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**THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CONSCIENTIOUSNESS, EXTRAVERSION AND
LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS AMONG LOCAL GOVERNMENT
MANAGERS IN BISHO AND EAST LONDON**

By

Clement Bell

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Of the

University of Fort Hare

PROMOTER: MR C. MURUGAN

25 November 2012

Declaration

I, **Clement Bell**, student number 200705932, do hereby declare that the work titled **“THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CONSCIENTIOUSNESS, EXTRAVERSION AND LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS AMONG LOCAL GOVERNMENT MANAGERS IN BISHO AND EAST LONDON”** is my own work and that, to the best of my knowledge, it contains no material previously published or written by another person nor material which to a substantial extent has been accepted for the award of any degree or diploma of the University or any other institution of higher learning except where due acknowledgement has been made in the text.



I hereby also declare that I am fully aware of the University of Fort Hare's policy on plagiarism and research ethics, and I have taken every precaution to comply with the regulations. I have obtained an ethical clearance certificate from the University of Fort Hare's Research Ethics Committee and my reference number is the following:

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Executive Summary

This study investigated the relationship between conscientiousness, extraversion, and leadership effectiveness among the local government managers in Bisho and East London. Conscientiousness and extraversion were used as independent variables in the study while leadership effectiveness was used as the dependent variable. The data was collected from a sample of 222 local government managers using a self-designed biographical and occupational questionnaire. To measure conscientiousness and extraversion, a 24-item 5-point rating scale adopted from Finchan & Rhodes (2005) was used. To measure leadership effectiveness, a 6-item 5-point derailment rating scale adopted from Lombardo & McCauley (1994) was used. Data analysis was done using various statistical techniques, including t-tests, Pearson Product Moment Correlation Technique and Multiple Regression Analysis. The results indicated that both conscientiousness and extraversion are strongly associated with leadership effectiveness. Conscientiousness was also strongly associated with the individual components of leadership effectiveness, interpersonal relationships; molding a staff; making strategic transitions; follow-through and ability to work independently. Extraversion was also strongly associated with the individual components of leadership effectiveness, molding a staff; making strategic transitions; strategic similarities with management; follow-through and ability to work independently. Although conscientiousness and extraversion combined were found to have an additive effect on leadership effectiveness, conscientiousness accounts for a higher proportion of variance in leadership effectiveness than extraversion. Finally, the results also indicated that age was strongly associated with leadership effectiveness. The study therefore recommends that organisations should use conscientiousness and extraversion when selecting individuals for leadership positions.

Keywords: *Conscientiousness; extraversion; leadership; leadership effectiveness; personality; manager; local government; big-five theory.*

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Christ. I owe my life to Him.



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Dedication

To my parents,
Mr. and Mrs. Bell,
and my grandmother, Mrs. M. Nkala
who provided everlasting love, support and care.



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1.1 Introduction

On a large scale, researchers believe that corruption prevent economic growth and development (Mauro 1995, Dreher & Herzfeld, 2005). Hanna, Bishop, Nadel, Scheffler and Durlacher (2011) argue that corruption can prevent an equal sharing of goods and services to the public by infiltrating into all the areas of the organisation. It has different forms which include the managers demanding bribes to perform basic services and being paid for jobs that they do not accomplish (Hanna *et al.*, 2011). Banerjee, Hanna and Mullainathan (2011) define corruption as a situation where a manager or leader manipulates a rule for a personal gain. Accordingly, this definition covers the most common forms of corruption done by managers which includes the ones highlighted by Hanna *et al.* (2012).



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Kiviet (2012) states that for the last 18 years an insignificant development has been achieved in creating one organisational culture of the Eastern Cape local government that can promote an effective and efficient spending of the annual provincial budgetary allocation of more than fifty-six billion rands. The Premier revealed that the development and fall of the provincial administration is hinged on the ability, attitudes and personality of its leadership (Kiviet, 2012). Basopu (2010) argues that Eastern Cape is the most affected province, with certain departments engaging in corrupt behaviours. Among the causal factors, the most significant one is the serious problem of leadership crises in the local government departments

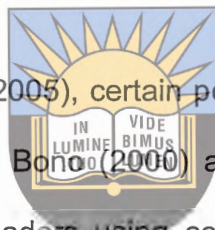
(Basopu, 2010). Graham (2007) further argues that “Citizen Leadership Project” was introduced in the Eastern Cape Province and the main objective was to close the leadership gap which was evident after the loss of effective leaders, who were recruited by the local government. Kiviet (2012) however, argues that the Premier’s department has spent five million rands to implement a leadership development programme that took nine months for one-hundred and thirty strategic managers as a strategy to solve leadership problems that are manifested by poor service delivery in Eastern Cape Province.



The way in which organisations respond to new challenges is unmistakably tied to the values, attitudes, styles and responses of their leaders (Bell, 2011). Thus, an understanding of the nature of personality is important to accepting its potential role in leadership behaviour (Greenberg, 2011). The severe organisational failures of twenty-first century have highlighted the importance of personality as the main factor to explain the leaders’ behaviour. These failures are the direct result of ineffective leadership (Fincham & Rhodes, 2005). Ayres (2002) also suggests that a leader’s personality has a strong effect not only on the leader’s working relationships with other managers but also more generally on the entire organisational culture. Ineffective leadership destroys the human spirit that is important in ensuring organizational effectiveness (Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe, 2003).

According to Greenberg (2011), researchers have identified almost eighteen thousand traits, but they suggest that only a few of them play a significant role in leadership effectiveness. These are recognised as the “big five” personality dimensions which include conscientiousness, extraversion, neuroticism, open to

experience and agreeableness. It is argued that a leader has a complex relationship with the subordinates. This relationship involves persuading, exciting and motivating subordinates as well as clarifying performance goals and methodologies used (Fincham & Rhodes, 2005). Another argument is that to be effective, the leader also needs the ability to understand and respond to individual differences. Accordingly, these researchers also suggest that managing the potential challenge of this relationship effectively may to a greater part be better explained by the presence of important personality traits (Fincham & Rhodes, 2005).



According to Fincham and Rhodes (2005), certain personality traits are related with leadership effectiveness. Judge and Bono (2000) also suggest that organizations might benefit from choosing their leaders using certain personality traits as their basis, but they do not specify which traits they are more convinced about.

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1.2 Statement of the problem

The South African labour market is becoming flooded with people with high qualifications (diplomas, degrees and post-graduate degrees). However, managers are selected mainly because of their formal competence and previous merits (Hooijberg, Hunt & Dodge, 1997). This has created a challenge for organisations in identifying effective leaders among people with seemingly good qualities. Moreover, Guion and Highhouse (2004) argue that credential requirements are seldom important and too often, people with high education do not have the competencies to match the job. Thus, the relationship between education and effective leadership is not always positive. According to Fincham and Rhodes (2005), some people are naturally more suited to the leadership role than others. The traits approach to

leadership also suggests that there is a “leadership gene”. This means that some people are created for leadership roles while others are created to be followers (Fincham & Rhodes, 2005).

However, there is no evidence given to support the notion that managers are mainly selected because of their personality traits. In formal organizations, managers are not selected and promoted because of their personality (Hooijberg *et al.*, 1997). The massive organisations failures at the beginning of the twenty-first century support the notion that certain individuals are more “wired” for leadership responsibilities compared to others. Ineffective leadership destroys the human spirit important to ensuring organizational effectiveness (Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe, 2003). The more common-place human outcomes of ineffective leadership includes among others, employee stress, disenchantment, lack of creativity, cynicism, high staff turnover, and low productivity (Fincham & Rhodes 2005).



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In response to the above paradoxical situation, there are quantitative reviews that have investigated the relationship between leadership behaviour and personality (Lord, De Vader & Alliger 1986; Bono & Judge, 2004; Judge & Bono, 2000). The current research sought to further examine the relationship between conscientiousness, extraversion and leadership effectiveness.

1.3 Objectives of the study

The broad objective of this study is to investigate the relationship between conscientiousness, extroversion and leadership effectiveness among the local government managers.

Specifically, this study sought to;

- Investigate the relationship between conscientiousness and leadership effectiveness.
- Investigate the relationship between extraversion and leadership effectiveness.
- Investigate an additive effect of conscientiousness and extraversion on leadership effectiveness.

1.4 Research questions



The study sought to answer the following questions:

- What is the relationship between conscientiousness and leadership effectiveness?
- What is the relationship between extraversion and leadership effectiveness?
- What is an additive effect of the two independent variables (conscientiousness and extraversion) on the one hand, and a dependent variable (leadership effectiveness) on the other hand?

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1.5 Hypotheses

H₀: Conscientiousness is not significantly related to leadership effectiveness.

H₁: Conscientiousness is significantly positively related to leadership effectiveness.

H₀: Extraversion is not significantly related to leadership effectiveness.

H₂: Extraversion is significantly positively related to leadership effectiveness.

H₀: Conscientiousness and extroversion is additively not significantly related to leadership effectiveness.

H₃: Conscientiousness and extraversion is additively significantly positively related to leadership effectiveness.

1.6 Significance of the study

Establishing the relationship between conscientiousness, extraversion and leadership effectiveness could be of benefit to organisations as these personality traits can be used as predictors of leaders' performance. Judge and Bono (2000) believe that organizations might benefit from selecting leaders on the basis of certain personality traits which however, are not explicitly specified. Understanding this relationship can also help organisations improve their selection process; thus, "making wise selection decisions" of people suitable for leadership positions (Guion & Highhouse, 2004). Reinforcing the value of the study highlighted above, Armstrong (2009) also argue that personality traits provide the basis for making predictions about leaders' future behaviour. Barrick and Mount (1993) further argue that predictors under conscientiousness have been found to have the highest relation with leaders' performances. University of Fort Hare arguments suggest the importance of the personality traits in leadership development and personnel selection processes in organisations.



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Similar studies have been conducted mostly in western countries where the working as well as the physical environment is not the same as that of Africa. It is because of such differences that the study is being replicated in the South African environment to confirm or disconfirm the relationship between the variables under study. The study purports to determine the relationship between conscientiousness, extraversion and leadership effectiveness.

1.7 Outline of the dissertation

This study is divided into five chapters. Chapter one lays the background of the study together with the problem context, hypotheses, significance and the objectives of

athe study. Chapter two is basically a review of the literature on personality, conscientiousness, extraversion, demographic variables, leadership and leadership effectiveness. Moreover, chapter three describes the research methodology used in this study. The data analysis and results are presented in chapter four. Lastly, chapter five comprises of the discussions, recommendations and conclusions that are anchored on the findings of this study.



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CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviewed related literature pertaining to the theories of leadership personality and leadership effectiveness; personality, conscientiousness, extraversion, leadership and leadership effectiveness. A brief explanation of a distinction between managers and leaders is given to ensure adequate understanding of the variables under study and how they relate to each other in selected organisations. Accordingly, after each variable has been separately expounded; the relationship between demographic variables, conscientiousness, extraversion and leadership effectiveness, and an additive effect of conscientiousness and extraversion on leadership effectiveness is analysed with reference to local government managers.



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2.2 Theoretical perspectives on personality traits and leadership effectiveness

2.2.1 Theories relating to leadership personality traits

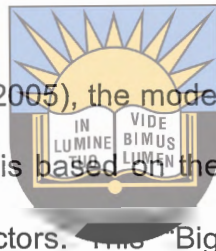
2.2.1.1 The great person theory

According to Greenburg (2011), great leaders have important attributes that make them different from most other leaders. These attributes do not change over time and across different groups. The theory suggests that effective leaders share these attributes regardless of when and where they lead. It suggests that effective leadership lives in the personality attributes of the manager or leader. In any situation where effective leadership is required, the manager or leader with the maximum number of attributes emerges as the leader. Therefore, the notion is that

the ways leaders define their roles and responsibilities, manage change, develop and communicate a vision are all in part a revelation of their personality. Fincham and Rhodes (2005) using the same concept but different words, suggest that there is a “leadership gene”. This refers to a “mixture of biogenetic and biographical forces”. It produces a mixture of traits, motives, and skills which makes effective leaders. So, a complex interaction of “biographical and biological forces” means that some people are created for leadership while others are created to be subordinates.

2. 2.1. 2 The Big Five Model

According to Fincham and Rhodes (2005), the model that is currently attracting a lot of attention in leadership behaviour is based on the notion that personality can be summarised into five important factors. This “Big Five model” is an important integrating classification for people working on personality research and its applications in organisational behaviour. It has for some time led personality research, and Guion and Highhouse (2004) describe this movement as an “emerging consensus”. The five factors are conscientiousness, extraversion, neuroticism, open to experience and agreeableness (Costa & McCrae, 1992). Psychologists argue that this framework represents a significant contribution to the knowledge of organisational behaviour. Each factor, they argue, assists in the understanding of different facets of leaders or managers’ work experience. The belief is that personality impacts on what leaders or managers want the opportunities to satisfy in the organisation, the tasks that are suitable for them and the organisational environment leaders can work effectively and efficiently in (Fincham & Rhodes, 2005).



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2. 2.1. 3 The Person-Job Fit Theory

According to Caldwell and O' Reilly (1990), this theory deals with the degree at which a particular job matches an individual's skills, abilities, and interest. They believe that a person's decisions are influenced primarily by his or her personality. Personality remains a significant influencing factor for career decisions (Nieken & Störmer, 2010). In this regard, a leader will be more effective to the extent that there is congruence between the leaders' personality and the job. Lee, Johnston and Dougherty (2000), Durr II and Tracey (2009) also suggest that leaders are more satisfied and effective when they are in positions that align well with their personalities. This theory has two significant findings; that people in leadership roles tend to have many similar personality characteristics, and individuals whose characteristics align those people in a leadership positions are in a more favourable position to be effective leaders. Thus, the theory suggests that the more closely managers or leaders personalities such as conscientiousness and extraversion align those required in a leadership position, the more effective they will be in a leadership position.



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2. 2. 2 Theories relating to leadership effectiveness

2. 2. 2.1 Situational leadership theory

According to Hersey and Blanchard (1988), this theory is regarded a contingency theory because it focuses on effective leadership behaviour for a specific situation. These researchers argue that leaders are effective to the extent that they are able to use an appropriate behaviour for the situation they encounter. Therefore, leadership effectiveness is the outcome of interplay between leader behaviour and situation. This therefore depends on the maturity of followers, their readiness to take

responsibility for their behaviour. This in turn, is hinged on task and relationship behaviour. Task behaviour relates to the extent to which subordinates have the appropriate job knowledge and skill, their need for guidance and direction while relationship behaviour denotes the extent to which subordinates are motivated to work without having a leader's guidance, their need for emotional support. A combination of high and low levels of these individual dimensions creates four different types of work situations, each of which is associated with a certain leadership behaviour that is most effective. Thus, this theory explains leadership effectiveness from a contingency perspective.



2. 2. 2. 2 Person-oriented versus Production-oriented leaders

According to Likert (1961), leaders differ along two dimensions of initiating structure (production-oriented) and consideration (person-oriented). Leaders that are strong on the initiating structure are concerned mainly with production and focus mainly on ensuring that the work is completed according the standards required. They engage in behaviours such as organising work, motivating subordinates to follow standards, setting goals, and clarifying leader and subordinates roles. On the other hand, leaders strong on consideration are concerned primarily with developing good relations with their subordinates, clarifying things to them, and promoting their welfare. The two dimensions are not interdependent. Thus, a leader may be strong on both concern with production and for people, strong on one of these dimensions and weak on the other, moderate on one and strong on the others, and so on. One pattern appears to be effective in many situations. This is a pattern in which leaders show a high desire for both people and production. In other words, leaders are effective to extent that they have a high desire for both people and production.

2. 2. 2. 3 Path-Goal theory

According to House (1971), this theory of leadership suggests that subordinates will be motivated by a leader only to the extent that they perceive this individual as helping them to attain important goals. The significance of the theory is the notion that effective leaders behave in ways that support subordinates situations and capabilities in a way that covers up for their weakness and it increases subordinates satisfaction and their performance (House, 1996). This theory contends that subordinates will react favourably to the leader only to the degree that they perceive this individual as helping them to achieve their goals by clarifying the actual paths to such rewards. Thus, effective leaders simplify the path taken by subordinates to reach their destinations, and to help them do so. The theory therefore, suggests that leaders are effective to the extent that they help subordinates achieve organisational goals, and goal achievement is instrumental to performance.



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2. 3 Definition of concepts

2. 3.1 Personality

According to Fincham and Rhodes (2005), personality is defined as the relatively enduring amalgamation of traits which makes a leader or manager different and at the same time his or her ways of thinking and behaving are the same. Schiffman and Kanuk (2007) perceived personality as those inner psychological characteristics that both influence and show how a leader or manager responds to his or her work environment. Inner characteristics are those specific qualities, attributes, traits, factors, and mannerisms that make one leader different from another. Fincham and Rhodes (2005) argue that the massive organisations failures in the early years of this century have highlighted the value of personality as an important explanatory

concept in leader behaviour. Ayres (2002) also argue that a leader's personality has an impact not only on the leader's working relationships with other managers but also more generally on the entire organisation culture. Personality impacts on the career goals leaders seek opportunities to achieve in an organisation, the tasks which are suitable to them and the organisational environment that leaders can work effectively and efficiently in (Fincham & Rhodes 2005). Effectively managing the potential complexity of this relationship may well be in part explained by the presence of significant personality traits (Fincham & Rhodes, 2005). Hence, personality traits help to explain why a manager behaves in a certain way when s/he is in a leadership role (Andersen, 2006).



