflect people's characteristics, patterns of thoughts, feelings, and behavior's and they also

imply consistency and stability of people. Women in leadership are also influenced by situational forces that predict their leadership style and coping strategy.

It is suggested that the management of public sector organizations understudy should develop social programs that will support all women in leadership to cope with their duties. Those organizations with younger women can establish creches inside their organizations to make it easy for women with young kids to drop them in the morning and pick them up after work. It will be easier for the women not to rush in the morning and afternoon to drop and pick up the kids. The management may also establish policies that will support the women in leadership, like maternity leave and family responsibility leave, giving them more moral support. It must include training and development policies that can also support women in leadership. More training on leadership styles and emotional intelligence training will aid the women in leadership and equip them with coping strategies to manage their respective organizations.

**Keywords:** Leadership style, coping strategies, female leadership, personality factors



## CHAPTER 1

### INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

#### 1.1. Introduction

Leadership is a highly sought-after and highly valued commodity and has gained the attention of researchers worldwide (Northouse, 2016). As a subject that has long excited interest among people, leadership connotes images of influential, dynamic individuals who command victorious armies, direct corporate empires from atop gleaming skyscrapers, or shape the course of nations (Yukl, 2013). In as much as the exploits of brave and clever leaders is the essence of many legends and myths (Yukl, 2013), leadership styles adopted depended much on leaders' traits and motives (Post, 2006; Milinkovic and Kovacevic, 2020).

This chapter introduces the study on demographic and personality factors predicting leadership style and coping strategies of working women in the public sector: a case of Vhembe District in Limpopo Province. In doing that, the background of the study is presented, followed by a statement of the problem, research aims, objectives, and hypotheses.

#### 1.2. Background of the study

The critical characteristic of inclusive and sustainable growth or social justice is equitable employment for men and women at work. A sustainable society can ensure equal work opportunities, leadership, decisions and gender access, and quality education

(Esquivel, 2016). In addition, reducing prejudice at work has become an important goal in the UN's 2030 Sustainable Development Agenda (UN). Therefore, gender equality at work has become a mainstream issue in public sector management (Yang & Jeong, 2020).

Several studies have made a case for improving diversity in management and helping women access leadership positions. A substantial body of research has demonstrated that women's leadership has shown the potential to contribute to better corporate governance for many reasons (Glass, Cook & Ingersoll, 2016; Man & Wong, 2013). More female leaders have emerged since women are generally under-represented in "old boys' networks" that promote access to leadership, policy change, advocacy, and support for women's access and visibility. Women's leadership continues to grow (OECD, 2020). More women have risen to management positions in both public and private organizations. For instance, since 2000, Africa has seen the fastest growth in women's image in leadership. More women have occupied high-level positions in the continent (Erwee, 1994; Coetzee, 2008; Okpilike & Abamba, 2013). Some parts of Africa at a particular time have had or are still having women as the head of the country, such as Malawi and Liberia's head of state (Wikipedia). In South Africa, a leadership evolution has taken place, with women rising to crucial positions. For the first time, a South African woman was the Chairperson of the African Union Commission (Wikipedia). Despite these advancements, a major concern is what women have made of a leadership position. The current performance or behavior enacted have implications for future access and acceptance of women leadership.

Leadership is a fascinating concept that is considered one of the critical functions of management and, as such, has been a subject of considerable research (Obogdougou, 2010; Tannenbaum, Weshler, & Massarik, 2013). Leadership has been a matter of concern that started years back and can be traced back to the philosophers of Ancient Greece (Papalexandris & Galanaki 2012). Still, the need for significant leadership discussion has hit the top of today's world, where the achievement of organizations and individuals depends on the success of leaders (Bolden, 2004; Gumus, Bellis, Esen & Gumus, 2018). Leadership represents one of the critical factors in organizational success or failure, as the behavior or actions affect the value of a company's shares (Bennis, 2000; Mohammed & Hossern, 2006). Also, Swedish researchers have demonstrated that leaders affect organizational climate (Ekvall & Arvonen, 1994).

There are many definitions of leadership (Northouse, 2016). There is no single definition of leadership in the literature (Bush, 2008; Yukl, 2002; Northouse, 2016). Kruse (2013) defines leadership as a process of social influence that maximizes others' efforts and achieves goals, while Leithwood and Riehl (2003) stated that two functions in leadership are providing direction and exercising influence. Appelbaum, Audet, and Miller (2003) define leadership as an ingredient for corporate success. Rising to more senior positions requires a person to be recognized as a leader with full leadership potential.

Researchers such as Chemers (1997) and Chin (2015) define leadership as a process of social influence in which a person can enlist the aid and support of others in accomplishing a common task. Some other definitions of leadership include Coughlin, Wingard, and Hollihan (2005), who refer to effective leadership as a journey of an

individual of personal understanding that starts from within. Yang, Huang, and Wu, cited by DuBrin (2004), also define leadership as goals achieved through communicating with others. Bass (1990) describes it as a collaboration between team members to align with the situation, expectations, and perceptions and of the members. All the definitions of leadership cited above point to leadership as a set of qualities and competencies which allow individuals to apply suitable leadership styles for different situations to influence subordinates towards a common goal of achieving a task.

Leadership is a broad concept, and various theories and styles of leadership (Lunenburg, 2003). Female leadership is just one branch of this concept and can also be defined in different ways. Some researchers understand female leadership as the fact that women can be leaders and they are leaders. Others may define it from a feminist point of view and as equality and the right to have the same opportunities (Gumus, Bellibas, Esen & Gumus, 2018; Hoang, 2019). Others refer to female leadership as specific feminine characteristics valuable in today's organizations, while others think that leadership should not be differentiated from female leadership (Palmu-Jorenen, 2009).

Leadership is a complex phenomenon that touches on many other critical organizational, social, and personal processes (Shaver, 2012). It depends on a process of influence, whereby people are inspired to work towards group goals, not through coercion but personal motivation. The demands of present-day social and organizational conditions, particularly in the high-technology and knowledge economies of the world, have increasingly placed traditional views of leadership in question (Pietersen, 2006; Robbins, Odendaal & Roodt, 2013). These conventional views of thinking have rapidly

changed in the 21st century. Much has been written about the different leadership styles of managers (Alzougool, AlMansour, & AlAjmi, 2021). However, little has been devoted to focusing on women's leadership styles in particular; a leadership style is defined as "relatively stable patterns of behavior displayed by leaders." Nowadays, having a good leader is one of most organizations' goals (Alzougool et al., 2021).

Immelman (2015) stated in a recent global study of leadership in more than two hundred business organizations reports that young people today build their career models on their peers rather than figures of authority. The factors predict nearly fifty percent of the school leaders' leadership styles. However, the results of these studies are inconsistent. Other studies indicated positive, while some have shown negative or no relationship between leadership styles and demographic variables. Based on the inconsistency of evidence in the literature, this study's objectives are to identify demographic factors that influence the leadership styles of working women.

Various constructs and predictors have been posited as determinants of leadership during past years, including general intelligence, personality, values, and even genetic factors (Kerr, Gavin, Heaton, Boyle, 2006; Shalaby, 2017). Though the proposition that traits can predict and explain differences in leadership emergence or leadership effectiveness has sometimes been viewed with skepticism, recent research has firmly established the largeness of these types of constructs in predicting leadership criteria. Judge, Bono, Ilies, and Gerhardt (2002) present their meta-analysis results, showing that personality variables are consistently and reliably correlated with leadership emergence and leadership effectiveness. Chan and Drasgow (2001) demonstrate that some

cognitive, personality, and motivational constructs are related to leadership potential across samples from different international environments. Further, Schneider, Paul, White, and Holcombe (1999) show that various constructs drawn from the personality, interests, and motivation domains predict socio-emotional and task-goal leadership among high school students.

Different leadership traits of managers can determine the success of various organizations (Muller & Turner, 2007; Gehring, 2007). Lekganyane and Oosthuizen (2006) stated that stable leadership is very crucial in coping with change. Their study makes the most of the various leadership traits shown by other authors as relevant for leadership success (Lekganyane & Oosthuizen, 2006). Their findings from a study on middle managers revealed that integrity, intelligence, and high energy are the most dominant traits. Leadership qualities that were not dominant and required attention were flexibility, sensitivity to others, and stability (Lekganyane & Oosthuizen, 2006).

A relationship of traits and personality becomes apparent in the discipline of Industrial Psychology and Organizational Psychology. Westen (1996) and Ayman (2004) defined personality traits as emotional, cognitive, and behavioral tendencies that constitute underlying dimensions of personality on which individuals vary. Hunt (2004) pointed out that no set of leadership traits and characteristics are available for the specified situation (Robbins, Odendaal & Roodt, 2013). These traits and characteristics are determined by employee preferences, extraneous variables, and the essence of work. Research quoted by Lober & Farrel (1991) cited in Murphy and Pirozzolo (2002) and Eagly and Carli (2003) showed that there are no consistent group differences between

men and women in terms of the following factors: sociability, suggestibility, self-esteem, role-learning ability, analytical skills, achievement motivation, and managerial motivation, but there do exist areas where men and women differ. Some personality traits such as alertness, originality, personal integrity, creativity, emotional balance, nonconformity, and self-confidence are equally associated with effective leadership (Lober & Farrel 1991). Lober and Farrel (1991) believe that a physically prominent leader must secure compliance from subordinates. This notion of insuring compliance relies heavily on coercion or fear as the basis of power.

While most studies have demonstrated that personality variables help predict various aspects of job performance (Barrick & Mount, 1991 & Hough, 1992), there is also evidence that such variables predict different leadership criteria. Judge et al. (2002) meta-analyzed 222 correlations from 73 samples providing personality data according to the five-factor model; also (Judge et al., 2002) found that measures of extraversion correlated .31, measures of consciousness correlated .28, measures of openness correlated .24. Measures of neuroticism correlated -.24 with leadership emergence (after correlations of unreliability but not range restriction). Similar findings have been reported previously by Hogan, Curphy, and Hogan (1994), Yulk (1998), and Daft (1999). Thus, there is a substantial research base establishing a link between personality variables and leadership. The present study focuses on personality factors: Openness to experience, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness, and Neuroticism, on women's leadership styles and coping strategies.

In 2013, the *Talouselama* magazine in Finland surveyed women's careers, interviewing 128 women in high positions (Heiskanen, 2013). More women answered that the most crucial factor that advanced their career and enabled them to cope is their determination. They also responded that the lack of sufficient networks and support makes women depend on themselves and have the will to pursue their careers. They also reported that supporting managers and spouses was an essential impetus for them to succeed. Many female leaders consider mentoring a positive tool for coping with pursuing managerial positions (Heiskanen, 2013).

### **1.3. Statement of the problem**

Leadership has always been a significant challenge facing South Africa at different levels of social governance (Dentom & Vloeberghs, 2003). At the general level of understanding, most people believe that due to the low quality of leadership offered by our leaders at the political, economic, and social levels of governance, South Africa has been unable to fully exploit its economic and social potential (Gilson & Daire, 2011; Rosentha & Pittinsky, 2006). Leading people in a company is one thing, yet another, for the leadership style implemented in such an environment to build employee satisfaction (Milinkovic & Kovacevic, 2020). The biological fact of life, or what can be defined as the possibility of being male or female, has always influenced in many respects, including our working behaviors and the general view of life (Lloyd, 2002; Alison, 2007). Biological gender (sex) and social gender (gender role expectations) have always had a profound



impact on human motivations and behavior (Fletcher, 2004; Patterson, Mavin, & Turner, 2012).

Studies on leadership style show some interesting divergences for both autocratic and democratic leaders. According to Okenwa and Ugbo (2001), leadership styles are a leader's behavioral patterns when integrating organization and personal interest in pursuing goals. In the sense of an autocratic dictator, leadership is all about making decisions (Khan, Khan, Qureshi, Ismail, Rauf, Latif & Tahir (2015). The leader is always mindful of retaining power and has little trust and faith in the subordinates. Close control and oversight, a high degree of centralization, and limited community and individual participation define an autocratic leadership style (Igboeli, 1990; Khan, Khan, Qureshi, Ismail, Rauf, Latif & Tahir 2015).

In contrast, a democratic leader engages in group decision-making (Igboeli, 1990; Khan, Khan, Qureshi, Ismail, Rauf, Latif & Tahir (2015). Authority is autonomous and promotes the free flow of information. The leader makes very little use of their influence, allowing the subordinates a high degree of independence or free reign in their operations. These leaders largely depend on subordinates to set their own goals and the means to achieve them (Koontz & Weihrich, 1988). The leadership literature problem lies in their portrayal of leadership as a male domain (Patterson, Mavin, & Turner, 2012). A leader is always portrayed as he is, thereby providing a masculine sense of leadership and conception. Patterson et al., 2012 allotted that inside South Africa, a strong focus on fostering gender equity has seen many women rise to leadership positions. Examination of leadership practice has repeatedly uncovered lenses for people (Patterson, Mavin, &

Turner, 2012). Leadership is often presented in many cases as gender-neutral or blind as if the leader's body is irrelevant to their leadership (Fletcher, 2004; Patterson et al., 2012). A leadership style that is viewed as gender-neutral, for example, is authentic leadership (Gardner, Avalio, & Walumbwa, 2005).

Against this background, this study endeavors to examine the influence of personality factors on leadership styles among those women in positions of power. As indicated above, most studies focused on the leadership styles but not investigated if the leadership style is linked with that leader's personality factors. By focusing specifically on women in the public sector or institutions, this study further examines women's coping strategies in a leadership position to deliver their duties as leaders.

#### **1.4. Research Aim**

This study investigates demographic and personality factors predicting leadership style and coping strategies of working women in the public sector: a case of Vhembe District in Limpopo Province to develop a model supporting women in leadership. It also investigates the relationship between leadership style and coping mechanisms among these groups of participants.

#### **1.5. Research Objectives**

- To examine the influence of personality factors: openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism on women's

leadership and leadership styles, transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire.

- To examine women's personality factors in leadership and coping strategies, which are engagement and disengagement.
- To determine the impact of demographics variables of status, education, experience, and age on women's leadership and coping strategies.
- The study will investigate the relationship between leadership style at the workplace and women's coping strategies.
- Finally, the study will develop the model of supporting women in leadership in the public sector.

## **1.6. Research Hypotheses**

The study tested the following hypotheses:

H1: There would be a significant relationship between personality, leadership style, coping strategies, and demographic factors among women in leadership.

H2: Age, work experience, and personality factors would jointly and independently predict transformational leadership styles among women in leadership positions.

H3: Demographic and personality factors would jointly and independently contribute significantly to the Transactional leadership style among women in leadership.

H4: Openness to experience, agreeableness, extraversion, and demographic characteristics would jointly and independently predict positively towards Laissez-faire leadership style among women in leadership positions.

H5: There would be a significant relationship between personality and engagement coping strategies among women in leadership.

H6: Extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness would jointly and independently predict significance towards disengagement as a coping strategy among women in leadership positions.

### **1.7. Significance of the Study**

Until now, most of the research has focused primarily on getting women to leadership positions. Leadership studies tend to compare the leadership styles of both men and women. The theoretical approach indicated the relationship between gender and leadership (Eagly & Johnson, 1990; Appelbaum, Audet, & Miller, 2003; & Rhee & Sigler, 2015). However, there is a lack of research focusing on leadership-style determinants and working women's coping strategies in leadership roles (Gouws & Kotze, 2007). The study wants to contribute to the reviews to investigate the personality and demographics that affect women's leadership style and their mechanisms or strategies to cope with it.

Good leadership is an ability, not a gender-specific attribute; it is a capacity that has been created (Owusu, Kalipeni, Awortwi, & Kiiru, 2017). Education expected to play

a transformative role has forced women to accept and pursue what society expects of them at the cost of what they hope to achieve (De La Rey, 2008). The research would support all women in leadership in any company, as it will help them identify the factors influencing a specific leadership style adoption. This study would provide baseline information on leadership style determinants and coping mechanisms to future researchers in South Africa and other countries.

### **1.8. Operational definitions of terms**

In the 1990s, leadership thinkers began to give the leadership process significance to followers. Bass (1990) established a breakthrough in this field when he noted that leadership was not just a process of the leader's influence on others but a process of interaction that could be influenced by anyone involved. According to Ukeje (1996), leadership involves one person trying to get others to do something he wants them to do. He also considers it as being capable of leading. Ile (1999) described leadership as influencing people, so they actively strive to achieve community goals. While Ile (1999), clarify leadership as the guide, act, direct, precede, and show the way by going first.

Igboeli (1990) defined leadership as a process by which people are directed, influenced, and guided in achieving group goals, while Nwachukwu (1988) described it as a social influencing process for attaining objectives. Leadership is the process of directing and influencing the task-related activities of members given Stoner and

Freedman (1992). In comparison, Akpala understands leadership as displaying the ability to motivate and integrate followers to achieve determined organizational goals.

Owusu-Bempah (2014) cited several other scholars who favored a follower-centered approach between 1992 and 2001, stressing the importance of followers and positions in the leadership system. Handy (1992) emphasized the importance of creating a vision for the leader and sharing this vision with others. Rost (1993) also stressed that leadership was a process of relationships to achieve some common goals. Leadership refers to activities tied to the core work of the organization that organizational members design to influence the motivation, knowledge, affect, or practices (Spillane & Diamond, 2007)

Leadership will be observed in this study as a process of influencing others without gender-based, to work willingly and to the best of their abilities to fulfill the goals of the organization (Igboeli, 1990; Ukeje, 1996; Ile, 1999; Handy, 1992; Rost, 1993; & Werner, 2003). The study will be concentrating on predicted leadership styles by personality factors.

Personality consists of the characteristic patterns of thoughts, feelings, and behaviors that make a unique person (Agarwal, 2016). Besides this, personality develops within the adult and remains constant throughout his life (Engler, 1998: 2; Van Wagner, 2008; Ready & Robinson, 2008). Some of the primary personality characteristics include (a) consistency with a clear structure and regularity. In a variety of situations, people are essentially behaving in the same way or similar ways. (b) Psychological and physiological

- personality is a psychological construct, but research suggests that biological processes and needs influence it. (c) Impact behaviors and actions - personality does not just influence how we move and react in our environment; it also *causes* us to act somehow. (d) Various gestures-personality is shown in more than pure behavior. Our thoughts, feelings, close relationships, and other social interactions can also be seen (Tett & Burnett, 2003; Van Wagner, 2008; Ready & Robinson, 2008).

Personality factors or traits are understood as stable behavior patterns since young adulthood (Wiggins & Pincus, 1992). According to Diener and Lucas (2020), personality factors reflect people's characteristic patterns of thoughts, feelings, and behaviors. Personality factors imply the consistency and stability of someone who scores high on a specific trait. For example, Extraversion is expected to be sociable in different situations and over time (Diener & Lucas, 2020). Personality factors rest on the idea that people are different regarding their position on basic trait dimensions that persist over time and across different situations. The most widely used system of factors is called the Five-Factor Model which the study will concentrate and elaborate on how the following five factors, which are Openness to experience, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness, and Neuroticism, influence women in leadership, their leadership styles, and coping strategies which are the engagement and disengagement.

**Demographic variables:** demographic variables are personal statistics that include gender, education level, race, ethnicity, marital status, income level, and experiences (Murphy & Ensher, 1999). Demographic variables are the social categories of people based on age, race, ethnicity, sex, national origin, or information about age, marital status,

employment, gender, and work experience (Tsui & Gutek, 1999). The study will examine the role played by demographic factors in women's leadership styles in leadership positions.

**Coping strategy:** Coping is mainly a psychological term, and although there were several interpretations, they all seem to share a fundamental idea that is coping is a struggle with expectations, disagreements, and emotions (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Schuler, 1984; Yackel, 1983). The Webster New World Dictionary (2012) defines coping with fighting or contending successfully or dealing with problems or troubles. This is different from defense mechanisms that the Webster New World Dictionary (2012) describes as any behavior or thought process unconsciously brought into use by an individual to protect himself against painful or anxiety-provoking feelings, impulses, and perceptions. The critical difference is that the individual's coping requires a degree of thinking.

Cohen and Lazarus (1979) described coping as action-oriented and intrapsychic attempts to handle environments and internal demands and conflicts between them that tax or exceed a person's resources. Subsequently, Lazarus and Folkman (1984) revised this definition as the ever-changing cognitive and behavioral efforts to manage specific external and internal demands assessed as taxing or exceeding a person's resources. The inclusion of both defensive and coping strategies is included in this description. Coping should describe how stressors affect people and when and when they encounter adverse health and well-being effects (Skinner et al., 2003). At present, both theoretical and empirical evidence exists that coping matters and that specific coping strategies work better than others (e.g., Skinner et al., 2003; Britt et al., 2016).



While no published study has comprehensively analyzed correlates of women's involvement in leadership coping variables, some work in the general coping and domestic violence literature suggests the possible significance of (a) abuse-related factors, (b) socio-economic and social coping mechanisms, and (c) childhood trauma (Holahan & Moos, 1987; Mitchell & Hodson, 1986; Waldrop & Resick, 2004).

There is some evidence from samples of women that are battered at higher levels of abuse which are positively associated with the use of both engagements and disengagement forms of coping (Dutton, Goodman, & Bennett, 1999; Jacobson et al., 1996; Marshall, 1996; Mitchell & Hodson, 1983; Strube, 1988). The study needs to investigate engagement and disengagement coping strategies for working women in leadership positions in Public Sector.

### **1.9. Outline of the study**

Perry (1998) recommended that the research study be structured in five chapters, which is standard for doctoral dissertation in the management sciences and human resource management discipline. The dissertation chapters are structured as follows:

**Chapter 1: Introduction** – The chapter introduces the research. This was done by giving an introduction and background to the study and its context within Vhembe District. The critical study variables, namely personality factors, leadership styles, and coping strategies, were also introduced. The problem statement was highlighted. The aim and

objectives of the study and the research hypotheses were presented. The chapter also encapsulates the significance of the study.

**Chapter 2: Literature Review** – The chapter elucidates the construct of personality factors, leadership styles, and coping strategies. The theoretical foundation of the study is also laid, an empirical and conceptual model is developed.

**Chapter 3: Research Methodology** –The chosen research methodology is justified and tendered by assessing alternative research designs and methods, thus pronouncing the selected method as most appropriate for answering the research questions and problem. The method's details include the research design, sampling procedure, data collection methods, data analysis, and the measuring instruments' psychometric properties. Ethical issues are also addressed in this chapter.

**Chapter 4: Results** – Data is presented with interpretation and analysis. The results from data analysis are presented. Statistical analyses constituted the contents of this chapter.

**Chapter 5: Discussion and Conclusions** – The research concludes with a comprehensive discussion of the results from tested hypotheses. Practical and theoretical recommendations from the results are presented in this chapter. Chapter five concludes by stating the limitations of the study as well as directions for future research.

## 1.10. Conclusion

This chapter addressed the research issue, its context, research goals, and research questions. The research background illustrated how previous studies perceive those variables. The researcher has managed to expand on the study's purpose and justification. Research hypotheses were developed in attempting to answer the research questions. The significance of the study was outlined, and this led to the review of the literature.

