

Self-Efficacy, Introversion and Leadership Styles among Working Professionals

Avantika Vikram¹, Roopali Sharma²

¹Student, ²Professor
^{1,2}Amity University Noida

Abstract:

This study examines the correlation between self-efficacy and introversion in working professionals in the context of two distinct leadership styles: authoritative and democratic. Quantitative methods of correlation and t-test were used on a sample of 81 professionals. Results yielded a strong negative correlation between self-efficacy and introversion in both leadership styles. However, no significant differences were found between the means on levels of self-efficacy or introversion. The study calls for more inclusive models of leadership that support and promote varying personality types, particularly introverts, toward developing professional self-confidence and effectiveness.

1. INTRODUCTION

These days, it is leadership in organizations that can make or break the success of an institution or determine not only employee engagement but also their psychological health and the work environment itself. Leadership styles refer to the behavioural patterns or behavioural orientations a leader adopts in influencing, guiding, and managing his or her team. On the other hand, the idea of self-efficacy-a core variable in Bandura's (1997) social cognitive theory-has been increasingly discussed as it pertains to the fact that self-efficacy shapes how people see their ability to carry out certain behaviours, cope with difficulties, and maintain psychological health in stressful environments. The more emerging a condition becomes for organizations, such as globalization, advancement in technology, and diversity of the workforce, the more relevant will the interaction between leadership style and self-efficacy become.

2. Leadership Styles

Leadership style can be defined as a steady pattern of behaviour that a leader utilizes while directing, motivating, guiding, and managing a group of people. This includes different approaches and techniques that could have been used to influence individuals toward organizational objectives. Over time many theories are advanced by scholars on various leadership styles, based on behaviour, decision-making patterns, and interaction with the followers, all of which have different implications for employee performance, organizational climate, and overall effectiveness.

One of the earlier classifications for leadership styles was that of Lewin, Lippitt, and White (1939), who distinguished autocratic, democratic, and laissez-faire styles. The autocratic leadership style is characterised by centralised control and decision-making, which may create a great deal of productivity but very little morale and creativity. When aspects of participative decision-making and communication

are combined, the democratic style boosts employee satisfaction and encourages innovation and creativity. The laissez faire style, being a low leadership-input style, would work when group members are highly skilled and self-motivated and would otherwise contribute to confusion and unproductiveness.

Next to the behavioural approaches, transformational and transactional styles came to the fore. Transformational leaders motivate and inspire followers to achieve above and beyond expectations by creating a shared vision while providing intellectual stimulation and paying individual attention (Bass & Riggio, 2006); this particular style has been correlated to job satisfaction and engagement on the part of the followers followed by organizational commitment (Judge & Piccolo, 2004). The transactional approach to leadership, meanwhile, considers a number of contingencies in terms of rewarding the performance, either positively or negatively. This style might often lead to success in the very short period, yet it lacks the depth of relational and motivating aspects found in transformational leadership when considering problems on a deeper level. (Burns, 1978).

In more recent years, servant leadership and authentic leadership are presented as human-oriented approaches to leadership. Servant leadership, as presented by Greenleaf (1977), emphasizes ethical behaviour, empathy, and the transcending of the interests of followers. Evidence exists now that this style enhances the psychological well-being of followers and brings about a more favourable organizational climate (Eva et al., 2019). The other recent approach, authentic leadership, emphasizes transparency, self-awareness, and matching values to actions. Authentic leaders are said to build trust and create psychological safety that is needed in the fast-paced and diverse workplace (Walumbwa et al., 2008).

The relevance of some leadership styles also depends on contextual variables such as organizational structure, industry, and team composition. Fiedler's (1967) Contingency Theory underlined that no one single leadership style will work across the board. Instead, effectiveness is based on the situation that exists concerning that particular leader's style, which is where factors like leader-member relations, task structure, and positional power come into play. A comparable concept is held by the Path-Goal Theory of House (1971), which argues that a leader should modify his/her style (direct, support, participate, achievement) in response to the needs of the subordinated personnel and the nature of the task at hand.

In short, leadership styles shape organizational outcomes from employee motivation, cohesion, innovation, and productivity. The increasing diversity of workforces and the increasingly complex nature of organizational challenges have made adaptive leadership-a leadership style that draws from a mixture of several approaches depending on situational demands (Heifetz & Laurie, 1997)-imperative. Therefore, effective leaders are those able to objectively review their context and apply the appropriate style to lead people with purpose, influence, and integrity.

2.1 Importance of Leadership Styles in Organizational Settings

Leadership style basically means how the person leads and motivates individuals in an organization (Northouse, 2019). It consists of autonomous (or autocratic), democratic (participative), and laissez-faire behaviours typically used to categorize the multifarious attitudes and behaviours into the authoritative, democratic, and laissez-faire styles (Lewin, Lippit, & White, 1939). Subsequent research on each of these styles demonstrates how these styles possess a specific kind of influence on organizational behaviours, communication flows within that organization, and team dynamics. For example, authoritative leadership usually demonstrates a rather high control and independence in decision-making and hence efficiency in

crisis situations but may become creativity stifler in knowledge-intensive environments (Chaudhry & Javed, 2012). On the contrary, a democratic leader's focus would be on collaboration and input from the team, which is empowering innovation and accountability (Bass & Bass, 2008).