2. 3. 2 Conscientiousness

According to Greenburg (2011, p. 149), conscientiousness is defined as the "tendency to show self-discipline, to strive for competence and achievement". This dimension stretches from well-organised, careful, self-disciplined, responsible and precise at the high end, to disorganised, impulsive, careless, and undependable at the low end. Fincham and Rhodes (2005) also describe it as the "broad underlying factor that develops out of associations between smaller traits such as obedience, persistence, impulse control, planning and organising, perfectionism and integrity". Bin Daud, Yahya, Mohd and Wan Mohd Noor (2011) also supports the above definition of conscientiousness, and argue that conscientious managers tend to show behaviours such as "thinking before doing, delaying gratification, following standards and planning and organizing, and prioritizing tasks". Moreover, Daft (2005) believes that a conscientious manager narrows his or her view and focuses on a few important goals, which he or she pursues in a purposeful way. Contrariwise, a less

conscientious manager tends to focus on many goals and are easily distracted and impulsive. This dimension of personality relates to the work itself rather than to relationships with subordinates (Daft, 2005).

It is argued that a highly conscientious leader's behaviour, may be as a result of familial conditioning, and is dominated by the need to satisfy organisation and self-imposed standards (Fincham & Rhodes, 2005). Hogan and Ones (1997) argue that conscientious leaders or managers come to work on time and complete their assignments. Moreover, Austin and Deary (2002) argue that more conscientious leaders tend to live longer, may be, because they avoid risk behaviours and tend to adopt a healthier lifestyle. They also tend to use a highly systematic and procedural strategy to work. Therefore, they prefer orderly and predictable environments where there are clear goals, performance strategies, and work roles. Fincham and Rhodes (2005) further argue that the weakness of being a highly conscientious leader may be inflexibility; a tendency to be more legalistic than is required. Accordingly, the researchers argue that when leaders are under pressure, they may perceive that they cannot achieve their own very high standards and can start to become more perfectionist and obsessional than is required.



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2. 3. 3 Extraversion

According to Greenburg (2011, p. 149), extraversion is defined as a "tendency to seek stimulation and to enjoy the company of other people". This reflects a dimension stretching from energetic, enthusiastic, sociable and talkative at the high end, to retiring, sober, reserved, silent, and cautious at the low end. Fincham and Rhodes (2005) also describes the extravert as highly "sociable, energetic, socially

confident and cheerful”, while the introvert is “more quiet, self-contained, serious minded, and somewhat aloof”. Moreover, extraversion is best explained by behaviours that place the leader or manager at the centre of attention, such as seeking status and acting dominant, assertive, outgoing, and talkative (Ashton, Lee, & Paunonen, 2002).

Extraverts are not similar to introverts because they are very hungry for a stimulus. They therefore seek environments which give the level of sensory stimulation they need in order to remain active. This would be shown behaviourally in different ways which include being more sociable, more active and participating in a variety of social and physical activities (Fincham & Rhodes, 2005). Watson and Clark (1997) also believe that “positive emotionality” is the main facet of extraversion i.e., extravert leaders experience and show good feelings. Consequently, it is likely that the extravert leaders will tend to show inspirational leadership (e.g., having an optimistic perspective of the future). Because they are positive, ambitious, and influential, they are likely to promote confidence and enthusiasm among subordinates.



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Fincham and Rhodes (2005) however, argue that there is an impulsive, risk-oriented facet of extraversion. Thus, extravert leaders are likely to be less responsible and self- and emotionally disciplined. Extraverts in general have less sense of their obligation to the organisation than introverts. Moreover, these researchers argue that the extraverts are perceived as more effectively committed to the world than introverts. Fincham and Rhodes (2005) further identify the attributes which are now considered as defining extraversion as follows:

2.3.3.1 Venturesomeness

Venturesomeness means that extravert leaders are more socially confident than introverts. In other words, they are socially adventurous and “thick-skinned”. This, for instance, allows them to present themselves more confidently in groups and teams or when with unfamiliar individuals. Moreover, they adjust better with being the centre of attention and are therefore much better at establishing a rapport with individuals they are meeting for the first time (Fincham & Rhodes, 2005).

2.3.3.2 Affiliativeness

This means that extravert leaders or managers are more active, friendly, and attentive than introverts, who may appear relatively separated and aloof by contrast. Whilst introvert leaders prefer more private dealings with others at work, extravert leaders tend to prefer involvement. In general, extravert leaders exert more energy in establishing close and effective relationships with subordinates and other managers. This strong affiliative facet of extraversion means that they tend to be more generous with their time and value the personal elements of an encounter over and above the more formal task-related elements. The affiliative needs of introvert leaders are usually satisfied by a smaller group of friends and family, and even with these individuals they may be more detached and aloof (Fincham & Rhodes, 2005).



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2.3.3.3 Energy

This means that extravert leaders enjoy doing a lot of work rather than having very few tasks to work on. Whilst introvert leaders' preference is to work on one task, extravert leaders enjoy having different projects and activities moving at any one

time. Extravert leaders therefore enjoy work giving them a variety of tasks, for instance, multi-tasking (Fincham & Rhodes, 2005).

2.3.3.4 Ascendance

This means that extravert leaders, being more confident and affiliative, tend also to be assertive than the more introverted leaders. This enables them not only to work more strongly in groups and teams as well as withstanding the stress of being the focal point, but also to defend their perspectives with more vigour than their introverted peers. Extravert leaders therefore, tend to be more dominant than introvert leaders in organisations (Fincham & Rhodes, 2005).



2.4 Leadership

According to Werner, Bagraim, Cunningham, Potgieter and Viedge (2007, p. 288), leadership is generally defined as the “social process of influencing people to work voluntarily, enthusiastically and persistently towards a purposeful group or organisational goal”. Leadership is an important factor in the field of organisational behaviour, and therefore, significant for effective functioning of any organisation (Kasapoglu, 2011). Collins (2001) also argues that effective leaders work for their organisations first, rather than mainly for their own interests. In applying personality theory to leadership assessment and selection, Hogan and Tett (2002) also defines leadership as the ability of an individual to persuade others not to focus on their personal plans, at least temporarily, but to shift their focus towards achieving the organisational goals. Collins (2001) also asserts that leadership is the key factor in transforming good organisations into highly effective organisation with sustainable growth.

Collins (2001) further argues that leadership is an interpersonal influence process that happens directly or through the use of a media. Therefore, the leader's personality is an important determinant on success or non-success and influence. Leaders determine not only the tasks, strategies and goals of the organisation but also the beliefs, attitudes and behaviour of their subordinates (Suar, Tewari, & Chaturbedi, 2006).

2. 4.1 The Key characteristics of the Leadership Process

2. 4.1.1 Leadership involves non-coercive influence

Leadership is mainly a process involving influence in which a leader changes the behaviours or attitudes of subordinates (Greenberg & Baron, 2003). There are many strategies through which leaders put such an influence ranging from relatively coercive ones, wherein the subordinate has less freedom but to do what the leader requested, to relatively non-coercive ones, wherein the subordinate has freedom to choose to accept or reject the influence given by the leader (Greenberg & Baron, 2003). In general, leadership means the application of non-coercive influence strategies. This characteristic separates a leader from a dictator. Dictators influence subordinates to perform or work by using physical coercion or threats of physical force, but leaders to a certain extent do not use such an influence. Leadership relies, to a greater extent on positive emotions between leaders and subordinates (Greenberg & Baron, 2003). In other words, subordinates accept influence from leaders because they respect, like and admire them or they see them as being able to develop the path; not simply because of positions of formal authority (Cialdini, 1988).



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2. 4.1. 2 Leadership influence is goal-directed

Leadership involves the use of influence for a purpose which is to attain defined group or organisational goals (Greenberg & Baron, 2003). In other words, leaders focus on developing those behaviours or attitudes of their subordinates that are important for specific goals. They are far less concerned with developing subordinates' behaviours or attitudes that are not important to organisational or group goals (Greenberg & Baron, 2003).

2. 4.1. 3 Leadership requires followers

By emphasising the important role of influence, it implies that leadership is really something involving a two-way process (Greenberg & Baron 2003). Although leaders do indeed influence subordinates in different ways, the behaviours of leaders are also influenced by their subordinates. Thus, it can be argued that leadership exists only when there are followers (Greenberg & Baron, 2003).

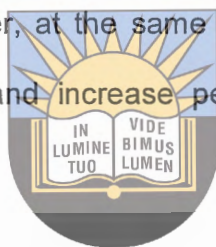


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2. 4. 2 A key distinction between leaders and managers

According to Kotter (1990), the terms leaders and managers are commonly used interchangeably. However, these terms are not similar and need to be clearly separated. The main function of a leader is to develop the fundamental goal or mission of the organisation and the strategy for reaching it. By contrast, the manager's role is to put the vision into operation. Moreover, the manager's responsibility is to apply the strategy for achieving the vision developed by the leader. Thus, management is about coping with change. Specifically, managers develop plans and monitor results relative to those plans. However, leaders establish

direction by developing a vision of the future. More importantly, effective leaders then persuade subordinates to buy into their vision and personalise it and go along with it. Although these differences are simple to comprehend, the difference between developing a mission and implementing it is often not seen in practice (Kotter, 1990). This is because many leaders such as corporate executives often do not only create a vision and formulate a strategy for implementing it, but they also provide their help in increasing people's commitment towards that vision and plan. By contrast, managers are charged with the responsibility for putting the organisational strategy into operation using others. However, at the same time, they are also involved in helping to formulate the strategy and increase people's commitment and effort toward implementing that strategy.



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In other words, there are many similar roles performed by leaders and managers in actual practice. This is a fact that makes it difficult to separate between them (Kotter, 1990). Also, there are no such people in organisations called leaders but are referred to as managers. Moreover, Suar, Tewari and Chaturbedi, (2006) argue that though leaders and managers are differentiated using their roles, responsibilities and skills in theory, for all practical purposes, an executive or a manager is a leader. However, some managers are regarded as leaders whereas others are not regarded as such. Similarly, some leaders take on more of a management function than others. Thus, although these differences are not always obvious, they do exist. For the purpose of this study, the terms leader and manager are used interchangeably to mean the same concept.

2.4.3 Effectiveness

According to Jones and George (2003, p. 6), effectiveness is a “measure of the appropriateness of the goals that managers have chosen for the organisation to pursue and of the degree to which the organisation attain those goals”. These researchers argue that organisations are effective when leaders develop the right goals and then achieve them. They also believe that high-performing organisations are simultaneously efficient. Jones and George (2003) moreover, argue that leaders who are effective are those who develop the right organisational goals to pursue and have the right skills to use resources efficiently.



2.4.4 Leadership effectiveness

Researchers often vary in their understanding of leadership effectiveness (Avolio, Sosik, Jung, & Berson, 2003, Yukl, 2006). However, Phipps and Prieto (2011) argue that effective leadership is viewed everywhere as important to the success of an organisation. Researchers have spent more than a century trying to understand the characteristics of effective leaders (Zaccaro, 2007). This is also highlighted by Waldman, Ramirez, House and Puranam (2001) when they argue that leadership effectiveness continues to attract a lot of interest in both the popular and research literature. Consequently, increasing globalization and the challenges of working in the global economy have only helped in increasing this interest.

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According to Fiedler (1967), in contingency theories, leadership effectiveness is defined as the outcome of interplay between the leaders' behaviour and the environment in which the leader is operating. Thus, effective leadership is that which is achieved when there is congruence between the leader, the subordinates and the

situation. Andersen (2006) also argues that goal achievement is the fundamental characteristics of leadership effectiveness in organisational theory as well as for private and public organisations. Consistent with Andersen's (2006) perception above, the path-goal theory also defines leadership effectiveness as the ability of leaders to clarify the subordinates' goals and the job performance achieved from reaching these goals (House, 1971).

Gedney (1999) however, argues that leadership effectiveness and an effective leader are not the same. An effective leader is someone who energises a person or a group to achieve more than they could without the leader's support. Drucker (1973) also argue that leadership effectiveness is the foundation of organisational performance while efficiency is a small requirement for the organisation to survive after it has achieved high performance. Efficiency is about doing things correctly, while effectiveness is doing a correct thing. Leadership effectiveness and organizational effectiveness therefore, have the same meaning in organisational behaviour (Andersen, 2006).



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Hogan, Curphy, and Hogan (1994) suggest that leadership effectiveness should be assessed using a team, group, or organisational effectiveness. In practice, however, the measurements of leadership effectiveness usually have the evaluations done by the leader's supervisor, peer, subordinate or a combination of these three. Such evaluations, although they provide an excellent way of measuring leadership effectiveness, they are criticized as potentially having flaws (Hogan *et al.*, 1994).

Moreover, because these evaluations are individuals' perceptions of leadership effectiveness rather than objectively measured performance results such as team performance; they may be affected by the evaluators' implicit leadership theories (Lord, Foti, & De Vader, 1984). However, even if evaluations of leadership effectiveness are biased by implicit leadership theories or selective recall, or even halo-effects, there is evidence that evaluations of leadership effectiveness agree with objective measures of work group performance (Hogan *et al.*, 1994). Thus providing support for the use of supervisor and subordinate evaluations as measures of leadership effectiveness.



Collins (2001) believes that effective leadership may be generally understood by not only having the appropriate personal characteristics and technical ability, but also by the relative lack of interpersonal weaknesses. Collins (2001) argues that organisations with sustainable growth are led by highly effective leaders who are working hard to develop an organisation and a legacy for others so that they could do the same rather than getting satisfaction in "self-aggrandizement". Collins (2001) also argues that effective leaders use information from different and sometimes incongruent sources by refining it to basic usable standards and determine the individuals that could meet these standards. Therefore, effective leadership involves having a lot of knowledge and understanding of organisational dynamics and people.

Collins (2001) and Hogan (1983) concur in respect to the general functions of leadership behaviour of building relationships and achieving results. The relationship function (i.e., the leader's capability and skill in establishing and maintaining relationships) is the most important behaviour of every leader's job. Collins (2001)

believes that leaders achieve results using other people, hence motivating other people to work hard and produce quality products is very important. A leader who can communicate more effectively and understand others may be able to establish a more effective team as compared to leaders having interpersonal problems (Hogan & Hogan, 1997).

In short, a leader's interpersonal characteristics and strategic thinking determines how the leader works with different departments, further the organisation by motivating people to work as team, and develop structure within the organisation (strategically aligning resources with the vision). Overall, Collins (2001) argues that effective leadership may be developed on decision-making and strategic capacity of the leader, but sustainable performance is a combination of appropriate personal characteristics together with a relative lack of interpersonal flaws.

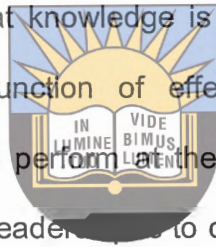


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Leadership effectiveness is conceptualized by Collins (2001) as something involving four dimensions which are business leadership, results leadership, people leadership and self leadership. Firstly, effective leadership requires someone who can think through issues, plan, and understand important business issues from different perspectives (business leadership). Secondly, effective organisations are led by individuals who have the capacity to make an initiative, are sustainable, communicate effectively, and achieve good results (results leadership). Thirdly, working effectively with other people and doing work using other people requires the capacity motivate, establish good relationships, develop trustworthiness, equip other people, and influence (people leadership). Lastly, it is important for leaders to have

emotional intelligence, behave with integrity, be accountable for their own behaviours, and respond resourcefully to change (self leadership).

Khoury (2005) also argues that leadership effectiveness is the capacity of the leader or manager to facilitate change through establishing a dynamic purpose and path, and to equip the workforce and develop an organisational structure in which people are able to address problems and opportunities with creativity and commitment so that the organisation achieves its objectives. Drucker (1995) believes that the value of effective leaders is to ensure that knowledge is productive while Bradford and Cohen (1997) believe that the function of effective leaders is to establish environments in which subordinates perform at their best. Ulrich (1996) however, believes that the main challenge of leadership is to change visions into strategies to achieve organisational goals.



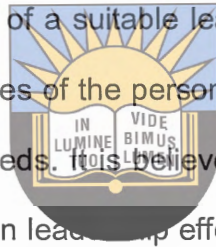
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DeRue, Nahrgang, Wellman and Humphrey (2011, p. 5) further argue that leadership effectiveness can be defined using three dimensions. These are “content, level of analysis, and target of evaluation”. The content dimension of leadership effectiveness could mean the leaders’ performance of the task, for instance, individual or team performance; affective and relationship measure, for instance, satisfaction with the leader, or overall measurement of leadership effectiveness that covers both task and relationship elements such as the total effectiveness of the leader.