## CHAPTER TWO

### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### 2.1. Introduction

This chapter reviewed the theoretical and empirical studies related to women's personality factors and leadership styles in leadership and their coping strategies. A detailed exposition of the theories used as guidelines in explaining the variables is made—then followed by the empirical studies indicating how these three variables of personality factors, leadership styles, and coping strategies of women in leadership positions.

#### 2.2. Theoretical framework

Eisenhart (1991) defined a theoretical framework as a structure that guides research by relying on a formal theory constructed using an established, coherent explanation of certain phenomena and relationships. According to Creswell (2014), a theoretical framework consists of concepts and definitions, references to relevant scholarly literature, the existing theory used for the study. The theoretical framework is presented in the ensuing paragraphs to indicate the extent of the operationalization throughout the study. It is prudent to conceptualize leadership in presenting such a

framework to link it to leadership styles, personality, and coping strategies within the theoretical framework context.

### 2.2.1. Leadership

Leadership is a comprehensive concept, and there are different leadership theories and styles. Female leadership is only one sector of the concept of leadership that can be defined in many respects. Other individuals consider female leadership to be leaders, and others can describe females as females from a feminist perspective and equal opportunities. Another relates to certain feminine features that in our present organization are important. Some believe that leadership should not be distinguished from women's leadership (Palmu-Joronen, 2009).

When dealing with females in leadership, the features considered in decision-making, problem-solving, and accomplishment are often contrasted. Some of the features often observed in women leaders are social skills, social interaction and communication style, recognition of differences, being multi-skilled, and working well in groups. (Piha, 2006). These features represent different kinds of leadership behavior that both men and women can apply.

People who have a task focus tend to concentrate heavily on the details of the specified assignment. They cannot initiate an action plan comfortably until they are satisfied with all the necessary data. Conversely, individuals with relationship-oriented characteristics tend to concentrate heavily on the consequence and start an action plan comfortably if they only have the vital facts (Blake & Mouton, 1982; Garg & Jain, 2013).

Therefore, a female leader needs to understand personality factors predicting the leadership style to the management situation.

Appelbaum, Audet, and Miller (2003) defined leadership as an ingredient for corporate success. Moving to more senior positions requires a person to be recognized as a leader and have full leadership potential. The concept of leadership comprises three aspects: people, goals, and influence (Daft, Kendrick, & Vershinina, 2010). Leadership is an effective action and is used to achieve goals. Leadership is people-driven, and inspiring people help achieve an organization's objectives (Daft, Kendrick, & Vershinina, 2010). Leadership can be seen as a tool or process of motivating people. The different leadership styles derive from different ways of motivating people, different kinds of goals, and the nature of the organization (Hannagan, 2008).

According to Ile (1999), to lead means guiding, conducting, directing, precede, and showing the way by going first. Ile (1999) went further to define leadership as the ability to lead people. Leadership is generally defined as an influence (Ile, 1999). It is the art of influencing people to strive willingly towards the achievement of group goals. In Ukeje's (1996) view, leadership involves one person trying to get others to do something that he wants them to do. According to Igboeli (1990), leadership means a process by which people are directed, guided, and influenced in achieving group goals. Akpala (1990) said that leadership displays the ability to motivate and integrate followers to achieve determined organizational goals. Stoner and Freedman (1992) defined leadership as the process of directing and influencing the task-relating activities of group members. Based

on the above definitions, we conceive leadership as influencing others to work willingly and to the best of their capabilities towards the leader's goals.

Kets de Vries (2001) points out that leadership is property, a set of characteristics, or behavior patterns and personality attributes that make certain people more effective at attaining a goal. It is also a process, an effort by the leader, drawing on various power bases to influence group members to direct their activities toward a common goal.

Kippenberger (2002) defines leadership style as the style a leader adopts with those who follow him. He explains that style is generally taken to mean a way of behaving. The appropriate style will depend on various criteria, like the relationship between the parties, the nature of what is needed, and the match or mismatch between the task difficulty task and the competencies available. Current thinking on leadership styles emphasizes two major behavior dimensions: task-oriented and people-oriented, also known as relationship-oriented. This two-dimensional model of leadership style that focuses on concern for people, and concern for production, is part of a long tradition in organizational research (Means, 1990; Malphurs, 2003). Task-oriented leadership focuses on the accomplishment of one or several goals. People-oriented leadership focuses on relating to themselves and others (Malphurs, 2003; Means, 1990).

Kets de Vries (2001) points out that leadership is property, a set of characteristics, behavior patterns, and personality attributes that make certain people more effective at attaining a set goal. However, it is also a process, an effort by a leader, drawing on various power bases, to influence members of a group to direct their activities toward a common

goal. Because leadership cannot take place without followers and always has situational factors that must be considered, Kets de Vries (2001) defines leadership style as the point of interaction between three things. Those three things are namely, leader character, followers' character, and situation. Each one of those is deliberated in the ensuing paragraphs:

- (i) The leader's character type – their values, attitudes, and beliefs, their position, and experience
- (ii) The followers' character types – their values, attitudes, and beliefs, their cohesiveness as a group; and
- (iii) The situation – the nature of the task, the organization's life stage, its structure and culture, its industry, and the broader socio-economic and political environment

Kets de Vries (2001) explains that an individual's leadership style as a synthesis of various roles that they choose to adopt is a complex outcome of the interplay of that person's inner theatre and their competencies throughout their lifespan. An individual's inner theatre comprises motivational needs, character traits, and behavioral patterns called personal, cognitive, and social competencies.

On this point, Kippenberger (2002) argues that inherent in the concept of leadership styles is the assumption that an individual can change their style at will. To survive and to make headway in most organizations, people learn to become good actors, sometimes acting out of character to smooth the path where necessary. Most people can



readily change their outward behavior to fit the circumstances, like looking sad, acting happy, or putting on a grim face, as appropriate. Human beings are also astonishingly adaptable. They can change their usual mode of behavior for extended periods where necessary, for example, when thrust into an unexpected situation like an emergency.

According to Kets de Vries (2001), the degree to which we can subvert or distort our natural feelings and our instinctive behavior patterns is necessarily limited. It does happen for an extended period; we are likely to develop what he describes as a false self. People in this position are unlikely to be able to provide effective leadership. According to Kippenberger (2002), how we lead reflects our character, personality, and experience. As a result, the range of styles we can properly adopt is inevitably limited. If a person puts himself in the highly stressful role of leader without acknowledging this reality, it is to court disaster.

Leadership style is one of the most important human-resource-related outcomes and perhaps one of the most studied management and industrial psychology topics. It might be because leadership happens to be the core and sometimes-contentious issue in organizational research (Kesting et al., 2016; Meindl, 2013; Puni, Ofei & Okoe, 2014). Psychologists Lewin, Lippitt, and White (1939) identified three major leadership styles, namely, democratic, autocratic, and laissez-faire. Leadership enables organizations to be more productive and profitable. Still, the extent of success depends on the leader's style and the resultant environment created for employees to function well. Asrar-ul-Haq and Kuchinke (2016) view that managers' kind of leadership style to a large extent influences

valued organizational outcomes such as low employee turnover, reduced absenteeism, customer satisfaction, and organizational effectiveness.

Similarly, leadership style controls interpersonal reward and punishment that shapes employee behavior, motivation, and attitude, impacting organizational performance (Puni et al., 2014). It can either lead to inspiration or disenchantment among employees resulting in an increase or decrease in productivity. Furthermore, leadership style can affect an employee's self-image either positively or negatively, particularly an employee's health (Kahn & Katz 1952). Most leadership theorists agree that the traits, style, and contingency theories dominate the leadership literature (Jung et al., 2014; Kesting et al., 2016; Schein, 2015).

### 2.2.2. Leadership Approaches and Theories

Scientific research on leadership did not begin until the 20<sup>th</sup> century. Since then, there has been considerable research on the subject from various perspectives (Lourens, 2001). Stewart & Manz (1995) designed a frame or typology of leadership approaches to make meaningful discussions (see fig 2.1 below). The approach will be further discussed concerning a variety of writers regarding the different theories (Stewart & Manz, 1995; Reiche, Bird, Mendenhall & Osland, 2017)

A theory is an explanation that is based on thought, observation, and reasoning. The theory is a method of a science or art rather than its practice. Theories in use guide what people do, and it is an explicit program that specifies how to behave.

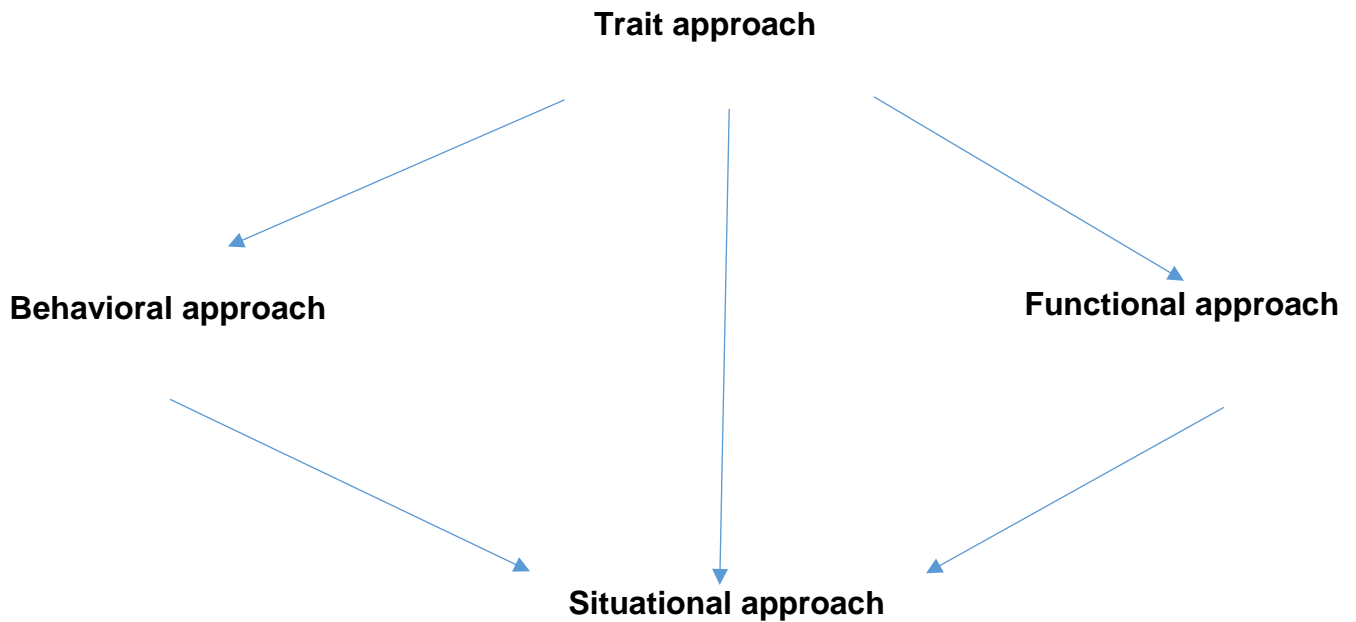


Figure 2.1. A typology of leadership approaches

**Source:** Adapted from Stewart & Manz (1995)

### 2.2.2.1. The Trait approaches

According to Brown (2011), this approach comes from the great man theory. Researchers focus on great people in the history of the world and suggest that a person who copies their personalities and behaviors will become a strong leader. According to Igboeli (1990), the earliest theory of leadership effectiveness has its basic concept that leadership effectiveness is determined mainly by the personal traits or characteristics of the leader. Closely related to this, the “Great man” theory is based on the proposition that

certain people were born to be leaders, having inherited a set of unique traits and characteristics that could not be acquired in any other way. This view was then thought to be persuasive because it is frequently within the same prominent families. Such research was done in South Africa by Anton Rupert (1965), who identifies the prerequisites for effective leadership. Those attributes are namely, physical and mental health. Each attribute is elaborated on in the ensuing paragraphs:

#### Physical and mental health

- (i) A healthy outlook on life
- (ii) A spirit of servitude
- (iii) Unselfishness
- (iv) Optimistic, zealous, inspirational, and impetus
- (v) Intelligence and knowledge
- (vi) Fluent in a language
- (vii) Will-power and purposefulness
- (viii) Adaptable and flexible
- (ix) Insight and character

Stogdill (1974) finds that researchers mainly make use of the following categories to describe leadership traits:

- (i) Physical traits like length, appearance, and energy

- (ii) Intelligence and abilities
- (iii) Personality traits like adaptability and aggressiveness
- (iv) Traits relevant to the task like motivation, perseverance, and initiative
- (v) Social traits like interpersonal skills, administrative abilities, and flexibility.

By way of introduction, when Margret Thatcher was Prime Minister of Great Britain, she was regularly singled out for her leadership. Based on the analysis done on her, she was described in terms such as “confident,” “iron-willed,” “determined,” and “decisive.” These terms are traits, and whether Thatcher’s advocates and critics recognized it at the time or not, they became trait-theorists supporters. The search for personality, social, physical, or intellectual attributes that describe leaders and differentiate them from non-leaders goes back to the 1930s and research done by psychologists.

This approach to leadership has been described as great person theory. According to this view, great leaders possess vital traits that set them apart from most other human beings. Furthermore, the theory contends that these traits remain stable over time and across different groups. Thus, it suggests that all great leaders share these characteristics regardless of when and where they lived or the precise role they fulfilled in history. However, Ralph Stogdill in 1948 and Richard Mann in 1959, which sought to summarize the impact of traits on leadership, caused the trait approach to fall into disfavor. Based on his review, Stogdill concluded that five traits differentiated leaders from average followers: (1) intelligence. (2) Dominance, (3) self-confidence, (4) level of energy and activity, and (5) task-relevant knowledge (Stogdill, 1948). Mann’s review is similarly disappointing for

the trait theorists, among the seven categories of personality traits. He examined; Mann found intelligence was the best predictor of leadership. However, Mann warned that all positive relationships between traits and leadership were weak (correlation averaged about 0.15) (Mann, 1959).

Despite all these reviews by Stogdill (1948) and Mann (1959), leadership traits are again receiving strict research attention. Two organizational behavior researchers concluded in 1983 that past trait data might have been incorrectly analyzed. Applying modern statistical techniques to an old database demonstrated that most leadership behavior could be attributed to stable underlying traits (Kenny and Zaccaro, 1983). However, Kreitner, Kinicki, and Buelens (2002) note that their methodology does not specify which attributes.

A 1986 meta-analysis by Robert Lord and his associates remedied this shortcoming. Based on a re-analysis of Mann's data and subsequent studies, Lord concluded that people have leadership prototypes that affect our perception of who is and is not an effective leader. According to Kreitner, Kinicki, and Buelens (2002), one's leadership prototype is a mental representation of the traits and behavior that one believes are possessed by leaders. Lord's (1982) research demonstrates that people are perceived as being leaders when they exhibit the characteristics associated with intelligence, masculinity, and dominance. A more recent study of 200 students also confirmed the idea that a leadership prototype influences leadership perception. The result reveals that perception of an individual as a leader is affected by that person's sex -males are perceived to be leaders more than females-and behavioral flexibility, such that

people who were more behaviorally flexible are perceived to be more like a leader (Hall, Workman, and Marchioro, 1998). According to Brown (2011), the trait approach to leadership did not contribute much to leadership. Although several studies were done in this regard, it seems like this approach has little or no use.

#### **2.2.2.2. The functional approach**

The functional approach originated out of the shortcomings of the trait approach and the notion that a leader is dependent on a group of followers (Brown, 2011). The functional approach looks explicitly at the necessary functions of a leader, in a group context, to be fulfilled to be effective. A leader's traits are not relevant.

According to the functional approach, Brown (2011) corroborates that leadership is relevant to what a person does in a leadership position. This function, however, is not just to the leader but also to every group member. Any group member can disclose leadership functions in a particular situation while different group members can do any leadership function. The functional approach was mainly experimental, which meant that it was developed in a controlled environment. Therefore, the validity of the functional approach could be questioned in practice.

#### **2.2.2.3. The behavioristic approach**



As with the functional approach, the behavioristic approach to leadership originated because of dissatisfaction with the trait approach. According to Lourens (2001), for almost thirty years, leaders were studied either by observing their behavior in controlled settings or by asking individuals in field settings to describe the behavior of individuals in positions of authority. These descriptions were then related to various criteria of leader effectiveness. In contrast to the trait theorists, most leadership behavior researchers believed that once the behavior that leads to effective leadership is known, leaders can be trained to exhibit that behavior to become better leaders. The inability to strike “gold” in the trait’s “mines” led the researchers to look at specific leader exhibits’ behavior. They wondered if there was something unique in the way that effective leaders behave. This phase of leadership research began during the Second World War as part of developing better military leaders. It responded to the seeming inability of traits theory to explain leadership effectiveness and the human relations movement, an offshoot of the Hawthorne studies (Kreitner, Kinicki, & Buelens, 2002). The thrust of early behavioral leadership theory was to focus on leader behavior instead of on personality traits. It was believed that leadership behavior directly affects the effectiveness of any workgroup. This led researchers to identify patterns of behavior (called leadership styles) and enabled leaders to influence others effectively (Kreitner, Kinicki, & Buelens, 2002).

On a good note, if the behavioral approach to leadership were successful, it would have implications quite different from those of the trait approach. In essence, the difference and behavioral theories, in terms of application, lies in their underlying assumptions. If trait theories are valid, then leadership is inborn; you either have it or do

not. On the other hand, if there were specific behavior that identifies leaders, we could teach leadership. We could design programs that implant these behavioral patterns in individuals who desire to be effective leaders. This was indeed a more exciting avenue, for it meant that the supply of leaders could be expanded.

The most comprehensive contributions to the behavioral theories of leadership started at Ohio State University in the late 1940s (Kreitner, Kinicki, & Buelens, 2002). The researchers at Ohio State University began by generating a list of the types of behavior exhibited by leaders. At one point, the list contained 1,800 statements describing nine categories. Ultimately, the Ohio State researchers concluded only two categories (Kreitner, Kinicki, & Buelens, 2002). They called these two dimensions initiating structure and consideration. Initiating structure refers to how a leader is likely to define and structure their role and subordinates searching for goal attainment. It includes behavior that attempts to organize work, work relationships, and goals. The leader characterized as high in initiating structure could be described as someone who assigns group members to task, “expects workers to maintain definite standards of performance,” and “emphasizes the meeting of deadlines.”

Consideration is described as the extent to which a person is likely to have job relationships characterized by mutual trust, respect for subordinates’ ideas, and regard for their feelings. They show concern for followers’ comfort, well-being, status, and satisfaction. A leader high in consideration could be described as one who helps subordinates with personal problems, is friendly and approachable, and treats all subordinates as equals.

Based on these definitions, extensive research finds that leaders high in initiating structure and consideration (a “high-high leader) tend to achieve high subordinate performance and satisfaction more frequently than those who rate low on either consideration, initiating structure. This leads to greater grievances, absenteeism, turnover, and lower levels of job satisfaction for workers performing routine tasks. Some other studies find that high consideration is negatively related to performance ratings of the leaders by their superiors. In conclusion, the Ohio studies suggest that the “high-high” style generally results in positive outcomes. Still, enough exceptions are found to indicate that situational factors need to be integrated into the theory (Fleishman, 1998).

Another explanation for behavioral theories of leadership can be taken from the University of Michigan’s Survey Research Center. At about the same time as those being done at Ohio State, had similar research objectives: to locate behavioral characteristics of leaders that appear to be related to measures of performance effectiveness. The Michigan group also came on with two dimensions of leadership behavior: employee-oriented and production-oriented (Stogdill, 1974). Employees-oriented leaders were described as emphasizing interpersonal relations; they took a personal interest in the needs of their subordinates and accepted individual differences among members. The production-oriented leaders, in contrast, tended to emphasize the technical or task aspects of the job, their main concern was in accomplishing their groups’ tasks, and the group members were a means to that end. The conclusion arrived at by the Michigan researchers strongly favored the leaders who were employee-oriented in their behavior. Employee-oriented leaders were associated with higher group productivity and higher job

satisfaction; production-oriented leaders tended to be related to low group productivity and lower job satisfaction.

### **(A) The theory of Lewin, Lippitt, and White**

Lewin, Lippitt, and White (1939) identify three leadership styles:

- (i) Autocratic leadership style: The leader determines the policy and gives personal instructions to followers.
- (ii) Democratic leadership style: Policy is determined by group discussions, and the leader only acts as a facilitator. The leader encourages group members and promotes interaction between them.
- (iii) Laissez-faire leadership style: there is minor policy, and the leader takes part in group discussions in a small way. Lewin, Lippitt, and White (1939) corroborate that the democratic leadership style has the best chance for success and that different leadership style is needed to be effective in different situations.

### **(B) McGregor's theory**

McGregor's theory (1966), known as Theory X and Theory Y, assumes constant conflict between employees and the management of an organization. However, they are mutually dependent on each other. The managers perceived to follow either view of their

employees. Theory X is considered a usual view of managing. Theory Y involves how employees direct themselves and believe that the employees are interested in organizations' goals. Theory X says that the average employee dislikes work and will avoid it unless directly supervised. This theory assumes that the employees must be coerced, controlled, and directed to meet the organizational objectives (Thrash, 2012). Subordinates are dependent on management for the satisfaction of their needs and the achievement of their goals. On the other hand, management depends on their subordinates to achieve their own goals and the organization's goals. The behavior of leadership is based on a leader's assumption over human nature's human behavior.

The theory proposes two sets of opposing assumptions leaders hold about subordinates and determines the leader's behavior towards subordinates. Van Dyk's (1995) opinion is that McGregor implicitly supports the best leaders because of his intense need to integrate organizational and individual needs. According to Van Dyk (1995), McGregor's theory did elicit some criticism, but it greatly influenced the modern-day understanding of leadership. Especially the humanistic nature thereof and the direct distinction between Theory X and Theory Y.

### **(C) Blake and Mouton's leadership matrix**

Blake and Mouton (1978) provide new perspectives on leadership behavior and still enjoy a great prominence. Their approach comes from earlier research that showed that a leader must take the people and the task into account. The leadership matrix and

the theory that goes with it are valuable instruments for leaders to identify their assumptions about the people and the task they must perform. This knowledge of other's leadership styles and their own will enable leaders to assess themselves and others more objectively, communicate more effectively, understand the difference, and help and lead others to be more productive.

Blake and Mouton (1978) identify three universal attributes for organizations. The connection between these three attributes forms the basis of their leadership matrix.

- (i) All organizations have goals that are pursued. It determines the tasks that need to be performed.
- (ii) No organization can function without people.
- (iii) A hierarchy of authority exists in all organizations.

The leadership matrix consists of two dimensions: concern for people and tasks, each represented on an axis. Blake and Mouton (1978) explain that concern for people is regarded as the leader's assumptions towards personal involvement in achieving goals, upkeep of the worker's self-confidence, maintaining a good environment, and maintaining good interpersonal relationships. According to Blake and Mouton (1978), concern for tasks is the leader's assumptions towards decision-making, procedures, processes; creativity in research; quality of personnel services, and job performance effectiveness.

Blake and Mouton (1978) concluded the third attribute of hierarchy and authority as the specific combination between a leader's concern for people and tasks. These

concerns may be regarded as a set of assumptions according to which formal authority, as obtained from a leader's hierarchical position in the organization, is used to put people and tasks together in unique combinations to achieve the organization's goals. With due allowance for the position a leader holds, he must be aware that there is a different alternative combination of concern for people and concern for tasks according to which he can direct his behavior.