The important factor of leadership styles in organizational outcomes was highlighted in many studies. For example, it has been reported that transformational leadership, which is highly related to the people's democratic style, has been positively associated with increased employ satisfaction, engagement, and performance (Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Wang, Oh, Courtright, & Colbert, 2011). Transformational leaders create a vision for their employees and fully address their needs while providing intellectual stimulation; all of these combine to make a working environment that is positive and productive. Conversely, laissez-faire leadership is usually associated with lower morale of employees and inefficiency in an organization, as it tends to be passive in decision making and has a low level of supervision (Skogstad et al., 2007).

In the contemporary organizational arena of the 21st century, the importance of adaptive leadership styles has increased. Nowadays, leaders have to deal with teams that are quite diverse in nature- some might be working remotely or under changing demands of the market. Leadership success in this regard depends on flexibility, emotional intelligence, and the ability to adapt strategies to different demands of situations (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2013). So, with all this happening, leadership has to be investigated further as a dynamic function responsive to contextual realities instead of being seen as a unitary feature which significantly impacts the cohesion, innovation, and psychological safety of teams.

3. Introversion

This strange concept or definition of introversion-was a basic dimension of personality referring to someone whose orientation is toward internal experiences rather than to external stimulation. Upon the definition spelled by Carl Jung, 1921, it refers to individuals who prefer solitary activities, are highly concentrated, and think reflectively. Comparatively, introverts are usually more reserved, reflective, and energized from solitude, while extroverts are able to thrive in social settings and seek external stimulation.

Based on and aligned with today's largely accepted psychological frameworks, including the Big Five Personality Traits, introversion and extroversion are largely viewed as opposite ends of the continuum under the trait of extraversion (McCrae & Costa, 1999). An introvert is expected to score low on such facets as gregariousness, assertiveness, and excitement-seeking, whereas high levels of self-consciousness, thoughtfulness, and emotional intensity are found among them (John & Srivastava, 1999). These characteristics do not otherwise denote anxiety in social situations, dislike of interactions, or avoidance, as these denote other constructs (Cain, 2012). Instead, they show a basic preference toward social interaction and the expenditure of energy.

From an organizational point of view, introversion has attracted greater scholarly attention, especially bearing in mind the recent trends in workplace models that allow for diversity in terms of personality and working styles. Traditionally, leadership and career success were associated mainly with extraverted traits like being sociable and assertive (Judge et al., 2002). Nevertheless, emerging research is contrasting this notion by emphasizing the strengths introverted people bring into the working field.

Introverts are often characterized by being good listeners who can concentrate and think analytically. These qualities are important factors when requiring precision, , and empathy (Grant et al., 2011). For

instance, there is evidence that introverted leaders tend to do particularly well within proactive teams as they are more likely to listen to team input and endorse team initiatives versus dominating the conversation (Grant et al., 2011). This creates an atmosphere of participation, where employees feel heard and empowered.

Whereas, when faced with decisions to be made or problem-solving conditions, introverts usually depend more on evaluating everything very carefully and evidence-based reasoning. This usually results in more careful and balanced outcomes, particularly in high-stakes or ambiguous situations (Reeve, 2018). In addition, introverts would probably be less impulsive, hence very well-suited for positions that require risk assessment, planning, and long-term strategy.

One area of interest is the interplay of introversion with other psychological constructs, notably self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is the belief of an individual in doing something or making things happen. According to Bandura (1997), "Self-efficacy is a person's conviction about his ability to achieve a particular goal.". Introverts experience difficulty functionally where assertive communication and rapid decision-making are characteristic of the function. Studies will also support the idea that introverts might possess high self-efficacy levels based on needing to work congruently with their preferred styles (Kahnweiler, 2018). To these supportive environments, expected performance by introverted employees would be in independent roles, critical and deep thinking, and in-depth concentration.

Introverts usually have an inherent advantage because of their capabilities, although they sometimes might face setbacks from the systems that define them as extroverts. For example, the assumption of open office spaces, constant collaboration, and fast-paced communication in productivity equates almost entirely cut off the chances of putting out their marks by introverted professionals (Cain, 2012). Inclusiveness of the work could create a more supportive environment for disabilities as it pertains to work styles: quiet spaces for work, written input rather than oral, and effective leadership training programs that acknowledge and develop these attributes in introverted individuals.

To sum up, introversion does not limit; it is rather a characteristic and advantageous quality, which adds diversity to the workplace, innovation, and resilience. The ever-increasing dynamism of organizations and the centripetal nature of their employees necessitate the need to tap ever deeper into the resources released by a growing diversity of types of personalities, including introverts. It is extremely important to appreciate and integrate in the organization the major introverted strengths in leadership, teamwork, and strategic positions to be better rounded and adaptable as an organization.

4. Self-efficacy

The belief or confidence that one possesses some way to achieve a particular goal or succeed in some situation is called Self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is commonly understood with self-esteem, but self-esteem is the overall belief of the worth and abilities of an individual while self-efficacy would be closely related to some specific tasks or situations. This concept of self-efficacy thus defines the belief that an individual holds regarding their success in that specific subject, task, or area.