The level of analysis dimension means that leadership effectiveness could be perceived at the “individual, dyadic, group, or organisational level”. Some

researchers conceptualize leadership effectiveness as individual-level leader effectiveness while other researchers look at “dyadic-level relationships, group-level performance, or organizational performance” (Kaiser, Hogan, & Craig, 2008). Lastly, the “target of evaluation” dimension means that the leader is the focus of measurement process, for instance, leader effectiveness, satisfaction with the leader or another method that is within the domain of leadership effectiveness but not exactly focusing on the leader such as team performance.

Yukl (2006) believes that the choice of a suitable leadership effectiveness measure is determined by the needs and values of the person making the evaluation. Hence, people have different values and needs. It is believed that it is the best strategy to use different measures in research on leadership effectiveness (DeRue *et al.*, 2011).



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This study focused on five different leadership effectiveness measures namely, individual leader effectiveness, group performance, organisational performance, follower satisfaction with the leader, and follower job satisfaction.

2.4.4.1 Cross-cultural Leadership Effectiveness

According to Leung (2005), effective leadership varies from one cultural environment to another. This therefore, means that a leader's behaviour may be effective in one environment and ineffective in another. Organisations are more effective to the extent that they have the ability to find and promote necessary leader behaviours useful for their cultural environments. In the Southern Asian cluster which is made up of India, Indonesia, Iran, Malaysia, Philippines and Thailand; transformational, charismatic and team-oriented leadership behaviours are regarded as having the most effective leadership qualities (Gupta, Surie, Javidan, & Chokar,

2002). In Latin Europe, on the contrary, charismatic or values-based, team-oriented, and participative leadership are identified as the most effective leadership qualities (Jesuino, 2002). The leader's own knowledge of his or her interactive skills may be an important aspect of the leaders' effectiveness in other cultures such as United Kingdom and United States of America (Shipper, Kincaid, Denise, Richard and Hoffman, 2003). Thus, the understanding of the concept of leadership effectiveness varies from one cultural environment to another.

2.4.4.2 Traits of effective leaders

Traits are personal attributes that differentiate individuals. A group of traits that defines an individual's behaviour is called personality. Researchers who were not concerned with personality established a list of attributes that effective leaders share in common. Therefore, there seems to be some traits that consistently separate effective leaders from people who are not leaders (Achuar & Lussier, 2010).



2.4.4.2.1 Dominance

This is a characteristic of extraversion of "big five" categories. It is associated with leadership. Effective leaders are willing to be managers and to control. However, they are not over managing or behaving in a bullying way. If an individual is not interested in being a leader, there is a probability that he or she may not be an effective manager for an organisation. Thus, dominance influences all the other attributes associated with effective leadership. To attain a complete leadership potential, the individual is supposed to have an enthusiasm to be a leader, work hard to improve his or her competences and enjoy it (Achuar & Lussier, 2010).

2.4.4.2.2 High Energy

High energy means that leaders have high motivation to work hard to achieve their goals. They consider the positive and have stamina and manage stress effectively. Their optimism guides their decision to lead. These leaders have high interest and surrenders not because they have a positive attitude. Moreover, they deal with but do not accept challenges. However, these leaders are regarded not as pushy and obnoxious. They have a high ability to endure frustration as they work hard to overcome challenges through persistence. Leaders are able introduce change for organisational improvements rather than seeking for permission from other people; they know what they are supposed to do. High energy is regarded as an attribute of conscientiousness dimension of the “big five” (Achnuar & Lussier, 2010).



2.4.4.2.3 Self-Confidence

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On a scale from strong to weak, self-confidence shows the extent to which the leader believes in himself or herself in the judgements, decision making, ideas, and capabilities. It also describes self-efficacy. Leaders have self-assurance in their abilities and they infuse confidence in their followers. Thus, as leaders are trusted by their followers, they are also able to influence them. Self-confidence affects the leader’s goals, efforts, and task persistence. Leaders do not yield themselves to self-doubt. Self-confidence is significantly associated with leadership effectiveness and is an indicator of leaders’ success. Leaders however, really believe in themselves; they are not arrogant individuals who alienate people and their emotions are stable. Self-confidence describes the conscientiousness dimension of the “big five”. People who are dependable often have high self-confidence needed to ensure that their work is

completed while people who have poor self-confidence can be emotionally unstable (Achuar & Lussier, 2010).

2.4.4.2.4 Integrity

Integrity refers to the actions of the leader that are honest and ethical, leading the individual to be trustworthy. Studies indicate a positive relationship between ethical behaviour and leadership effectiveness. Integrity means not seeking self-interest at the expense of others. It means being honest, for instance, not lying, cheating or stealing. It is an important quality to manage an organisation successfully. Therefore, leaders should promote leadership integrity in organisations because their integrity has an impact in their behaviour. For leaders to be perceived as trustworthy individuals, they are supposed to be honest, support their followers, and keep confidences. If the followers discover that their leaders have been dishonest or cheated on them for their personal needs, the leader will lose the followers' respect. Integrity is an important component of the "big five" dimension of conscientiousness (Achuar & Lussier, 2010).



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2.4.4.2.5 The need for achievement (n Ach)

This describes the unconscious need for high accomplishments through individual efforts. Individuals with a high need for achievement usually have internal locus of control, self-confidence, and high energy traits. High need achievement describes the "big five" dimension of conscientiousness. Moreover, individuals with high need for achievement are usually described as taking personal responsibility when solving problems. They work towards their goals and they set goals that are moderate, realistic and achievable. These individuals also want challenge, excellence, and

individuality; take calculated, moderate risk; want detailed feedback on their performance and work hard. The individuals with high need of achievement devise some better methods of working, how to complete something important and career progression. Finally, they perform well in flexible, challenging, and competitive environments (Achuar & Lussier, 2010).

2.4.5 Strategic leadership

According to Achua and Lussier (2010, p. 370), strategic leadership is a “person’s ability to anticipate, envision, maintain flexibility, think strategically, and work with others to introduce changes that will create a better future for the organisation”. Thus, it is a process of giving the way and motivation necessary to establish and put into action an organisation’s vision, mission, and strategies to achieve organisational objectives. Strategic leadership is performed by managers in all levels in an organisation (Achua & Lussier, 2010).



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According to Bass and Avolio (1994), there are two main aspects of strategic leadership. These are the abilities of effective strategic leadership which include competencies such as strategic thinking, emotional intelligence, behavioural complexity and transformational leadership thinking. And the tasks and roles of effective strategic leadership in which the leader is given a responsibility to provide a path for the organisation, develop organisational alignment, provide a supportive culture, and manage the change process (Bass & Avolio, 1994). Encompassing the above attributes, effective leadership may be viewed as the ability to establish a shared vision and a strategy to attain that vision (Fleming, 2004). The common characteristics among leaders of highly performing organisations include a high

achievement need for the organization, having good relations with other people, having a strategic perspective, simplifying complex issues into operational plans, and having future-oriented plans.

Moreover, for leaders to show strategic leadership ability, they should be able to think strategically, be emotionally intelligent, have different behaviours at their disposal and have the ability to select an appropriate combination of behaviours at the right time and the ability to use transactional and transformational leadership (Fleming, 2004). These leaders should establish and use important competencies, develop organizational alignment, develop an organizational culture and values supportive of the strategy and lead change dynamics (Bass & Avolio, 1994).



2.4.5.1 Strategic Leadership Failures

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Achua and Lussier (2010) believe that managers fail because their strategic perspective for the organisation favours their personal needs and not enough of their organisation's needs. They use unclear organisational structures, participate in or condone unethical behaviours, do not give much value on productivity, quality and innovation. Managers fail because they move fast when making important decisions, and rely heavily on intuition excluding rational analysis (Achua & Lussier, 2010). Sometimes this intuition may increase imagination, creativity, innovation and contribute to organisational success. However, in some other times it may cause serious blunders. Consequently, it is argued that strategic decision-making requires a balancing of intuition and rationality (Achua & Lussier, 2010).

Achua and Lussier (2010) further believe that strategic managers may fail because of ethical and moral decline in judgement. The strategic goal of managers should be to build sustainable integrity programs into the strategic management framework that ensures positive self-regulation of ethical behaviour as an everyday practice within the organisation. However, this cannot be achieved unless the manager has integrity. Thus, integrity plays an important role in the credibility and reputation of a strategic manager (Achua & Lussier, 2010).

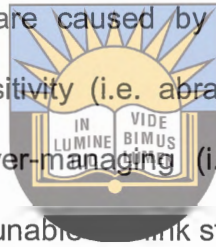
2.4.5.2 Derailed leadership traits



Derailed leadership traits are “possible weaknesses which may cause a leader or manager to be demoted, fired or plateaued below the standard of performance” (CCL, 2000, p. 3). These traits indicate weaknesses in certain aspects that can stall ones’ career. Boyatzis (1982), Bray and Howard (1983), Dumette (1967), Thornton & Byham (1982) perceived derailment as a lack of success. It is argued that derailment is not about lacking the good qualities but about having the bad qualities (i.e. possessing dysfunctional qualities related to failure). Derailment shows the behaviours that are more easily identified by assessors compared to other leadership qualities like self-awareness. Fleenor and Bryant (2002) argues that leadership effectiveness is understood as a low value on the derailment scales, and therefore, showing that a manager or leader is doing well in those areas in which poor performance may cause derailment.

Derailment as the measure of leadership effectiveness has been not yet researched above and beyond the bright side personality characteristics Fleming (2004). Bright side personalities are those characteristics that enable a leader’s ability to work with

others or more than others (Hogan, 1983). Seeing that derailment characteristics negatively influence a leader's capacity to work with subordinates, it gives another perception of the relationship between personality and leadership effectiveness (Fleming, 2004). Different scholars from different organizations, national cultures, and in different organizational level and using different approaches, argue that derailed managers have poor judgment, are not able to develop teams, have relationship challenges, have poor management of themselves and are not able to learn from their mistakes (Hogan, Hogan, Kaiser & DeVries, 2009, p. 6). These scholars believe that derailments are caused by ten factors among which are "specific business problems; insensitivity (i.e. abrasive, intimidating, bully); Cold, aloof, arrogant; betrayed trust; over-managing (i.e. failed to delegate); overly ambitious; failing to staff effectively; unable to think strategically; unable to adapt to a boss with a different leadership style and overly dependent on an advocate or mentor". McCall and Lombardo (1983) also argue that the most common cause for derailment is insensitivity to others. Morrison, White and Van Velsor (1987) further argue that derailed managers seem to have relationships challenges.

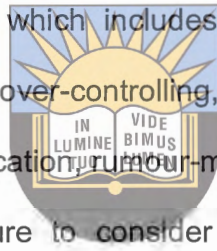


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Hogan *et al.*, (2009) concur with Lombardo, Ruderman and McCauley (1988) that derailment is caused by personality weakness, relationships challenges, inability to develop a team, and weaknesses of leadership. Hogan *et al.*, (2009) further argue that the differences between effective and derailed managers involves having problems with leading and equipping subordinates, managing business complexity, providing effective staffing decisions, interpersonal sensitivity and tact, organizational knowledge, achievement orientation, honour and integrity as well as composure. These causes of derailment are very common in western environments such as in

United States, Belgium, France, Germany, Italy, Spain, and the United Kingdom. Accordingly, derailment researches generalize across time, organisations, and cultures (Van Velsor & Leslie, 1995).

Dotlich and Cairo (2003) describe ten attributes that are linked to management failure such as “arrogance, melodrama, excessive caution, habitual distrust, aloofness, mischievousness, eccentricity, passive resistance, perfectionism, and eagerness to please”. Rasch, Shen, Davies and Bono (2008) further give attributes of ineffective leadership behaviour which includes “avoiding conflict and people problems, poor emotional control, over-controlling, poor task performance, poor planning, organization and communication, rumour-mongering and inappropriate use of information, procrastination, failure to consider human needs, and failure to manage and nurture talent”.



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Bentz (1985a) also believes that managerial failure indicates overriding personality weakness as an important issue. In many situations leaders fail because of personality problems such as arrogance, competitiveness and aloofness (Bentz, 1985b; Lombardo, Ruderman, & McCauley, 1988; McCall & Lombardo, 1983). Accordingly, the personality weakness as perceived by Bentz (1985a), describes individuals when they are stressed or careless. They are referred to as the “dark side” of personality (Hogan & Hogan, 2001; Hogan, Raskin, & Fazzini, 1990). While the “dark side” characteristics show poor interpersonal strategies that indicate people’s distorted beliefs about others and may negatively influence careers and life satisfaction (Hogan, 1994), they are viewed as good for effective managers (Hogan, *et al.*, 1990).

The poor behaviours associated with the “dark side” include emotional outbursts, bullying, intimidation and excessive deference to authority (Furnham & Taylor, 2004). Thus, over time, poor behavioural strategies become associated with a person’s reputation and eventually lead to management derailment. Continuously engaging in these poor behaviours will undermine a leader’s ability to build and maintain a high functioning team (Hogan *et al.*, 2009). The negative dispositions or the dark side of personality destroy the effectiveness of managers gradually (Conger, 1990; Hogan, 2007; Hogan & Hogan, 2001). Thus, personality impacts the appearance of negative behaviours (Tett & Burnett, 2003; Tett & Guterman, 2000). The significance of personality weaknesses is closely tied to the definition of leadership, where leadership is viewed in this instance as the ability to build and maintain a team that can perform better than others. Thus, personality weaknesses disturb the interpersonal relationships required to establish a team (Hogan, 2007).



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2.4.6 Leadership situation in the South African Context

Hayward (2005) believes that effective leadership is very important in South African organisations as it is throughout the globe. South African organisations strive for internationally competitive performance. The South African situation, however, is very difficult because many organisations are lacking effective leadership (Grobler, Wörnich, Carrell, Elbert & Hatfield, 2002). South Africa is currently ranked 30th out of 49 countries in terms of business efficiency, and this is measured using standards such as productivity, motivation and leadership competence (Hayward, 2005). For South Africa to improve this position and become more competitive in the global environment, South African organisations should have effective leaders that can enhance performance. Mester, Visser and Roodt (2003) believe that South African

organisations know that they are facing a future of rapid and complex change. Many organisations in South Africa are under-led (Carrell, Elbert, Hatfield, Grobler, Marx & Van der Schyf, 1998). However, other scholars suggest that these challenges facing South African organisations may be explained in terms of leaders' personality (Fincham & Rhodes, 2005).

2.5 Local Government

According to Gildenhuys (2004), there are three types of government which are perceived as higher or central government, regional government and local government. The political power is delegated and the local government is allowed to make decisions on its particular matters without intervention and directions from the higher government, provided the requirements of the constitution regarding jurisdiction matters are followed. The delegation of authority defines the power of the local government and leaves it free to make decisions on the matters with no intervention from higher government. The fundamental principle of effective governance is that authority should be properly delegated to the local governments and to allow such governments the maximum autonomy possible. Gildenhuys (2004) also argues that effective governance requires the delegation of authority to local governments, simply because everything cannot be done efficiently and effectively at the central level. In this regards, public managers are employed not only by central governments, but also on local government levels such as municipal administrators (Gildenhuys, 2004).

Public managers are required to understand a particular set of values like public accountability, honesty, justice and reasonableness. Moreover, in modern

democracies, they are required to adhere to democratic principles and a set of ethical standards, and further be guided by community values and common law (Gildenhuis, 2004). Local government organisations are made for achieving the common needs within the framework of the common values of the public (Gildenhuis, 2004). Therefore, local government organisations are created for a purpose. The public managers must therefore, never forget that their major task is to serve the public. The managers manage the local government organisations so that they can achieve the common needs and simultaneously comply with the common values of the public by way of using the management functions (Gildenhuis, 2004). These management functions are decision making, programming, organising, co-ordinating, communication, controlling, planning and exerting leadership (Gildenhuis, 2004).



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2.5.1 Personality Traits and Local Government Managers

The public sector working environments and managerial roles within them are ranging from the very structured and bureaucratic to ambiguous and highly political ones (Gellatly & Irving, 2001). Traditionally, it is believed that only certain few individuals have a natural ability to lead others (Gildenhuis, 2004). This ability is perceived as such factors as influence and personality. Thus, leadership is perceived as an attribute that one can inherit rather than what one can learn. Gildenhuis (2004) argues that it is a common belief that most effective leaders are born with the right personal traits that come naturally.

While this may be correct for political leaders, it may be possible that senior managers can be educated and learn by experience to become effective public

managers. The personal qualities for effective managers are “vitality and endurance, decisiveness, persuasiveness, responsibility and intellectual capacity” (Gildenhuis, 2004). However, local government manager has a complex relationship with those being managed. Managing the potential complexity of this relationship effectively may well be in part explained by the presence of certain personality traits. This relationship involves “persuading, exciting and motivating subordinates as well as explaining performance goals and strategies” (Fincham & Rhodes, 2005).

According to Gildenhuis (2004), the delegation of decision making authority to the local government managers is a management strategy that should be used in a careful manner aimed at the realisation of predetermined goals and objectives. The fundamental objective is to promote efficient and effective administration and management. Gildenhuis (2004) also postulates that effectiveness is an important aspect of public organisations. However, it is another challenging aspect to measure in many spheres of service delivery. Effectiveness in this regard, refers to how well a public organisation achieves its goals and objectives through the use of its budget programmes. Gildenhuis (2004) therefore, argues that where there is no efficient and effective leadership and administration, there can never be efficient and effective governance. Moreover, without educated, skilled and motivated public managers, efficiency and effectiveness will never be achieved (Gildenhuis, 2004).