#### **(D) Great Man Theory**

The Great Man Theory dealt with early research on leadership based on studying people who were already great leaders. These great leaders were already often from the aristocracy; few from the lower classes had the opportunity to lead. This contributed to the notion that leadership had something to do with breeding. The idea of the Great Man also strayed into the mythic domain, with the notions that in times of need, a Great Man would arise almost like magic. It was easy to verify by pointing to Churchill and Eisenhower, even those back the timeline like Mohammed, Moses, and Buddha (McGuire, 1968).

Gender issue was not on the table when the 'Great Man' theory was proposed. Most of the leaders were male, and thought of a Great Woman was generally in areas other than leadership. Researchers also were male dominant, and concerns about androcentric bias were a long way from being realized. The Great Man Theory assumes

that leaders are born and not made, and Great leaders will arise when there is a great need (McGuire, 1968).

### **(E) Behavioral theory**

Behavioral Theory deals with what leaders do rather than seeking inborn traits or capabilities. If success can be defined as describable actions, it should be relatively easy for other people to act differently. This is easier to teach and learn than adopting more ephemeral traits or capabilities (Bandura, 1989). Behavioral is a giant leap from Trait Theory in that it assumes that leadership capability can be learned rather than being inherent. This opens the floodgates to leadership development instead of a simple psychometric assessment that sorts those with leadership potential from those who will never have the chance. Behavioral Theory is easy to develop as you simply assess.

Umoh (2002) alluded that what makes a leader effective is what he does. For instance, how a person communicates, directs, plans, and motivates simply negates the born leader theory. The truth is that they can be trained to do the right things independently of their personality traits. According to Stoner and Freedman (1992), when it became evident that effective leaders did not seem to have any distinguishing traits, researchers tried to isolate the characteristics of the behavior of effective leaders. The behavioral approach to leadership is characterized by sharing information, power, and influence between supervisors and subordinates. This approach contends that personal qualities or behavioral styles may classify leaders. In most cases, the behavioral



approach focuses on what the leader does in carrying out the managerial task (Okenwa & Ugbo, 2001).

#### **2.2.2.4. The situational approach**

The dissatisfaction with the trait approach, the functional approach, and the behavioristic approach led to more contemporary situational leadership theories. The main principle of the situational approach is that leadership is specific and relative to the situation in which it occurs. A wide variety of situational factors are mentioned in the literature (Van Dyk, 1995). Robert (1996) states that situational leadership is based on the interplay of several factors. The amount of guidance and direction a leader gives, the amount of support a leader provides, and the followers' readiness to perform a specific task or pursue an objective.

### **2.3 The full-range leadership Model**

The study of leadership today attempts to combine the past findings and formulate modern theories by adding the last discoveries. Thus, the charismatic leadership theory was a basis for developing transformational and transactional leadership concepts and the full-range leadership model on which our research is based.

Burns (1978) integrated two complementary leadership styles – transformational leadership and transactional leadership, based on the common characteristic that unites

them: a connection with goals. The transforming approach creates a significant change in the life of people and organizations. This transforming approach also redesigns perceptions and values, changing expectations and inspirations of employees, unlike the transactional approach based on a give and takes relationship (Burns, 1978). Bass (1985) extended Burns's (1978) work by explaining the psychological mechanisms that underlie transforming and transactional leadership. Bass used transformational instead of transforming. Cherry (2015) describes transformational as a leadership style that can inspire positive changes in those who follow.

Transactional leadership is based on exchanges between the leader and followers, where the leader sets demands, conditions, and potential rewards in the case of these demands being met. Transformational leadership raises leadership to a higher level since the leader inspires followers to commit themselves to shared goals, challenges them to solve problems innovatively, and, as coach and mentor, provides them with both intellectual challenges and support (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Transactions are the basis for transformations since only the latter can lead from achieving goals and expectations to motivating followers to perform beyond their goals and expectations (Avolio, 1999).

The full-range leadership model consists of nine factors that combine to form three basic leadership styles. There are four components of transformational leadership (Bass & Riggio, 2006): a) *Idealized Influence or Charisma* (attributed): the leader serves as an ideal role model for followers; the leader “walks the talk” and is admired for this. This component includes two aspects: the behavior of the leader and the characteristics attributed to the leader; b) *Inspirational Motivation*: leaders increase motivation, inspire

others to work by giving sense and meaning to work, have an optimistic orientation and, by setting clear goals, create a desire to achieve a shared and attractive vision of the future; c) *Intellectual Stimulation*: the leader challenges followers to be innovative and creative, a common misunderstanding is that transformational leaders are “soft,” but the truth is that they constantly challenge followers to higher levels of performance; d) *Individualized Consideration*: leaders demonstrate genuine concern for the needs and feelings of followers. This personal attention to each follower is a critical element in bringing out their very best efforts.

Transactional leadership consists of two components (Bass & Riggio, 2006), a) *Contingent reward*: constructive transactions, where leaders set conditions and concrete consequences of achieving them. And b) *Management by exception (Active)*: corrective transactions, where leaders set standards and rules and monitor any deviation from them to take disciplinary action before mistakes or deviations occur.

The passive-avoidant style of leadership contains the following two components (Avolio & Bass, 2004): a) *Management by exception (passive)*: setting standards and corrective action only after a mistake or deviation from standards; leaders do not monitor events on an ongoing basis, and b) *Laissez-faire leadership*: absence of leadership, avoidance of responsibility and the taking of decisions as a leader; the most inactive leadership style.

A fundamental characteristic of the model is that every leader displays each leadership style to some degree. An optimal leadership profile should contain infrequent

use of passive-avoidant leadership, slightly more frequent use of transactional leadership, and most frequent use of the various components of transformational leadership.

### 2.3.1 Leadership styles

The leadership style movement started in 1945 at Ohio State University. Significantly, the “Consideration” and “Initiating Structure” study stood out from these early contributions, which provided the basic dimensions of leadership behavior in formal organizations. Consequently, contributors like Likert (1961), Kahn & Katz (1952) also expanded the works of their predecessors by basically analyzing the relationship between supervisory behavior and employee productivity and satisfaction in 1947 at the University of Michigan. Their studies identified two leadership styles - Employee Centered (EC) and Production Centered (PC) leadership. EC leaders focus more on employee goals and satisfaction and less time performing a similar task. It is also disinterested in punishing employees when they go wrong.

On the other hand, PC leaders are interested in output; therefore, they spend more time in actual supervisory work related to production and less attention on supervisory activities like planning (Avolio, Walumbwa & Weber 2009). Globalization resulted in highly diversified labor. Thus it is vital to analyze leadership style from a cross-cultural perspective. Bass (1998) observed that few leadership strategies transcend national boundaries, such as transactional and transformational leadership. The laissez-faire style of management lets the employees realize their potential without the undue meddling of

management; thus, it is imperative to analyze the pivotal organization of an emerging economy and the prevalent leadership style.

The leadership style determines the success of the objectives to be delivered; therefore, leadership is an important aspect of the organization's success. Leadership is a dynamic process, which is influenced by different variables in an environment/situation. A successful leader will be able to apply different leadership styles to suit different conditions. There is a wide range of leadership styles that have been developed.

### **2.3.1.1 Transformation leadership style**

Unlike other leadership styles, transformational leadership initiates change in organizations, groups, oneself, and others. Transformational leaders motivate others to do more than they originally intended and often even more than they thought possible. They set more challenging expectations and typically achieve higher performance. Statistically, transformational leadership tends to have more committed and satisfied followers. This is mainly so because transformational leaders empower followers (Bass, 1985)

In this leadership, the transformational leader manifests their revolutionary power. Transformational does not mean sheer behavioral change. It involves a transformation of followers' values and beliefs. Therefore, this distinguishes a transformational leader from a simply populist leader who may affect attitudes towards specific objects but who is not prepared as the transformational leader to transform the underlying normative orientation

that structures particular attitudes. Transformational leaders are essentially very skilled communicators – individuals who are both verbally eloquent and able to communicate to followers on a deep, emotional level. They can articulate a compelling or captivating vision and can arouse strong emotions in followers. Bass (1985) introduced a full range of transformational leadership which includes the four elements of this style:

(a) Idealized Influence provides a role model for high ethical behavior, instills pride, and gains respect and trust.

(b) Inspirational motivation – the degree to which the leader articulates a vision appealing and inspiring. Leaders challenge followers with high standards, followers who communicate optimism about future goals and provide meaning for the task. The visionary aspects of leadership are supported by communication skills that make a vision understandable, precise, powerful, and engaging.

(c) Intellectual stimulation – The degree to which the leader challenges assumptions and takes risks. Leaders with intellectual stimulation styles stimulate and encourage creativity in their followers. These leaders develop and nurture people who think independently. Learning is a value, and unexpected situations are seen as opportunities to learn.

(d) Individualized consideration – The leader attends to each follower's needs; they act as a mentor or coach and listen to the follower's concerns and needs. The leader gives empathy and support, keeps communication open, and places challenges before the followers. It compasses the need for respect and celebrates the individual contribution that each follower can make to the team.

Transformational leadership involves leaders who recognize that the methods, steps, and leadership processes are obtained through people. Most great and successful leaders have aspects of vision in them. However, those who are highly visionary are the ones considered to be exhibiting visionary leadership. Outstanding leaders will continually transform their visions into realities.

### **2.3.1.2 Autocratic leadership style:**

The leader reveals a maximum concern for tasks and minimum concern for people. The task is done using formal authority, and control over subordinates is obtained by enforcing compliance (Blake & Mouton, 1978). An autocratic leadership style places more emphasis on performance and low intensity on people. The focus of power is with the leader, and all interactions within the group move towards the leader. The leader unilaterally exercises all decision-making authority by determining policies, procedures for achieving goals, work tasks, relationships, control of reward, and punishment (Van Vugt, Jepson, Hart, & De Cremer, 2004). Autocratic leadership style is based on the premise that people are naturally lazy, irresponsible, and untrustworthy and leaving the functions of planning, organizing, and controlling to subordinates would yield fruitless results and that the leader should accomplish such functions without the involvement of the people (Muhammad, Qin, Amir & Aruba, 2017). Further, Likert (1961) identified four management systems that characterized the autocratic leadership style system. They are an exploitative-authoritative system where power and direction come from the top

downwards, where threats and punishments are employed, communication is poor, and teamwork is non-existent (Muhammad, Qin, Amir & Aruba, 2017).

Jung, Jeong, and Mills (2014) described an autocratic leadership style on a continuum and opined that autocratic leaders make decisions and announce them without inviting suggestions from subordinates. Autocratic leader relies heavily on authority, control, power, manipulation, and hard work to get the job done (Puni, Ofei & Okoe, 2014). Formal centralized structures, procedures, processes, and mechanisms are clearly defined and are enforced to ensure that subordinates do their jobs efficiently within the rules. Punishment is often applied when mistakes are made, and sanctions are in the form of withholding attention or good assignment or making people feel guilty. In the autocratic leadership style, motivation is using economic incentives that are intrinsic and based on performance. Development within an autocratic system comes from hard work, and rarely does delegation of authority practiced. Most theorists have identified autocratic leaders with authoritarian leaders simply because research has proven a robust positive correlation between autocratic leadership style and authoritarianism (Chemers, 2014; Schuh, Zhang & Tian, 2013; Svolik, 2013).

An autocratic leadership style is centered on the boss. In this leadership, the leader holds all authority and responsibility. In this leadership, leaders make decisions on their own without consulting subordinates. They reach decisions, communicate them to subordinates and expect prompt implementation. An autocratic work environment usually does little or no flexibility. In this kind of leadership, guidelines, procedures, and policies are all-natural additions of an autocratic leader. Statistically, there are very few situations



that can support autocratic leadership. Some leaders who support this kind of leadership include Albert J Dunlap (Sunbeam Corporation) and Donald Trump (Trump Organization).

### **2.3.1.3 Democratic leadership style**

The leader reveals a minimum concern for tasks and utmost concern for people. Good interpersonal relationships with colleagues and subordinates are of primary concern. According to this leader, the task will be done automatically (Blake & Mouton, 1978). Democratic leadership style focuses more on people, and there is a more significant interaction within the group (Bhatti, Maitlo, Shaikh, Hashmi & Shaikh, 2012). The leadership functions are shared with group members, and the leader is more part of the team.

Similarly, Jones, Jones, Winchester, and Grint (2016) and Raelin (2012) suggested that the principles of democratic leadership are friendliness, helpfulness, and the encouragement of participation. In the same vein, McGregor and Clutcher-Gerhenfeld (2006) described a democratic leadership style as benevolent, participative, and believing in people; they equated democratic leaders to the Theory Y manager, associated with increased follower productivity and satisfaction, involvement, and commitment. The philosophical assumption underlying democratic leadership style is that naturally, all people are trustworthy, self-motivated, like responsibility and challenging work, and are encouraged by organizational conditions to foster teamwork, high performance, and satisfaction (Jones et al. 2016).

In this leadership style, subordinates are involved in making decisions. Unlike autocratic, this leadership is centered on subordinates' contributions. The democratic leader holds final responsibility, but they can delegate authority to other people, who determine work projects. The unique feature of this leadership is that communication is active upward and downward. Concerning statistics, democratic leadership is one of the most preferred leadership, and it entails the following: fairness, competence, creativity, courage, intelligence, and honesty.

#### **2.3.1.4 Servant leadership style**

Servant leaders often lead by example. They have high integrity and lead with generosity. In many ways, servant leadership is a form of democratic leadership because the whole team tends to be involved in decision-making. However, servant leaders often lead from behind, preferring to stay out of the limelight and accept their team's recognition for their hard work. However, other people believe that in competitive leadership situations, people who practice servant leadership can find themselves left behind by leaders using different leadership styles. This leadership style also takes time to apply correctly: it's ill-suited in situations where you must make quick decisions or meet tight deadlines.

#### **2.3.1.5 Transactional leadership style**

This is a leadership that maintains or continues the status quo. The leadership also involves an exchange process, whereby followers get immediate, tangible rewards for carrying out the leader's orders. Transactional leadership can sound rather basic, with its focus on exchange. Being transparent, focusing on expectations, giving feedback are all important leadership skills. According to Boundless.com, transactional leadership behaviors can clarify what is expected of followers' performance, explaining how to meet such expectations, and allocate rewards contingent on meeting objectives.

Transactional leadership focuses on results, conforms to an organization's existing structure, and measures success according to that organization's system of rewards and penalties. Transactional leaders have formal authority and positions of responsibility in an organization. This type of leader is responsible for maintaining routine by managing individual performance and facilitating group performance. This type of leader sets the criteria for their workers according to previously defined requirements. Performance reviews are the most common way to judge employee performance. Transactional, or managerial, leaders work best with employees who know their jobs and are motivated by the reward-penalty system. The status quo of an organization is maintained through transactional leadership.

Transactional leaders differ from charismatic and transformational leaders in both structure and method. Charismatic leadership emphasizes influencing a group or organization to make the world a better place. In transactional leadership, the emphasis is on managing the performance of the individual and determining how well they perform in a structured environment.

The difference between transactional leadership and transformational leadership is also quite significant. Simply put, transactional is a “telling” leadership style, and transformational is a “selling” style. While the transactional approach features positive and negative reinforcement, transformational leadership emphasizes motivation and inspiration. Transactional leaders are reactive; transformational leaders are proactive. Transactional leadership appeals to the self-interest of individuals, while the transformational style prioritizes group progress. Some of the characteristics of transactional leaders are: Focused on short-term goals, Favor structured policies and procedures, Thrive on following rules and doing things correctly, revel inefficiency, very left-brained, tend to be inflexible, and opposed to change.

Transactional leadership works well in organizations where the structure is essential. Transactional leadership is not the right fit for organizations where initiative is encouraged. The pros of transactional leadership are rewards. Those motivated by self-interest to follow instructions provide an unambiguous structure for large organizations, requiring repetitive tasks and infinitely reproducible environments, achieving short-term goals quickly, and rewards and penalties clearly defined for workers. And the cons of transactional leadership are rewarding the worker on a practical level only, such as money or perks. Creativity is limited since the goals and objectives are already set, do not reward personal initiative.

There is a place for transactional leadership in the world today. One of its best uses is in multinational corporations where not all the workers speak the same language. Once the structure and the requirements are learned, it is easy for workers to complete

tasks successfully. This works because transactional leadership is simple to learn and does not require extensive training. The transactional approach is easy to understand and apply across much of an organization. The military, police organizations, and first responders use this leadership style so that all areas of the organization are consistent. It is also easier to apply in a crisis, where everyone must know exactly what is required of them and how a task is to be done under pressure. To many people, money and perks are powerful motivators. Many people need a job to pay the bills. They have other obligations and distractions and would just as soon know exactly how to do their job to keep it and reap the rewards.

#### **2.3.1.6 Laissez-faire leadership style**

Lewin (2013) is often credited with developing the concept of laissez-faire leadership. He was an early contributor to the study of social psychology. He was one of the first experts to research group dynamics and organizational psychology. Human resource experts still rely on Lewin's research to assess and manage workplace productivity. Although Lewin recognized laissez-faire leadership as one of three primary management styles, he did not subscribe to it as his preferred leadership method. Lewin simply identified laissez-faire leadership as the opposite of autocratic leadership.

Lewin, Lippitt, and White (1939) identified the laissez-faire leadership style in the 1930s study, and they recognized laissez-faire leadership as requiring the least amount of managerial oversight. Laissez-faire is the antithesis of centralized leadership, whereby

a leader makes most of the decisions and relies on subordinates to carry out instructions. Lewin et al. (1939) deduced that neither laissez-faire nor autocratic leadership styles were ideal. Instead, they concluded that democratic leadership was the optimal style.

The main emphasis of the laissez-faire leadership style is neither on performance nor people; the philosophical assumption is that human beings are unpredictable and uncontrollable, and trying to understand people is a waste of time and energy. On this hypothesis, the leader tries to maintain a low profile, respects all constituencies within the organization, tries not to create waves of disturbance, and relies on the few available loyalists to get the job done (Chaudhry & Javed, 2012). Laissez-faire leader lives and works with whatever structure is put in place without any suggestions or criticisms. Goals and objectives are established only when necessary and required.

The leader is not control-frisk and abdicates control to employees. Such leaders shun decision-making as best as they can and would like to avoid communication and converses only when needed. Thus, the business of employee development is not a concern to the laissez-faire leader, as they believe that employees can take care of themselves (Wong & Giessner, 2018). It is pertinent to mention here that in a study on the banking sector of Pakistan, the laissez-faire leadership style revealed a negative relationship with employee performance outcomes (Asrar-ul-Haq & Kuchinke, 2016).

People who work for laissez-faire leaders are responsible for completing tasks and identifying issues. Moreover, they are expected to anticipate near-term problems and spot upcoming opportunities. Laissez-faire leaders usually allow staff to capitalize on

opportunities without having to check in with their superiors. To succeed, laissez-faire leaders need to:

- Closely monitor group performance
- Employ highly skilled, well-educated staff
- Treat people as motivated self-starters
- Use the laissez-faire style only with experienced staff
- Give consistent feedback to team members

One criticism of the laissez-faire leadership style favors success-oriented people rather than those who solve society's most pressing problems. In other words, laissez-faire leadership tends to serve the needs of the people who most benefit from it. This can be counterintuitive to the objectives of corporate responsibility. Other management models, like servant leadership, focus on good corporate citizenship. The aim is to serve the needs of customers, communities, and disenfranchised groups. However, suppose you look at laissez-faire leadership as a management style rather than as an economic philosophy. In that case, it can be used effectively to initiate positive change in the same way that transformative and servant leadership styles do.

A laissez-faire leadership type that delegates decision-making to managers and senior staff with expertise in their fields. Laissez-faire leadership styles tend to work best near the top of organizational hierarchies, where executives build teams of experts such as directors and give them wide latitude to run their departments. Teams focused on research and development, conceptual through creative projects, require autonomy. When laissez-faire leadership is misused in organizations, projects, or settings, it can

create more problems than it resolves. The organization suffers if groups or team members lack sufficient skills, experience, or motivation to complete projects.

Managers who adopt a laissez-faire leadership style expect accountability from people who report to them. They expect positive results, whether the laissez-faire leader is a CEO, department director, or group manager. Some people prefer working under autocratic managers because they don't want to be held responsible for failures. For these people, a laissez-faire leadership style is a mismatch. To be successful in an age of daily productivity metrics reporting, laissez-faire leaders need to establish milestones for staff. This means today's laissez-faire leaders can no longer be completely hands-off. In summary, today's laissez-faire leaders must delegate authority without losing sight of group objectives and individual performances.

### 2.3.2. Other leadership styles

Other leadership styles will be described below.

#### **2.3.2.1 Strategic leadership**

Strategic leadership involves a leader who is essentially the head of an organization. The strategic leader is not limited to those at the top of the organization. It is geared to a broader audience at all levels who want to create a high-performance life, team, or organization. The strategic leader fills the gap between new possibilities and practicality by providing a prescriptive set of habits. An effective strategic leadership



delivers the goods in terms of what an organization naturally expects from its leadership in times of change. 55% of this leadership involves typically strategic thinking.

### **2.3.2.2. Cross-cultural leadership**

This form of leadership typically exists where there are various cultures in society. This leadership has also industrialized to recognize front runners who work in the contemporary globalized market. Organizations, particularly international ones, require leaders who can effectively adjust their leadership to work in different environments. Most of the leaders observed in the United States are cross-cultural because of the different cultures that live and work there.

### **2.3.2.3 Facilitative Leadership Style**

Facilitative leadership is too dependent on measurements and outcomes – not a skill, although it takes much skill to master. The effectiveness of a group is directly related to the efficacy of its process. If the group is high functioning, the facilitative leader uses a light hand on the process. On the other hand, if the group is low functioning, the facilitator will be more directive in helping the group run its process. Effective facilitative leadership involves monitoring group dynamics, offering process suggestions and interventions to help the group stay on track.

#### **2.3.2.4 Impoverished leadership style**

Impoverished leadership style, also known as laissez-faire leader, reveals a minimum concern for tasks and people. This leader does the absolute minimum to remain part of the organization (Blake & Mouton, 1978).

#### **2.3.2.5 Organization man leadership style**

In an organization's leadership style, the leader balances concern for tasks and concern for people. This is the middle of the road theory and seldom works ((Blake & Mouton, 1978).

#### **2.3.2.6 Team leadership style**

The leader reveals the maximum concern for tasks and people. This leadership style emphasizes teamwork. It is goal-oriented and tries to achieve outstanding results by participating in management, people involvement, and conflict management (Blake & Mouton, 1978). Team leadership also involves creating a vivid picture of its future, heading, and what it will stand for. The vision inspires and provides a strong sense of purpose and direction. It is about working with the hearts and minds of all those involved. It recognizes that teamwork may not always involve trusting cooperative relationships. The most challenging aspect of this leadership is whether it will succeed. According to the Harvard Business Review, team leadership may fail because of poor leadership qualities.