Albert Bandura, a Canadian-American psychologist and a Stanford professor, first made mention of the term 'self-efficacy' in 1997 in his book "Self-Efficacy: Towards Unifying Theory of Behaviour Change". Self-efficacy defined a person's particular set of beliefs about how well one would be able to execute a

plan of action in possible circumstances (Bandura, 1977). In short, according to Albert Bandura, self-efficacy was the faith in their capabilities, to devise a method of action to manage or succeed in a particular circumstance. He proposed four chief elements that shape the development of self-efficacy: performance outcomes, vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion, and physiological feedback.

Performance outcomes indicate the historical outcome from succeeding in a task. If a person competes successfully, this success would bolster belief in succeeding in another similar task.

In contrast, vicarious experience would be the source for reinforcing your own expectation or belief concerning success derived from somebody else's outcome of his or her situation. This might rely on the comparison made by someone with another.

Verbal persuasion refers to the encourage or discourage one's influence of others on performance.

Finally, physiological feedback indicates the body's response on an aroused individual with a particular circumstance situation. In a broader understanding, self-efficacy is deeply affected by the individual's existing psychological wellbeing and physical state.

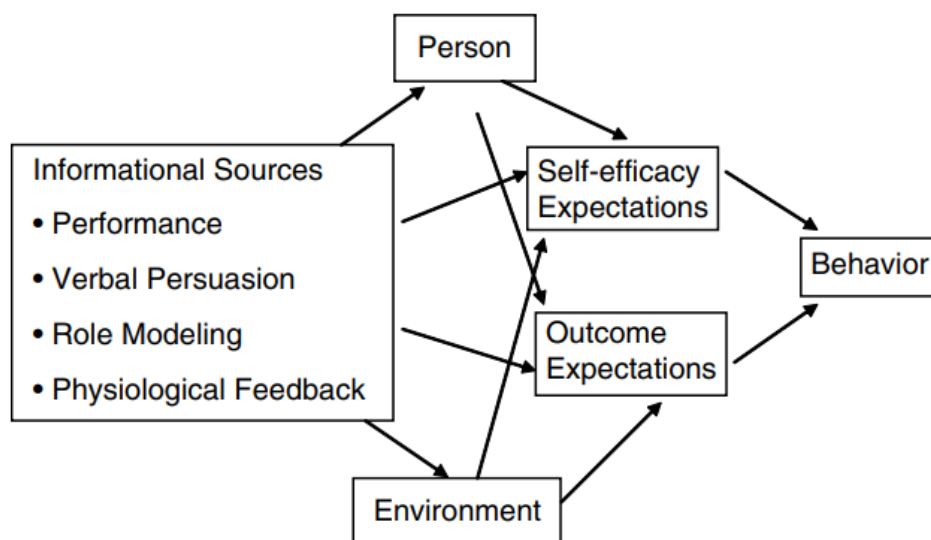


Figure 1: Lakey, B., & Orehek, E. (2011). Relational regulation theory: A new approach to explain the link between perceived social support and mental health. *Psychological Review*, 118(3), 482.

Self-efficacy theory was derived from Bandura's social cognitive theory, which is the theory that personal factors, but also social factors, are influences on an individual's behaviour. This constant interplay of social factors, personal factors, and behaviour is termed reciprocal determinism.

Here, self-efficacy is an important element. As defined earlier, it is affected by personal factors, such as beliefs, emotions, and past situations, as well as social factors, such as feedback, comparison, and encouragement. Therefore, it is crucial to comprehend these principles of interplay in understanding the development and projected influence of self-efficacy on an individual's life. Overall, self-efficacy highly impacts a person's success and motivation.

4.2 The Growing Relevance of Self-Efficacy in Workplace Performance and Psychological Well-Being

In parallel to leadership studies, self-efficacy has emerged as a prominent psychological variable affecting workplace behaviour and outcomes. Self-efficacy was originally conceptualized by Bandura (1977) as the conviction of an individual in his or her capacity to execute behaviours necessary to produce specific performance attainments. In an organizational context, self-efficacy is associated with greater motivation, persistence, flexibility, and resilience during times of pressure and uncertainty (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998; Luthans & Youssef-Morgan, 2017).

Research equates self-efficacy with human and organizational success. Thus, high self-efficacy positively correlates with job performance, organizational commitment, and proactive behaviour (Saks, 1995). Employees with high self-efficacy are most likely to embrace challenges, set difficult goals, and rebound from failure, thus boosting productivity in general. At the same time, self-efficacy protects against job stress, burnout, and dissatisfaction, thus contributing to psychological health (Schwarzer & Hallum, 2008). Consequently, self-efficacy is defined as not just performance-based but also relevant to workplace mental health.

In terms of leadership, empirical evidence suggests that leaders with high self-efficacy are more confident in their decision-making, more adaptable with their leadership approach, and more capable with manipulating team dynamics (McCormick, Tanguma, & López-Forment, 2002). In addition, leaders can influence the self-efficacy of their subordinates through modelling, feedback, and facilitation of mastery experiences (Luthans & Peterson, 2002). Thus, positively contributing to employee self-efficacy leads to effective leadership which in turn creates environment for thriving within the organization.