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According to Borghans, Duckworth, Heckman and ter Weel (2008), conscientiousness is associated with a public managers' responsibility as well as efficient and planning of work. Additionally, conscientiousness has been linked to motivational processes and outcomes (Gellatly, 1996; Motowidlo & Van Scotter,

1994). It is therefore, reasonable to argue that managers who score high on this dimension are more likely to work towards the achievement of their goals and to perform tasks carefully and enthusiastically (Hattrup, O'Connell & Wingate, 1998; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996). This personality trait is important for the functions of local government managers. Conscientiousness is also a valid measure of leadership behaviour (Borghans, Duckworth, Heckman, & ter Weel, 2008). Ham, Junankar and Wells (2009b) further, argue that it increases the individuals' chances of working as a manager.



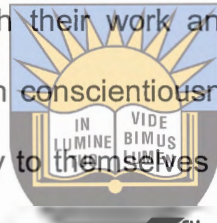
It is also believed that as high levels of extraversion are required in jobs involving social interaction or the communicating and making of decisions, it is significantly expected for local government managers to have high levels of extraversion. This expectation is hinged on the belief that high levels of extraversion to be related to managerial positions (Moutafi, Furnham, & Crump, 2007; Ham, Junankar & Wells, 2009b). Greenburg (2011) postulates that extraversion is more positively related to effectiveness in positions requiring individuals to interact with many other people in the working environment such as managers.

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Additionally, Costa and McCrae (1992), Digman (1990) and Goldberg (1990) argue that extraversion (e.g., assertive, active, and social) and conscientiousness (e.g., achievement-oriented, organized, and exacting) may be more important for the dimensions of contextual performance in managerial functions (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). Contextual performance refers to "those discretionary job-related behaviours such as working hard and helping others which informally contribute to organizational effectiveness but are not formally considered as part of the job"

(Organ & Paine, 1999). In this regards, managers who are high on the personality dimensions of extraversion may be likely better suited for the social and interpersonal needs of the contextual activities such as promoting positive work relationships, interactions with subordinates and public relations (Gellatly & Irving, 2001).

According to Lounsbury and Gibson (2008), local government managers are highly conscientious and methodical in the way they do their work. These kinds of managers are very responsible with their work and are very careful to make a decision. Managers who are high on conscientiousness show a high self-discipline and awareness of their responsibility to themselves and society (Ma'rof Redzuan & Hamsan, 2012). Additionally, these managers fulfil most of their commitments and plans, but they also make their own decisions about when and how they will do so. Consistently, it is argued that some managers are trusted to use their personal discretion in performing their work functions (Gellatly & Irving, 2001).



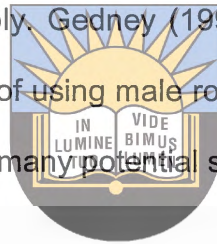
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Local government managers are fairly introverted in their interpersonal style of working (Gellatly & Irving, 2001). They have a good concentration for their work and do not have any problems working quietly on the tasks that need to be completed. Lounsbury and Gibson (2008) further argue that local government managers are highly honest and rule-following. They usually adhere to organisation norms, values, and policies on their job. Moreover, they work hard enough to meet the demands of their jobs (Lounsbury & Gibson, 2008).

2.6 Demographic variables and Leadership effectiveness

2.6.1 Gender and Leadership effectiveness

The perception of gender as an important concept of all aspects of everyday life and society has become more and more common (Ijeoma, 2010). The concept of gender was for the first time brought about in the 1970s by a group of feminists. Ijeoma (2010) argues that the underlying reason was to use the notion of gender as a measure for understanding the fact that women do not relate to men in much the same way in all situations in every culture, and more significantly, that the position of women in society varies considerably. Gedney (1999) also argues that leadership has been explained mainly in terms of using male role models. Accordingly, this has created a gap in the development of many potential senior female leaders.



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However, with the advent of women in organisations, the study of leadership has thus extended to include feminine and masculine leadership behaviours (Deal & Stevenson, 1998). Male and female managers have been found to possess different leadership traits which are the characteristic of their gender (Heilman, Block & Martell, 1995). The current South African working environment gives men and women enough chances to move into leadership positions. However, the challenge is that these positions are still generally stereotyped and are not taken seriously by women (Werner, 2007).

According to Gedney (1999), leadership effectiveness is not gender sensitive. There are many characteristics that are found in both males and females that put themselves in a favourable position to becoming an effective leader. In the past, many people believed that leadership is commonly a man's position (Kolb & Judith

1997). Kanter (1977) however, suggests that if women in organisations become leaders, it is imperative that they are taken as individuals who can lead others effectively. Also, men and women have more similarities than differences in their leadership behaviours, and are equally effective (Gedney, 1999). Although these groups are more similar than different, women are still having less chances of being pre-selected as leaders, and that similar leadership behaviour is often evaluated more positively when shown by a male than a female.

It has also been found that when men are more than women, they emerge as effective leaders hundred percent of the times (Gedney, 1999). However, when females are more than men, they also emerge as effective leaders but not above the expectations one would have on the basis of chance. The probability that a female would become an effective leader increases as the number of women in the organisation increase. A study conducted by Gedney (1999) showed that female students in Masters of Business Administration program viewed themselves as having more masculine characteristics than feminine characteristics. This may therefore, suggests that masculine gender role characteristics rather than biological sex may be an important aspect of gender that is associated with leadership effectiveness.

Gedney (1999) also argues that women that are having more authority in organisations often display more masculine characteristics than are women having less authority. This study also suggested that there is no biological sex difference in the self or group perceptions of leadership effectiveness (Gedney, 1999). Feminine traits do not lend themselves to leading to women viewing themselves as effective



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leaders. Only the females with strong masculine attributes view themselves as effective leaders most of the times.

Gedney (1999) argues that individuals who talk too much are viewed as leaders more often than less talkative members of a group. In classroom situations, females view themselves as effective leaders more than males do. Although women are accepted in leadership positions, many men still believe that leadership is their domain. The only reason why women are in the leadership positions at all today is completely based on civilian political pressure (Gedney, 1999).



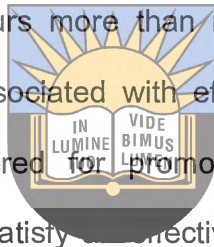
According to Gedney (1999), people think that certain things are simply better done by men than women. However, the mere fact that a woman can perform a complex task, for instance, leadership task, reduces the value of the men who are doing that same task. Eagly, Makhijani and Klonsky (1992) also argue that females in leadership positions are evaluated slightly more negatively than their male counterparts. Males have a stronger tendency to devalue women in leadership positions than female do. Gedney (1999) further argues that when women are asked to describe the characteristics they would consider being associated with an effective leadership style of males and females, they indicate that female leaders are higher in both consideration and initiating structure than male leaders are. This argument is consistent with Likert (1961) who found that this pattern of leadership seems to be effective in many situations.

Stereotypes often work to the disadvantage of women. It is perceived in this manner because women do not satisfy with the perceivers' characteristics of effective

leaders (Gedney, 1999). Consequently, they may not be considered for promotion and developmental opportunities in favour of men who are more often viewed as associated with effective leadership. This argument suggests that there are still many challenges which women must overcome first in order for them to be considered as effective leaders.

In transformational leadership, there may be differences in the leadership behaviours shown by men and women (Gedney, 1999). Thus, members of one gender may reveal effective leadership behaviours more than members of the other gender. There may also be stereotypes associated with effective leadership that hinders many women from being considered for promotion and career development opportunities because they do not satisfy the effective leadership stereotype. Cann and Siegfried (1990) also argues that gender role stereotypes suggest that female-stereotypical forms of leadership behaviour are interpersonal-oriented and collaborative while male-stereotypical forms of leadership behaviour are task-oriented and dominating. Women are thus viewed as more democratic or participative while men are viewed as more autocratic or directive. Eagly and Johnson's (1990) meta-analysis show that the tendency to devalue female leaders is larger when women are behaving autocratically than when they are behaving in accord with any other style.

Gender role congruency of female leaders' behaviour determines the extent to which they experience role conflict and fail to satisfy the standards expected by other of their behaviour (Betz & Fitzgerald, 1987; Jago & Vroom, 1982; Nieva & Gutek, 1981; Powell, 1990; Terborg, 1977; Watson, 1988). Thus, the degree to which women



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reveal a masculine behaviour, increases their role conflict, and as a result increases their chances of getting unfairly negative evaluations. Pratch and Jacobowitz (1996) argue that gender role balance has a different meaning for the evaluation of male leaders' behaviours because male leaders do not experience a basic role conflict that is similar to the conflict that female leaders experience in their dual roles as women and leaders. Thus, the standards of behaviour that is considered appropriate for an effective leader coincides well with beliefs about the behaviour that is considered appropriate for men (Bass, 1990; Eagly & Johnson, 1992; Kruse & Wintermantel, 1986; O'Leary, 1974).



Furthermore, female leaders' behaviours may be critically examined because of their role conflict while men are allowed to lead in different masculine or feminine ways without facing negative reactions because their styles of leading are generally viewed as legitimate (Pratch & Jacobowitz, 1996). Therefore male leaders are not generally limited by the attitudinal bias of their co-workers. They also argue that if there is a generally accepted level of competence, many of the behaviours whether they are congruent or divergent from the male gender role, are highly likely to be accepted in male leaders. Consequently, female leaders are relatively limited in the behaviours that may be seen as effective because of the conflict they face as women and leaders (Pratch & Jacobowitz, 1996).

According to Gredney (1999), transformational leadership occurs when a leader engages with subordinates in such a way that both parties are high in motivation and morality with the same goal. Females behave in a more transformational way as leaders than males do. This may therefore, suggest that females are effective

leaders because other scholars have also shown that transformational characteristics are the qualities of effective leadership.

Gedney (1999) further argues that gender differences may or may not lead to someone becoming a more effective leader, but it may simply be the style of the leader that is important for a leadership position. This scholar also argues that female leaders are perceived as being more transformational by female subordinates than male leaders who are judged by male subordinates. Accordingly, the scholar suggests that transformational leadership may be a more feminine style of leading. It is more likely to develop in all female organisations where women are leading and are not much restricted in their leadership styles. Gedney (1999) argues that because females are largely viewed as being more transformational, they may in fact, be more accepted as effective leaders when organisations need transformational leaders in these years where change is inevitable.



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2. 6. 2 Age and Leadership effectiveness

The increasing age of the workforce in different cultures has heightened an attention in the effect of age in organisational behaviour among organisational researchers (Bowen, Noack, & Staudinger, in press; Kanfer & Ackerman, 2004; Raymo, Warren, Sweeney, Hauser, & Ho, 2010; Yeung & Fung, 2009; Zacher & Frese, 2009). Most researchers investigated the relationships between age and different facets of subordinates behaviour (Ng & Feldman, 2008; Zacher, Heusner, Schmitz, Zwierzanska, & Frese, 2010). The studies on the relationship between age and leadership behaviours have been neglected and only limited leadership researches

have been done in the organizational behaviour that investigated age as an independent variable (Zacher, Rosing, & Frese, in press).

Scholars believe that the malgamation of age and age-related developmental tasks such as generativity may significantly influence leadership effectiveness and outcomes (McAdams, de St. Aubin, & Logan, 1993; Peterson & Duncan, 2007; Ryff & Heincke, 1983). It is also argued that the leader age and leadership effectiveness may not be exactly related (Ng & Feldman, 2008; Warr, 2001). Consistent with the previous argument, the few available findings on the leader age and leadership effectiveness have generally confirmed that only insignificant relationships have been found. Vecchio (1993) argues that the leader age and subordinates satisfaction with leader is not significantly associated. Yamamoto, Fritz, Markin and Marx (2007) argue that there is an insignificant relationship between the leader age and the subordinates' satisfaction, and with subordinates' work commitment. However, there is a significant relationship between leader age and leader effectiveness. Vecchio and Anderson (2009) however, argue that there is a small and insignificant relationship between leader age and subordinates views of their leader effectiveness.



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According to the geneativity theory (Erikson, 1950; McAdams & de St. Aubin, 1998), leader generativity is viewed as the leaders' behaviours directed at developing and controlling subordinates who are of the younger generation, while paying less attention on their own needs, careers, and accomplishments. Leader generativity is more essential for developing leadership effectiveness at older than at younger ages because subordinates normatively believe that older and experienced leaders should

behave in generative ways; something that cannot be done by younger leaders. Consistently, researchers argue that the interrelationship impact of the leader age and leader generativity on leadership effectiveness is aided by the subordinates' own views of the type of leader member exchange (LMX) relationship, which has been viewed as an essential leadership process factor (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Researchers support the argument that generative attitudes and behaviours develop from young leaders to old and experienced leaders (Keyes & Ryff, 1998; McAdams, de St. Aubin, & Logan, 1993; Sheldon & Kasser, 2001; Stewart & Vandewater, 1998).



The socio-emotional selectivity theory (Carstensen, 1995) argues that age-related reductions in the perception of the amount of time remaining leads to a selection of emotionally important and generative goals. The decreases in future time perspective indeed causes an individual to focus on generativity goals (Lang & Carstensen, 2002). The importance of goals related to personal needs and one's own development decreases as the leader becomes old. Accordingly, the older leaders' passion to lead is not likely to be similar to that of younger ones.

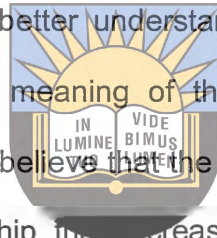
2.6.3 Education and Leadership effectiveness

Labawing (2000) states that local government managers are supposed to be given regular training programs such as seminars and workshops to better understand the responsibilities and accountabilities given in the local government code. The subject content to be covered during these education seminars and workshops for the managers may include how to communicate effectively, how to co-ordinate and give support to development projects, how to make quality decisions and how to evaluate

performance and give feedback. It is possible that managers can be educated and can also learn by their experience to become leading public managers (Gildenhuis, 2004). Scholars also argue that managers are employed mainly for their formal education and previous merits achieved (Hooijberg, Hunt & Dodge, 1997).

Goleman (1998) also believes that the leaders' effectiveness is related to drive, motivation, integrity, self-confidence, intelligence, and emotional intelligence. The researcher believes that all these attributes can be increased through education.

This education helps managers to better understand themselves and others, the emotional traits of others and the meaning of these traits for work behaviour. Sadeghi and Lope Pihie (2012) also believe that the style used by a leader is one of



the most critical factors of leadership that increases leadership effectiveness. A leadership style is a behaviour that a leader reveals while guiding subordinates in the right directions (Certo & Certo, 2006). Accordingly, it is believed that leaders can improve their style through experience, education and training.

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Educational performance is viewed as one of the most effective measures of good job performance across many different jobs (Gottfredson, 1997; Schmidt & Hunter, 1998). In this regards, educational performance may be related to leadership effectiveness. It is further argued that educational performance is a significant and predictive attribute of effective leadership (Bass, 1990; House & Aditya, 1997; Judge, Colbert, & Ilies, 2004; Lord, de Vader, & Alliger, 1986). Moreover, it is also believed that education is critical for effective leadership, and this is theoretically founded on different leadership behaviours that need strong mental abilities such as problem

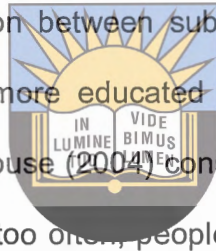
solving, planning, communicating, decision making, and creative thinking (Tett, Guterman, Bleier, & Murphy, 2000; Yukl & Van Fleet, 1992).

Intelligence is viewed as a person's all-around effectiveness in activities controlled by thought (Gedney, 1999). Accordingly, intelligence is also considered in this discussion because it is strongly related to educational achievement (Hernstein & Murray, 1994). Leadership and intelligence seems to be related (Gedney, 1999). It is also confirmed that more than 200 studies conducted and documented since 1963 reveal a great evidence for the notion that leadership effectiveness is positively related to intelligence (Gedney, 1999).



Miller (2004) argues that many public managers are not adequately educated to meet the needs of leadership positions. These managers need educational support when they are being given leadership roles. Although the public managers are accountable to the government for their behaviours, the government also is accountable to its managers (Miller, 2004). Accordingly, the government must determine the educational support its managers may need in order to be effective. It is believed that many state education departments and professional organisation (e.g. leadership associations) are now providing leadership mentoring programmes (Miller, 2004). Thus, providing such programmes can help reduce professional isolation, promote teamwork and encourage reflective thinking (Speck & Kroverts, 1996). The way managers can develop clear goals and pursue those goals in the organisation may be achieved through aligning their education to job responsibilities. The foregoing arguments therefore, suggest that education may be related to leadership effectiveness.