### **2.3.2.7 Empowerment, coaching, and mentoring leadership style**

Coaching leadership involves teaching and supervising followers. A coaching leader is highly operational in a setting where results/performance require improvement. Followers are being helped to improve their skills. This is the kind of leadership that motivates followers, inspires them, and encourages followers.

### **2.3.3. Role Congruity Theory**

Eagly and Karau introduced a theory in 2002, which deals with a bias toward women as leaders or congruity theory more concisely. The congruity theory of bias against women leaders (also known as the theory of the position of the congruency) suggested that the incongruity between women's social status and leaders' characteristics generate discrimination towards women leaders (Eagly & Karau, 2002). The social roles theory of Eagly (1987) was at the core of the Eagly & Karau (2002) position theory of congruity. It maintains that cultures foster descriptive and prescriptive sex-role interpretations of the actions of individuals on account of the social role of the gender they are supposed to play and imitate. Heilman (2012) has clearly said: What women and men are like is descriptive, and what men and women can be like in recruitment. Men are typically filled with higher status role-play and often require violent and autonomous behaviors.

In contrast, women have commonly filled lower levels of caring, which require common features such as being sympathetic and supportive. They have lower levels of care (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Eagly, 1987). In short, men are thought to have more agency than women, are expected and considered to have more communal features than women are expected to have. Eagly & Karau (2002) applied to the theory of social roles a dimension of leadership roles to broaden how differing perceptions contribute to injuries and referees that can affect congruity.

The role congruity theory argues that the alleged lack of congruity of female leadership role gaps can affect the extent and rate of gender inequality due to the expectations attributed to women or work definitions that leverage male gender terminology. Gherardi and Poggio (2001) noted that corporate cultures are not without sex, and therefore thus, objects cannot be described as without sex. Indeed, the contrary may be true. Companies have a function or status with distinct gender characteristics and are often ambivalent or inconsistent with the role of women in society (Gherardi & Poggio, 2001). Women are better rated and considered successful leaders when leadership positions and gender roles in society are more consistent (Brandt & Laiho, 2013). However, complex scores occur when women use autocratic styles and equally treat men (Brandt & Laiho, 2013). The vast literature on gender and leadership provides other hypotheses that distinguish from some of the hypotheses of congruity theory about which moderators play their part in the gender effectiveness of leadership (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Personality is an example of another moderator (Brandt & Laiho, 2013).

Notice that men often get disagreements when they do not comply with leaders' social and market standards; however, appraisal of jobs, assessment of employee performance, and supporters' attitudes are not as harmful to women (Heilman, 2012). When men ask for a family vacation or work-life balance, they are not considered wicked and passive as most male workers in the workplace and are (Heilman, 2012). However, men have a competitive advantage and are less severe, and men still benefit from men, even in women's working conditions (Heilman, 2012).

The congruity principle of Eagly & Karau (2002) has shown how important it is that gender roles and leadership roles must match concerning the related and accepted characteristics of assigned roles. Market fields, controlled or identified by society as men, have, by the congruity principle, offer such tests to women, given the contradiction with the aspirations of women in society. Military leadership positions are a strong example of male role definition (Brandt & Laiho, 2013; Heilman, 2012; Eagly & Karau, 2002; Schein, 1973). This dichotomy limits the entry of women to businesses run by men. When leadership roles are characterized in masculine terms and mainly consisting of men, Eagly & Karau (2002) & Heilman (2001) addressed that individuals may understand that women are not fit for such industries and roles and struggle with women positions of authority. Industries have been less male, and more women than men have been hired in recent years (e.g., educational fields; Ways & Marques, 2013). The question of how much industry uses sexual language is an aspect of the congruity principle (Eagly & Karau, 2002).

The male model of the Think Boss remains dominant in the decades. Stereotypes and male characteristics had been described as a good manager (Ingols et al., 2015). Women in management positions disregard their sex to be good bosses or chiefs (Ingols et al., 2015). Men and women perceive that good middle managers have specific characteristics and see certain characteristics that are more male than female (i.e., agentic over communal; Duehr & Bono, 2006; Adbel & Elsaid, 2012; Ingols et al., 2015). Orser (1994) has conducted a study that shows that managerial roles are masculinized following female characteristics. Gherardi and Poggio (2001) also found similar findings indistinguishable from women's social positions have men's properties and establish a dual relationship with women. The results were identical. The concept of a double bond is when women behave as managers and use the agency traits assigned to men to breach gender roles and are regarded as authentic (Gherardi & Poggio, 2001; Ingols et al., 2015). In pure, offensive, mission-oriented features associated with good management but more commonly associated with their male counterparts, women were given degrading titles such as barracudas and "battle-axes." Dragon lady, ice queen, and war axes were already descriptors until manager-thinking man became a prevailing corporate model for women (Heilman, 2002). The disconnection between women and leaders' qualities, characters, and personalities establishes double standards and contributes to a dual leadership level (Ely, Ibarra & Kolb, 2011). Women still suffer derogatory names like "abrasive, arrogant or self-promoting" (Ely, Ibarra & Kolb, 2011). Karp and Helgo (2009) defined the development of an individual by describing distinct, discreet social roles a person has and can respond authentically to himself in those roles at any time. Reactions vary because

of factors and do not occur at past times. Eagly and Carli (2007) showed that the social identity traits of each gender do not always translate and compare female representatives. In developed nations, fair wages and job conditions prevailed in the last four decades (Adler, 2002; Alonso-Almeida, 2014; South worth, 2014). The slow transition in different leadership teams to gender, instead of the former men's dominant managing teams, led to poor pay practices, educational programs, leadership growth schemes, and promotional opportunities (Oakley, 2000). Where organizations fail to train women for executive leadership and management positions, they are discounted by the development and promotional processes. Women barely get a chance to focus on foreign management and expertise, valuable in the world economy and diverse cultures and leadership developments (Oakley, 2000).

To strike a balance between work and home helps produce genuine leaders and authentic individuals. Much of what Nooyi said was confirmed by DeLaine-(2009) Hart's analysis. Although highly trained and skilled, women may not have the same chance of making progress without allowing and sacrificing any of their lives. One feature is to lose yourself and to embrace and demonstrate male characteristics and abandon the female. Eagly & Karau (2002) mentioned that one could not be regarded as genuine and less suitable for pursuing or detrimental by following aspects, not in social DNA. Nine women in local government management roles were examined in a qualitative analysis using interviews (DeLaine-Hart, 2009). The interviews showed that women had to remove obstacles and achieve harmony between family and work, to succeed in leadership (DeLaine-Hart, 2009).

### 2.3.4 Contingency Theories

It has been common knowledge that those studying the leadership phenomenon predicting leadership success were more complex than isolating a few traits or preferable behavior. The popular moderating variables used in the development of contingency theories include the degree of structure in the task been performed, the quality of leader-member relation, the leader position power, subordinates' role clarity, group norms, information availability, subordinate acceptance of leader's decisions, and subordinate maturity.

The first comprehensive contingency model for leadership was developed by Fred Fidler (1964). The Fidler contingency model proposes that effective group performance depends on the proper match between the leader's style of interacting with subordinates and how the situation controls and influences the leader (Fidler, 1964). Fidler (1964) developed an instrument called the least preferred co-worker (LPC) questionnaire to measure whether a person is a task or relationship-oriented. Further, he isolated three situational criteria; leader-member relation, task structure, and position power, which he believes can be manipulated to create the proper match with the behavioral orientation of the leader. In a sense, the Fidler model is an outgrowth of trait theory since the LPC questionnaire is a simple psychological test. However, Fidler goes significantly beyond traits and behavioral approaches by attempting to isolate situations relating his



personality to his situational classification and then predicting leadership effectiveness as a function of the two.

Fiedler (1964) believes a critical factor in leadership success is the individual's basic leadership style. So, he begins by trying to find out what that basic style is. Fiedler (1964) created the LPC questionnaire for this purpose. It contains 16 contrasting adjectives (such as pleasant-unpleasant, efficient-inefficient, open-guarded, supportive-hostile). The questionnaire then asks respondents to think of all the co-workers they have ever had and describe the one person they least enjoyed working with by rating them on a scale of 1 to 8 for each of the 16 sets of contrasting adjectives. Fiedler believes that he can determine their basic leadership style based on the LPC questionnaire answers. If the least preferred co-worker is described in relatively favorable terms (a high LPC score), the respondent is primarily interested in good personal relations with his co-workers. Fiedler will label one relationship-oriented if one essentially describes the person you can least work with within favorable terms. In contrast, if the least preferred co-worker, if the least preferred co-worker is seen in relatively unfavorable terms (a low LPC score), the respondent is primarily interested in productivity, which would be labeled task-oriented.

According to Fiedler (1964), after an individual's basic leadership style has been assessed through the least preferred co-worker, it is necessary to match the leader with the situation. Fiedler (1964) has identified three contingency dimensions that, he argues, define the situational factors that determine leadership effectiveness. These are leader-member relations, task structure, and position power. The leader-member relation refers

to the degree of confidence, trust, and respect subordinates have in their leader, task structures, to the degree to which the job assignments are procedures (structured or unstructured). Position power refers to the degree of influence overpower variables such as hiring, firing, discipline, promotions, and salary increases.

Fiedler (1964) states the better the leader-member relations, the more highly structured the job, and the stronger the position power, the more control or influence the leader has. According to Fiedler (1964), a favorable situation (where the leader would have a great deal of control) might involve a well-respected payroll manager. In whom subordinates have confidence (good leader-member relations), the activities to be done – such as wage computation, check writing, report filing – are specific and clear (high task structure). On the other hand, an unfavorable situation might be the disliked chairperson of a voluntary United Way Fund-raising team. In this job, the leader has very little control. The job provides considerable freedom for her to reward and punish her subordinates (strong position power). Altogether, by mixing the three contingency variables, there are potentially eight different situations or categories in which leaders could find themselves.

### 2.3.5. Gender and Leadership Styles

Are women and men different leaders? Many controversies have always surrounded this question. Two opposing positions are generally taken in this debate. Men and women's position differs fundamentally in how they lead others is most prominent in

popular management literature, i.e., books and magazines written primarily for practicing managers and the public (e.g., Helgesen, 1990; Rosener, 1990, Loden, 1985). Some scholars who subscribe to this position claim that women have a different "female voice" (Gilligan, 1982) that has been overlooked by mainstream theory and research (e.g., Hare, 1996; Kibbe Reed, 1996; Perrault, 1996). On the other hand, a considerable portion of the social science literature favors the similarity position, claiming that, all things considered (or controlled for), men and women lead in similar ways (e.g., Klenke, 1993; Dobbins & Platz, 1986).

In 1990, Eagly and Johnson published a meta-analysis on gender differences in leadership styles, based on the studies between 1961 and 1987. Its central conclusion is that, in organizational studies, female and male leaders do not differ in interpersonally oriented style and task-oriented style. In laboratory and assessment studies, men are more task-oriented, and women are more interpersonally oriented in two other types of studies. Also, women tend to adopt a more democratic or participative style and a less autocratic style than men in all three types of studies (Eagly & Johnson, 1990).

In addition to the leadership styles studied by Eagly and Johnson (1990), today's most prominent leadership style in leadership theorizing, i.e., charismatic or transformational leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1994), is included in this research. First, we will address the issues of studying sex differences in general and then discuss in some more detail the study of sex differences in leadership styles, their attractions, and difficulties

### 2.3.6. The Study of Sex Differences in Leadership

In the research literature on sex differences in any trait, behavior, competence, or skill, one can usually detect two competing streams of evidence: Minimizing or ignoring sex differences, maximizing or aiming to demonstrate differences. In feminist theory, this debate is known as the similarity-difference controversy (e.g., Bacchi, 1990; Scott, 1988). The "similarity" tradition assumes the fundamental equality of the sexes and considers sex differences a consequence of a long history of unequal treatment. When women have obtained equal rights, equal treatment, and the same access to power as men, sex differences will disappear. The opposing "difference" tradition celebrates women's essential difference from men in behavior, feelings, and thoughts. Women's superiority is often claimed, and consequently, for these theorists, equalities are too limited a goal. Social change can be reached by revaluing feminine characteristics. This theoretical debate is reflected in the controversy about gendered management styles.

However, in the last decades, women have entered the workforce in significant numbers, slowly trickling into the management and executive layers. Simultaneously, studies on gendered organizations, female leaders, and women in management now form a massive body of literature themselves. One of the first studies, by Apfelbaum and Hadley (1986), is based on fifteen leading women in France and the USA. These women state that they do not use a similar style as their male colleagues. They described themselves as down-to-earth, result-minded, participatory, aware of subordinates' values,

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and good listeners, resulting in a maternal, momma-leadership style. Stanford, Oates, and Flores (1995) interviewed twelve women selected because they appeared in newspapers. The women facilitated communication, were team builders, used referent or reward power, inspired, motivated, and fostered mutual trust and respect. Willemsen, Rojahn, and Fischer (1993) concluded from a survey among 273 female readers of a Dutch glossy magazine "Woman and Business" that women prefer a consulting leadership style.

Similarly, Helgesen (1995) concluded from diary studies of four female leaders that their leadership style was participative, consensus building, and empowering, leading to "a web of inclusion" rather than men's hierarchical leadership. However, reactions from male managers stating that they - although being men - recognized their own experience in the leadership style described by Helgesen (1995) necessitated an adjustment of the conclusions. Helgesen and Johnson (2010) stated that the "web of inclusion" is not strictly reserved for women. Usually, authors studying only women caution that they do not wish to compare men (as managers) but instead study women from a women's perspective, often focusing on the diversity among women (as leaders). Nevertheless, a conclusion of difference is hard to avoid and is usually implicitly made. Firm decisions are based on mixed results. What kind of results do we need to conclude that a sex difference in leadership style exists? In general, the concept of style includes a variety of behavior. What should our conclusion be if discrepancies are found on some measures but not on others?

### 2.3.7. The Gender-Centered Model

The gender-centered model attributes individual differences in organizational behavior to gender (Fageson, 1990b, Rigeer & Galligan 1980). It posits definite behavioral and psychological differences between men and women that lead them to attain distinct and unique managerial and leadership styles. Men have traditionally been perceived to possess the characteristics of aggressiveness, high self-confidence, and low emotionality, termed mitigating structure behavior. While women have been assigned attributes such as emotionality, kindness, and nurturance, termed consideration behavior (Powell, 1988; Schein, 1973; Stogdill & Coons, 1973). Thus, women are predicted to engage in more consideration behavior than men, while men are expected to engage in more task-oriented leadership behavior than women. While gender differences may be biologically based, most current research focuses on socialization effects (Powell, 1988). Heining and Jardim (1977) purport that men possess more vital leadership skills because of their early socialization experiences, particularly their involvement in team sports. Others claim similar differences yet argue that these differences (e.g., women having higher interpersonal sensitivity and human relations skills) enable women to become more effective leaders (Helgesen, 1995; Rosener, 1990). These findings, however, deviate from more empirically based research (Eagly & Johnson, 1990), and therefore have been questioned and are surrounded by controversies (Bradford et al., 1991). The research that has relied on more empirically based methodologies has pointed to a lack

of significant differences in the leadership styles of men and women (as reported from a variety of sources) (Eagly & Johnson, 1990).

### 2.3.8. Organizational-Structured Model

In contrast to the gender-centered model, the organization-structured model suggests that the behavior of the individuals is related to their position in the organizational hierarchies (Fagensen, 1986; Kanter, 1977). Kanter (1977) finds that the behavior of an individual is due to three structural factors: (1) the individual's perceived opportunity to advance in the organization, (2) the individual's perceived power in the organization, and (3) the numerical representation of the individual's gender within that organization. Fagenson (1990b) extended this theory by suggesting that other aspects of the organization, such as their histories, culture, and policies, also influence individual behavior.

Kanter (1977) suggests that those at the top of the management hierarchy perceive themselves as powerful, have many opportunities to advance, and often belong to the majority group. They act accordingly, being aggressive, instrumental, and risk-oriented. Since men have filled most of the top managerial positions, they have worked in this fashion (Lewis & Fagenson-Elad, 1998). For instance, Kanter (1977) says that workers who perceive themselves as having the opportunity to advance are more interested in and more committed to their work than workers who do not have such

options. The former is more likely to initiate structure leadership behavior than the latter (Brenner, 1982; Dobbins & Platz, 1986; Donnell & Hall, 1980; Snodgrass, 1985, 1992).

## **2.4. Personality**

Robbins and Judge (2009) defined personality as the consistent psychological patterns that can affect how an individual interacts with others and responds to the situations that someone comes across. Luthans (1992) described personality as the measurable personality traits that a person has, which affects others, and how they understand and view themselves and their pattern of inner and outer quantifiable attributes.

### **2.4.1. Personality Theory: Big Five Model**

Six to eight central traits usually influence an individual's personality. Cloninger (1996) and Groves (2005) mentioned that personality traits in men and women are the same, and the dominant trait is based on the individual's perceptions and not on the gender of the person. Some personality traits are used to show distinctions between men and women, particularly in the workplace.

Findings from early research on leadership suggest that leadership accuracy is related to several characteristics, including independence, trustfulness, sympathy, and courage, a sense of humor, experience with human nature, maturity, and similarity to the target, intelligence, and social skills (Vernon, 1933; Allport, 1937; Colvin & Bundick, 2001; Tett, & Burnett, 2003; Letzring, 2008). Taft (1955) found that characteristics of good



leadership included gender (with a slight advantage for women), intelligence, aesthetic ability and sensitivity, emotional stability, self-insight, social skills, and social detachment. Taft concluded that “the main attributes of the ability to lead others seem to lie in three areas: possessing appropriate judgmental norms, leadership ability, and motivation” (p. 20). Therefore, Taft's (1955) study implies that good leaders are people around whom others are likely to feel comfortable and willing to reveal their true personalities. The ability to obtain relevant cues to personality seems to be a vital part of the leadership process and a part of the process that is likely to be related to the personality of a leader. According to McCrae and John (1992), they developed personality traits which they call the five-factor model. Those five factors are namely: openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism. Each factor is discussed in the ensuing paragraphs.

#### **2.4.1.1 Openness to experience**

Openness is one of the five personality traits. It indicates how open-minded a person is. A person with a high level of openness to experience in a personality test enjoys trying new things. They are imaginative, curious, and open-minded. Individuals who are low in openness to experience would instead not try new things. They are close-minded, literal, and enjoy having a routine. Individuals with a high level of openness have a general appreciation for unusual ideas and art. They are usually imaginative rather than practical. Being creative, open to new and different ideas, and in touch with their feelings are all characteristics. Individuals who score lower in openness on a career test are generally

more closed-off, resistant to change, and analytical. Each of the Big Five personality traits is made up of six facets or sub traits. These can be assessed independently of the attribute that they belong to in a personality test. Openness to experience is an appreciation for art, emotion, adventure, unusual ideas, curiosity, and variety of experience. Openness reflects the degree of intellectual curiosity, creativity, and preference for novelty and variety a person has (McCrae & John, 1992). The sub traits of the openness domain are:

- Imagination
- Artistic interests
- Emotionality
- Adventurousness
- Intellect
- Liberalism

#### **2.4.1.2 Conscientiousness**

Conscientiousness is another one of the five personality traits. A person scoring high in conscientiousness usually has a high level of self-discipline. These individuals prefer to follow a plan rather than act spontaneously. Their methodic planning and perseverance usually make them highly successful in their chosen occupation. Conscientiousness is about how a person controls, regulates, and directs their impulses. Individuals with a high level of conscientiousness on a career test are good at formulating

long-range goals, organizing and planning routes to these goals, and working consistently to achieve them. Despite short-term obstacles, they may encounter. Other people usually perceive a conscientious personality type as a responsible and reliable person. However, individuals who score high in conscientiousness on a personality test can be compulsive perfectionists and workaholics. They might also be seen as being dull or inflexible. Conscientiousness tends to be organized and dependable, show self-discipline, act dutifully, aim for achievement, and prefer planned rather than spontaneous behavior (McCrae & John, 1992). The sub traits of conscientiousness are:

- Self-efficacy
- Orderliness
- Dutifulness
- Achievement-striving
- Self-discipline
- Cautiousness

#### **2.4.1.3 Extraversion**

Extraversion indicates how outgoing and social a person is. A person who scores high in extraversion on a personality test is the life of the party. They enjoy being with people, participating in social gatherings, and are full of energy. A person low in extraversion is less outgoing and is more comfortable working by himself. Individuals high in extraversion on a career test tend to seek out the company and stimulate other

people. They enjoy engaging with the external world. These individuals thrive on excitement and are enthusiastic, action-oriented people. They like to be the center of attention in groups. On the other side of the coin are introverts. These people have less vitality and energy than extroverts. They are less involved in social activities and tend to be quiet and keep to themselves. An introvert does not require the external stimulation that extraverts do (McCrae & John, 1992). The sub traits of the extraversion domain are:

- Friendliness
- Gregariousness
- Assertiveness
- Activity level
- Excitement-seeking
- Cheerfulness

According to Feiler and Kleinbaum (2015), extroversion is associated with leadership behavior. Since extroverts are more likely to assert themselves in groups, they often take on leadership roles when working with other people. Feiler and Kleinbaum (2015) also allotted that extroverts are less likely to experience anxiety over negative feedback. Those high in extroversion are often described as having a very positive outlook on life and being friendly, energetic, and highly adaptable. All these tendencies can serve a person well, particularly in certain social situations. As you might imagine, high levels of extroversion can be particularly well suited to jobs that require a great deal of interaction with other people. Teaching, sales, marketing, public relations, and politics

are all jobs that an extrovert might do well. Introverts prefer less social interaction, so jobs that require lots of independent work are often ideal. Writing, computer programming, engineering, and accounting are jobs that might appeal to a person low in extroversion.

Feiler and Kleinbaum (2015) also suggested that two key factors determine who people become friends. Extroverts tend to be very sociable, making them more likely to form new friendships than introverts. People also tend to form friendships with people with similar levels of extroversion as themselves. While extroverts are more likely to become friends with other extroverts, introverts tend to forge relationships with introverts and extroverts. It seems like most people are extroverted to extroverts because that personality trait is overrepresented among their group of friends and acquaintances. Introverts, however, might have a better grasp of the actual structure of social networks. Extraversion is about energy, positive emotions, assertiveness, sociability, the tendency to seek stimulation in the company of others, and talkativeness.

#### **2.4.1.4 Agreeableness**

A person with a high level of agreeableness in a personality test is usually warm, friendly, and discreet. They generally have an optimistic view of human nature and get along well with others. A person who scores low on agreeableness may put their interests above those of others. They tend to be distant, unfriendly, and uncooperative. Agreeable individuals find it important to get along with others. They are willing to put aside their interests for other people. These individuals are helpful, friendly, considerate, and

generous. Their fundamental belief is that people are usually decent, honest, and trustworthy. Agreeableness is a tendency to be compassionate and cooperative rather than suspicious and antagonistic towards others. It is a measure of one's trusting and helpful nature (McCrae & John, 1992). The sub traits of the agreeableness domain are:

- Trust
- Morality
- Altruism
- Cooperation
- Modesty
- Sympathy

#### **2.4.1.5 Neuroticism**

Neuroticism refers to a person's ability to remain stable and balanced. Neuroticism is similar but not identical to being neurotic in the Freudian sense. People who score high in neuroticism are very emotionally reactive. They will have an emotional response to events that would not affect most people. A high scorer in neuroticism on a personality test has a greater chance of feeling threatened or being in a bad mood in a normal situation. At the other end of the scale, a high neuroticism person tends to experience negative emotions easily. They may find it difficult to think clearly and cope with stress (McCrae & John, 1992). Neuroticism tends to experience unpleasant feelings easily, such

as anger, anxiety, depression, and vulnerability. The sub traits of the emotional stability trait are:

- Anxiety
- Anger
- Depression
- Self-consciousness
- Immoderation
- Vulnerability

These five factors provide a rich conceptual framework for integrating all the research findings and theory in personality (Poropat, 2009). This study will concentrate on these five personality factors predicting working women's leadership style and coping strategies in leadership positions.