The combination of the leadership style and consideration for self-efficacy beliefs determines how effectively a team can operate under the pressure of avid competition, constant demands and volatility. Participative leadership styles aim to share responsibility and foster employee development to increase self-efficacy through enhancement the feelings of competence and self-agency (Arnold et al., 2000). In contrast, authoritative leadership may erode self-efficacy, especially for employees who place a high value on independence and self-direction.

5. Enhanced Perceptions for Effective Leadership

Leadership, considered the key to success in organizations, has been studied through various lenses of theories. Initially and still continuing is the trait approach, which argues that effective leaders have inborn characteristics that distinguish them from others who are non-leaders (Zaccaro, 2007). Traditionally, traits such as intelligence, self-confidence, determination, integrity, and sociability were thought to predispose individuals to be more effective leaders (Northouse, 2019). Increasingly, however, scholars and practitioners have come to recognize that this view is insufficient, especially given all evidence to date supporting situational, relational, and behavioural determinants of leadership effectiveness. This questioning led to a significant re-evaluation: Are traits really as important to leadership as they have long been considered?

5.1 Historical Importance of Traits in Leadership Theory

The trait theory of leadership emerged vigorously in the early 20th century and tied up with the "Great Man" theory, which implied that great leaders are born, not made (Galton, 1869). The first studies were about the definite list of traits, which consistently predicted successful leadership. Although research identified several traits generally existing in leaders- like extraversion, openness to experience, and emotional stability-the lack of consistent empirical evidence across contexts led to criticism of the predictive validity of trait theories (Stogdill, 1948).

But later meta-analytic reviews renewed interest in the trait perspective. For instance, Judge et al. (2002) reported strong relationships between leadership emergence with traits such as extraversion ($\rho = .31$), conscientiousness ($\rho = .28$), and openness to experience ($\rho = .24$). This evidence supported the idea that traits do, in fact, matter, though they may not be solely sufficient for leadership effectiveness. Thus, more modern scholarship started conceptualizing traits within a larger system that includes behavioural and contextual variables.

5.2 The Rise of Behavioural and Contingency Approaches

Conducted under a kind of limitation imposed upon trait theory, leadership studies evolved into behaviour theories focussing on what a leader does rather than what a leader is. Several researchers in the field, including Blake and Mouton (1964) and Lewin et al. (1939), indicated that the effectiveness of leaders could be influenced by one or more behaviours such as task orientation, relationship orientation, and participative decision-making. These findings culminated in suggesting that effective leadership can be learned so that these theories can even advance trait-based models in a deterministic way.

Along with the above trend, contingency approaches became prominent, noting the extent to which an effective manifestation of qualities and behaviours depends upon contextual variables. The most famous version is Fiedler's Contingency Model, which states that the effectiveness of an individual's style of leadership is contingent on the degree of match between the individual's style and the situational favourableness (Fiedler, 1967). Thus, a fundamental difference arose between trait essentialism and consideration of the situation; hence, situational awareness and flexibility became important.

5.3 Transformational and Servant Leadership

Also more recent transformational and servant leadership models have taken effective leadership even farther from static traits and more toward dynamic relational processes. Transformational leaders act as role models who influence and inspire followers to transcend their own self-interests for the sake of others through idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Bass & Riggio, 2006). While transformational leadership may have some trait correlates, such as charisma and emotional intelligence, the real power of transformational leadership lies not in these personality traits of leaders but rather in the interactions between the leaders and their followers.

Such traits include some combination of humility, empathy, and ethical stewardship in that order, which may be expressed in behaviour as acts rather than being inherent traits (Greenleaf, 1977; Eva et al., 2019). That further implies that someone who may not look like a conventional "leader" could actually act in a way that is an effective embodiment of the common good and the wellbeing of others.

5.4 Trait Relevance in Contemporary Contexts

Some questions about the current state of theory-integration on theorizing the constructs of leadership competencies will still arise. More saliently, there are still critics of trait-based approaches, arguing that such constructions narrowly approach leadership and would be best removed from acceptable conceptualizations. They advocate instead for a much more holistic conception which theorizes leadership as a dynamic process or transaction and not merely the possession of some innate qualities (Zaccaro, Kemp, & Bader, 2004). For example, recent research has revealed psychological capital, which includes hope, efficacy, resilience, and optimism, as a both trait-like and state-like construct enhancing leadership performance (Luthans & Youssef-Morgan, 2017).

Moreover, in today's rapidly changing, diverse, globally interconnected environments, it has become necessary to blend cognitive, emotional, and social capabilities for leaders to be successful. Within this context, adaptability, curiosity, and a tolerance for ambiguity may be considered more relevant than assertiveness or dominance (Yukl & Gardner, 2020).

Currently, most leadership researchers seem to agree that traits do matter, but their presence will not determine leadership. They can impact how individuals perceive themselves to be leaders and how they are seen as leaders by others. Generally, leadership effectiveness can be understood as dependent on complex trait-behaviour-relationship-context interplay. As Zaccaro (2007) admirably points out, traits lay a ground, but their effective mobilization goes through certain leadership processes such as communication, decision-making, and team building.