Labawig (2000) however, argues that educational attainment has less impact on leadership effectiveness of managers with regards to communication, coordinating and support, decision making and evaluation of performance and giving feedback. Goleman (1998) concur with Labawig (2000) in that the most important factor that distinguishes effective leaders is not their education but their emotional intelligence quotient (EQ). One cannot conclude strongly that the most educated people are always necessarily the most effective leaders (Gedney, 1999). Being more educated than your subordinates can lead to ineffective leadership. Accordingly, this is hinged on the argument that communication between subordinates and leaders may be precluded if the leader is greatly more educated than the people the leader is supposed to lead. Guion and Highhouse (2004) consistently, argue that educational requirements are rarely useful, and too often, people with high quality education do not have the competencies to match the job. These arguments therefore, suggest that education may not be related to leadership effectiveness.



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2.7 Personality Traits and Leadership Effectiveness

2.7.1 Conscientiousness and Leadership Effectiveness

According to Greenburg (2011), conscientiousness has the strongest relation with performance in ones job. From the path goal theory, the effectiveness of leaders is determined by their performance (i.e. goal achievement) in organisations. Meta-analysis studies also confirm that effective leaders are highly conscientiousness (e.g. reliable, hard working, dependable, achievement oriented, and concerned with quality and standards (Fincham & Rhodes, 2005). These scholars argue that a highly conscientious leader has a strong and deeply internalised work ethic that developed during their childhood. The high conscientious individual's need for achievement

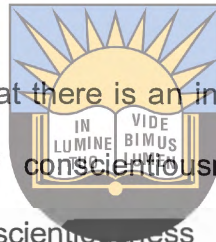
comes not only from the strong desire to satisfy the standards of others but also from having very high self-standards. However, living according to this precise social identity can be stressful. Moreover, these high self-standards also mean a very strong concern about the quality of organisational outputs, shown for instance, in a strong concern with the quality of customer service (Fincham & Rhodes, 2005).

Conscientiousness means more than a strong work ethic. Some of its relationships with leadership effectiveness may come from leaders having clear principles (i.e. strong sense of right and wrong). This quality of conscientiousness is similar to a moral fibre, an attribute found by LeVick (2002) (Fincham & Rhodes, 2005). They are therefore, not likely to be leaders who are "quixotic, arbitrary, and expedient in their style of leading" (Fincham & Rhodes, 2005). Highly conscientious leaders are more likely to be trusted to make the right decisions that are fair and satisfy the needs of all stakeholders (Fincham & Rhodes, 2005). According to Vinai and Satita (2003), self-regulation has a positive relation with leadership effectiveness. However, conscientiousness is regarded as one of the attributes that describe self-regulation. Accordingly, it is not far-fetched to argue that conscientiousness as a characteristic of self-regulation may also be positively related to leadership effectiveness.

Neuman, Wagner and Christiansen (1999) also argue that team performance is positively related to conscientiousness. Leader group prototypicality is defined as the degree to which the leader has the attributes of the group and is representative of the group's identity (van Knippenberg, van Knippenberg, de Cremer, & Hogg, 2004). According to the attribution theory, the performance of the team can be attributed to its leadership. The leadership effectiveness may be conceptualised at group-level

performance (Kaiser, Hogan, & Craig, 2008). The Path-goal theory further argues that for leaders to be effective, they engage in behaviours that support subordinates environments and abilities in a manner that compensates for shortages, and is instrumental to subordinates satisfaction and individual performance (House, 1996). These arguments therefore, suggest that conscientiousness may be positively related with leadership effectiveness. Hains, Hogg and Duck (1997) consistently, argue that leader group prototypicality influences the understanding of leadership effectiveness.

Neuman *et al.*, (1999) also argue that there is an insignificant relationship between the team members' low level of conscientiousness and team performance. Accordingly, this implies that conscientiousness may be related to leadership effectiveness if the behaviour of team members is understood to be influenced by the behaviour of their leaders.



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According to de Vries (2008), charismatic leadership has all the qualities of effective leadership behaviour, and it has highly positive relations especially with conscientiousness. From this belief, it can be generally argued that leadership effectiveness may be one of the qualities of charismatic leadership. Hence, conscientiousness may be positively related to leadership effectiveness. Burns (1978) argues that transformational leadership is highest on the scale of leadership effectiveness. Accordingly, it can also be argued that conscientiousness may determine transformational leadership because transformational leaders are industrious and achievement-oriented (Phipps & Prieto, 2011). Moreover, since conscientiousness is associated with the need for achievement, it is therefore,

possible that conscientious individuals will be willing to make significant changes to achieve goals. This flexibility is important to a change-oriented leader (Phipps & Prieto, 2011). This therefore, suggests that conscientiousness may be associated with leadership effectiveness.

McCauley, Drath, Palus, O'Connor and Baker (2006) also argue that transformational leadership is more significantly related with many leadership outcomes such as subordinates satisfaction and group performance (Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996). They energise their subordinates to accomplish challenging goals by modelling their personal values such as fairness and integrity and therefore, uniting subordinates and changing their attitudes and beliefs. Accordingly, as transformational leadership has attributes of conscientiousness and is related to leadership effectiveness, it is also possible to argue that conscientiousness may be related to leadership effectiveness. Using a democratic leadership style helps managers to make quality decisions (Alkahtani, Abu-Jarad, Sulaiman & Nikbin, 2011). This style is also positively related to leadership effectiveness. Moreover, this style is also related to conscientiousness (Alkahtani *et al.*, 2011). Therefore, this suggests that conscientiousness may be related to leadership effectiveness.



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Bin Daud *et al.*, (2011) argue that conscientious managers believe in good and sound facts and information in order to make good grievance management results. Once grievance resolution is reached, conscientious managers will plan, organize, direct and control the implementation. They will then help the subordinates to follow the actions that have been planned and give them a necessary feedback for control

purposes (Bin Daud *et al.*, 2011). This is consistent with the path-goal theory, which argues that leaders are effective when they are able to clarify the subordinates' goals, and hence the job performance derived from achieving these goals (House, 1971).

Bin Daud *et al.*, (2011) also states that the relationship between integrating and conscientiousness is strong. A more conscientious manager is prepared for mutual problem solving (Antonioni, 1998). Integrating is concerned with the parties working together (openness, exchange of information and examination of differences) to reach an acceptable solution to both parties (Rahim & Magner, 1995). It also refers to the ability of managers to work with their subordinates to develop a strategy that fully satisfies their needs. To support this notion that effective leaders use an integrating style when solving problems, Likert (1961) argues that leaders high on consideration are concerned mainly with developing good relations with their subordinates, explaining things to them, and promoting their welfare. Accordingly, conscientiousness may be related to leadership effectiveness as it is also related to an integrating style of management.

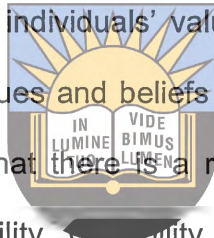


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According to Kouzes and Posner (1997), leadership credibility is explained by the five factors on "leadership practices inventory". In other words, the five factors are regarded as a useful definition of leadership credibility. These five leadership practices or behaviours are "challenging the process (forward-looking, dynamic, search for opportunities, risk), inspiring a shared vision (envision future, inspiring), enabling others to act (trusting relationships, strengthen others), modelling the way

(honest, set the example, trustworthiness), and encouraging the heart (just, fair, sincere, recognize contributions)”.

Kouzes and Posner (1993) argue that credibility reveals the way leaders gain the trust and confidence of their subordinates. It also shows the behaviours of leaders which are honesty, future-oriented, inspiring, and competent behaviours (Kouzes & Posner, 1993). It is believed that the credibility of the behaviours of leaders is the only most important determinant of their support over time. It is an attribute that develops from the alignment of the individuals' values, beliefs and behaviours. In other words, leaders model their values and beliefs using their behaviours. Kouzes and Posner (1993 & 1995) found that there is a relationship between leadership effectiveness and leadership credibility. Credibility is regarded as an attribute of conscientiousness. Accordingly, this may also suggest that conscientiousness may be associated with leadership effectiveness.



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Sashkin (1990) perceives organisational trust as the confidence that the subordinates have towards their leaders and the extent to which they believe in their leaders' behaviours. In visionary leadership theory, trust also aligns with credible leadership which is regarded as one of the four significant transformational leadership behaviours (Sashkin, 1996). The scholar argues that the relationship between leadership effectiveness and trustworthiness has been more researched. These arguments are consistent with Kouzes and Posner (1993; 1995) who also argued that there is a relationship between leadership effectiveness and leadership credibility.

Moreover, Badarocco and Ellsworth (1989) examined the value of integrity on leadership. They defined integrity as the “consistency of personal beliefs and values, daily work behaviour and organizational objectives”. Thus, integrity as so defined, is similar to modelling the way behaviour (honest and trustworthy) of the leadership practices inventory. Hogan and Ones (1997) also argue that conscientious leaders have integrity. Parry and Proctor-Thomson (2002) furthered the research of Badarocco and Ellsworth (1989) by investigating the relationship between integrity and leadership effectiveness. Consequently, a strong positive relationship was found between the two variables. Accordingly, this finding also suggested that there might be a relationship between conscientiousness and leadership effectiveness because integrity defines conscientiousness.



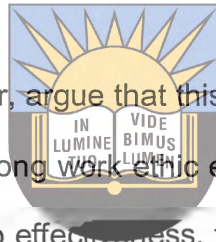
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Barrick, Stewart and Piotrowski (2002) also studied the notion that there is a relationship between conscientiousness (i.e., striving for status and accomplishment) and leadership effectiveness. Conscientious managers have a strong need to achieve their obligations such as task accomplishment. The individuals high on conscientiousness will show a strong need for achievement. Barrick *et al.* (2002) therefore, argue that these achievement striving goals support this positive relationship between conscientiousness and leadership effectiveness.

The conscientiousness–leadership effectiveness relationship is supported by the leaders’ achievement and status striving. This means that high achievement and status needs explain the relationship between conscientiousness and leadership effectiveness (Barrick *et al.*, 2002). Conscientiousness is related to leaders’

performance (Barrick & Mount, 1991). Therefore, this suggests that conscientiousness may be related to leader effectiveness.

Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991) argue that initiative and persistence are related to leadership. It is argued that leaders must be highly persistent in their activities and provide other supporting programs. Thus, conscientious leaders have a high tenacity (Goldberg, 1990). It is possible that conscientious leaders might be highly effective leaders.



Fincham and Rhodes (2005) however, argue that this relationship evidence can hide a more complex reality. While the strong work ethic embedded in conscientiousness is a significant measure of leadership effectiveness, the concern with following other people's standards is not necessarily always a measure of effectiveness. These scholars further argue that some effective leaders are "quite maverick and individualistic in their strategy". Thus, the decision of the maverick, individualist leaders themselves only to stretch the legal obligations within which they are expected to operate can work against them. There is no relation between conscientiousness and leaders performance (Robertson *et al.*, 2000). Yukl (2002) further argues that hundreds of traits studies were done, but conscientiousness failed to correlate in a significant and consistent manner with leadership effectiveness.

Moreover, highly conscientious leaders may be very careful and analytical in their work behaviours, and therefore, less motivated to introduce new things or take risks. This means that conscientious leaders do not accept innovation and change, and

take long time to make critical decision-making which is affected by their desire to have enough information and evidence that supports their decisions (Hogan & J. Hogan, 2001). Also, leaders who are highly conscientious may be negatively affected by turbulent environments and organizational change. They develop stress when approaching deadlines and heavy workloads that force them not to satisfy their strong desires to follow strict and organized procedures. Accordingly, conscientious leaders are less likely to accept change (LePine, Colquitt, & Erez, 2000). This might lead to poor organizational performance, failure to take advantages of organizational resources and missed opportunities for aggressive investment in new business segments.



While conscientious leaders may be very careful in their work behaviour and attentive to detail, highly conscientious leaders may become perfectionists, inflexible about procedures and policies, and critical of their subordinates' performance (Hogan & J. Hogan, 2001). It is also argued that leaders who possess high conscientiousness and low on agreeableness may be harsh and impersonal with their subordinates when giving negative feedback (Witt, Andrews, & Carlson, 2004). Although conscientious leaders may consider the preferences of a work group, they may be less motivated to make strategic decisions that against all odds work against consensus opinion. Accordingly, conscientious leaders are not likely to be viewed as inspirational leaders (Bono & Judge, 2004).

2.7.2 Extraversion and Leadership Effectiveness

According to Fincham and Rhodes (2005), leadership effectiveness is statistically related with high levels of extraversion (i.e. leaders are lively, socially confident, and

affiliative). The energy, enthusiasm and more expressive behaviour of an extravert leader are significant facets of this attribute of leadership. This is almost similar to what Leveck (2002) viewed as a “youthful energy”. Leaders should make subordinates happy about what the organisation is doing. Handy (2002) also argues that passion is the only important defining characteristic of his leaders who created successful organisations out of nothing. Extraverts are temperamentally more favoured than introverts to have this enthusiasm and zest to take their leadership responsibilities (Fincham & Rhodes, 2005).



According to Judge *et al.*, (2002), extraversion is one of the most significant associations of leadership effectiveness. Bond and Judge (2004) also argue that charismatic leadership (i.e. a combination of idealized influence and inspirational motivation) is highly related to extraversion. Leadership effectiveness is one of the main attributes of charismatic leadership. Hence, it is possible to generally argue that extraversion and leadership effectiveness may be related. Consistently, de Vries (2008) argue that charismatic leadership has all the unique attributes of a very effective leadership style, with highly positive relations especially with extraversion.

It is also argued that extraversion has a relation with goal attainment (Mount, Barrick, & Stewart, 1998). Thus, goal attainment in this regard, is interpreted as leadership effectiveness because it is one of the areas that measure a leaders' performance (Andersen, 2006). Greenburg (2011) further argues that extraversion is positively related to task performance in all job positions. Accordingly, leadership effectiveness is positively related to extraversion.

Antonioni (1998) also believes that extravert managers show their co-operative behaviours when solving problems, actively develop alternatives for grievance resolution and highly communicates when conveying information. Extravert managers are more concerned with others. According to House (1971), in path-goal theory, effective leaders create favourable environments for subordinates (i.e., are able to resolve conflicts with subordinates) so that they can achieve the organisational goals. Yahya *et al.*, (2011) also argue that extraversion is the significant measure of the integrating grievance management style. Consistent with the notion that effective leaders use an integrating style when solving problems, Likert (1961) argues that leaders high on consideration leadership behaviour are concerned mainly with developing good relations with their subordinates, clarifying problem areas to them, and ensuring their welfare. Accordingly, these arguments suggest that extraversion may be related to leadership effectiveness.



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Engagement is important to all the dimensions of transformational leadership. Rubin, Munz and Bommer (2005) believe that extraversion is the main attribute promoting the mutual engagement of leaders and subordinates. It is argued that considering the value of extraversion in both meta-analysis of transformational leadership and a prior meta-analysis of leadership effectiveness, it appears that extraversion is an attribute that shows significant relations with important leadership behaviours (Judge & Bono, 2000). This suggests that extraversion is related to transformational leadership behaviours. Therefore, it may also be related to leadership effectiveness.

In a meta-analysis study of the relationship between personality and leadership effectiveness, it is argued that extraversion is the most consistent attribute that

relates to leadership effectiveness in different research settings and leadership criteria (Judge, Bono, Ilies & Gerhardt, 2002). These findings suggest that extraverted subordinates are importantly more likely to become leaders in selection and promotion decisions and therefore be regarded as effective leaders by both supervisors and subordinates (Grant, Gino & Hofmann, 2011). Extraversion is the only personality attribute that measures high transformational leadership performance (Ployhart, Lim, & Chan, 2001). The relation between extraversion and transformational leadership can be linked to genetically heritable sources (Johnson, Vernon, Harris, & Jang, 2004).



It is also argued that available studies have concentrated much on observers' perceptions of leadership effectiveness and not considering the objective performance of the groups and organizations that leaders control and lead (Judge *et al.*, 2002). This is a significant predictor of leaders' actual effectiveness (Kaiser, Hogan, & Craig, 2008). Accordingly, it is possible that, although extraversion is a consistent measure of supervisor and subordinate perceptions of leadership effectiveness, it may not always contribute significantly to the performance of a group.

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Alkahtani, Abu-Jarad, Sulaiman and Nikbin (2011) believe that leaders with extravert attributes are predisposed to lead meetings, make presentations and lead change. An ability to lead change is one of the predictors of leadership effectiveness. It is argued that it is the leaders' duty to lead change in the organizations (Alkahtani, *et al.*, 2011). In other words, these arguments mean that extraverts are effective

leaders. Overallly, this suggests that extraversion may be associated with leadership effectiveness.

It was found that there is an inconsistent relationship between extraversion and leadership effectiveness (Bass, 1990). This is shown in early studies conducted between 1904 and 1947 where extraversion was positively related to leadership effectiveness in five studies, negatively related in three and showed no relation in four studies. Judge *et al.*, (2002) however, argue that extraversion has the most consistent relation with leadership effectiveness. Gough (1990) further argues that both of the major facets of extraversion which are dominance and sociability are related to leadership effectiveness. Considering this evidence, extraversion may be positively related to leadership effectiveness, thus, also suggesting that extraversion may be the most significant attribute of effective leaders.