## **2.5. Coping Strategies**

A leader who manages corporate events' importance simultaneously influences how the employee understands, interprets, and reacts to work-related events (e.g., stressful events). The leader in this role uses different behaviors to facilitate understanding and reduce uncertainty connected to threatening events. On the other hand, a leader can, through his behavior, have the opposite effect on employees and thus fail to make it easier for them to cope with difficulties. Various studies have shown consistent links between the three major leadership styles in the full-range leadership

model and the stress felt by subordinates about perceived specific leadership styles (Setzer, Numerof, & Bass, 1989; Skakon, Nielsen, Borg & Guzman, 2010). The transformational leadership style is negatively linked to symptoms and feelings of stress and burnout among subordinates. The situation is similar, although not so consistent, in the case of transactional leadership. Conversely, in the passive-avoidant leadership style, research suggests that people exposed to this leadership style show more symptoms of stress and burnout.

Most extensive research has examined the concept of coping and its role in a patient's psychological outcomes (Hack & Degner, 1999; McCaul, Sandgren, King, O'Donnell, Branstetter, & Foreman 1999). Coping strategies have been categorized in different ways like Kershaw, Northouse, Kritpracha, Schafenacker, and Mood (2004), who examined the concept of coping in its role in patience with breast cancer. Even though coping strategies were categorized in different ways, the meaning of these different conceptualizations is similar. Active coping includes strategies such as dynamic problem solving, seeking emotional support, and planning. In contrast, avoidant and maladaptive coping primarily refer to strategies where individuals avoid dealing with problems by cognitively and physically distancing themselves from the situation. Avoidant coping includes strategies such as denial, behavioral disengagement, and alcohol/ drug use.

Latack and Havlovic (1992), attempting to search for a comprehensive conceptual definition of coping, suggested two main components: the focus of coping and coping methods. The emphasis of coping is problem versus emotion-focused coping. Regarding coping, they make the following three distinctions: cognitive/behavioral, control /escape,



social solitary. Problem or emotion-focused coping can be comprised of any of this variety of methods. Coping can be cognitive (mental strategies and self-talk) or behavioral (acting or doing something) more observable behavioral actions. The second distinction is made between proactive/control-oriented methods versus escapist/avoidance methods. The third category of the coping strategy is social versus solitary.

In addition, Roskies, Louis-Guerin, and Fournier (1993) mentioned six different coping strategies to reduce the stress of job security: Emotional discharge; cognitive avoidance; disengagement; cognitive redefinition; direct action to maintain a current job (for example, working harder); and direct action to improve future job prospects (for example, active search for possible jobs). Coping is a process that evolves from resources. Coping resources are those psychological, social, and organizational resources available to a person, influencing whether a particular coping strategy can or will be implemented (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Coping can utilize other people's methods (social method) or alone (solitary method).

There are two theories, namely social exchange theory and rational choice theory, to explain coping strategies. Social exchange theory suggests that human relationships are formed by a subjective cost-benefit analysis and comparing alternatives. The social exchange involves the voluntary actions of individuals, which are motivated by the returns they are expected to bring. Similarly, in rational choice theory, social interaction, such as between employer and employees, is an economic transaction guided by the actors' logical choice among available alternative options (Coleman, 1990). Therefore, people tend to display certain forms of work behavior that they expect will bring desirable

outcomes. People will choose whichever coping strategy provides them with the maximum benefit to ensure their welfare.

## 2.6. Empirical Framework

Leadership is one of those hard-to-describe terms. Stogdill (1974) affirmed more than four decades ago that "there are almost as many different definitions of leadership as there are people who have tried to define the term" (p. 7). At the end of the last century, Bennis and Townsend (1995) estimated at least 650 definitions of literary leadership. The number seems to have risen, and Kellerman (2014) commented in an interview with Volkmann (2012): "I heard about 1,400 different words of leadership and leadership concepts exist." Accurate or inflated, these numbers suggest that there is no agreement on what leadership is.

McCleskey (2014), citing Bass (2008) and other scholars, argues that the search for a single definition of leadership may be in vain because the correct explanation of leadership depends on the researcher's interest and the type of issue or situation studied. In his great man's theory, Carlyle summed up common theories about leadership in the 19th century (Carlyle, 2011). Leaders were exceptional individuals or heroes who could use their charm, intellect, experience, and political ability to exert power and influence over others. Although Carlyle's ideas remained predominant, Spencer pointed out that such great men were the products or context of their societies, anticipating the modern leadership debate (Spencer, 2013).

Tannenbaum, Weschler, and Massarik (1961) continued along the same lines as Stogdill (1974) and described leadership as the interpersonal power exerted in a situation and guided through the communication process a specific goal or objective. Zaleznik (1977) also stressed leadership influence that requires influencing other people's thoughts and actions. Kotter (1988) added a new point of view when he defined leadership as the process of moving a group in some direction by means that mainly were uncoercive. According to this concept, coercive means are not analogous to leadership since voluntary followership should exist. Not all scholars agree with that distinction; Kellerman (2014), for example, argued that the use of force is also leadership (Volckmann, 2012).

Pillay (2005), in her study, investigates the leadership perspective as enacted and experienced by women principals in secondary schools in Kwazulu-Natal Province. Her approaches were mainly to focus on the male experience and interpretation of what constitutes leadership. She allotted the studies on leadership that has ignored the perspective of women and then impacted the description of leadership in its entirety as a concept of "one size fits all." Pillay's (2005) study concluded that the female principal's leadership approach features are participatory and transformational. The findings reflect that women as leaders are inclined to the transformational approach because it favors feminine values of nurturing and caring. Still, she did not cover either the personality influences this leadership style.

Gouws and Kotze (2007) assert that the findings of a survey done by the South African Commission on Gender Equality indicate that over 30 percent of their sample believes that women are too emotional to handle high-level leadership positions. They argued that there are stereotypical ideas about women's ability to perform well in leadership positions to inform people's perceptions of women leaders' Commission on Gender Equality (2009). Babalola, du Plessis, and Babalola (2021), in their study of African women in STEM leadership, concluded that the way up the ladder for women in leadership positions is turfy and stressful. They allotted that women's leadership journey was made possible through self-determination by having mentors, support from partners and family members. The study further showed that women in leadership face challenges like discrimination, insubordination, lack of cooperation, and other cultural issues.

Some other literature focuses on women in business and relies on business models to tell us about women's leadership styles. One contested argument is whether women have different leadership styles, such as a preference for less hierarchical structures, forming better interpersonal relations, and a more caring attitude towards co-workers (Alvesson & Billing, 1997; Rosener, 2011 & Eagly & Johnson, 1990). Some empirical evidence indicates that this is the case other than the evidence challenges the difference (Kushnell & Newton, 1986; Powell, 1990).

An exciting area of leadership research is whether women have a unique leadership style. Some feminist researchers are inclined to believe that women do indeed have different leadership styles than men. Techniques have to do with how a person

relates to other people, tasks, and challenges. A style of a person is a unique and distinctive feature of their personality and character. It might be democratic or autocratic, centralized or decentralized, detached or empathetic, assertive or passive, introvert or extrovert, engaged or remote. Different styles may work equally well in different situations, but they must adequately fit the needs of an organization and the needed leadership style used (Cronin, 1993). Style is more than typical behavior. It is also affected by situational constraints as role demands related to the leader levels in an organization and the expectations of followers (Hollander & Offerman, 1993).

It is a belief that women have a different leadership style from men. Some researchers (Blackmore, 1999; Blackmore, 2002; & Rhode, 2003) think it may be problematic lumping women together with men like a homogeneous group. Without considering differences such as race, class, beliefs, ethnicity, age, and sexual orientation (Rhode, 2003). Rhode says that women are not the same, “sweeping generalizations about women’s experience risk over-claiming and over-simplifying” (Rhodes, 2003:18). These sweeping generalizations have to do with what Blackmore (1999) refers to as the popular discourse about women’s leadership being flexible, democratic, valuing openness, trust, and compassion, humane and efficient (Blackmore, 1999).

It cannot be denied that women have certain leadership qualities different from men’s, such as caring and nurturing. Studies conducted have not yet provided conclusive evidence about the dichotomy between male and female leadership styles. Some researchers revealed that women seem to have styles of leadership better suited to certain contexts than others. Blackmore (1999) thinks that the popular discourse about

women's leadership style is seemingly convergent with new and softer management discourses that focus upon good people management as the new source of productivity in post-modern organizations.

Jones (1997), in his study of African American women executives, the leadership style most respondents described as their approach to leadership was transformational, characterized by participative management, empowerment, team building, vision creation, and supervision. There seems to be a shift in the new management era towards more feminine styles of leadership which emphasize connectedness and collaboration. Women managers are believed to be a new source of leadership talent because of their organizational skills, ability to share, communicate, listen to and empathize with the needs of others (Blackmore, 2002). Women's more openly softer characteristics are thought to be critical to new managerialism in post-modern organizations. Their nurturing nature places them in a better position than men to exercise those more spontaneously occurring soft skills alongside the more challenging skills already expected of managers in a male-defined managerial world. The soft skills involve motivating staff, creating co-operation, redefining organizational values and beliefs, and re-aligning management focus (Blackmore 2002).

## **2.7. Conceptual model**

The research hypotheses inform the conceptual model. The relationships among the three variables (personality factors, leadership styles, and coping strategies as depicted in Figure 2.2 below

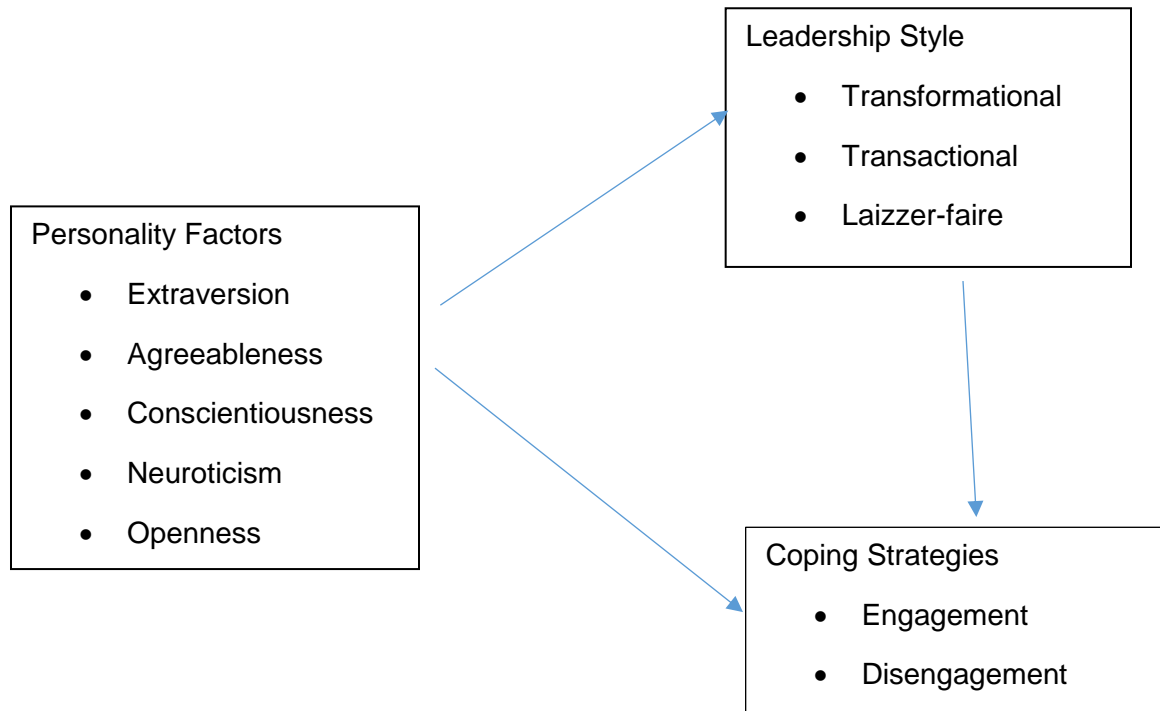


Figure 2.2 Proposed research model

Source: Researcher's own work

## 2.8. Conclusion

The chapter discussed the theoretical framework, the concept of leadership styles, personality factors, and coping strategies of women in leadership positions. Furthermore, the chapter outlined the relationships between personality and leadership styles, personality and coping strategies, leadership styles, and coping strategies as indicated in previous studies.

## CHAPTER THREE

### METHODOLOGY

#### 3.1. Introduction

Chapter one briefly described the purpose of the study, what it intends to achieve, and a brief exposition on leadership style, personality factors, and coping strategies of working women in leadership positions. Therefore, this chapter will provide a detailed outline of the methodology used for this study. The structure of this chapter begins with the design of the study. It then discusses the study's population and sampling technique, instrumentation, data collection methods, and data analysis procedures.

#### 3.2. Research design

Welman, Kruger, and Mitchell (2005) mention that research design gathers information from the research participants. Additionally, Kumar (2011) stated that research design is a planned structure or procedural strategy that a researcher adopts to answer the research problems or questions. Research design is also referred to as the researcher's procedure to gather information or data about a problem or phenomenon (Creswell & Creswell, 2017). Hence the research design is the pillar of the whole research. This is because it gives steps and guidelines to be considered throughout the study. A quantitative research design allows the researcher to answer questions about the relationships between variables (Leedy & Omrod, 2012). It is also a systematic process that relies on objective numerical data from selected subgroups in a population



to generalise the findings to the study population (Maree, 2010). It generates statistics using Questionnaires or structured interviews. According to Bless, Higson - Smith, and Sithole (2013), survey data can be obtained using telephone interviews, personal interviews, or even questionnaires. The advantage of the quantitative approach is that it reaches many people in a short time and will generalize results objectively. In this study, a questionnaire was used.

For this study, a survey or quantitative design method was adopted to obtain the data. The researcher formulated the research objectives, primary and secondary data collection methods were determined, the study population and the sample to be studied were determined. The researcher also selected the instrument for primary data collection. A well-structured questionnaire was administered to the respondents for primary data collection. The data collected was processed and analyzed using IBM-SPSS, and the researcher reports the results of the findings. Given that the study aimed to obtain complete and correct data, the researcher adopted a survey research design since it considers all the steps involved in a survey concerning a phenomenon to be studied (Kothari, 2004).

### **3.3. Research approach**

According to Creswell (2009), quantitative methods are most appropriate when examining relationships between variables. Moreover, in a quantitative study, the researcher focuses on numerical methods and emphasizes calculating occurrences, quantities, or associations between entities (Gelo, Braakmann & Benetka 2008; Roberts, Priest & Traynor, 2006). Quantitative approaches also use standardized questionnaires,

surveys, and structured interviews to gather data using predetermined instruments that generate statistical data. For this study, surveys were appropriate since they provide numeric descriptions of a population's sample opinions, attitudes, and trends and are convenient enough to enhance efficiency in data collection (Creswell, 2009).

Quantitative approach summaries participants' information into statistical representations rather than textual pictures of the phenomenon, which entails that the whole research process is fashioned objectively. Usually, the findings represent the total population under study (Creswell, 2009). A quantitative approach can also be referred to as a formal, objective, systematic process in which numerical data is used to obtain data (Burns & Grove, 2005). According to Bryman and Bell (2011), quantitative research is beneficial when examining relationships between variables, describing variables, and determining the cause-and-effect interactions between variables.

This study employed a quantitative research approach to investigate the relationship between personality factors and leadership style, personality factors and coping strategy, and leadership style and coping strategy. The quantitative approach enabled the researcher to answer questions about the relationships between variables to explain, predict, and control a certain phenomenon (Leedy & Ormrod, 2012).

### **3.4. Population and sample**

Population refers to the total of the entire elements in the area under investigation (Creswell, 2013). The study population is the total number of possible features included (Mitchell & Jolley, 2010). According to Strydom (2013), a population is the number of

elements that have a possibility of being included in the sample of the study. The target population for this study was all working women in the middle to senior leadership (Directors) positions in the public sector of Vhembe District Municipality. It includes all women in leadership positions in all organizations in the Vhembe district in Limpopo Province. The targeted population of Vhembe District has women in management at Makhado Local Municipality, Musina Local Municipality, Collins Tshabane Local Municipality, and Thulamela Local Municipality, University of Venda, Mavhoyi FET, Vhembe FET, Five different Schools in each local municipality, Department of Education, Department of Health and Department of Water Affairs.



Figure 3.1: Vhembe District Locality Map

Sampling is the technique by which a sample is drawn from the population to participate in a research study (Babbie, 2017). Sampling is also a process of selecting units (e.g., people, organizations) from a population of interest. Studying the sample may generalize the results back to the chosen population (Creswell, 2014). A sample is a group of elements drawn from the population, representing the population studied to acquire knowledge about the entire population (Bless, Higson-Smith & Kagee 2006). According to Bryman (2012), a sample is a group of elements drawn from the population, considered representative of the population studied to obtain knowledge about the whole population. It also refers to a subset of the entire population whose characteristics will be generalized to the whole population (Bless et al., 2013).

The selection of participants was made using purposeful sampling, which is a non-probability sampling method. Purposeful sampling is defined by Kalu (2019) as selecting individuals or groups based on the research's specific question and purposes instead of random sampling and based on information available about these individuals or groups. The researcher identified participants who are currently in leadership positions. Simple random and purposive sampling was used for the selection of the sample population. Simple random and purposive sampling is used in different contexts for the selection of a population sample. Simple random sampling involves randomly selecting units from a sampling frame giving all units an equal chance of being selected (David & Sutton, 2004). Also, Shaughnessy (2011) describes simple random sampling as a probability sampling method whereby each unit has the same probability of being randomly selected for the sample. The Selection of participants was made randomly in the Vhembe district

municipality. Purposive sampling gathers data on specific research participants in the public sector, working women in leadership positions in four local municipalities under Vhembe District Municipality. Not all members of the population were studied; only those who were selected purposively were involved.

Table 3.1: Sample of the study

<b>STRUCTURE</b>	<b>TOTAL NO. OF RESPONDENTS</b>
4X Municipalities	80
University and FETs	50
Principals of schools and HoD	50
Departments and Directorates of public sector	120
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>300</b>

Source: Researcher's own work

### 3.5. Data collection method

The questionnaire method was used because it is less expensive and easy to administer. It also enabled the researcher to obtain data from a large pool of participants quickly and efficiently (Bless et al., 2013). Four questionnaires have been used, including a biographical questionnaire, personality questionnaire, multifactor leadership questionnaire, and Coping Strategies questionnaire.

*Biographical Questionnaire:* In obtaining biographical information for the sample, a self-designed biographical questionnaire was used. The biographical questionnaire

gathered data concerning the demographical variables such, is age, education level, work experience, marital status, race, and home language.

*Personality Questionnaire:* For personality, 44-item measures of the big five personality dimensions were used. This scale measures extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability, and openness to new experiences.

*The multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ 5X)* was also used to measure leadership style. MLQ 5X measures five transformational leadership factors, three transactional leadership factors, and one laissez-faire leadership (Bass, 1998; Bass & Avolio, 1994). The scale anchor on a 5-point Likert type-rating scale with points ranging from “not at all (1) to “frequently if not always” (5). The questionnaire items include closed-ended questions. It has a reliability Cronbach's alpha coefficient of between 0.893 and 0.895 for sub-scale dimensions for transformational, and the coefficient of between 0.894 and 0.923 transactional sub-scales. This was done by Acar (2012) to test its reliability and validity.

*Coping Strategies Inventory (CSI)* was also used to measure coping strategies. CSI was developed by Carver (2013). For this study, the short version, Short Form 32, was used to determine the frequency and effectiveness of various coping strategies women use in leadership positions. The scale anchor on a 5-point Likert type-rating scale with points ranging from “not at all” (1) to “very much” (5). CSI questionnaire measures Problem-solving, cognitive restructuring, express emotions, social contact, problem avoidance, wishful thinking, self-criticism, and social withdrawal.

The questionnaire items include closed-ended questions, which concentrated on two tertiary subscales being engagement and disengagement. The engagement subscale includes problem-solving, cognitive restructuring, social support, and express emotions. It also reflects attempts by the individual to engage the individual to manage the stressful person/environment transaction. Through these coping strategies, individuals engage in active and ongoing negotiation with the stressful environment. The disengagement subscale includes problem avoidance, wishful thinking, social withdrawal, and self-criticism. The subscale consists of strategies that are likely to disengage the individual from the person/environment transaction. For example, feelings are not shared with others, thoughts about situations are avoided, and behaviors that might change the condition are not initiated. The questionnaire has a reliability Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.913.

Secondary data were obtained from literature sources together with other data collected by other people for other purposes. Secondary data were collected through published literature reviews such as journal articles, published theses, and textbooks. The researcher also made use of secondary data from university records. These sources were reviewed to give insight into the search for primary information. In addition, they offered insight on variables selection, the development of instruments, and the discussion of the findings.

Questionnaires were distributed to middle and senior women leadership (directors) in four municipalities under the Vhembe district municipality. It was distributed to the University (Deans and head of directorates) and Heads of Further Education Tertiaries

(FETs) located in Vhembe district municipality, principals of schools, and to different departments and directors of the public sector. Three hundred (300) questionnaires were distributed, and 204 were collected and analyzed in table 3.1 above.

### 3.6. Pilot Study

A pilot study was carried out to ensure that the items in the questionnaire were clearly stated and had the same meaning to participants. It was also done to give the researcher an idea of how long it would take the participants to complete the questionnaire. In addition, it assisted in ensuring that the instrument did not have repetitive items and that the instructions for completing the questionnaire were precise and clear. The sample of the pilot study:

STRUCTURE	TOTAL NO. OF RESPONDENTS
4X Municipalities	20
Departments & Directorates of public sector	10
University and FET's	10
Schools	10
Total	50

### 3.7. Research procedure

Before administering the questionnaire, ethical clearance and permission to conduct the research were obtained from the University's Research and Ethics office. The researcher then distributed questionnaires to those participants who had consented to be part of the study. To ensure that the operational activities were not disrupted, the



respondents were requested to submit the questionnaires to their supervisors. After completing them after that, the researcher came to collect them. The participants were informed of their confidentiality, and that participation was voluntary.