Leadership development programs are increasingly directed toward developing behavioural competencies and enhancing emotional intelligence, even in those individuals who may not initially be strongly considered as having leadership traits (Boyatzis, Smith, & Blaize, 2006). This suggests that there is a belief in the idea of developing leadership as well as in the understanding that effective leadership is more than an assemblage of natural traits.

6. LITERATURE REVIEW

Alhmoud & Al-Kasasbeh (2024) provide a multidimensional review of leadership styles and their effects on employee engagement and organizational performance across various sectors. The study identifies transformational and servant leadership as particularly effective in promoting both engagement and organizational outcomes. Their findings support a people-centred leadership model that adapts to sector-specific demands. This research is valuable for human resource strategies aimed at sustainable performance improvement and workforce well-being.

Diana, Ngaliman & Catrayasa (2024) explore how leadership style, career level, and the physical work environment influence nurse job satisfaction at a psychiatric hospital, using self-efficacy as a mediating variable. Findings indicate that leadership and work conditions significantly affect job satisfaction, with self-efficacy playing a central mediating role. The research promotes leadership development and environmental improvements as levers to enhance staff satisfaction and retention.

Grover & Amit (2024) present a comprehensive analysis of the relationship between the Big Five personality traits and leadership styles. The study reveals that different leadership styles align with specific personality traits, and effective leaders can enhance their performance by tailoring their approach to the unique needs of their teams. By examining how personality traits such as extraversion, openness, and conscientiousness influence leadership decisions, the research underscores the importance of self-awareness in leadership development. This article contributes to leadership psychology by demonstrating the predictive utility of personality frameworks in leader behaviour and decision-making processes.

Anggraini & Ismail (2023) investigate the effects of work discipline and self-efficacy on employee performance in the Bangkalan legislative secretariat, with leadership style as an intervening variable. While discipline shows a negative effect on performance, self-efficacy and leadership style contribute positively. The study underscores the complex interplay between organizational structures, personal motivation, and managerial behaviour in shaping workforce outcomes.

Javalagi, Newman & Li (2023) conduct a meta-analysis focusing on reputational traits—specifically Extraversion, Agreeableness, and Honesty-Humility—in shaping leadership effectiveness. The findings support the Reputational Trait Model, demonstrating that how leaders are perceived, rather than their intrinsic traits alone, significantly influences their leadership outcomes. This research underscores the interplay between interpersonal perception and effective leadership in modern organizational settings.

Koutsoumpa (2023) provides a succinct synthesis of the relationship between personality traits and leadership effectiveness, grounded in the Five-Factor Model. The mini review highlights how traits such as conscientiousness and emotional stability are positively correlated with effective leadership. It also notes the moderating influence of situational factors and prior experiences, underscoring the need for context-sensitive leadership development. The work contributes to leadership research by emphasizing the necessity of tailoring leadership strategies to diverse professional sectors and scenarios.

Liegl & Furtner (2023) adopt a faceted approach to explore the relationship between extraversion and leadership effectiveness. The study finds that leadership success is less dependent on perceived extraversion and more on leadership behaviour, such as transformational or transactional styles. Notably, transformational leaders were often perceived as less extraverted, suggesting that effective leadership may

defy stereotypical personality associations. These insights contribute significantly to the evolving discourse on the nuanced interplay between personality and leadership perception.

Sleesman, Hollenbeck, Davison & Ganegoda (2022) investigate the role of leader intuition in multiteam system (MTS) performance under varying information loads and levels of introversion. The study finds that intuitive leaders perform better under high information load, especially when they exhibit higher introversion, but may hinder performance in low information contexts if low in introversion. This nuanced analysis introduces a situational lens to leadership effectiveness, highlighting the conditional value of intuition in complex, high-stakes decision-making environments.

Syahputra, Lubis & Effendy (2022) explore how leadership style and self-efficacy influence subjective well-being among traffic police personnel in Deliserdang. The study identifies a significant positive correlation between effective leadership and well-being, asserting that strong self-efficacy boosts not only individual performance but also happiness. This research reinforces the psychological benefits of sound leadership and personal belief systems in high-pressure, service-oriented professions.

Spark & O'Connor (2021) investigate the emergent leadership of introverts who adopt extraverted behaviours. The study finds that "state extraversion"—temporary displays of extraverted behaviour—predicts emergent leadership more than trait-based characteristics. It reveals that while introverts can emerge as leaders by acting extraverted, doing so may reduce self-rated leadership efficacy. The research provides a nuanced perspective on leadership emergence and suggests that behavioural adaptability can influence leadership opportunities, albeit with psychological trade-offs.

Lebin, Riddle, Chang & Keller (2019) explore the underrepresentation and potential of introverted individuals in academic psychiatry leadership roles. The study emphasizes that introverts, despite systemic biases and stressors within medical training, offer substantial value to leadership through their reflective and collaborative traits. The authors advocate for an inclusive leadership model that appreciates introverted strengths and encourages the integration of diverse temperaments in leadership training. This work is critical in challenging the extroversion bias prevalent in medical and academic leadership development paradigms.

Manshi & Mishra (2019) examine self-leadership as a catalyst for enhanced workplace performance, motivation, and stress management. The study positions self-leadership as foundational to broader leadership development and team productivity. By focusing on self-regulation and intrinsic motivation, the research provides practical implications for workplace wellness and performance optimization strategies.

