AN ANALYTICAL STUDY ON THE ASSOCIATION BETWEEN INTROVERSION-EXTRAVERSION PERSONALITY TRAITS AND LEADERSHIP STYLE AMONG COLLEGE STUDENTS

A

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"An Analytical Study on the Association Between Introversion-Extraversion Personality Traits and Leadership Style among College Students."

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the award of the Degree of M.A. Psychology (Clinical and Counselling) of MIER College of Education, is an authentic record of my own research work carried out under the supervision of Dr Neha Tewatia, Assistant Professor.

I further declare that the work embodied in the present dissertation:

a) Is my original work and has not been copied from any research journal, dissertation, thesis, or book;

b) Has not been submitted by me for the award of any other Degree/Diploma/Certificate of any University or Institution;

c) All sources of information used in this study have been duly acknowledged.

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"Between stimulus and response there is a space. In that space lies our power to choose our response. In our response lies our growth and our freedom."

— Viktor E. Frankl

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

Abbreviations	Full Form
BFI	Big Five Inventory
CPE	Change, Production, Employee (Leadership Behaviour Scale)
ERS	Engagement Rating Scale
IEPQ	Introvert–Extravert Personality Questionnaire
LCA	Latent Class Analysis
LMX	Leader–Member Exchange
LPI	Leonard Personality Inventory
LSE	Leadership Self-Efficacy
LSQ	Leadership Style Questionnaire
M	Mean
N	Total Sample Size
n	Subgroup Sample Size
SD	Standard Deviation
SE	Standard Error
SEM	Structural Equation Modelling
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
UAE	United Arab Emirates

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ABSTRACT

This study examined the relationship between introversion–extraversion personality traits and leadership style preferences among college students, with a specific focus on gender-based differences. A quantitative correlational design was employed using a sample of 238 young adults (146 males, 92 females) aged 18 to 26 years. Data were collected through two standardized instruments: the Introvert–Extravert Personality Questionnaire by Eysenck and Eysenck (1964) and the Leadership Style Questionnaire based on the Lewin, Lippitt, and White (1939) framework. Pearson product-moment correlations and independent samples t-tests were used for statistical analysis.

Findings revealed significant gender differences across all measured variables. Female participants demonstrated markedly higher leadership orientation ($M = 58.22$) compared to males ($M = 42.21$), reflected by a large effect size (Cohen's $d = -0.945$). Male participants reported significantly higher introversion scores, whereas females scored higher on extraversion. A strong negative correlation emerged between introversion and leadership ($r = -.70$, $p < .001$), suggesting that greater introversion was associated with lower self-perceived leadership orientation. A modest but statistically significant positive correlation was observed between extraversion and leadership ($r = .14$, $p < .05$). These results were interpreted through Eysenck's biological theory of personality, gender schema theory, self-concept theory, and person-environment fit theory. The findings suggest that the college environment, characterised by social visibility and peer interaction, tends to favour extraverted personality configurations, which disproportionately align with female participants in this sample. The study concludes that both personality orientation and gender meaningfully shape leadership identity during emerging adulthood.

Keywords: personality traits, introversion–extraversion, leadership styles, college students, gender differences

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Personality

Gordon Allport's Definition of Personality: "The dynamic organization of those psychophysical systems within an individual that determine his unique adjustments to the environment is his personality." (Allport, 1937). According to Allport, a person's personality is a structured, ever-evolving system. It explains how each person reacts differently to situations in life and incorporates both psychological (mind) and physical (body) elements.

According to Hans Eysenck, personality: "A person's personality is the more or less stable and enduring organization of his character, temperament, intellect, and physique, which determines his unique adjustment to the environment." Eysenck (1971). Eysenck viewed personality as a comparatively constant structure composed of temperament, character, intelligence, and physical characteristics. Together, these factors affect how a person adjusts and acts in various contexts.

For many decades, psychology has relied heavily on the idea of personality to explain individual differences in behaviour, emotions, and mental processes. The Latin word persona, which described the masks actors wore to portray various roles in ancient theatre, is where the word personality first appeared. This origin shows the early notion that social duties and physical appearance were strongly linked to personality. As time went on, psychologists grew to see personality as a more profound and long-lasting system of psychological traits that affect behaviour in a variety of contexts.