### **3.8. Data Analysis**

Data analysis is defined as the procedure by which data is combined, reduced, and interpreted according to the respondents' responses and what the researcher read (Merriam, 2009). Descriptive statistics have to do with presenting the data collected in tables and diagrams and calculating the percentages, averages, measures of distribution, and the correlation between the degree of the relationship between existing two variables to explain the data (Offredy & Vickers, 2010). The latest version of IBM- SPSS version 26 was used in analyzing data. Descriptive statistics and inferential statistics such as Correlation Analysis, T-test, and multiple regression, about leadership and personality variables, were used for questions-testing purposes. Correlation analysis was used to show whether there is any relationship among the variables. T-test was used to test whether there are significant differences between demographics variables versus leadership styles and personality factors. Cronbach's Alpha was used to test the reliability of the research instrument.

### **3.9. Ethical Considerations**

The researcher provided a letter to participants explaining the scope and purpose of the study. It was done to overcome their reservations about providing sensitive and confidential information. It was made clear that their contribution was voluntary, and they had full authority to refuse or withdraw if they changed their mind about participating. This research guarantees the participants confidentiality and assurance that identified information would not be discussed with anyone involved in the study. The participants will remain anonymous throughout the study, even to the researcher themselves. Also, it will not put participants in a situation where they might be at risk or harm because of their participation.

Additionally, specific approval from the University of Venda Ethics Committee was obtained for this study. The researcher made sure to follow the Ethical Code of Conduct in every detail, instructing the participants to avoid giving their names or identifying information. The participants were asked to sign an Informed consent form. The primary ethical concern was that the privacy of the participants would be safeguarded. Therefore, the participants did not need to provide their names or any sort of identification, which thus provided them with a pressure-free environment for them to give responses freely.

All the questionnaires received were referenced, and items in the questionnaire were coded to facilitate data entry. After that, data cleaning and validation were done, which entailed checking for errors in entry. Descriptive summary statistics and frequency tables, and multiple bar charts were constructed. Descriptive statistics were used because they enabled the researcher to meaningfully describe the distribution of scores or measurements using a few indices (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003). Furthermore, they

provided the basic features of the data collected on the variables and provided the impetus for further analysis of the data. Variable aggregation to develop indices for different variables was undertaken to analyze the dependent and independent variables further. Correlation analysis was conducted to assess whether significant relationships existed between independent and dependent variables. A multiple regression model was fitted to establish demographic and personality factors influencing working women's leadership style and coping strategies in the public sector.

### **3.10. Consent to conduct the study**

Voluntary consent was obtained from participants. Participants were protected from any harm through informed consent; participants have the right to decide whether to participate in a study without risk of penalty or prejudicial treatment. The participant can refuse to give information, withdraw from the study, and the researcher must not use coercion or penalty (Brink, 2012). If participants feel they cannot continue with the study, they could withdraw without being intimidated or threatened. The researcher ensured that the participants understand everything about the study (Babbie & Mouton, 2001).

### **3.11. Confidentiality and Anonymity**

Participants were informed and assured that confidentiality will be maintained. No information will be disclosed to the participants except by participants' consent (Brink, 2012). In this study, data collected from participants will be kept safe. No other personal information will be needed except that of the requirement of the study. Participant's

personal information will remain unknown. Research reports will not include any information that may be linked with participants and organizations. The purpose and benefits of the study will be explained. The participants will remain anonymous.

### **3.12. Delimitation of the Study**

The study was carried out in four municipalities under Vhembe district municipality: Thulamela local municipality, Musina Local municipality, Makhado local municipality, and Collins Chabane local municipality.

### **3.13. Conclusion**

The study population, sampling, and sampling procedure were outlined. The study population comprises all working women in the middle to senior leadership (Directors) positions in Vhembe District; this includes all women in leadership positions in all organizations in the Vhembe district in Limpopo Province. In addition, the data collection methods, measuring instruments, and research procedure were included in this chapter. A close-ended questionnaire was used to collect data from the participants. Furthermore, the researcher outlined the ethical considerations which were observed throughout the study.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### RESULTS

#### 4.1. Introduction

The previous chapter gave a detailed overview of the research method that was adopted in this study. The chapter also highlighted the precise steps that were taken in collecting and analyzing the data. In this chapter, the results obtained from the data analysis will be presented. This will comprise results from descriptive statistics, correlation analysis, and multiple regression analysis. The results will be shown in the alignment of the research objectives presented in chapter one. The statistical program that was used for conducting the data analysis was the IBM-SPSS version 26.

#### 4.2. Sample description

A total of 204 participants took part in this study voluntarily. The demographic information describing the sample is presented in Table 4.1. The sample was predominantly comprised of black Africans (99.5%), and there was only one white participant who took part in the study. Of the 204 participants, only 3% were aged below 30 years, while 12% of the sample had ages between 30 and 39 years. However, the bulk of the sample (74.3%) was between 40 and 59 years. Only 22 participants (10.7%) of the sample were aged above 60 years. In addition, 204 participants (69.6%) were single, and 15 participants (7.4%) were married. However, 26 participants (12.7%) were divorced,

while 21 (10.3%) were widowed. In terms of the highest qualification obtained, 18 participants (8.8%) had matric certificates, while 41 participants (20.1%) had diplomas as their highest qualifications. However, 103 participants (50.5%) had a bachelor's degree as the highest qualification obtained. Only 22 participants (10.8%) had honors degrees, while 16 (7.8%) had master's degrees. Out of the 204 participants, only 4 (2%) had doctorate degrees.

In terms of years of working experience, 130 out of 204 participants (64.4%) had five years and below work experience, while 42 participants (20.8%) had 6 to 10 years of work experience. The participants with 11 to 15 years of work experience constituted 6.9% (14) of the sample, while only 9 participants (4.5%) had 16 to 20 years of working experience. Only 7 participants (3.5%) had 21 years and above of working experience. This information is summarized in Table 4.1 below.

Table 4.1: Demographic information for the sample

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Category</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage (%)</b>
Age of participants in years	20-29 years	6	3
	30-39 years	25	12.
	40-49 years	74	36.3
	50-59 years	77	38
	60 years and above	22	10.7
Marital status	Single	142	69.6
	Married	15	7.4
	Divorced	26	12.7
	Widowed	21	10.3
Highest academic qualification	Matric	18	8.8
	Diploma	41	20.1
	Bachelors	103	50.5
	Honors	22	10.8
	Masters	16	7.8
Working experience	PhD	4	2
	5 years and below	130	64.4
	6-10 years	42	20.8
	11-15 years	14	6.9
	16-20 years	9	4.5
Race	21 years and above	7	3.5
	African	203	99.5
	White	1	0.5

### **4.3. Reliability analysis**

In this section, the reliability analysis results for each subscale used in the study are presented. The objective of conducting item analysis was to identify and exclude items not contributing to the internal consistency of the total subscale.

#### **4.3.1. Personality factors scale**

The personality scale had 44 items measuring five personality factors (extraversion, conscientiousness, openness, neuroticism, and agreeableness). Item analysis was conducted on these five subscales separately, then on the overall scale.

##### **4.3.1.1. Extraversion**

The extraversion subscale had eight items. It initially obtained a poor Cronbach alpha of 0.33. However, the item-total statistics table results showed that removing item C21 would improve the Cronbach alpha to 0.504. In addition, items C1, C26, C31, and RC36 were identified as problematic because their corrected item-total correlation values were below 0,3, suggesting that they did not correlate well with the other items. Therefore, a decision was made to remove these five items to improve the internal consistency of the subscale.



Table 4.2: The reliability analysis output for the extraversion subscale round one

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach Alpha based on				
	Standardized items				N of Items
.336					8
	Scale				Cronbach's
	Scale Mean	Variance if	Corrected	Squared	Alpha if
	if Item	Item	Item-Total	Multiple	Item
	Deleted	Deleted	Correlation	Correlation	Deleted
C1	26.4800	10.683	-.021	.307	.397
C21	25.8700	12.676	-.261	.284	.504
C26	25.8200	9.726	.147	.165	.301
C31	25.8850	9.479	.205	.128	.269
RC6	24.5400	8.581	.346	.322	.183
RC11	25.1700	9.036	.375	.218	.191
RC16	25.1250	9.778	.336	.183	.234
RC36	24.8100	9.361	.169	.134	.287

The second round of item analysis on the extraversion subscale was conducted on the retained three items, and the scale obtained an improved Cronbach alpha of 0.533. In addition, the included items had acceptable corrected item-total correlations of above 0.3. These results are also shown in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3: The reliability analysis output for the extraversion subscale round two

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach Alpha based on				
	Standardized items		N of Items		
.533			3		
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
RC6	7.9158	1.570	.409	.169	.326
RC11	8.5495	2.129	.327	.110	.461
RC16	8.5050	2.490	.326	.113	.475

#### 4.3.1.2. Conscientiousness

The conscientiousness subscale had nine items. As shown in Table 4.4, this subscale initially obtained a Cronbach alpha of 0.64. However, the item-total statistics table showed that items C8 and C43 were problematic because their corrected item-total correlation values were below 0.3, and removing them would improve the scale's internal consistency. Therefore, a decision was made to remove the two items from further analysis.

Table 4.4: The reliability analysis output for the conscientiousness subscale round one

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach Alpha based on				
	Standardized items	N of Items			
.640	.655	9			
	Scale	Corrected	Squared	Cronbach's	
	Mean if	Item-Total	Multiple	Alpha if Item	
	Item Deleted	Correlation	Correlation	Deleted	
	Variance if				
	Item Deleted				
C3	29.54	.454	.288	.588	
C8	30.51	.077	.069	.676	
C13	29.52	.367	.266	.607	
C18	29.61	.375	.222	.598	
C23	29.75	.445	.246	.577	
C28	29.58	.482	.379	.569	
C33	29.88	.411	.280	.587	
C38	29.82	.313	.234	.614	
C43	30.25	.065	.068	.670	

In the conscientiousness subscale's second round of item analysis, the retained seven items obtained a Cronbach alpha of 0.716. In addition, all the retained seven items had acceptable corrected item-total correlations of above 0.3. These results are also shown in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5: The reliability analysis output for the conscientiousness subscale round two

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach Alpha based on				
	Standardized items		N of Items		
.716		.723			7
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
C3	23.16	19.870	.459	.273	.679
C13	23.14	20.752	.418	.258	.690
C18	23.25	19.321	.382	.202	.695
C23	23.37	17.710	.453	.235	.678
C28	23.22	17.544	.525	.368	.657
C33	23.51	17.519	.430	.241	.687
C38	23.45	20.527	.366	.210	.698

#### 4.3.1.3. Neuroticism

Two rounds of item analysis were carried out for the neuroticism subscale. In the first round, the subscale obtained a low Cronbach alpha of 0.442. An inspection of the corrected-Item total correlation column in Table 4.6 indicated five items whose values were below 0.3 (C9, C14, C24, C34, and C39). Deleting this unsatisfactory item would increase the subscale's Cronbach's alpha; therefore, they were removed from further analysis.

Table 4.6: The reliability analysis output for the neuroticism subscale round one

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach Alpha based on				
	Standardized items		N of Items		
.442			8		
	Scale	Corrected	Squared	Cronbach's	
	Mean if	Item-Total	Multiple	Alpha if Item	
	Item Deleted	Correlation	Correlation	Deleted	
	Variance if				
	Item Deleted				
C4	19.54	.491	.338	.270	
C9	18.27	.058	.153	.467	
C14	17.76	-.136	.116	.528	
C24	17.95	-.063	.116	.503	
C29	19.49	.494	.356	.244	
C34	19.01	.189	.156	.411	
C39	18.50	.216	.111	.398	
C19	19.03	.337	.304	.344	

In the second round of item analysis, the retained three items in the neuroticism subscale obtained a good Cronbach alpha of 0.715. No items were deleted in this round because they all reflected accepted values under item-total statistics, as shown in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7: The reliability analysis output for the neuroticism subscale round two

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach Alpha based on				
	Standardized items		N of Items		
.715	.716		3		
	Scale	Corrected	Squared	Cronbach's	
Scale Mean if	Variance if	Item-Total	Multiple	Alpha if Item	
Item Deleted	Item Deleted	Correlation	Correlation	Deleted	
C4	4.23	4.050	.576	.335	.576
C19	3.74	4.533	.481	.233	.687
C29	4.19	3.617	.554	.318	.604

#### 4.3.1.4. Openness

Item analysis was carried out in two rounds for the openness subscale. In the first round, the subscale obtained an internal consistency coefficient of  $\alpha = 0.248$ . As shown in Table 4.8, from the nine items in the subscale, items C15, C20, C25, C40, C41, and C44 had item-total correlation values below 0.20. This showed that these six items were poor. A decision was made to remove them from further analysis. Deleting these items would improve the Cronbach alpha of the subscale.

Table 4.8: The reliability analysis output for the openness subscale round one

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach Alpha based on				
	Standardized items		N of Items		
.248	.252		9		
	Scale	Corrected	Squared	Cronbach's	
	Mean if	Item-Total	Multiple	Alpha if Item	
	Item Deleted	Correlation	Correlation	Deleted	
	Variance if				
	Item Deleted				
C5	28.25	7.194	.286	.287	.094
C10	28.02	7.984	.220	.203	.155
C15	28.18	9.392	-.062	.159	.302
C20	28.21	8.508	.114	.134	.213
C25	27.83	8.643	.123	.143	.211
C30	28.44	7.345	.318	.194	.087
C40	28.00	8.933	-.027	.167	.297
C41	29.51	10.108	-.202	.084	.384
C44	28.34	8.153	.121	.186	.207

The second round of item analysis for the openness subscale obtained a Cronbach alpha of 0.606. All the retained three items had item-total correlation values above 0.3. Therefore, no items were deleted in this round because they all reflected accepted values under item-total statistics, as shown in Table 4.9.

**Table 4.9: The reliability analysis output for the openness subscale round two**

Cronbach Alpha based on					
Cronbach's Alpha	Standardized items		N of Items		
.715	.716		3		
	Scale	Corrected	Squared	Cronbach's	
Scale Mean if	Variance if	Item-Total	Multiple	Alpha if Item	
Item Deleted	Item Deleted	Correlation	Correlation	Deleted	
C5	7.19	2.114	.472	.232	.418
C10	6.96	2.581	.431	.201	.488
C30	7.38	2.649	.351	.125	.595

#### 4.3.1.5. Agreeableness

The agreeableness subscale had nine items, and two rounds of item analysis were carried out for it. The subscale initially obtained a poor Cronbach alpha of 0.386. However, the results from the item total statistics shown in Table 4.10 indicated that items C7, C22, and C37 had the lowest corrected item-total correlation values in the subscale, loading below 0.2. This showed that the three items were poor. Knowing if the subscale's Cronbach alpha would be improved, a decision was made to remove these three items.



**Table 4.10: The reliability analysis output for the agreeableness subscale round one**

Cronbach Alpha based on					
Cronbach's Alpha		Standardized items			N of Items
.386		.435			9
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
C2	29.00	15.578	.266	.367	.313
C7	29.20	16.442	.116	.049	.376
C12	29.31	13.332	.334	.209	.255
C17	29.21	15.212	.359	.248	.280
C22	29.47	16.401	.179	.146	.349
C27	29.31	13.441	.399	.304	.228
C32	29.24	15.309	.286	.214	.302
C37	31.17	23.673	-.491	.359	.629
C42	29.15	16.252	.266	.179	.323

In the second round of item analysis for the agreeableness subscale, the retained six items obtained a Cronbach alpha of 0.657. The included items had item-total correlation values above 0.3 except for item C42. However, no items were deleted in this round. As shown in Table 4.10, a decision was made to retain item C42 for further analysis because removing it would decrease the scale's internal consistency.

**Table 4.11: The reliability analysis output for the agreeableness subscale round two**

Cronbach Alpha based on					
Cronbach's Alpha	Standardized items			N of Items	
.657	.659			6	
	Scale	Corrected	Squared	Cronbach's	
Scale Mean if	Variance if	Item-Total	Multiple	Alpha if Item	
Item Deleted	Item Deleted	Correlation	Correlation	Deleted	
C2	19.45	13.193	.448	.242	.594
C12	19.76	12.023	.370	.209	.630
C17	19.65	14.026	.381	.224	.618
C27	19.76	11.864	.474	.241	.580
C32	19.69	13.483	.390	.210	.614
C42	19.60	15.075	.283	.114	.647

#### 4.3.2. Leadership style scale

The multifactor leadership style scale had 21 items measuring three styles of leadership, namely transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles. Item analysis was conducted on each of the three subscales measuring these three leadership styles, and they obtained satisfactory Cronbach alphas.

##### 4.3.2.1. Transformational leadership style

Six items were measuring a transformational leadership style. Item analysis was conducted in two rounds for this subscale of leadership style. In the first round, the scale obtained a Cronbach alpha of 0.566. However, an inspection of the reliability statistics shown in Table 4.12 revealed that items B2 and B15 had corrected total-item correlation values below 0.3, and their removal would improve the scale's internal consistency. As a result, it was decided to exclude the two items from further analysis.

**Table 4.12: The reliability analysis output for the transformational leadership style subscale round one**

	Cronbach Alpha based on		N of Items		
	Cronbach's Alpha	Standardized items			
	.566	.607	6		
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
B1	20.12	6.090	.524	.442	.417
B8	19.81	6.901	.440	.298	.472
B15	20.52	7.778	.099	.146	.612
B2	21.10	7.256	.097	.156	.642
B9	20.06	7.112	.326	.301	.513
B16	19.96	6.396	.514	.334	.432

In the second round of item analysis for the transformational leadership style subscale, the retained four items obtained a Cronbach alpha of 0.733. All the retained items had item-total correlation values above 0.3. Therefore, no items were deleted in this

round. As shown in the reliability output in Table 4.13, all the items reflected acceptable values.

**Table 4.13: The reliability analysis output for the transformational leadership style subscale round two**

Cronbach Alpha based on					
Cronbach's Alpha	Standardized items			N of Items	
.733	.733			4	
	Scale	Corrected	Squared	Cronbach's	
Scale Mean if	Variance if	Item-Total	Multiple	Alpha if Item	
Item Deleted	Item Deleted	Correlation	Correlation	Deleted	
B1	13.11	3.298	.560	.316	.651
B8	12.80	3.852	.509	.262	.682
B9	13.05	3.656	.512	.265	.679
B16	12.96	3.631	.516	.272	.676

#### 4.3.2.2. Transactional leadership style

Nine items were measuring transactional leadership style. Item analysis was carried out on this leadership subscale, and it obtained a Cronbach alpha of 0.819. In addition, the reliability output shown in Table 4.14 revealed no poor items because all the nine items had corrected total-item correlation values of above 0.30. As a result, all nine items were retained for further analysis.

**Table 4.14: The reliability analysis output for the transactional leadership style subscale**

Cronbach Alpha based on					
Cronbach's Alpha		Standardized items		N of Items	
.819		.819		9	
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
B3	33.71	18.061	.618	.531	.788
B10	33.48	19.790	.544	.371	.799
B17	33.44	19.703	.620	.479	.791
B4	33.52	18.953	.646	.461	.786
B11	33.46	19.108	.572	.543	.795
B18	33.34	21.105	.410	.390	.813
B5	33.81	18.858	.523	.509	.802
B12	33.32	19.811	.446	.370	.811
B19	33.59	22.085	.303	.138	.822

#### 4.3.2.3. Laissez-faire leadership style

Six items were measuring the laissez-faire leadership style. Item analysis was carried out two times for this subscale. In the first round, the scale obtained a Cronbach alpha of 0.648. However, an inspection of the reliability statistics shown in Table 4.15 revealed that items B6 and B20 had a corrected total-item correlation value below 0.3. Their removal would improve the scale's internal consistency. As a result, it was decided to exclude the item from further analysis.

Table 4.15(a): The reliability analysis output for the laissez-faire leadership style subscale round one

Cronbach Alpha based on					
Cronbach's Alpha	Standardized items			N of Items	
.648	.620			6	
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
B7	18.64	7.681	.584	.392	.513
B13	18.90	8.506	.455	.386	.573
B14	19.53	8.975	.351	.348	.618
B21	18.20	8.306	.579	.409	.526
B6	18.07	10.746	.202	.187	.659
B20	17.78	11.817	.069	.215	.684

In the second round of item analysis for the laissez-faire leadership style subscale, the retained four items obtained a Cronbach alpha of 0.738. All the retained items had item-total correlation values above 0.3. Therefore, no items were deleted in this round. As shown in the reliability output in Table 4.15, all the items reflected acceptable values.

**Table 4.15(b): The reliability analysis output for the laissez-faire leadership style subscale round two**

Cronbach Alpha based on					
Cronbach's Alpha		Standardized items		N of Items	
.738		.741		4	
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
B7	10.04	6.024	.568	.339	.656
B13	10.30	6.476	.497	.352	.697
B14	10.92	6.489	.470	.293	.714
B21	9.60	6.456	.595	.393	.646

#### 4.3.3. Coping strategies inventory scale

Thirty-two items measured the two coping strategies known as the engagement coping strategy and disengagement coping strategy. Item analysis was conducted on each of the two subscales measuring coping strategies, and they obtained both satisfactory Cronbach alphas.

##### 4.3.3.1. Engagement coping strategy subscale

In measuring engagement coping strategy, 16 items were used. Item analysis was carried out on these items, and the subscale obtained a satisfactory Cronbach alpha of 0.853. In addition, most items in the scale had corrected total-item correlation values

above 0.3 except for item D17. However, removing this item would not significantly increase the Cronbach alpha of the subscale, as shown in Table 4.16. Therefore, a decision was made to retain all the items in the subscale for further analysis.

Table 4.16(a): The reliability analysis output for the engagement coping strategy subscale

Cronbach Alpha based on					
Cronbach's Alpha		Standardized items		N of Items	
.853		.852		16	
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
D1	57.06	83.617	.479	.593	.844
D2	56.82	80.021	.608	.692	.837
D3	57.43	78.455	.580	.700	.839
D4	57.24	81.414	.513	.662	.843
D9	56.73	83.659	.442	.545	.846
D10	56.85	83.535	.491	.453	.844
D11	57.35	81.188	.512	.681	.843
D12	57.10	78.593	.608	.760	.837
D17	57.25	91.063	.047	.476	.866
D18	56.74	84.724	.458	.462	.846
D19	57.37	76.234	.693	.649	.831
D20	56.71	80.967	.600	.646	.838
D25	56.85	87.889	.326	.354	.851
D26	56.77	85.836	.434	.414	.847
D27	57.42	82.610	.432	.482	.847
D28	56.90	85.718	.373	.318	.849



#### **4.3.3.2. Disengagement coping strategy subscale**

In measuring the disengagement coping strategy, 16 items were used. Item analysis was carried out on these items, and the subscale obtained a satisfactory Cronbach alpha of 0.929. As shown in Table 4.16, all the 16 items in this subscale had corrected total-item correlation values above 0.3. Therefore, all the items measuring disengagement coping strategy were retained for further analysis.