Niranga & Dharmadasa (2019) examine the impact of introverted and extroverted leadership styles on organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB) within the IT sector in Sri Lanka, considering the moderating role of leader-member relationships. The findings reveal that introverted leaders positively influence OCB, and that strong leader-member relationships enhance the impact of extroverted leaders. This study underscores the importance of contextual and relational factors in leadership effectiveness and offers practical implications for leader selection and development in team-based settings.

Cobanoglu & Yurek (2018) investigate the relationship between school administrators' self-efficacy beliefs and their leadership styles. The study finds a significant association between high self-efficacy and the adoption of transformational leadership practices. It emphasizes the importance of fostering self-efficacy among educational leaders to drive institutional effectiveness and administrative resilience.

Duggan (2018) examines the role of affective forecasts in introverted leadership, specifically focusing on how introverted leaders anticipate emotional outcomes and their implications on leadership effectiveness. The dissertation contributes to an underexplored intersection of emotion prediction and personality in leadership, highlighting how affective expectations shape team interactions, leader confidence, and decision-making under uncertainty.

Kahnweiler (2018), in *The Introverted Leader: Building on Your Quiet Strength*, introduces a practical framework—the 4 Ps Process—for empowering introverts to thrive in extroverted-dominated workplace environments. By reframing introversion as a strength rather than a deficit, the book provides actionable guidance for introverted professionals to succeed without compromising authenticity. This second edition further solidifies its role as a foundational text in leadership and career development literature, particularly in its contribution to personality-inclusive leadership models.

Emrick (2016) analyses how single-sex student leadership experiences influence leadership styles, self-efficacy, and future leadership intentions. The findings show that gender-specific leadership settings impact both perceptions and behaviours, with female leaders often evaluated more positively than males. The research highlights enduring gender stereotypes and advocates for more inclusive leadership training to support diversity and equity in leadership development.

Hudson & Ferguson (2016) challenge dominant leadership stereotypes by exploring the effectiveness of extroverts, introverts, and ambiverts. The article argues that leadership success is not confined to extroversion, and both introverts and ambiverts exhibit qualities that are advantageous in different organizational contexts. By highlighting the dynamic capabilities of ambiverts in particular, the study broadens the leadership paradigm and provides empirical support for more inclusive leadership assessment criteria.

Ike, Eze & Ukeh (2016) analyse how leadership styles and self-efficacy contribute to job involvement among employees in Enugu State. The research reveals that proper alignment between leadership style and employee expectations enhances engagement, while high self-efficacy correlates with stronger identification with organizational goals. The findings support strategies that prioritize psychological empowerment to boost organizational productivity and loyalty.

Savelsbergh & Staebler (2015) examine leadership styles and personality preferences in the effectiveness of teacher consultation, particularly for mainstreamed students. Contrary to expectations, leadership styles did not significantly impact consultation success. However, personality traits—especially sensing and extraversion—proved to be strong predictors. The study suggests a need for consultant selection and training based on cognitive and interpersonal style rather than hierarchical role.

Stephens-Craig, Kuofie & Dool (2015) investigate how mid to high-level leaders perceive introverted leaders. The study highlights a cultural predisposition favouring extroverted leadership traits in U.S. contexts, while also identifying unique advantages associated with introverted leadership, such as

thoughtful decision-making and deep listening. This empirical analysis encourages a revaluation of traditional leadership expectations and promotes a more nuanced understanding of leadership efficacy that includes introverted traits. The findings offer a crucial perspective for leadership selection and development strategies.

Kuhn (2012) explores how employee personality traits, particularly agreeableness and openness, relate to preferences for transformational leadership. The study finds that congruence between a leader's style and an employee's preference significantly predicts satisfaction and perceived leader effectiveness. It recommends adaptive leadership practices aligned with employee personality profiles to enhance workplace outcomes and organizational cohesion.

Yang (2012) explores the influence of self-leadership on employee innovation behaviour in service enterprises, with self-efficacy as a mediating variable. The study concludes that self-leadership significantly promotes innovation by enhancing employees' self-efficacy. This research supports the implementation of self-leadership training as a means to foster a more innovative and autonomous workforce. It contributes to organizational behaviour literature by elucidating psychological mechanisms that drive innovative output in service contexts.

Ghorbanshirodi, Khalatbari & Akhshabi (2011) assess the correlation between various personality traits and leadership styles among school principals. The study concludes that relationship-oriented leadership aligns closely with traits such as sociability and independence. Utilizing questionnaires and statistical methods, it offers empirical insight into how personality can inform leadership style selection in educational leadership contexts.

Forouzande et al. (2010) focus on nurse managers in Iran, finding a strong correlation between extroversion and leadership effectiveness. Extroverted managers demonstrated superior communication and decision-making abilities. The study advocates for incorporating personality assessments into recruitment and leadership development in nursing, emphasizing extroversion as a key trait for success in managerial roles.

7. METHODOLOGY

Aim

To study the relationship between Self Efficacy and Introversion among working professionals with Authoritative and Democratic Leadership Style.