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Fincham and Rhodes (2005) however, argue that the extravert personality constructs is very difficult to understand and it means that effectiveness is not necessarily always available in an extravert leader. Some leaders that are high on this measure of extraversion only have the enthusiasm and social confidence part of the extravert. The extraverts do not have social anxiety and this enables them to make a good first impression and develop a quick rapport with others. However, this social responsiveness can be fairly superficial, allowing extravert leaders to link with others socially but not personally (Fincham & Rhodes, 2005). It is argued that the relationship between extraversion and leadership effectiveness should therefore, not be perceived as necessarily a sign that effective leaders have a stronger identification with others.

Yukl (2002) argues that personality traits are less important than skills for effective leadership. This argument generally suggests that extraversion may be less related to leadership effectiveness. Gibb (1969) argues that there is no research evidence for a relationship between leaders' personality and their effectiveness. Hartman (1999) further argues that personality attributes may not predict and relate to leadership practices. Accordingly, it can also be generally argued that there may be no relationship between extraversion and leadership effectiveness.

Moreover, it is argued that leaders who are highly extraverted sometimes show impudent, aggressive and grandiose behaviours. Thus, they like all the attention to go to them, quickly change from one discussion or idea to another, and are more likely to over-estimate their own abilities (Hogan & J. Hogan, 2001). Accordingly, extraverted leaders are less likely to encourage the contributions from subordinates and colleagues, potentially alienating organizational members who want to participate in decision making. Extraverted leaders may participate in short and shallow discussions with many people in an organization and because of that, may not be able to give a clear strategic direction for subordinates. Consequently, this makes extraverted leaders difficult to satisfy. Finally, it is argued that as individuals who need sensation to maintain short-term passion for projects, people, and idea; extraverted leaders are likely to make very quick decisions to pursue aggressive investments (Beauducel, Brocke, & Leue, 2006). However, they change the direction prematurely if the profits on such investments do not come on an extravert's bold and aggressive schedules.



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The scholars argue that extraversion as defined by assertiveness and gregariousness, surprisingly does not measure transformational leadership (Rubin, Munz, & Bommer, 2005). De Hoogh, Den Hartog and Koopman (2005) also argue that there is no relationship between extraversion and transformational leadership regardless of the work environment which theoretically should contribute towards determining whether leaders are open with subordinates and communicate with them every time. Accordingly, since transformational leadership has the qualities of effective leadership, these arguments therefore, suggest that extraversion may not be related to leadership effectiveness.



2.7.3 Additive effect of conscientiousness and extraversion

According to Kasapoglu (2011), effective leaders possess personality traits, but the appropriate mixture differs for different groups or industries. DeRue *et al.*, (2011) suggest that leaders who are high in conscientiousness and extraversion are highly likely to be seen as effective leaders. Overall, conscientiousness is the most reliable measure of leadership effectiveness. Singh (2009) also argues that overall, extraversion and conscientiousness are important attributes for leadership effectiveness. However, the additive effect of the two factors of conscientiousness and extraversion is not exactly stated. DeRue *et al.* (2011) further suggests that for overall leader effectiveness, the most important leader traits are extraversion and conscientiousness. These traits are useful in different task competence and interpersonal work behaviours, and are together positively related to leadership effectiveness.

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In person-oriented and production-oriented leadership theory, one specific pattern of leadership appears to be effective in different situations. This is the pattern of leadership in which leaders show high concern for both production and people (Likert, 1961). From this conceptualization of leadership effectiveness, conscientiousness is represented by the high concern for production dimension while extraversion is represented by the high concern for people dimension (DeRue *et al.*, 2011). This understanding is also supported by Kasapoglu (2011) who believes that being organised, self-disciplined and persistent is important for task-oriented leadership behaviours.



Conscientious leaders in this conceptualisation are concerned with tasks performance and production standards. Bass and Bass (2008) consistently views conscientiousness as the attribute related to task competence. The extraverted leaders are concerned with their relations with subordinates. Costa and McCrae (1992) also defines extraversion as an interpersonal attribute. Also, person-oriented behaviours (i.e., friendliness, approachability and concern with pleasant interpersonal relationships) are closely associated with the attributes of extraversion such as the tendency to be sociable, outgoing, gregarious, warm-hearted, expressive and talkative (Kasapoglu, 2011). Accordingly, the person-oriented and production-oriented theory generally suggests that conscientiousness and extraversion together may be related to leadership effectiveness.

According to de Vries (2008), charismatic leadership has all the qualities of an effective leadership style, with highly positive relations especially with conscientiousness. Bono and Judge (2004) consistently argue that charismatic

leadership (i.e. a combination of idealized influence and inspirational motivation) is highly related to extraversion. Thus, it appears that leadership effectiveness is the main attribute of charismatic leadership. Accordingly, these arguments suggest that conscientiousness and extraversion are both qualities of charismatic leadership which is highly effective leadership behaviour. It is therefore, possible to argue that these two factors when combined may be strongly related to leadership effectiveness.

Furthermore, Graham and Franks (2003) believes that conscientiousness and extraversion together lead to the “general leadership efficacy” and the “specific leadership efficacy”. Consequently, these two factors together leads to effective leader behaviours. These beliefs also suggest that conscientiousness and extraversion when combined may be strongly associated with leadership effectiveness. Silverthorne (2001) also argue that effective leaders are more conscientious and more extraverted than those that are ineffective. Accordingly, this proposition supports using these personality attributes to predict potentially effective leaders.



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Previous studies have not clearly studied the additive effect of conscientiousness and extraversion, and leadership effectiveness. Hence, the current study seeks for empirical evidence in this relationship.

2.8 Conclusion

This chapter covered literature relating to theories of leadership personality and leadership effectiveness; conscientiousness, extraversion, leadership and leadership

effectiveness. Attention was given to literature dealing with the relationship between demographic variables and leadership effectiveness, conscientiousness and leadership effectiveness; extraversion and leadership effectiveness, and additive conscientiousness and extraversion and leadership effectiveness. It was illustrated that demographic variables, conscientiousness and extraversion may lead to leadership effectiveness. Moreover, it was also argued that additive effect of conscientiousness and extraversion may lead to leadership effectiveness. However, contrasting arguments were also put forward, that demographic variables, conscientiousness and extraversion may not lead to leadership effectiveness. It was therefore, suggested that further research was needed to confirm and disconfirm these propositions.



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CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter focused on the research methodology used for this study. The chapter discusses aspects such as population, sample size, sampling procedure, the data collection method and instruments used, data collection procedure and data analysis.



3.2 Research Methodology

3.2.1 Research design

According to Leedy and Ormrod (2002, p. 100), research design is the “complete strategy for the attack on the central research problem”. It provides the overall structure of the procedures that the researcher follows, the data that the researcher collects and the data analysis that the researcher conducts; simply put research in the planning. This study used a survey research method because it provides an opportunity to examine correlations among participant’s responses and to look for possible patterns of cause and effect (Bailey, 1982). With a survey research, this study used a quantitative research design.

3.2.2 Population of study

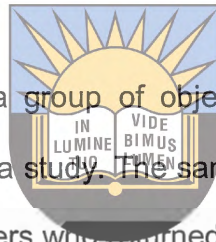
According to Hair, Wolfinbarger, Ortinau and Bush (2008, p. 129), a research population is the “identifiable set of interest to the researcher and pertinent to the information problem”. It entails the specification of the survey group which have been

studied. The research population (N=261) for the current study included male and female managers working in local government in Bisho and East London. However, twenty-one managers were not available when the study was conducted. This population of managers constituted of top-level, middle-level and lower-level managers. Thus, all the management groups working for local government in Bisho and East London were considered.

3.2.3 Sampling and Sampling procedures

3.2.3.1 Sampling

Gray (2004) defines a sample as a group of objects, occurrences or individuals chosen from the main population for a study. The sample of the present study is (n = 222). This is the figure of the managers who returned usable questionnaires from the population (N=240) that was given the questionnaires. The study focused on the local government managers in Bisho and East London.



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3.2.3.2 Sampling procedure

The sampling procedure that the research study used is convenience sampling. Convenience sampling is simply defined as the process where a researcher uses any member of the population that is available during the research process without considering their criteria (Welman, Kruger & Mitchell, 2005). It is a non-probability sampling procedure, and because of that, not all elements had an equal opportunity of being included or selected in the sample. It involved selecting haphazardly those managers that were easiest to obtain for the sample. The sample selection process continued until the required sample size was reached.

3.2.3.3 Biographical and occupational description of the sample

This part shows the demographic and occupational characteristics of the sample. These characteristics include gender, age, educational level and position held in the organisation as follows:

Table 3.1: Gender distribution of respondents

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Female	110	52.7	53.2	53.2
	Male	104	46.4	46.8	100.0
	Total	222	99.1	100.0	
Missing	System	2			
Total		224	100.0		

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Table 3.1 above shows that 110 (52.7%) of managers were females and 104 (46.8%) of managers were males. This therefore, indicates that managers in the local government are dominated by females more than males.

Table 3.2: Age distribution of respondents

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	20 – 29	38	17.0	17.1	17.1
	30 -39	66	29.5	29.7	46.8
	40 – 49	71	31.7	32.0	78.8
	50 – 59	40	17.9	18.0	96.8
	60 +	5	3.1	3.2	100.0
	Total	222	99.1	100.0	
Missing	System	2	.9		
Total		224	100.0		

Table 3.2 above shows that 38 (17.1%) of managers were in the age group of 20 – 29; 66 (29.7%) were in the age group of 30 – 39; 71(32.0%) were in the age group of 40 – 49; 40 (18.0%) were in the age group of 50 – 59 and lastly, 7 (3.2%) were in the age group of 60 and above. This therefore shows that more local government managers were in the age group of 40 – 49 and fewer managers were in the age group of 60 and above.

Table 3.3: Education level distributions of respondents

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	High School	15	6.7	6.8	6.8
	Certificate	12	5.4	5.4	12.2
	Diploma	80	35.7	36.0	48.2
	Degree	61	27.2	27.5	75.7
	Post Graduate Degree	54	24.1	24.3	100.0
	Total	222	99.1	100.0	
Missing	System	2	.9		
Total		224	100.0		

Table 3.3 above shows that 15 (6.8%) of managers have a high school certificate; 12 (5.4%) have a certificate in short courses; 80 (36.0%) have a diploma; 61(27.5%) have a degree, and lastly, 54 (24.3%) of managers have a post-graduate degree. This therefore shows that more managers in the local government have a diploma while a few have a certificate.

3.2.4 Data collection

3.2.4.1 The research instruments

A questionnaire was used to collect data. Nachmias and Nachmais (1997) define a questionnaire as a list of questions that must be formulated, constructed and sequenced to produce the most constructive data in the most effective manner. The

questionnaire was used because it translates the research objectives into specific questions that are asked of the respondents. The questionnaire was enclosed with a covering letter for the respondents. The covering letter was carefully drawn to convey the research objectives and to persuade respondents to give fair responses. Respondents were not asked to give their names as a means of giving them an assurance that their responses were kept confidential.

The questionnaire consisted of three parts as follows:

3.2.4.1.1 Biographical and Occupational data

This first part of the questionnaire solicited biographical and occupational data such as, age, gender, education.



3.2.4.1.2 Five-factor Inventory

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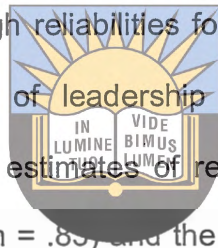
According to Fincham and Rhodes (2005), this is a questionnaire used to collect data on the big-five personality factors. The questionnaire for this study was therefore adapted from this five-factor inventory. This is the second part of the questionnaire. It was used to collect data relating to conscientiousness and extraversion. It consisted of 24 items relating to conscientiousness and extraversion. The scale measured conscientiousness and extraversion on a five-point scale with responses ranging from strongly disagree (0) to strongly agree (4), and with a neutral point (2) in the middle.

3.2.4.1.3 Derailment scales

The third part of the questionnaire asked questions on the derailment scales. According to Centre for Creative Leadership (2000, p. 3), derailments are “scales

that measure problem area that can stall a career". The derailment scales measure possible weaknesses (derailers) that can cause a manager to be demoted, fired or "plateaued" below the level of standard performance. Fleenor and Bryant (2002, p. 7) state that derailment scales are "problems with interpersonal relationships; difficulty in molding a staff; difficulty in making strategic transitions; lack of follow-through and overdependence". These scales were used to collect data relating to leadership effectiveness.

Previous researchers found fairly high reliabilities for these scales, as well as their acceptable validity as a measure of leadership effectiveness. Lombardo and McCauley (1994) indicated different estimates of reliability and validity. The alpha reliabilities ranged from .70 to .92 ($\bar{m} = .85$) and the test-retest reliabilities for rating by others researchers ranged from .49 to .84 ($\bar{m} = .72$). All ratings were made on 5-point scales from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). Leadership effectiveness was defined as a low score on the derailment scales, indicating that a manager was performing effectively in those areas in which poor performance can lead to derailment.



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3.2.4.2 Data collection procedure

To collect the data permission was requested from top management. The managers were asked to fill the questionnaires by their senior managers. This format was used in order to motivate subordinate managers to complete the questionnaires. The questionnaires were left with managers for a period of two weeks so as to give them enough time to complete the questionnaires. The researcher constantly visited the Local Government departments to encourage the managers to complete the

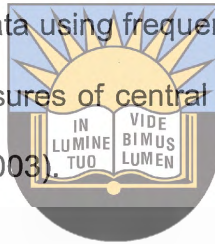
questionnaires. In the third week, the questionnaires were collected from the top managers.

3.2.5 Data Analysis

Descriptive statistics, inferential statistics, Pearson correlation, multiple regression analysis and t-test methods were employed to analyse the data collected.

3.2.5.1 Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics gives a description of the phenomena of interest (Sekaran, 2003). They involve an analysis of data using frequencies, dispersions of dependent and independent variables and measures of central tendency and variability and to obtain a feel for the data (Sekaran, 2003).



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3.2.5.2 Inferential statistics

This allows the researcher to show the data found in the study in a statistical format to help in the identification of important patterns and to make data analysis more meaningful and easier to understand. Sekaran (2003) believes that inferential statistics are used when generalisations are made from a sample to a population. The statistical methods used in this research include the Pearson Product Moment Correlation and Multiple Regression Analysis.

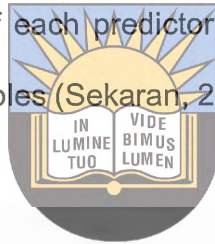
3.2.5.2.1 The Pearson Product Moment Correlation

To determine whether there was a statistically significant relationship between conscientiousness, extraversion and leadership effectiveness, a Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was used. It gives an index of the strength,

magnitude and direction of the relationship between two variables at a time (Sekaran, 2003).

3.2.5.2.2 Multiple Regression Analysis

This is a multivariate statistical method that is used for determining the relationship between a single dependent variable and several independent variables. It gives a method to determine the effect of changes in the dependent variable in response to changes in more than one independent variable. Thus, it assists the researcher to determine the relative importance of each predictor and to ascertain the collective contribution of the independent variables (Sekaran, 2003).



3.3 Delimitations of the study

The major constraint of the study was that it was not funded, and because of that challenge, the study focused on a limited number of Local Government departments in Bisho and East London. The study only considered a limited group of managers both males and females working in Bisho and East London.

3.4 Ethical considerations

The researcher observed and abided by the three major areas of ethical concern, ethics of data collection and analysis, treatment of human subjects, and the ethics of responsibility to society (Reese & Fremour, 1984). In this regard, the researcher ensured that the informed consent was got from the participants; all responses were treated as confidential; and the respondents as anonymous. Finally, the researcher to the best of his ability ensured that no harm befell any of the respondents, their employers, their families or anyone else that might had anything to do with the study.

3.5 Conclusion

In conclusion, the research methods utilized in this study were explained in this chapter. More specifically, the sample and its selection, the measuring instruments used, the statistical methods used in testing the hypotheses, delimitation of the study and the ethical considerations observed were discussed in this chapter.



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4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the results obtained based on the analysis methods used.

4.2 Coefficient Alpha

Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha for conscientiousness, extraversion, and leadership effectiveness is, $\alpha = .883$; $\alpha = .878$ and $\alpha = .830$ respectively. All are considered to be within the acceptable range to support the reliability of the scales used (Sekaran, 2000). In other words, this means that there is an internal consistency in all the scales used in this study (Cokes & Steed, 1997).



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4.3 Descriptive statistics

The descriptive statistics in the form of arithmetic means and standard deviations were computed for Fincham and Rhodes's (2005) conscientiousness and extraversion questionnaire and Lombardo and McCauley's (1994) leadership effectiveness questionnaire. These are presented in Table 4.1 below together with the number of respondents (sample size) that responded to each questionnaire.

Table 4.1: Mean Standard Deviation and sample size in relation to conscientiousness, extraversion, and leadership effectiveness

Questionnaires	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Conscientiousness	39.32	5.465	222
Extraversion	31.19	4.156	222
Leadership Effectiveness	25.32	3.312	222

The level of conscientiousness, extraversion, and leadership effectiveness among the sample of 222 managers in the local government in Bisho and East London is shown in Table 4.1 above. The results indicate that conscientiousness has a mean of (39.32) and a standard deviation of (5.465). The results also indicate that the mean for extraversion is (31.19) and the standard deviation is (4.156). The results also indicate that leadership effectiveness has a mean of (25.32) and a standard deviation of (3.312).