Table 4.16(b): The reliability analysis output for the disengagement coping strategy subscale

Cronbach Alpha based on					
Cronbach's Alpha	Standardized items			N of Items	
.929	.929			16	
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
D5	41.01	154.928	.626	.536	.926
D6	41.33	150.935	.699	.627	.924
D7	40.90	158.893	.416	.414	.931
D8	41.27	151.982	.649	.581	.925
D13	40.91	156.115	.550	.578	.927
D14	41.22	150.915	.647	.609	.925
D15	40.89	156.241	.448	.498	.930
D16	41.50	148.591	.649	.670	.925
D21	41.30	150.550	.604	.570	.926
D22	41.61	145.261	.789	.775	.921
D23	40.88	156.197	.541	.523	.928
D24	41.70	145.088	.770	.770	.921
D29	41.32	149.445	.758	.745	.922
D30	41.43	148.587	.792	.764	.921
D31	41.16	150.653	.705	.773	.923
D32	40.87	149.102	.717	.781	.923

#### 4.3.4. Summary of reliability analysis for the overall scales

In addition to the item analysis of the subscales used in this study, reliability analysis was also carried out to check the Cronbach alpha of the overall scales, only using the retained items. A summary of these results presented in Table 4.17 shows that the overall scales obtained satisfactory Cronbach alphas, exceeding the minimum recommended value of 0.7 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). From the personality subscales, a total of 22 items were retained for further analysis. The reliability results for the retained 22 item personality scale was 0.862. A total of 17 items were retained for further analysis under the multifactor leadership style scale, and these items obtained a satisfactory Cronbach alpha of 0.821. All 32 items were retained for further analysis from the coping strategy inventory scale, and the overall scale showed a Cronbach alpha of 0.85.

**Table 4.17: Cronbach alphas for the overall scales**

Scale	Number of items retained	Cronbach alpha
Personality questionnaire	22	0.862
Multifactor leadership questionnaire	17	0.821
Coping strategy inventory	32	0.85

#### 4.4. Exploratory factor analysis

The results from the exploratory factor analysis for all the instruments used in this study are presented. Principal component analysis using the varimax rotation method

was mainly used. In addition, only items with factor loadings above 0,5 were retained for further analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014).

#### 4.4.1. Exploratory factor analysis of the personality questionnaire

The factor analysis of the personality questionnaire is explained below as follows:

##### 4.4.1.1. Exploratory factor analysis of the extraversion subscale

The extraversion subscale got a satisfactory Kaiser Meyer Olkin of measure of sampling adequacy value of .599. In addition, the subscale`s Barlett`s Test of Sphericity test statistic value was 44.860 (df = 3, p= 0.000). It showed that factor analysis could be carried out. A one-factor solution was obtained; it explained approximately 52% of the variance. As shown in Table 4.18, all items had factor loadings larger than 0.5.

**Table 4.18: Factor matrix of the extraversion subscale**

	Factor
RC6	.782
RC11	.686
RC16	.691

##### 4.4.1.2. Exploratory factor analysis of the conscientiousness subscale

The conscientiousness subscale got an adequate Kaiser Meyer Olkin of measure of sampling adequacy value of .731. The Barlett's Test of Sphericity test statistic value was 189.044 (df = 15, p= 0.000), which showed that factor analysis could be carried out. Only one factor was extracted, and it explained approximately 40.9% of the variance. The factor had six items with factor loading values above 0.5. However, item C38 was removed from the analysis because of poor factor loading. The produced factor solution is shown in Table 4.19.

**Table 4.19: Factor matrix of the conscientiousness subscale**

	Factor
C3	.689
C13	.659
C28	.666
C18	.567
C23	.620
C33	.635

#### **4.4.1.3. Exploratory factor analysis of the neuroticism subscale**

The neuroticism subscale got an adequate Kaiser Meyer Olkin of measure of sampling adequacy value of .667. The Barlett's Test of Sphericity test statistic value was 117.085 (df = 3, p= 0.000), which showed that factor analysis could be carried out. One factor was extracted, and it explained approximately 63.8% of the variance. All the

remaining three items in the subscale had good factor loading values above 0.5. The factor solution is shown in Table 4.20.

**Table 4.20: Factor matrix of the neuroticism subscale**

	Factor
C4	.826
C19	.755
C29	.814

#### 4.4.1.4. Exploratory factor analysis of the openness to experience subscale

The openness subscale obtained a satisfactory Kaiser Meyer Olkin of measure of sampling adequacy value of .619. The Barlett's Test of Sphericity test statistic value was 62.269 (df = 3, p= 0.000), which showed that factor analysis could be carried out. One factor was extracted, and it explained approximately 56% of the variance. All the remaining three items in the subscale had good factor loading values above 0.5. The factor solution is shown in Table 4.21.

**Table 4.21: Factor matrix of the openness to experience subscale**

	Factor
C5	.801
C10	.764
C30	.677

#### 4.4.1.5. Exploratory factor analysis of the agreeableness subscale

The agreeableness subscale showed a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of adequacy value of 0.701 and a Barlett's Test of Sphericity test statistic value of 134.189 (df = 10,  $p = 0.000$ ). All items loaded on one factor; hence this subscale was unidimensional. This factor explained 42% variance, and all factor loadings were above 0.50 except for item C42 which was removed from further analysis due to a poor loading. The produced factor matrix is shown in Table 4.22.

**Table 4.22: Factor matrix of the agreeableness subscale**

	Factor
C2	.689
C17	.659
C27	.666
C32	.620
C12	.635

#### 4.4.2. Exploratory factor analysis of the leadership styles questionnaire

The explanation of factor analysis of the leadership style questionnaire is as follows:

##### **4.4.2.1. Exploratory factor analysis of the transformational leadership style subscale**

The transformational leadership style obtained a good Kaiser Mayer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy value of 0.760, and the Barlett's sphericity test value was 153.919 (df = 6,  $p = 0.000$ ). These values met the acceptable levels, thereby indicating that the subscale was appropriate for factor analysis. A single factor was produced comprising four items, and it explained approximately 55.6% of the variance. Further, the

items had good factor loadings ranging from 0.733 to 0.775. Therefore, all the remaining items in this subscale were retained for further analysis.

**Table 4.23: Factor matrix of the transformational leadership style subscale**

	Factor
B1	.775
B8	.733
B9	.736
B16	.737

#### 4.4.2.2. Exploratory factor analysis of the transactional leadership style subscale

Two rounds of principal component analysis were conducted for the transactional leadership style subscale. Before performing PCA, the subscale was assessed on whether it was suitable for factor analysis. The subscale obtained an acceptable Kaiser Mayer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy value of 0.809; greater than the indorsed value of 0.6 (Pallant, 2013), and Bartlett's test of sphericity test value was significant 595.677 (df = 36,  $p = 0.000$ ). These values verified that the subscale was suitable for factor analysis.

The principal component analysis revealed two factors with eigenvalues above 1, explaining 41.7 and 16.9% of the variance, respectively. However, an inspection of the scree plot revealed a clear break after the first factor. Based on Catell's (1996) scree plot test, it was decided to retain only one factor for further analysis. The one-factor solution explained 41.7% of the variance, but three items from the subscale (B12, B18, and B19) were removed from further analysis due to poor factor loading values. Therefore, another



round of PCA was carried out on the remaining six items using the varimax rotation method, and one factor was extracted, and it explained 53.9% of the variance. All the six items had factor loadings above the suggested value of 0.5 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014). The reading of the one factor was consistent with previous research on the transactional leadership style subscale (Holten & Brenner, 2015; Rodrigues & Ferreira, 2015). The items retained for further analysis and their respective factor loading values are presented in Table 4.24 below.

**Table 4.24: Factor matrix of the transactional leadership style subscale**

	Factor
B3	.795
B10	.637
B17	.679
B4	.720
B11	.805
B5	.756

#### 4.4.2.3. Exploratory factor analysis of the laissez-faire leadership style subscale

The remaining four laissez-faire leadership style subscale items were subjected to principal component analysis using the varimax rotation method. The subscale obtained a satisfactory Kaiser Mayer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy value of 0.653, and the Barlett's test of sphericity test value was significant, 185.608 (df = 6, p = 0.000). One factor was extracted, and it explained approximately 56.4% of the variance. As presented in Table 4.25, all the items had good factor loadings ranging from 0.577 to 0.736. Therefore, all the remaining items in this subscale were retained for further analysis. The

interpretation of the scale is consistent with the work of Silva and Mendis (2017), who reported that the laissez-faire leadership style subscale was unidimensional.

**Table 4.25: Factor matrix of the laissez-faire leadership style subscale**

	Factor
B1	.668
B8	.625
B9	.557
B16	.736

#### 4.4.3. Exploratory factor analysis of coping strategies inventory questionnaire

The coping strategies inventory questionnaire factor is explained below:

### 4.5. Results from Pearson correlation analysis

In this section, the results from the Pearson correlation are presented. Hypothesis one of the studies stated that there would be a significant relationship of personality, leadership style, coping strategies, and demographic factors among women in leadership. The results displayed in Table 4.26 show a significant positive relationship between personality and leadership style ( $r = 0.318, p < 0.01$ ). There was also a significant positive relationship between personality and coping strategies ( $r = 0.226, p < 0.01$ ). However, there was no relationship between personality and the demographic variables of age, work experience and marital status ( $r = 0.071, p > 0.05$ ;  $r = 0.095, p > 0.05$ ;  $r = 0.052, p > 0.05$  respectively).

A significant positive relationship was also found between leadership style and coping strategies ( $r = 0.404$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). Another significant positive relationship was also found between leadership style and work experience ( $r = 0.144$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ). Nevertheless, there was no relationship between leadership style and age ( $r = 0.101$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ). There was also no relationship between leadership style and marital status ( $r = -0.026$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ). To add, the results also show that there was a significant positive relationship between coping strategies and the demographic variable, age. In contrast, there was no relationship between coping strategies and the other two demographic variables, work experience and marital status ( $r = 0.019$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ;  $r = 0.002$ ,  $p > 0.05$  respectively).

**Table 4.26: Correlation results for all variables in the study**

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6
Personality	1					
Leadership style	.318**	1				
Coping strategies	.226**	.404**	1			
Age	.071	.101	.204**	1		
Work experience	.095	.144*	.019	.281**	1	
Marital status	.052	-.026	.002	-.078	-.186**	1

Note.  $p < 0.01$ \*\* ;  $p < 0.05$ \*

#### 4.6. Results from stepwise regression analysis

In this section, the results obtained from stepwise regression analysis are presented. Stepwise regression analysis was carried out to test the hypotheses developed based on the study's objectives.

*Hypothesis 2: Age, work experience, and personality factors would jointly and independently predict transformational leadership styles among women in leadership.*

The results show that the stepwise regression analysis included four out of the seven variables in the final model. The four variables were the personality factors of conscientiousness, extraversion, neuroticism, and openness to experience. Overall, the final model achieved a good fit ( $R^2 = .599$ ,  $F(4, 182) = 67.984$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ). This means that the model explained 59.9% of the variance in the transformational leadership style. In step one of the analysis, the personality factor, conscientiousness entered into the regression equation, and it was significant and positively related to transformational leadership style ( $R^2 = .413$ ,  $F(1, 185) = 129.991$ ,  $\beta = .177$ ,  $t = 5.429$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ).

In step two of the analysis, another personality factor, extraversion entered into the regression equation and it also a significant negative predictor of transformational leadership style ( $R^2 = .550$ , R square change -  $\Delta R^2 = .137$ ,  $F(2, 184) = 112.419$ ,  $\beta = -.517$ ,  $t = -7.689$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). In the third step of the analysis, the third personality factor, neuroticism entered into the analysis and it was also a negative significant predictor of transformational leadership style ( $R^2 = .583$ , R square change -  $\Delta R^2 = .033$ ,  $F(3, 183) = 85.155$ ,  $\beta = -.186$ ,  $t = -3.701$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ).

In the fourth and final step of the analysis, the personality factor, openness to experience entered into the analysis and it was significantly correlated to transformational leadership style ( $R^2 = .599$ , R square change -  $\Delta R^2 = .016$ ,  $F(4,182) = 67.984$ ,  $\beta = -.152$ ,  $t = -2.731$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). Overall, holding the other variables in the model constant, the beta values in Table 4.27 show that extraversion was the most important predictor of transformational leadership style. The other personality factors, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness to experience, are also important in predicting transformational leadership.

Notably, the fifth personality factor, agreeableness was not a significant predictor of transformational leadership ( $\beta = .107$ ,  $t = 1.496$ ,  $p > .05$ ). Equally notable, there were no demographic variables in the final regression model predicting transformational leadership. Age was not a significant predictor of transformational leadership style ( $\beta = -.064$ ,  $t = -1.345$ ,  $p > .05$ ) and work experience was also not a significant predictor of transformational leadership style ( $\beta = .025$ ,  $t = .531$ ,  $p > .05$ ).

Table 4.27: Summary of stepwise regression model predicting the transformational leadership style

Step #	Variable	R square	R square change	Final Beta
1	Conscientiousness	.413**	.413**	.177**
2	Extraversion	.550**	.137**	-.517**
3	Neuroticism	.583**	.033**	-.186**
4	Openness to experience	.599**	.016**	-.152**

**Excluded variables**

Variable	Beta	t	Sig
Agreeableness	.107	1.496	P > 0.05
Age	-.064	-1.345	P > 0.05
Work experience	.025	.531	P > 0.05

Note. Final model:  $R^2 = .599$ ; Adjusted  $R^2 = .59$ ;  $F = 67.984$ ,  $df = 4.182$ ;  $P < 0.01^{**}$

Hypothesis 3: *Demographic and personality factors would jointly and independently contribute significantly to the transactional leadership style among women in leadership.*

The stepwise regression analysis inserted three out of seven variables into the final model. The three variables were the personality factors of conscientiousness, extraversion, and neuroticism. Overall, the final model achieved a good fit ( $R^2 = .371$ ,  $F(3, 177) = 34.796$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ). This means that the model explained 37.1% of the variance

in the transactional leadership style. In step one of the analysis, the personality factor, conscientiousness entered the regression equation, and it was significant and positively related to transactional leadership style ( $R^2 = .267$ ,  $F(1,179) = 65.311$ ,  $\beta = .240$ ,  $t = 3.577$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). In step two of the analysis, extraversion, a personality factor, entered the regression equation and it was also a significant negative predictor of transactional leadership style ( $R^2 = .354$ ,  $R$  square change -  $\Delta R^2 = .087$ ,  $F(2, 178) = 48.868$ ,  $\beta = -.611$ ,  $t = -4.596$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). In the third step of the analysis, the third personality factor, neuroticism entered into the analysis and it was also a significant negative predictor of transactional leadership style ( $R^2 = .371$ ,  $R$  square change -  $\Delta R^2 = .017$ ,  $F(3,177) = 34.796$ ,  $\beta = -.226$ ,  $t = -2.156$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ). Overall, holding the other variables in the model constant, the beta values in Table 4.28 show that extraversion was the most important predictor of transactional leadership style. The other personality factors, conscientiousness, neuroticism is also important in predicting transactional leadership style.

It should be noted that two personality factors, openness to experience and agreeableness were not included in the final model. Openness to experience was not a significant predictor of transactional leadership style ( $\beta = .023$ ,  $t = .360$ ,  $p > .05$ ) and agreeableness was also not a significant predictor of transactional leadership style ( $\beta = .085$ ,  $t = .944$ ,  $p > .05$ ). Equally notable is the fact that none of the demographic variables were included into the final model. Neither age nor work experience was significant in predicting transactional leadership style ( $\beta = -.003$ ,  $t = -.044$ ,  $p > .05$ ;  $\beta = .061$ ,  $t = 1.009$ ,  $p > .05$  respectively).

**Table 4.28: Summary of stepwise regression model predicting the transactional leadership style**

Step #	Variable	R square	R square change	Final Beta
1	Conscientiousness	.267**	.267**	.240**
2	Extraversion	.354**	.087**	-.611**
3	Neuroticism	.371*	.017*	-.186*

**Excluded variables**

Variable	Beta	t	Sig
Openness to experience	.023	.360	P > 0.05
Agreeableness	.085	.944	P > 0.05
Age	-.003	-.044	P > 0.05
Work experience	.061	1.009	P > 0.05

Note. Final model:  $R^2 = .371$ ; Adjusted  $R^2 = .360$ ;  $F = 34.796$ ,  $df = 3.177$ .  $P < 0.01^{**}$ ;  $P < 0.05^*$

Hypothesis 4: *Openness to experience, agreeableness, extraversion, and demographic factors would jointly and independently predict positively towards Laissez-faire leadership style among women in leadership.*

The results show that the stepwise regression analysis included two out of the five variables in the final regression model. The two variables were the personality factor, extraversion, and the demographic variable, age. Overall, the final regression model



attained a good fit ( $R^2 = .099$ ,  $F(2, 187) = 10.261$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). This means that the model explained 9.9% of the variance in the laissez-faire leadership style. In step one of the analysis, the demographic variable, age, entered the regression equation and it was a significant positive predictor of laissez-faire leadership style ( $R^2 = .052$ ,  $F(1, 188) = 10.349$ ,  $\beta = .085$ ,  $t = 3.132$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). In step two of the analysis, the personality factor, extraversion entered the regression equation, and it was also a significant positive predictor of laissez-faire leadership style ( $R^2 = .099$ , R square change -  $\Delta R^2 = .047$ ,  $F(2, 187) = 10.261$ ,  $\beta = .360$ ,  $t = 3.113$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). Overall, holding the other variables in the model constant, the beta values in Table 4.29 show that extraversion was the most important predictor of laissez-faire leadership style between the two variables entered the final model.

The personality factors, openness to experience and agreeableness were not included in the final regression model. Openness to experience was not a significant predictor of laissez-faire leadership style ( $\beta = -.114$ ,  $t = -1.559$ ,  $p > .05$ ) and agreeableness was also not a significant predictor of laissez-faire leadership style ( $\beta = .146$ ,  $t = 1.924$ ,  $p > .05$ ). In addition, the demographic variable, work experience, was also not significant in predicting laissez-faire leadership style ( $\beta = .016$ ,  $t = .224$ ,  $p > .05$ ).

**Table 4.29: Summary of stepwise regression model predicting laissez-faire leadership style**

Step #	Variable	R square	R square change	Final Beta
1	Age	.052**	.052**	.085**
2	Extraversion	.099**	.047**	.360**
<b>Excluded variables</b>				
	Variable	Beta	T	Sig
	Openness to experience	-.114	-1.559	P > 0.05
	Agreeableness	.146	1.924.	P > 0.05
	Work experience	.016	.224	P > 0.05

Note. Final model:  $R^2 = .099$ ; Adjusted  $R^2 = .089$ ;  $F = 10.261$ ,  $df = 2.187$ .  $P < 0.01^{**}$ .

Hypothesis 5: *There would be a significant relationship between personality factors and engagement coping strategy among women in leadership*

The stepwise regression analysis inserted only two out of five personality factors into the final regression model. The two personality factors were conscientiousness and agreeableness. Overall, the final model achieved a good fit ( $R^2 = .337$ ,  $F(1, 179) = 76.566$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). This means that the model explained 33.7% of the variance in engagement coping strategy. In step one of the analysis, conscientiousness entered the regression equation, and it was a significant positive predictor of engagement coping strategy ( $R^2 = .298$ ,  $F(1.180) = 65.311$ ,  $\beta = .692$ ,  $t = 4.129$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). In step two of the

analysis, agreeableness entered the regression equation, and it was also a significant positive predictor of engagement coping strategy ( $R^2 = .337$ , R square change -  $\Delta R^2 = .038$ ,  $F(2, 179) = 45.466$ ,  $\beta = .626$ ,  $t = 3.221$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). Overall, holding the other variables in the model constant, the beta values in Table 4.30 show that conscientiousness was the most important predictor of engagement coping strategy between the two personality factors.

However, it should be noted that three personality factors, extraversion, openness to experience and neuroticism were not included in the final model. Extraversion was not a significant predictor of engagement coping strategy ( $\beta = .032$ ,  $t = .455$ ,  $p > .05$ ) and openness to experience was also not a significant predictor of engagement coping strategy ( $\beta = -.021$ ,  $t = -.340$ ,  $p > .05$ ). Neuroticism was also not a significant predictor of engagement coping strategy ( $\beta = .067$ ,  $t = .829$ ,  $p > .05$ ).

**Table 4.30: Summary of stepwise regression model predicting engagement coping strategy**

Step #	Variable	R square	R square change	Final Beta
1	Conscientiousness	.298**	.298**	.692**
2	Agreeableness	.337**	.038**	.626**

**Excluded variables**

Variables	Beta	T	Sig
Openness to experience	-.021	-.340	P > 0.05
Extraversion	.032	.455	P > 0.05
Neuroticism	.067	.829	P > 0.05

Note. Final model:  $R^2 = .337$ ; Adjusted  $R^2 = .329$ ;  $F = 145.466$ ,  $df = 2.179$ .  $P < 0.01^{**}$ .

Hypothesis 6: *Extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness would jointly and independently predict significance towards disengagement as a coping strategy among women in leadership*

The results show that the stepwise regression analysis entered three out of the seven variables into the final regression model predicting disengagement coping strategy. The three variables were agreeableness, openness to experience, and extraversion. In general, the final model attained a good fit ( $R^2 = .349$ ,  $F(3, 179) = 31.944$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). This means that the model explained 34.9% of the variance in disengagement coping strategy. In step one of the analysis, agreeableness entered into the regression equation, and it

was a significant negative predictor of disengagement coping strategy ( $R^2 = .150$ ,  $F(1, 181) = 32.017$ ,  $\beta = -.912$ ,  $t = -4.578$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). In step two of the analysis, openness to experience entered into the regression equation and it was also a significant positive predictor of disengagement coping strategy ( $R^2 = .287$ , R square change -  $\Delta R^2 = .136$ ,  $F(2, 180) = 36.178$ ,  $\beta = 2.559$ ,  $t = 7.137$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). In the third step of the analysis, extraversion entered into the analysis, and it was also a significant positive predictor of disengagement coping strategy ( $R^2 = .349$ , R square change -  $\Delta R^2 = .062$ ,  $F(3, 179) = 31.944$ ,  $\beta = 1.706$ ,  $t = 4.127$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). Overall, holding the other variables in the model constant, the final beta values shown in Table 4.31 show that openness to experience was the most important predictor of disengagement coping strategy, followed by the three personality factors that entered the final regression model extraversion and agreeableness in that order. Notably, two personality factors, conscientiousness and neuroticism were not significant in predicting disengagement coping strategy ( $\beta = -.077$ ,  $t = -.856$ ,  $p > .05$ ;  $\beta = .061$ ,  $t = .779$ ,  $p > .05$  respectively).

**Table 4.31: Summary of stepwise regression model predicting disengagement coping strategy**

Step #	Variable	R square	R square change	Final Beta
1	Agreeableness	.150**	.150**	-.912**
2	Openness to experience	.287**	.136**	2.559**
3	Extraversion	.349*	.062*	1.706**

**Excluded variables**

Variable	Beta	T	Sig
Conscientiousness	-.077	.856	P > 0.05
Neurotism	.061	.779.	P > 0.05

#### 4.7. Conclusion

The results obtained from the data analysis were presented. This comprises results from descriptive statistics, correlation analysis, and multiple regression analysis. The results were shown in the alignment of the research objectives presented in chapter one. The statistical program that was used for conducting the data analysis was the IBM-SPSS version 26.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

#### 5.1. Introduction

The Chapter discusses the study results and outlines and its limitations. After that, recommendations for future research. The study's primary objective involves influencing personality factors as the determinants of women's leadership style and coping strategies to discharge their leadership duties. Four questionnaires have been used, including a biographical questionnaire, personality questionnaire, multifactor leadership questionnaire, and coping strategies questionnaire. A total of 204 working women in leadership completed the questionnaires. Based on the above objective, this chapter gives a concluding interpretation of the study findings.