Objectives

a) To find out the relationship between Self Efficacy and Introversion among working professionals with Authoritative and Democratic Leadership Style.

b) To measure the difference on the level of Self Efficacy and Introversion among working professionals with Authoritative and Democratic Leadership Style.

ypotheses

H1: There will be significant relationship between Self Efficacy and Introversion among working professionals with Democratic Leadership Style.

H2: There will be significant relationship between Self Efficacy and Introversion among working professionals with Authoritative Leadership Style.

H3: There will be significant difference on the level of Self Efficacy among working professionals with Authoritative and Democratic Leadership Style.

H4: There will be significant difference on the level of Introversion among working professionals with Authoritative and Democratic Leadership Style.

Research Variables

Independent variable: Introversion and Self-efficacy

Dependent variable: Leadership Style

Sample Description

The sample consists of 78 working professionals, they were further divided into two groups ; Authoritative Leadership Style (39) and Democratic Leadership Style (39) . The sampling design used is purposive sampling and both male and female participants were asked to take initiative.

Tools Used

The data in this particular study is collected with the help of scales of Leadership Style Questionnaire, Introversion Scale and General Self Efficacy Scale .

A. Leadership Style Questionnaire

The Leadership Style Questionnaire (LSQ) is a self- assessment instrument developed by Peter G Northouse to measure an individual's preference for three different leadership styles: authoritarian, democratic and laissez-faire. The LSQ has been shown to be reliable in a number of studies. One study found that the LSQ had a Cronbach's alpha .82, which is considered to be good reliability. Another study found that the LSQ had a test-retest reliability of 0.78 which means that the questionnaire produces consistent results over time. LSQ is a valid measure of Leadership style, it has been shown to have good content validity, construct validity and product validity.

B. Introversion Scale

This introversion scale was developed by McCroskey to be distinct from measures of communication apprehension. An examination of the literature on introversion indicated that other introversions scales have included items that were tapping apprehension about communication. Items were drawn from the work of Eysenck, with items which referenced communication excluded. This permits the measurement of introversion without the contamination of communication apprehension items and allows the examination of both introversion and communication apprehension as predictors of communication behaviours independently of each other. The correlations of this measure with the PRCA-24 have been around .30. Alpha reliability estimates have been above .80. Items to measure neuroticism are used as filler items and are not scored with the introversion items.

C. General Self Efficacy Scale

The General Self-Efficacy Scale (GSE; Schwarzer & Jerusalem, 1995) was created to assess a general sense of perceived self-efficacy with the aim in mind to predict coping with daily hassles as well as adaptation after experiencing all kinds of stressful life events. The German version of this scale was originally developed by Jerusalem and Schwarzer in 1981, first as a 20-item version and later as a reduced 10-item version (Jerusalem & Schwarzer, 1986, 1992; Schwarzer & Jerusalem, 1989). The scale is designed for the general adult population, including adolescents. In samples from 23 nations (the scale is reported to be available in 33 languages), Cronbach's alphas ranged from .75 to .90, with the majority in the high .80s.

Procedure

The research is carried out on young adult and adolescent students. Everyone was pre-informed that their data will be highly confidential. Three Questionnaires were utilized in the research and online survey forms as well as face to face forms will be distributed. No participant is forced to fill out the online survey form. The participants are pre-informed about the nature and conduction of the research. . The subjects gave their agreement and participated willingly in the study project. Following the collection of the appropriate replies, the raw scores for each variable and each participant were recorded in excel sheets. The data was interpreted and analysed once they had been tabulated.

8. ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

The correlation matrix shows the correlation coefficients between a set of variables, and allows seeing which pair of variables have highest correlation.

Table 1: Correlation value between Self- efficacy and Introversion among working professionals with Authoritative Leadership Style.

Variable	N	r	p
Self-Efficacy	39	-.560	Sig***
Introversion	39		

Significant at both levels (0.05 & 0.01)

According to Table 1, Self-Efficacy and Introversion are negatively correlated ($r = -0.56$) and also significant at 0.01 level. This shows that an increase in Self-Efficacy tends to decrease Introversion scores among working professionals with Authoritative Leadership Style.

Table 2: Correlation value between Self- efficacy and Introversion among working professionals with Democratic Leadership Style.

Variable	N	r	p
Self-Efficacy	39	-.796	Sig***
Introversion	39		

Significant at both levels (0.05 & 0.01)

According Table 2, Self-Efficacy and Introversion are negatively correlated ($r = -0.79$) and also significant at 0.01 level. This shows that an increase in Self-Efficacy tends to decrease Introversion scores among working professionals with Democratic Leadership Style.

Table 3: Mean, Standard Deviation and t value for Self-efficacy among working professionals with Authoritative and Democratic Leadership Style.

Group	N	M	S.D	t	p
Authoritative	39	20.12	6.63	-.599	Insig
Democratic	39	21.00	6.20		

Insignificant at both levels

According to table 3, the t test yields a t-value of -0.599 indicating a statically insignificant difference in means for Self-efficacy among working professionals with Authoritative and Democratic Leadership Style.

Table 4: Mean, Standard Deviation and t value for Introversion among working professionals with Authoritative and Democratic Leadership Style.

Group	N	M	S.D	t	p
Authoritative	39	39.97	12.93	1.109	Insig
Democratic	39	36.74	12.79		

Insignificant at both levels

According to table 4, the t test yields a t-value of 1.109 indicating a statically insignificant difference in means for Self-efficacy among working professionals with Authoritative and Democratic Leadership Style.