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4.4 Hypothesis Testing

This study sought to investigate the relationship between conscientiousness and leadership effectiveness, and extraversion and leadership effectiveness. Leadership effectiveness was investigated both as a unitary concept as well as in terms of its individual components. These components are problems with interpersonal relationships; difficulty in molding a staff; difficulty in making strategic transitions; lack of follow-through; over-dependence, and strategic differences with management. It also sought to determine the relative strength of the relationship of each of the two independent variables (conscientiousness and extraversion), on the one side, with leadership effectiveness, as a dependent variable, on the other side. However, the

study also investigated the relationship between demographic variables of gender, age and education, and leadership effectiveness.

In measuring gender, age and education a self-designed biographical and occupational data questionnaire was used. In addition, in measuring conscientiousness and extraversion, Fincham and Rhodes (2005) 25 item five-point Likert-type rating scale was used. Moreover, in measuring leadership effectiveness, Lombardo and McCauley (1994) six item five-point likert-type rating scale was also used. Data analysis was performed using a means of the T-Tests, Pearson Product Moment Correlation Technique, and Multiple Regression Analysis.



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4.4.1 Hypothesis 1

Ho: Demographic variables of gender, age and education are not related to leadership effectiveness.

H₁: Demographic variables of gender, age and education are significantly positively related to leadership effectiveness.

Table 4.2: Analysis of Variance for Gender and Leadership effectiveness

		t-test for Equality of Means		
		T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Total (Leadership effect)	Equal variances assumed	1.252	220	.212
	Equal variances not assumed	1.250	214.980	.213

ALPHA (0.05)

A t-test was used to measure the relationship between gender and leadership effectiveness. Table 4.2 above shows the relationship between gender and leadership effectiveness. If equal variances are assumed there is no significant

relationship between gender and leadership effectiveness ($p < 0.212$). On the other side, if equal variances are not assumed there is also no significant relationship between the two variables ($p < 0.213$). This therefore means that the null hypothesis is accepted (H_0) and the alternative hypothesis is rejected (H_1).

Table 4.3: Analysis of Variance for Age and Leadership Effectiveness

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	163.350	4	40.837	3.920	.004
Within Groups	2260.578	217	10.417		
Total	2423.928	221			

ALPHA (0.05)



A t-test was used to determine the relationship between age and leadership effectiveness. Table 4.3 above shows that there is a significant relationship between age and leadership effectiveness ($p < 0.004$). This therefore means that the alternative hypothesis is accepted (H_1) and the null hypothesis is rejected (H_0).

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Table 4.4: Analysis of Variance for Education and leadership effectiveness

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	40.912	4	10.228	.931	.447
Within Groups	2383.016	217	10.982		
Total	2423.928	221			

ALPHA (0.05)

A t-test was used to measure the relationship between the level of education and leadership effectiveness. Table 4.4 above indicate that there is no significant relationship between the level of education and leadership effectiveness ($p < 0.444$). This therefore implies that the null hypothesis is accepted (H_0) and the alternative hypothesis is rejected (H_1).

Table 4.5: Correlation for Conscientiousness and Leadership Effectiveness

Variables		Problems with Interp	Diff- in Moulding	Diff- in Making Strategic	Lack of Follow-Through	Over-dependence	Strategic Diffs with Mgmnt	Total (Leadership effectiveness)
Total (CO)	p- Corr	.264**	.186**	.387**	.514**	.366**	.109	.458**
	P-value	.000	.006	.000	.000	.000	.104	.000

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

4.4.2 Hypothesis 2

H₀: Conscientiousness is not significantly related to leadership effectiveness.

H₂: Conscientiousness is significantly positively related to leadership effectiveness.



This hypothesis was tested using a means of the Pearson Product Moment Correlation method. Table 4.5 above shows that conscientiousness is significantly positively related to total leadership effectiveness ($r = .458$; $p \leq .000$). This therefore means that the null hypothesis (H₀) is rejected and the alternative hypothesis (H₂) is accepted. Leadership effectiveness has six components. The results show that there is a significantly positively relationship between conscientiousness and interpersonal relationships; molding a staff; making strategic transitions; follow-through and ability to work independently ($r = .264$; $p \leq .000$; $r = .186$; $p \leq .006$; $r = .387$; $p \leq .000$; $r = .514$; $p \leq .000$ and $r = .366$; $p \leq .000$) respectively. These therefore also mean that the null hypothesis (H₀) is rejected and the alternative hypothesis (H₂) is accepted. However, conscientiousness is not significantly related to strategic similarities with management ($r = .109$; $p \leq .104$). This finding therefore implies that null hypothesis (H₀) is accepted and the alternative hypothesis (H₂) is rejected.

Table 4.6: Correlation for Extraversion and Leadership Effectiveness

Variables		Problems with Interp	Diff- in Moulding	Diff- in Making Strategic	Lack of Follow-Through	Over-dependence	Strategic Diffs with Mgmt	Total (Leadership effectiveness)
Total (EX)	p -Corr	.131	.233**	.376**	.302**	.238**	.193**	.379**
	P-value	.050	.000	.000	.000	.000	.004	.000

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

4.4.3 Hypotheses 3

H₀: Extraversion is not significantly related to leadership effectiveness.


H₃: Extraversion is significantly positively related to leadership effectiveness.



This hypothesis was tested using a means of the Pearson Product Moment Correlation technique. Table 4.6 above shows that extraversion is significantly positively related to total leadership effectiveness ($r = .379, p \leq .000$). This therefore means that the null hypothesis (H₀) is rejected and the alternative hypothesis (H₃) is accepted. As mentioned earlier, leadership effectiveness has six components. Thus, the results show that there is a significantly positive relationship between extraversion and molding a staff; making strategic transitions; follow-through; ability to work independently and strategic similarities with management ($r = .233; p \leq .000$; $r = .376; p \leq .000$; $r = .302; p \leq .000$; $r = .238; p \leq .000$ and $r = .193; p \leq .004$) respectively. These therefore also mean that the null hypothesis (H₀) is rejected and the alternative hypothesis (H₁) is accepted. However, extraversion is not significantly related to Interpersonal Relationships ($r = .131; p \leq .050$). This finding therefore implies that null hypothesis (H₀) is accepted and the alternative hypothesis (H₃) is rejected.

Table 4.7: Multiple regression between Conscientiousness and Extraversion, on the one hand, and Leadership Effectiveness, on the other

Multiple R	0.495	
R-Squared	.245	
Adjusted R Squared	.238	
Standard Error	1.682	
F	35.499	
Sign F	.000	
Variable	Beta	Sig T
Conscientiousness	.218	.000
Extraversion	.109	.002



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4.4.4 Hypothesis 4

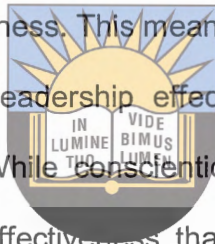
H₀: Conscientiousness and extraversion is not additively related to leadership effectiveness.

H₄: Conscientiousness and extraversion is additively significantly positively related to leadership effectiveness.

This hypothesis was tested using the means of Multiple Regression Analysis. Table 4.7 above shows the results of the regression analysis, regressing leadership effectiveness (dependent variable) against the independent variables, that is, conscientiousness and extraversion. The results show that the multiple correlation value is 0.495, with the R-squared value being 0.245. This therefore shows that 0.245 (24.5%) of the variance in leadership effectiveness can be attributed to the independent variables (conscientiousness and extraversion) entered into the

regression. The F-statistics of 35.499 is significant at the 0.000 level showing that this is a highly significant relationship.

Table 4.7 above shows a Beta weight of ($\beta = 0.218$; $p < 0.000$) for the relationship between conscientiousness and leadership effectiveness. This means that conscientiousness accounts for 0.218 (21.8%) of the variance in leadership effectiveness, and this is a highly significant proportion of variance. The same Table also shows a Beta weight of ($\beta = 0.169$; $p < 0.002$) for the relationship between extraversion and leadership effectiveness. This means that extraversion accounts for 0.169 (16.9%) of the variance in leadership effectiveness, and this is a highly significant proportion of variance. While conscientiousness accounts for a higher amount of variance in leadership effectiveness than extraversion, therefore, both account for a highly significant proportion of variance.



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Table 4.7, moreover, shows that R-squared is ($R^2 = 0.245$). This means that the two independent variable of conscientiousness and extraversion together account for 0.245 (24.5%) of the variance in leadership effectiveness. This result is in support of H_4 of hypothesis 4 in that, 0.245 is higher than the Beta weight for both conscientiousness ($\beta = 0.218$) and extraversion ($\beta = 0.169$). The two independent variables therefore have an additive effect that results in them accounting for a greater amount of variance in leadership effectiveness than the two of them working independently. The results therefore denote the acceptance of the alternative hypothesis, i.e. there is an additive effect between conscientiousness and extraversion whereby the two factors when combined account for a higher proportion of variance in leadership effectiveness than each of them separately.

4.5 Conclusion

In conclusion, this chapter presented the Cronbach alpha coefficients for conscientiousness, extraversion and leadership effectiveness. The measure showed that the scales used in this study have a high internal consistency and are thus highly reliable and valid. The Pearson Product Moment technique was also used to analyze the data of the study in relation to the hypotheses. With the first hypothesis relating to demographic variables and leadership effectiveness, gender and level of education were rejected while age was supported. This means that gender and level of education are not related to leadership effectiveness while age is significantly positively related.



The second hypothesis relating to conscientiousness and leadership effectiveness was supported. This means that conscientiousness is significantly positively related to leadership effectiveness. Moreover, with conscientiousness and individual components of leadership effectiveness, interpersonal relationships; molding a staff; making strategic transitions; follow-through and under-dependence; the hypothesis was supported as well. However, with the strategic similarities with management, the hypothesis was rejected.

The third hypothesis relating to extraversion and leadership effectiveness was supported. This means that extraversion is significantly positively related to leadership effectiveness. Moreover, with extraversion and individual components of leadership effectiveness, molding a staff; making strategic transitions; strategic similarities with management; follow-through and dependence; the hypothesis was

supported as well. However, with the interpersonal relationships, the hypothesis was rejected.

The fourth and final hypothesis that there is an additive effect between conscientiousness and extraversion whereby the two put together account for a higher proportion of variance in leadership effectiveness than each of them separately was supported by the findings of this study.



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5.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the results in relation to the hypothesis and previous research findings. The limitations of the study are highlighted and the recommendations for future directions are also made.

5.2 Discussion of the results

5.2.1 Hypothesis 1: findings

Ho: Demographic variables of gender, age and education are not related to leadership effectiveness.

H₁: Demographic variables of gender, age and education are significantly positively related to leadership effectiveness.



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This hypothesis was tested by means of a t-test method of data analysis for gender. The analysis of variance coefficient between gender and leadership effectiveness was found to be ($p < 0.212$; 0.1213). This means that the two variables are not related to each other. This leads to the acceptance of a null hypothesis and a rejection of the alternative hypothesis. The results therefore imply that the gender of local government managers has no effect on them becoming effective managers or leaders in their organisations. In addition, the findings were also supported by the fact that the local government has high numbers of both male (104) and female (118) managers. This finding is also consistent with Gedney's (1999) argument that gender differences may not lead someone to be an effective leader, but it may simply be the leadership style that is important for a leadership position.

The analysis of variance coefficient between age and leadership effectiveness was found to be highly significantly positively related ($p < 0.004$). This leads to the acceptance of an alternative hypothesis and a rejection of the null hypothesis. The finding therefore means that the age of local government managers has an impact on them becoming effective managers in their organisations. Hence, the local government is dominated by managers within the age group of (40 – 49). This finding is less supported by Vecchio and Anderson (2009) who argued that only small and positive relationships have been found.



McAdams *et al.*, (1993) however, argues that leadership effectiveness can be increased by the “leader generativity” which is highly significant for developing leadership effectiveness at an older than at younger ages because subordinates normatively believe that older and experienced leaders should behave in a generative manner; something that is not usually done by younger leaders. Accordingly, the local government managers are dominated by managers within the age group range of 40 – 60 years old. This makes the generativity theory relevant. Gerstner and Day (1997) further argues that the interrelationship impact of leader age and “leader generativity” on leadership effectiveness are aided by subordinates’ understanding of the type of the leader member exchange (LMX) relationship, which is viewed as a significant variable in leadership effectiveness.


Lastly, the t-test analysis of variance coefficient between education level and leadership effectiveness was found to be negatively related ($p < 0.444$). This leads to the acceptance of a null hypothesis and a rejection of the alternative hypothesis. The

finding therefore means that level of education of local government managers has nothing to do with them being effective managers or leaders in their organisations. Hence, the majority of managers in the local government have a diploma (36%). This finding is consistent with Guion and Highhouse (2004) who argue that educational requirements are not always important, and in most situations, leaders with high levels of education do not have the competencies to match a leadership job. Gildenhuis (2004) further argues that most effective managers in the local government are created with the right personal attributes that develop naturally.

5.2.2 Hypothesis 2: findings

H₀: Conscientiousness is not significantly related to leadership effectiveness.

H₂: Conscientiousness is significantly positively related to leadership effectiveness.



The logo of the University of Fort Hare features a shield with a sun rising over an open book. The book contains the Latin motto 'IN LUMINE BIVUS THE LUMEN'. Below the shield, the text 'University of Fort Hare' is written in a serif font, with the tagline 'Together in Excellence' underneath in a smaller, italicized font.

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This hypothesis was tested by means of the Pearson Product Moment Correlation method. The correlation coefficient between conscientiousness and leadership effectiveness was found to be highly significantly positively related ($r = .458$; $p \leq .000$). This leads to the acceptance of an alternative hypothesis and a rejection of the null hypothesis. The results therefore imply that the more local government managers are conscientious, the more they are effective managers or leaders in their organisations. In modern democracies, the local government is supposed to follow democratic principles and a set of ethical standards, and further be guided by community values and common law (Gildenhuis, 2004). Moreover, this finding is supported by Fincham and Rhodes (2005) in the meta-analysis studies which confirm that effective leaders are highly conscientious.

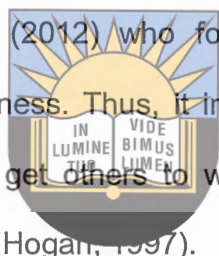
A leadership effectiveness criterion has six components. The first one is the interpersonal relationship. The correlation coefficient between conscientiousness and interpersonal relationships was found to be ($r = .264$; $p \leq .000$). This indicates that the two variables are highly significantly positively related to each other. The finding therefore means that the more local government managers are conscientious the more they create and maintain effective relationships in their organisations. Hence, they are effective managers or leaders. The finding is also supported by Hogan *et al.*, (2009) who found that conscientious managers are able maintain teams and do not have relationship challenges. Accordingly, the researchers also believe that highly conscientious leaders are more likely to be trusted to make effective decisions that are fair and satisfy the needs of all stakeholders (Fincham & Rhodes, 2005).



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The second individual component of leadership effectiveness is molding a staff. The correlation coefficient between conscientiousness and molding a staff was found to be highly significantly positively related ($r = .186$; $p \leq .006$). The finding therefore means that the more conscientious the local government managers are, the more they are able to delegate responsibilities to their subordinates and to staff effectively. Thus, they are effective leaders. This is supported by Collins (2001) who believes that effective leaders equip their staff and positively influence them. Moreover, House (1996) believe that effective leaders engage in behaviours that support subordinates environments and abilities in a manner that covers for their weakness and is instrumental to their subordinates' satisfaction and performance.

The third individual component of leadership effectiveness is making strategic transitions. It means that the manager is able to think strategically. The correlation coefficient between conscientiousness and making strategic transitions was found to be highly significantly positively related ($r = .387$; $p \leq .000$). The finding therefore means that the more the local government managers are conscientious the more they are able to make strategic decisions. Hence, they are effective managers or leaders. Borghans *et al.*, (2008) believes that conscientiousness is related with a public managers' responsibility of planning of work. Moreover, the results are also consistent with Wildermuth *et al.*, (2012) who found that strategic thinking is positively related with conscientiousness. Thus, it influences on how the manager works with different constituencies, get others to work together, and strategically align resources with vision (Hogan & Hogan, 1997).



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The fourth individual component of leadership effectiveness is follow-through. It means that the manager is trustworthy and not being overly ambitious. The correlation coefficient between conscientiousness and follow-through was found to be highly significantly positively related ($r = .514$; $p \leq .000$). The finding therefore implies that the more local government managers are conscientious the more they are being trusted in their organisations. Thus, they are effective leaders. This is supported by Finchum and Rhodes (2005) who found that highly conscientious leaders are more trusted to make the right decisions that are fair and satisfy the needs of all parties affected by decisions. Moreover, researchers believe that the trustworthiness of the behaviours of leaders is the only most important determinant of their support over time. It is an attribute that develops from the alignment of the leaders' values and beliefs with behaviours (Kouzes & Posner, 1993).