#### 5.2. Discussion

The demographic information, reliability, correlation, and regression results are discussed below.

##### 5.2.1. Inter Correlation results

The correlation analysis results were used to explain hypothesis 1 of the study. There would be a significant relationship of personality, leadership style, coping strategies, and demographic factors among women in leadership. There is a significant positive relationship between personality and leadership style. There was also a

significant positive relationship between personality and coping strategies. However, there was no relationship between personality and the demographic variables of age, work experience, and marital status.

The results also show a significant positive relationship between coping strategies and the demographic variable age. A significant positive relationship was also found between leadership style and coping strategies. Another significant positive relationship was also found between leadership style and work experience. Nevertheless, there was also no relationship between leadership style and age. There was also no relationship between leadership style and marital status. In contrast, there was no relationship between coping strategies and the other two demographic variables, work experience and marital status.

#### 5.2.2. Discussion of Stepwise multiple regression results

The stepwise multiple regression analysis was carried out to test the hypothesis that age, work experience, and personality factors would jointly and independently predict transformational leadership styles among women in leadership.

The results show that the stepwise regression analysis included four out of the seven variables in the final model. The four variables were the personality factors of conscientiousness, extraversion, neuroticism, and openness to experience. Overall, the final model achieved a good fit. This means that the model explained 59.9% of the variance in the transformational leadership style. The personality factor and conscientiousness were significant and positively related to transformational leadership



style. It is because conscientious individuals have integrity and engender trust (Hogan et al., 1994). Conscientious leaders are good at setting goals, and they are always initiative. Extraversion is also a significant negative predictor of transformational leadership style. Extraversion is related because they are talkative. Talking is related to emergent leadership (Noordin et al., 2010; Kiilu & Wamua, 2017). Neuroticism was also a significant negative predictor of transformational leadership style. Neuroticism is negatively related to transformational leadership because neurotics are not attempting leadership because they are not inspirational. Openness to experience is significantly correlated to transformational leadership style. Judge and Bono (2000) found that openness to experience was associated with transformational leadership because they are creative and high in intellectual stimulation. When the leader is innovative, he can transform people.

Another research by De Vries (2012) showed that the strongest correlate of charismatic leadership was extraversion. Extraversion was the most critical predictor of transformational leadership style than personality factors of conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness to experience. It is in line with De Vries's (2012) study that found extraversion positively related to charismatic leadership. Yahaya, Taib, Ismail, Sharrif, Yahaya, Boon, & Hashim (2011) found a significant relationship between a leader's personality and leadership style. Yahaya et al. (2011) also found agreeableness, conscientiousness, and openness to experience were significantly related to transformational leadership style. It is because transformational leaders are vision,

mission, and goals builders. They drive the followers to achieve the goals of the organization.

In the study by Malik and Shahid (2016), findings revealed that personality traits are the most robust predictor 37% of the variance of the leadership effectiveness followed by the leadership style, job satisfaction, position powers, conflict management skills, and school climate with significant predictive power. In this study, Malik and Shahid (2016) found that school principals working in a supportive work climate environment, enjoying job satisfaction and position powers, showing a good leadership style, and being enriched with management skills and personal traits are more effective. While the findings of this study show that personality traits predict the leadership style rather than the leadership effectiveness, will be able to cope in any situations in the organization coupled with the experience gathered throughout the career path of those women in leadership. While Babalola (2016) found that different leadership styles influence work outcomes, the study found that laissez-fair leadership style predicts organizational commitment while transformational leadership predicts job performance. This study concentrated on women in leadership only, and how the personality traits will influence their leadership style and how they cope in the leadership positions and did not test the organizational commitment and job performance

The hypothesis that the demographic and personality factors would jointly and independently contribute significantly to the transactional leadership style among women in leadership showed that the fifth personality factor, agreeableness, was not a significant predictor of transformational leadership. It can be because agreeableness is passive and

compliant (Graziano & Eisenberg, 1997), and they are likable and empathetic (Hogan, 2000). Equally notable, there were no demographic variables including age and work experience in the final regression model predicting transformational leadership.

The final model achieved a good fit for the three personality factors of conscientiousness, extraversion, and neuroticism. This means that the model explained 37.1% of the variance in the transactional leadership style. Conscientiousness was significant and positively related to the transactional leadership style. Extraversion was also a significant negative predictor of transactional leadership style. Neuroticism entered into the analysis, and it was also a significant negative predictor of transactional leadership style. Overall, holding the other variables in the model constant, the beta values show that extraversion was the most critical predictor of transactional leadership style. The other personality factors, conscientiousness, neuroticism is also crucial in predicting transactional leadership style. Openness to experience was not a significant predictor of transactional leadership style, and agreeableness was not a significant predictor of transactional leadership style. Equally notable is the fact that none of the demographic variables were included in the final model. Neither age nor work experience was significant in predicting transactional leadership style.

The results of hypothesis four on openness to experience, agreeableness, extraversion, and demographic factors would jointly and independently predict positively towards Laissez-faire leadership style among women in leadership. The stepwise regression analysis included two out of the five variables into the final regression model. The two variables were the personality factor, extraversion, and the demographic

variable, age. Overall, the final regression model attained a good fit. This means that the model explained 9.9% of the variance in the laissez-faire leadership style. The demographic variable, age, was a significant positive predictor of laissez-faire leadership style. Extraversion was also a significant positive predictor of laissez-faire leadership style. Overall, holding the other variables in the model constant, the beta values show that extraversion was the most critical predictor of laissez-faire leadership style between the two variables entered into the final model. Openness to experience was not a significant predictor of laissez-faire leadership style, and agreeableness was not a significant predictor of laissez-faire leadership style. In addition, the demographic variable, work experience, was also not significant in predicting laissez-faire leadership style.

The stepwise regression analysis inserted only two out of five personality factors into the final regression model on the hypothesis on the relationship between personality factors and engagement coping strategy among women in leadership. The two personality factors were conscientiousness and agreeableness. Conscientiousness was a significant positive predictor of engagement coping strategy, with the overall final model achieved a good fit with 33.7% variance in engagement coping strategy. Thus, indicating that conscientiousness most crucial predictor of engagement coping strategy between the two personality factors. Similarly, agreeableness was also a significant positive predictor of engagement coping strategy. Extraversion was not a significant predictor of engagement coping strategy, and openness to experience was also not a significant

predictor of engagement coping strategy. Neuroticism was also not a significant predictor of engagement coping strategy.

The hypothesis that stated extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness would jointly and independently predict significance towards disengagement as a coping strategy among women in leadership showed that the stepwise regression analysis entered three out of the seven variables into the final regression model predicting disengagement coping strategy. The three variables were agreeableness, openness to experience, and extraversion. In general, the final model attained an excellent fit. This means that the model explained 34.9% of the variance in disengagement coping strategy. Agreeableness was a significant negative predictor of disengagement coping strategy. Openness to experience was also a significant positive predictor of disengagement coping strategy. Extraversion entered into the analysis, and it was also a significant positive predictor of disengagement coping strategy. Overall, holding the other variables in the model constant, the final beta values show that amongst the three personality factors that entered the final regression model, openness to experience was the most critical predictor of disengagement coping strategy, followed by extraversion and agreeableness in that order. Notably, two personality factors, conscientiousness, and neuroticism were not significant in predicting disengagement coping strategy.

### **5.3. Conclusions**

This study involves the influence of personality factors as the determinants of women's leadership style and their coping strategies in discharging their leadership duties in the public sector, a case of Vhembe District in Limpopo Province. The study findings showed that indeed there is a significant positive relationship between personality and leadership style and coping strategies. Furthermore, there was no relationship between personality and the demographic variables of age, work experience, and marital status. It means that a women's personality does not affect a person's age, work experience, and marital status. Women in leadership in various public organizations in the Vhembe District their personalities are not affected by their age or work experience, and marital status. In comparison, there is a positive relationship between leadership style and coping strategies, work experience, and age. The reason being that the older you are, the more experience you will have and by the have coping strategy which will relate to your leadership style.

The stepwise multiple regression analysis results indicated that extraversion was the most critical predictor of transformational leadership style. The other personality factors, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness to experience, are crucial in predicting transformational leadership. This means that women in leadership at Vhembe District are outgoing and social leaders. They enjoy being with other people and participating fully in social gatherings. They are very much full of energy. That is why they are transformational leaders. The stepwise regression analysis results also indicated that extraversion was the most critical predictor of transactional leadership style. The other personality factors, conscientiousness, neuroticism is also vital in predicting transactional

leadership style. Extraversion was the most important and only predictor of the laissez-faire leadership style. Conscientiousness was the most important and only predictor of engagement coping strategy. This means that women are always alerted by their conscientiousness as their coping strategy and that conscientiousness factors are competent, need order, and self-discipline. Conscientiousness is always their concern and mainly focuses on what they do as leaders. Openness to experience was the most critical predictor of disengagement coping strategy. The traits of women in leadership in the public sector in Vhembe District are open to feelings, open to diverse behavior's, and open to different ideas, followed by extraversion and agreeableness in that order.

#### **5.4. Limitations of the study**

Although the study achieved its aims and objectives, there were some unavoidable limitations. The first limitation is that individuals could falsely report their leadership roles and behavior. The self-report nature of survey data can be a concern. The second limitation is that the study was conducted among four geographically dispersed local municipalities under Vhembe District Municipality, so the researcher faced challenges when moving from one Municipality to another during data collection. The process of moving around was exhausting. Third, the researcher also noted that some participants were unwilling to participate in the study because of their busy schedules. Some respondents even hinted that it would have been motivational if the researcher provided small items such as pens and pencils to motivate people to spare their precious time participating in the study. This was a limitation because those employees who refused to

participate in the study could have potentially provided some vital information, making an equally potential difference.

## **5.5. Recommendations**

It is suggested that the management of public sector organizations understudy should develop social programs that will support all women in leadership to be able to cope with their duties. Those organizations with younger women can establish creches inside their organizations to make it easy for women with young kids to drop them in the morning and pick them up after work. It will be easier for the women not to rush in the morning and afternoon to drop and pick up the kids.

The management may also establish policies supporting women in leadership like maternity leave; family responsibility leave will give them more moral support. It must include training and development policies that can also support women in leadership. More training on leadership styles and emotional intelligence training will aid the women in leadership and equip them with coping strategies to manage their respective organizations.

The study recommends that a similar study be carried out using interviews to obtain enough subjective feedback from the participants (Meriam, 2009). The study also suggests that further studies be done, including private companies and urban areas in the whole of Limpopo Province, to determine the influence of demographic and



personality factors in predicting leadership style and coping strategies of women in leadership positions. In addition, a longitudinal study could be employed to determine the influence of demographic and personality factors in predicting the leadership style and coping strategies of women in leadership positions.

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## UNIVERSITY OF VENDA

### OFFICE OF THE DEPUTY VICE-CHANCELLOR: ACADEMIC

TO : MR/MS K.E KHASHANE  
SCHOOL OF MANAGEMENT SCIENCES

FROM: PROF J.E. CRAFFORD  
DEPUTY VICE-CHANCELLOR: ACADEMIC

DATE : 03 FEBRUARY 2017

#### DECISIONS TAKEN BY UHDC OF 24<sup>TH</sup> JANUARY 2017

Application for approval of Thesis research proposal in Management Sciences:  
K.E Khashane (8704156)

Topic: "Demographic and Personality Factors Predicting Leadership Style and Coping Strategies of Working Women in Public Sector: A case of Vhembe District in Limpopo Province."

Promoter            UNIVEN  
Co-promoter        UNIVEN

Prof. S.S Babalola  
Dr. T.S Setati

**UHDC approved Thesis proposal**



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**Prof J.E. CRAFFORD**

**DEPUTY VICE-CHANCELLOR: ACADEMIC**

RESEARCH AND INNOVATION  
OFFICE OF THE DIRECTOR

NAME OF RESEARCHER/INVESTIGATOR:  
**Ms K Khashane**

Student No:  
**8704156**

PROJECT TITLE: Demographic and personality factors predicting leadership style and coping strategies of working women in public sector: A case of Vhembe District in Limpopo Province.

PROJECT NO: SMS/17/HRM/01/1005

SUPERVISORS/ CO-RESEARCHERS/ CO-INVESTIGATORS

NAME	INSTITUTION & DEPARTMENT	ROLE
Prof SS Babalola	University of Venda	Promoter
Dr TS Setati	University of Venda	Co- Promoter
Ms K Khashane	University of Venda	Investigator – Student

ISSUED BY:  
UNIVERSITY OF VENDA, RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE

Date Considered: May 2017

Decision by Ethical Clearance Committee Granted

Signature of Chairperson of the Committee: .....

Name of the Chairperson of the Committee: Prof. G.E. Ekosse




University of Venda

PRIVATE BAG X5050, THOHOYANDOU, 0950, LIMPOPO PROVINCE, SOUTH AFRICA  
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"A quality driven financially sustainable, rural-based Comprehensive University"



## ANNEXURE B

### LETTER TO RESPONDENT

Enquiries: Khashane K.E

P.O.Box 51

Cell: 0823981802

Sibasa

Email: **Khathutshelo.khashane@univen.ac.za**

0970

August 2016

Dear Sir/madam

I am a Ph.D. student (Human Resources Management) at the University of Venda. I want to conduct a research study on “Determinants of Leadership style and coping strategies of working women: A case of Vhembe District in Limpopo Province.” I will greatly appreciate your assistance in participating in this research study. You do not have to reveal your name when completing the questionnaire, and all your responses will be confidential. Your contribution to this study is significant, and its success depends on the number of participants who complete the questionnaire. It will take you 10-15 minutes to complete the questionnaire.

I look forward to your participation and thank you in advance

Yours sincerely

\_\_\_\_\_

Ms. Khashane K.E

Signed at \_\_\_\_\_ on this \_\_\_\_\_ day of \_\_\_\_\_ 20\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

Signature of respondent

## ANNEXURE C

### CONSENT FORM

I hereby agree to participate in the research study titled “Determinants of Leadership style and coping strategies of working women: A case of Vhembe District in Limpopo Province.” By signing this form, I indicate that I understand the information provided to me by the researcher regarding the study. Your questions on the research have been answered to your satisfaction, and you voluntarily agree to participate in this study. A copy of this signed form can be provided upon request.

- This study investigates the determinants of leadership style and the coping mechanisms or strategies of working women in leadership positions.
- The information that the respondents will provide will be solely used for the study.
- Participation is voluntary, and that I can withdraw anytime without any penalty if I feel like doing so.
- All interview data will be handled with confidentiality.
- Participants can refuse to answer specific questions if they feel uncomfortable during the process of collecting data.

I understand that information I give may not be used for any other purpose except to help the researcher meet academic expectations.

.....

**Signature**

.....

**Date**

## ANNEXURE D

### SECTION A: Demographic and Occupational information

Please provide the information about yourself

1. How old are you? (years)-----
2. Are you married, divorced, widow, Single) -----
3. If Single: are you Ms. ----- Miss-----
4. Period of employment in your present job-----
5. Department/Organization -----
6. Are you heading any unit or group? -----
7. For how long? -----
8. Number of people under your leadership -----
9. Home language -----
10. Highest Academic Qualification-----
11. Race (for statistical purposes only) -----

### SECTION B: Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) Form 6S

**Instructions:** This questionnaire describes your leadership style. The one descriptive statement is listed below; judge how frequently each statement fits you. Would you please provide your response to each statement by placing an X in one of the five boxes? **Not at all (1), Once in a while (2), Sometimes (3), Fairly often (4), Frequently if not always (5).**

		1	2	3	4	5
1	I make others feel good to be around me	1	2	3	4	5
2	I express with a few simple words what we could and should do	1	2	3	4	5
3	I enable others to think about old problems in new ways	1	2	3	4	5

4	I help others develop themselves	1	2	3	4	5
5	I tell others what to do if they want to be rewarded for their work	1	2	3	4	5
6	I am satisfied when others meet agreed-upon standards	1	2	3	4	5
7	I am content to let others continue working in the same ways always	1	2	3	4	5
8	Others have complete faith in me	1	2	3	4	5
9	I provide appealing images about what we can do	1	2	3	4	5
10	I provide others with new ways of looking at puzzling things	1	2	3	4	5
11	I let others know how I think they are doing	1	2	3	4	5
12	I provide recognition/rewards when others reach their goals	1	2	3	4	5
13	As long as things are working, I do not try to change anything	1	2	3	4	5
14	Whatever others want to do is Ok with me	1	2	3	4	5
15	Others are proud to be associated with me	1	2	3	4	5
16	I help others find meaning in their work	1	2	3	4	5
17	I get others to rethink ideas that they had never questioned before	1	2	3	4	5
18	I give personal attention to others who seem rejected	1	2	3	4	5
19	I call attention to what others can get for what they accomplish	1	2	3	4	5
20	I tell others the standards they have to know to carry out their work	1	2	3	4	5
21	I ask no more of others than what is essential	1	2	3	4	5

### SECTION C: The Big Five Inventory (BFI)

Here are several characteristics that may or may not apply to you. For example, do you agree that you are someone who likes to spend time with others? Please write a number next to each statement to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with that statement. **Disagree strongly (1), Disagree a little (2), Neither agree nor disagree (3), Agree a little 4), Agree Strongly (5).**



I see myself as someone who...

- \_\_\_ 1. Is talkative
- \_\_\_ 2. Tends to find fault with others
- \_\_\_ 3. Does a thorough job
- \_\_\_ 4. Is depressed, blue
- \_\_\_ 5. Is original, comes up with new ideas
- \_\_\_ 6. Is reserved
- \_\_\_ 7. Is helpful and unselfish with others
- \_\_\_ 8. Can be somewhat careless
- \_\_\_ 9. Is relaxed, handles stress well
- \_\_\_ 10. Is curious about many different things
- \_\_\_ 11. Is full of energy
- \_\_\_ 12. Starts quarrels with others
- \_\_\_ 13. Is a reliable worker
- \_\_\_ 14. Can be tense
- \_\_\_ 15. Is ingenious, a deep thinker
- \_\_\_ 16. Generates a lot of enthusiasm
- \_\_\_ 17. Has a forgiving nature
- \_\_\_ 18. Tends to be disorganized
- \_\_\_ 19. Worries a lot
- \_\_\_ 20. Has an active imagination
- \_\_\_ 21. Tends to be quiet
- \_\_\_ 22. Is generally trusting

- \_\_\_ 23. Tends to be lazy
- \_\_\_ 24. Is emotionally stable, not easily upset
- \_\_\_ 25. Is inventive
- \_\_\_ 26. Has an assertive personality
- \_\_\_ 27. Can be cold and aloof
- \_\_\_ 28. Perseveres until the task is finished
- \_\_\_ 29. Can be moody
- \_\_\_ 30. Values artistic, aesthetic experiences
- \_\_\_ 31. Is sometimes shy, inhibited
- \_\_\_ 32. Is considerate and kind to almost everyone
- \_\_\_ 33. Does things efficiently
- \_\_\_ 34. Remains calm in tense situations
- \_\_\_ 35. Prefers work that is routine
- \_\_\_ 36. Is outgoing, sociable
- \_\_\_ 37. Is sometimes rude to others
- \_\_\_ 38. Makes plans and follows through with them
- \_\_\_ 39. Gets nervous easily
- \_\_\_ 40. Likes to reflect, play with ideas
- \_\_\_ 41. Has few artistic interests
- \_\_\_ 42. Likes to cooperate with others
- \_\_\_ 43. Is easily distracted
- \_\_\_ 44. Is sophisticated in art, music, or literature

## SECTION D: Coping Strategy Inventory- (CSI)

Please read each item below and determine the extent to which you used it in handling your chosen event. Please provide your response to each statement by placing an X in one of the five boxes. **Not at all (1), A little (2), Somewhat (3), Much (4), Very much (5).**

1	I worked on solving the problems in the situation	1	2	3	4	5
2	I tried to look at the bright side of things	1	2	3	4	5
3	I let out my feelings to reduce the stress	1	2	3	4	5
4	I found somebody who was a good listener	1	2	3	4	5
5	I went along as if nothing were happening	1	2	3	4	5
6	I hoped a miracle would happen	1	2	3	4	5
7	I realized that I was personally responsible for my difficulties and really lectured myself	1	2	3	4	5
8	I spent more time alone	1	2	3	4	5
9	I made a plan of action and followed it	1	2	3	4	5
10	I looked at things in a different light and tried to make the best of what was available	1	2	3	4	5
11	I let my feelings out somehow	1	2	3	4	5
12	I talked to someone about how I was feeling	1	2	3	4	5
13	I tried to forget the whole thing	1	2	3	4	5
14	I wished that the situation would go away or somehow be over with	1	2	3	4	5
15	I blamed myself	1	2	3	4	5
16	I avoided my family and friends	1	2	3	4	5
17	I tackled the problem head on	1	2	3	4	5
18	I asked myself what was essential and discovered that things weren't so bad after all	1	2	3	4	5
19	I let my emotions out	1	2	3	4	5
20	I talked to someone that I was very close to	1	2	3	4	5
21	I didn't let it get to me; I refused to think about it too much	1	2	3	4	5

22	I wished that the situation had never started	1	2	3	4	5
23	I criticized myself for what happened	1	2	3	4	5
24	I avoided being with people	1	2	3	4	5
25	I knew what had to be done, so I doubled my efforts and tried harder to make things work	1	2	3	4	5
26	I convinced myself that things aren't quite as bad as they seem	1	2	3	4	5
27	I got in touch with my feelings and just let them go	1	2	3	4	5
28	I asked a friend or relative I respect for advice	1	2	3	4	5
29	I avoided thinking or doing anything about the situation	1	2	3	4	5
30	I hoped that if I waited long enough, things would turn out OK	1	2	3	4	5
31	Since what happened was my fault, I chewed myself out	1	2	3	4	5
32	I spent some time by myself	1	2	3	4	5

## CRO ODILE LANGUAGE EDITING AND PROOF READING

**MISTAKES AFFECT THE QUALITY OF YOUR WORK. WE CORRECT THEM TO ENHANCE IT, ACADEMICALLY SO.**

MISTAKES AFFECT THE QUALITY OF YOUR WORK. WE CORRECT THEM TO ENHANCE IT, ACADEMICALLY SO.

16 July 2021

**To whom it may concern,**

This is to confirm that I did proofread and edit **KHATHUTSHELO EDITH KHASHANE's** Ph.D.'s Thesis, whose title reads ***Demographic and Personality Factors Predicting Leadership Style and Coping Strategies of Working Women in Public Sector: A Case of Vhembe District in Limpopo Province***

Her study read well. Errors included but were not limited to concordance, repetitions, passive and very long and complicated sentences, and discourse markers. After attending to these errors, Ms. Khashane's proposal now reads perfectly well. **It, however, remains her sole responsibility to effect the changes outlined therein.**

Should you require any clarification, my contact details follow below:

Cell: 0784803023 or 0607589535

Email: [ngwenyachris@webmail.com](mailto:ngwenyachris@webmail.com)

Sincerely,

Ngwenya Christopher (Ph.D.).