9. DISCUSSION

This title of the paper is Self-Efficacy, Introversion and Leadership Styles among Working Professionals. Raw scores from 78 working professionals were collected using Leadership Style Questionnaire, Introversion Scale and General Self Efficacy Scale. The Pearson Product Moment Correlation and Independent T-test were used to analyse the results.

Table 1 provided evidence of a significant negative correlation between self-efficacy and introversion in the context of an authoritative style of leadership. This denotes that with an increase in self-efficacy, introversion tends to go lower, and vice versa. This supports earlier literature, namely, Lebin et al. (2019) and Kahnweiler (2018), stating that leaders at a lower Whitaker level of introversion are generally secured in the minds of others in assertive, directive leadership situations. While authoritative leaders should be seen as controlling and decisive, self-efficacy may naturally be inclined toward extroverted tendencies.

This inverse relationship was reaffirmed in Table 2, with an even stronger correlation found between democratic leadership style self-efficacy and introversion. This heightened relationship means that self-efficacy was less likely to be correlated with introversion even in settings where the abilities to reflect and listen serve introverted leaders well (Grover & Amit, 2024; Alhmoud & Al-Kasasbeh, 2024). There may exist an intricate interplay wherein introverted leaders have to work doubly hard in employing self-regulating strategies for validating their leadership confidence even in situations accommodating their natural disposition (Kahnweiler, 2018).

Tables 3 and 4 likewise proved that there were no significant differences in self-efficacy or introversion between different styles of individuals practicing authoritative versus democratic leadership. These findings suggest that even if self-efficacy and introversion are correlated, a given leadership style does not play a role in moderating the mean-level profiles of each. This finding also backs the standpoint of Stephens-Craig et al. (2015), which underlined the malleability of personality attributes across styles of leadership as opposed to fixed loyalty.

The first hypothesis: self-efficacy was expected to have a significant negative relationship with introversion among working professionals having an authoritative leadership style. Support for this hypothesis was obtained in the form of significant negative relationship which demonstrates that there is a tendency for higher levels of self-efficacy to correspond with lower levels of introversion in authoritative leadership contexts.

The second hypothesis, just like the first one, was proved when suggested significant negative relationship existed between self-efficacy with introversion denied in professionals having a democratic leadership style. Even stronger correlation in this group reinforced an inverse relationship of both constructs across the distinct leadership paradigms.

Meanwhile, the third and fourth hypotheses-they assume that there will be significant differences in mean levels of self-efficacy and introversion between individuals with authoritative and democratic leadership

styles-not established. Independent t-test results show that there is no statistically significant difference in self-efficacy or introversion between these two groups.

Thus, while relationships between self-efficacy and introversion are robust across leadership styles, the overall levels of these traits in working professionals are not significantly affected by leadership style under study. So, the acceptance was only for the former two hypotheses rejecting the latter two.

10. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

This title of the paper is Self-Efficacy, Introversion and Leadership Styles among Working Professionals. Raw scores from 78 working professionals were collected using Leadership Style Questionnaire, Introversion Scale and General Self Efficacy Scale. The Pearson Product Moment Correlation and Independent T-test were used to analyse the results.

Objectives

- a) To find out the relationship between Self Efficacy and Introversion among working professionals with Authoritative and Democratic Leadership Style.
- b) To measure the difference on the level of Self Efficacy and Introversion among working professionals with Authoritative and Democratic Leadership Style.

Hypotheses

- H1:** There will be significant relationship between Self Efficacy and Introversion among working professionals with Democratic Leadership Style.
- H2:** There will be significant relationship between Self Efficacy and Introversion among working professionals with Authoritative Leadership Style.
- H3:** There will be significant difference on the level of Self Efficacy among working professionals with Authoritative and Democratic Leadership Style.
- H4:** There will be significant difference on the level of Introversion among working professionals with Authoritative and Democratic Leadership Style.

Key Findings:

- A significant negative correlation was found between self-efficacy and introversion in both Authoritative leadership style and Democratic leadership style among working professionals.
- No significant difference in self-efficacy levels between Authoritative leadership style and Democratic leadership style among working professionals.
- No significant difference in introversion levels between Authoritative leadership style and Democratic leadership style among working professionals.

Interpretation: The findings support the idea that higher self-efficacy is associated with lower introversion, regardless of leadership style. However, leadership style itself does not significantly alter levels of self-efficacy or introversion.

Limitations of the Study:

- Small sample size ($N = 79$) may limit generalizability.
- The study focused only on authoritative and democratic styles, excluding other leadership types (e.g., laissez-faire).
- Self-reported measures may introduce social desirability bias.
- Cultural and organizational contexts were not controlled, which may influence self-efficacy and personality expression.

Future Recommendations:

- Conduct studies with larger, more diverse samples to enhance generalizability.
- Explore other leadership styles (transformational, transactional, etc.) for broader insights.
- Use mixed-method approaches (e.g., interviews, observations) to complement self-reports.
- Investigate the role of cultural background, organizational structure, and gender in moderating the relationship between self-efficacy and introversion.

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APPENDIX