The fifth individual component of leadership effectiveness is the ability to work independently. This means that the leader is not over-dependent on an advocate or mentor. The correlation coefficient between conscientiousness and under-dependence was found to be highly significantly positively related ($r = .366$; $p \leq .000$). The finding therefore implies that the more local government managers are conscientious the more they are able to work independently in their organisations. Hence, they are effective leaders. This is consistent with Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991) who found that conscientious leaders make their own initiatives. Accordingly, the researchers argue that effective organisations are led by leaders who have the ability to make an initiative (Collins, 2001).



The final individual component of leadership effectiveness is strategic similarities with management. This means that the leader is able to adapt to a boss with different style. The correlation coefficient between conscientiousness and strategic similarities with management was found to be not significantly related ($r = .109$; $p \leq .104$). The finding therefore implies that the more the local government managers are conscientious, the less they are able to adapt to a superior with a different leadership style in their organisation. Hence, they are not effective leaders. This is supported by Finchum and Rhodes (2005) who found that some conscientious leaders are quite individualistic in their leadership strategy. Thus, their decision to change their strategy framework within which they are supposed to operate can work against them. Moreover, Hogan and Hogan (2001) argues that highly conscientious leaders may become perfectionists and inflexible about procedures and policies.

5.2.3 Hypothesis 3: findings

H₀: Extraversion is not significantly related to leadership effectiveness.

H₃: Extraversion is significantly positively related to leadership effectiveness.

This hypothesis was tested by means of the Pearson Product Moment Correlation method. The correlation coefficient between extraversion and total leadership effectiveness was found to be highly significantly positively related ($r = .379$; $p \leq .000$). This leads to the acceptance of an alternative hypothesis and the rejection of the null hypothesis. The finding therefore implies that the more local government managers are extraverts, the more they are effective leaders or managers in their organisations. The finding is supported by Fincham and Rhodes (2005) who found that leadership effectiveness is related with high levels of extraversion. Moreover, Greenburg (2011) consistently argues that extraversion is more positively related to effectiveness in positions requiring managers to interact with many other people in their leadership positions.



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As stated earlier, leadership effectiveness criterion has six components. The first one is molding staff. The correlation coefficient between extraversion and molding staff was found to be highly significantly positively related ($r = .233$; $p \leq .000$). The results therefore mean that the more local government managers are extravert, the more they are able to delegate to their subordinates and to staff effectively in their organisations. Hence, they are effective leaders. The finding is consistent with Achuar and Lussier (2010) who found that effective leaders are willing to be leaders and they do not over manage subordinates. Moreover, House (1971), in path-goal

theory, argues that effective leaders create favourable environments for subordinates so that they can achieve the organisational goals.

The second individual component of leadership effectiveness is making strategic transitions. This means that the manager or leader is able to think strategically. The correlation coefficient between extraversion and making strategic transitions was found to be highly significantly positively related ($r = .376$; $p \leq .000$). The results therefore imply that the more local government managers are extraverts, the more they are able to make strategic decisions in their organisations. Thus, they are effective leaders. The result is consistent with Wildermuth, Sphr and Ehrig (2012) who found that strategic thinking is positively related with extraversion.



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The third individual component of leadership effectiveness is follow-through. It means that the manager is trustworthy and not being overly ambitious. The correlation coefficient between extraversion and follow-through was found to be highly significantly positively related ($r = .302$; $p \leq .000$). The finding therefore implies that the more local government managers are extravert, the more they are being trusted and not being overly ambitious in their organisations. Hence, they are effective leaders or managers. This is supported by Bakker, Boyd, Dollard, Gillespie, Winefield and Stough (2010) who found that extraversion is positively related with trust among managers in some organisations.

The fourth individual component of leadership effectiveness is ability to work independently. It means that the leader is not over-dependent on advocate or mentor. The correlation coefficient between extraversion and ability to work

independently was found to be highly significantly positively related ($r = .238$; $p \leq .000$). The finding therefore means that the more local government managers are extraverts, the more they are able work independently in their organisations. Thus, they are effective leaders or managers. This finding is supported by Antonioni (1998) who found that extravert managers actively develop strategies to solve problems instead of depending on their superiors. Thus, they have the ability to support their decisions with more vigour (Finchum & Rhodes, 2005).

The fifth individual component of leadership effectiveness is strategic similarities with management. This means that the leader is able to adapt to a superior with different style. The correlation coefficient between extraversion and strategic similarities with management was found to be highly significantly positively related ($r = .193$; $p \leq .004$). The finding therefore implies that the more local government managers are extravert, the more they are able to adapt to a superior with different management strategy in their organisations. Hence, they are effective managers or leaders. This finding is supported by Zaccaro, Kemp and Bader (2004) who found that the positive relationship between adaptability and extraversion is highly significant. Moreover, the meta-analysis studies argue that an individual who is a leader requires a high level of adaptability (Zaccaro *et al.*, 2004).

The final individual component of leadership effectiveness is interpersonal relationship. The correlation coefficient between extraversion and interpersonal relationships was found to be not significantly related ($r = .131$; $p \leq .050$). The finding therefore means that the more local government managers are extravert, the less they are able to develop and maintain effective relationships in their organisations.

Hence, they are not effective leaders or managers. This finding is supported by Fincham and Rhodes (2005) who argue that the extravert personality constructs is very difficult to understand and it means that effectiveness is not necessarily always present in an extravert leader. Moreover, similar researchers argue that the social engagement of the extravert leader is superficial and it only allows this individual to connect with others socially but not personally.

5.2.4 Hypothesis 4: findings

H₀: Conscientiousness and extraversion is not additively related to leadership effectiveness.

H₄: Conscientiousness and extraversion is additively significantly positively related to leadership effectiveness.



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This hypothesis was tested by means of Multiple Regression Analysis. The results show that R-squared is ($R^2 = 0.245$). This means that the two independent variables of conscientiousness and extraversion together account for 0.245 (24.5%) of the variance in leadership effectiveness. This result is in support of (H₄) of hypothesis 4 in that, 0.245 is higher than the Beta weight for both conscientiousness ($\beta = 0.218$) and extraversion ($\beta = 0.169$). The two independent variables therefore have an additive effect that results in them accounting for a greater amount of variance in leadership effectiveness than the two of them working independently. The finding therefore means that the more local government managers are both conscientious and extraverts the more they are effective leaders or managers in their organisations. This finding is supported by DeRue *et al.*, (2011) who found that the leaders who are high in both conscientiousness and extraversion are highly likely to be effective leaders. Moreover, Likert (1961) argue that the style of leadership in

which leaders show high concern with both production (conscientiousness) and people (extraversion) appears to be the one effective in different organisational situations.

Table 5.1: Summary of the research results

Variables	Conscientiousness	Extraversion	Conscie- and Extra- combined
Interpersonal relationships	Positive	Negative	
Moulding a staff	Positive	Positive	
Making strategic transitions	Positive	Positive	
Follow-through	Positive	Positive	
Independent working	Positive	Positive	
Strategic similarities	Negative	Positive	
Total Leadership effectiveness	Positive	Positive	Positive

Table 5.1 above depicts a brief conclusion of the results discussed. The table shows that moulding a staff, making strategic transitions, follow-through, independent working and total leadership effectiveness are positively related with both conscientiousness and extraversion. Also, total leadership effectiveness is positively related with the combined effect conscientiousness and extraversion. However, interpersonal relationships is positively related with conscientiousness and negatively related with extraversion. Also, strategic similarities is positively related with extraversion but negatively related with conscientiousness.

5.3 Limitations of the present study

This study focused on the relationship between conscientiousness, extraversion, and leadership effectiveness among the local government managers in East London and Bisho. It is important to consider the limitations of this study because it can help other researchers to improve their research methodology and findings.

The study is correlational, and because of that, it cannot assume any causal relationship between conscientiousness and extraversion on the one hand and leadership effectiveness on the other.



The respondents used in this present study were the local government managers from all the management levels. However, it is not all the managers in the organisation that have leadership responsibilities. Accordingly, this may have affected the reliability of the results obtained.

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Also, in collecting data, only self-administered questionnaires were used. This increases the possibility of common method variance. Common method variance refers to the “amount of spurious covariance shared among variables because of the common method used in collecting data” (Meade, Watson & Kroustalis, 2007). This common method variance causes biased correlations in organisational research. Such method biases create problems because the actual phenomenon under study becomes difficult to differentiate from measurement artefacts (Hufnagel & Conca, 1994; Avolio & Bass, 1991).

Leadership effectiveness in this present study is viewed as low ratings on the derailment scales; in other words, the demonstration of effective behaviours on these scales. However, this operationalization involves a narrow range of the behaviours and attributes that make up the construct of overall leadership effectiveness. This therefore limits the findings of this present study to factors related to derailment.

Finally, the scales used to collect data on conscientiousness and extraversion were extracted from the big-five inventory. This is an inventory that is used to measure the big-five factors of conscientiousness, extraversion, neuroticism, open to experience and agreeableness (Costa & McCrae, 1992). The separation of other factors to remain with the factors that only measure the variables under study may have negatively affected reliability and validity of scales developed. Accordingly, this in turn might have affected the findings of the present study.



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5.4 Recommendation for future research

Future researchers should consider the limitations of the present study mentioned above, and therefore, improve the generalisability of the results. This will help to improve the quality of the research findings in the future.

Most similar studies have been traditionally conducted in the highly developed countries of the Western world. It is an important development that this present study was conducted in a developing country, i.e., South Africa. It is therefore absolutely important that the present study be replicated in future research to confirm and disconfirm the findings.

The present study focused mainly on the overall leadership effectiveness as a dependent variable. However, it is also very important that future studies use the individual components of leadership effectiveness as dependent variables. This will make an indepth and more thorough study compared to the present one in respect to those individual components of leadership effectiveness.

The future research studies should also incorporate an investigation of the outcomes of leadership effectiveness, for instance, organisation performance and effectiveness. The present study assumed that leadership effectiveness is associated with organisational performance and effectiveness. However, this needs to be confirmed in actual empirical research of organisational effectiveness.



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Moreover, some future studies should use qualitative rather than quantitative techniques like the present study. This will help to ensure the triangulation of research findings. Triangulation is often used to counteract “common method variance”. The point is that one can be more confident with similar findings obtained from different methods.

Finally, some future studies should use an experimental design. This will help in determining whether or not the relationships among variables that have been seen in the present study are causal relationships or not. Experimental studies will also determine the direction of any causality that may exist among the variables.

5.5 Recommendations for future managerial practices

The results obtained from the present study indicate that there is a significant positive relationship between conscientiousness and extraversion, on the one hand, and leadership effectiveness, on the other. The practical implications of this study mainly relate to personnel selection and leadership development. For organisations to succeed in achieving its missions and strategic objectives, they should be able to select the individuals suitable for leadership roles and also to develop them. Thus, “making wise selection decisions”.



Meta-analysis studies found that effective leaders are high on conscientiousness and extraversion (Fincham & Rhodes, 2005). The present study also has shown that leadership effectiveness is strongly related with both conscientiousness and extraversion and this means that to ensure effective leadership, organisations should select individuals with both high conscientiousness and extraversion. These variables can also help in leadership development programme to improve leaders or managers behaviours.

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Since conscientiousness was found to account for a higher proportion of variance in leadership effectiveness than extraversion, it means that organisations must pay more attention to selecting individuals with higher levels of conscientiousness to ensure higher levels of leadership effectiveness. However, extraversion was also having a high proportion of variance, and as such, it also deserves a strong consideration as well.

Managers responsible for selection, recruitment and development should ensure that they select and develop individuals with high level of conscientiousness and extraversion in order to achieve a high level of leadership effectiveness. In an attempt to ensure a high level of leadership effectiveness organisations should subject prospective managers to a selection procedure that will identify effective leaders for their organisations. This includes the use of psychometrics assessment methods in selection and recruitment processes and in leadership development programmes.

5.6 Conclusion

The present study mainly investigated the relationship between conscientiousness, extraversion and leadership effectiveness among the local government managers in Bisho and East London. The results obtained from this study indicated that there is a significant positive association between conscientiousness, extraversion, and leadership effectiveness. Conscientiousness was also found to have a highly significant relationship with five individual components of total leadership effectiveness, interpersonal relationships; molding a staff; making strategic transitions; follow-through and under-dependence with an exception of strategic similarities with management.

Moreover, extraversion was also found to have a highly significant relationship with the individual components of total leadership effectiveness, molding staff; making strategic transitions; follow-through, under-dependence and strategic similarities with management with an exception of interpersonal relationships. However, the present study also investigated the relationship between some demographic variables of



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gender, age and level of education, and leadership effectiveness. The results therefore indicated that age is significantly related with leadership effectiveness while gender and level of education are not related.

The results also showed that there is an additive effect between conscientiousness and extraversion whereby the two variables combined account for a higher proportion of variance in leadership effectiveness than each of them separately. The results further revealed that though both conscientiousness and extraversion are strongly related with leadership effectiveness, conscientiousness accounts for a higher proportion of variance in leadership effectiveness than extraversion.



The fact that conscientiousness was found to account for a higher proportion of variance in leadership effectiveness than extraversion implies that organisations should pay more attention to selecting conscientious individuals in order to ensure a higher level of leadership effectiveness. However, the proportion of variance for extraversion was also high, and as such it should also be considered. The main practical implication of this study relate to personnel selection and leadership development. Accordingly, for organisations to increase leadership effectiveness, they should select individuals high on conscientiousness and extraversion.

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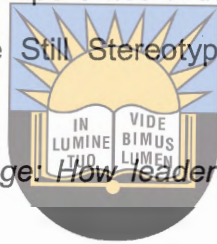
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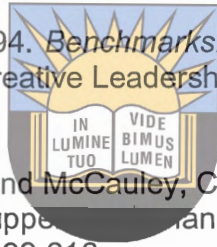
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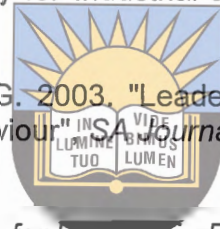
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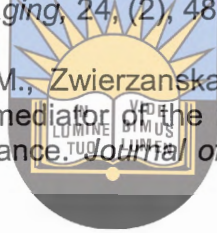
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University of Port Harcourt
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Appendix A



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Research Questionnaire

My name is Clement Bell. I am a Masters student at the University of Fort Hare in the Department of Industrial Psychology. I am presently conducting a research on personality traits and leadership effectiveness in your organisations. You are kindly requested to complete the following questions as honestly as possible. Honest completion will assist in generating information that will help your organisation improve its selection processes and the development of managers or leaders, thereby making wise selection decisions contributing to organisational success. The information being solicited from you is purely for academic purposes and will be treated confidentially; hence your name is not required.

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Together in Excellence

SECTION A: BIOGRAPHICAL AND OCCUPATIONAL DATA

Kindly mark with an x where appropriate or fill in your personal and occupational data in respect of all the characteristics listed below:

Gender: Female Male

Age groups

Under 20 20 – 29 30 – 39 40 – 49 50 – 59 60+

Education level: Primary school High school Certificate

Diploma Degree Post graduate Degree

Job title.....

SECTION B: CO & EX QUESTIONNAIRE

Listed below are a series of adjectives. Please read each adjective and kindly indicate the description which fits you best by marking with an x the appropriate box against the right adjective.

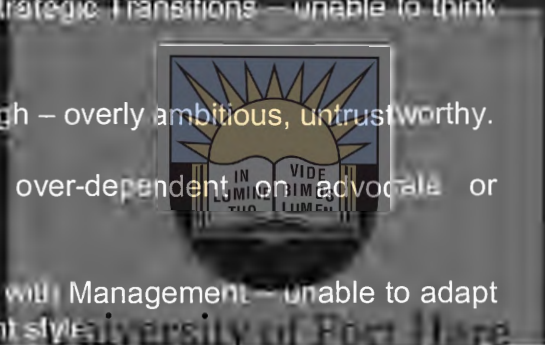
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
1 Sociable					
2 Neat					
3 Jolly (lively and entertaining)					
4 Structured (able arrange according to system)					
5 Serious					
6 Disorderly					
7 Communicative					
8 Conscientious (careful and thorough)					
9 Gregarious (sociable)					
10 Methodical (systematic and well organised)					
11 Private					
12 Restless (unable to rest)					
13 Energetic					
14 Determined					
15 Cheerful					
16 Committed (dedicated to a cause or activity)					
17 Pessimistic					
18 Unreliable					
19 Dynamic					
20 Productive					
21 Active					
22 Disorganised					
23 Independent					
24 Perfectionist					



SECTION C: LE QUESTIONNAIRE

Listed below are a series of statements that represent possible flaws or derailers that can lead to managers being demoted, fired or plateaued below the level of expected achievement in an organisation. Please, kindly indicate the degree to which each statement describes your behaviour by marking an **X** on one of the five alternatives against each statement below.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
1 Problems with Interpersonal Relationships – insensitive, cold, aloof, arrogant.					
2 Difficulty in Molding a Staff – over-manages, unable to staff effectively.					
3 Difficulty in Making Strategic Transitions – unable to think strategically.					
4 Lack of Follow-Through – overly ambitious, untrustworthy.					
5 Overdependence – over-dependent on advocate or mentor.					
6 Strategic Differences with Management – unable to adapt to a boss with different style.					



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Thank you very much; your support is greatly appreciated.