It is widely recognized that personality is a complex and structured pattern of characteristics that influence how people view, engage with, and adjust to their surroundings (Allport, 1937; McAdams, 1995; Larsen & Buss, 2018). Dispositional inclinations that are largely constant across time and in many contexts are frequently used to characterize personality traits. These traits serve as "dispositional signatures," according to McAdams (1995), that offer a broad picture of a person's personality regardless of particular circumstances. In a similar vein, Augustine and Larsen (2012) clarified that personality traits are the typical or anticipated patterns of behaviour that an individual exhibits throughout time. These characteristics affect how people react

to different life circumstances on an emotional, cognitive, and behavioural level. Additionally, studies have demonstrated how personality traits influence decision-making, coping mechanisms, and interpersonal connections, underscoring its significance in day-to-day functioning (Jackson et al., 2012; Kritzler et al., 2019).

Personality was conceptualized differently from a behavioural standpoint. Behaviourism's originator, Watson (1930), maintained that personality is the culmination of observable behaviours and rejected internal mental states. He believed that long-term, methodical monitoring of a person's behaviour in many contexts could provide insight into their personality. The richness of human personality could not be adequately explained by behaviour alone, according to later theorists (Watson, 1930; Hall & Lindzey, 1978; Larsen & Buss, 2018). Eysenck (1971) offered a more thorough biological explanation of personality, characterizing it as a comparatively stable and persistent organization of character, temperament, intelligence, and physiology. Eysenck defined temperament as emotional and affective aspects of behaviour, intelligence as cognitive capacities, character as moral and volitional qualities, and physique as bodily and physiological elements like neuroendocrine functioning. He emphasized that personality has a deep biological foundation and is crucial in shaping how people adjust to their surroundings. Critics countered that Eysenck's model was relatively constrictive because it paid little attention to social and cultural effects and placed a strong emphasis on biological variables (Eysenck, 1971; Pervin, Cervone, & John, 2005).

The word "personality" is frequently used imprecisely in ordinary speech to refer to charisma, social influence, or attractiveness. A movie star or political figure, for instance, may be described as having a "strong personality," frequently alluding to their attractiveness, self-assurance, or public presence. Psychologists stress, however, that these interpretations only encompass a small portion of personality. Personality is not something that can be directly observed or seen in a mirror; instead, it is deduced from persistent behavioural, emotional, and cognitive patterns across time and in many contexts. It includes how people affect other people, how they view themselves, and how they control their behaviour in various social situations (Larsen & Buss, 2018; Pervin et al., 2005; McCrae & Costa, 2008). All things considered, personality is a complex concept that incorporates social, psychological, and biological aspects of human functioning. It offers a framework for comprehending individual differences

and forecasting behaviour in a variety of spheres of life, including relationships, employment, education, and mental health. Although personality traits are generally stable, they can gradually alter as a result of life experiences, according to modern personality psychology. Because it enables psychologists to obtain a deeper understanding of human behaviour and individual uniqueness, an understanding of personality is consequently crucial for psychological assessment, counselling, and research (McAdams & Pals, 2006; Roberts et al., 2008; Schultz & Schultz, 2017).

Role of Heredity in shaping behaviour

Heredity plays a fundamental and crucial role in forming personality since it offers the underlying biological structure and genetic predispositions that influence how people think, feel, and behave. Temperamental features like emotional responsiveness, adaptability, activity levels, sociability, and cognitive capability are inherited through genetic transmission and serve as the basis for later personality traits. Numerous traits of personality, including neuroticism, extraversion, impulsivity, and even vulnerability to psychological diseases, have a substantial heritable component, according to behavioural genetics research, including twin, family, and adoption studies. Neurobiological systems, such as the brain, endocrine glands, and neurotransmitters like dopamine and serotonin that control mood, motivation, and behavioural tendencies, are also influenced by genes.

Heredity does not act in a vacuum; rather, it creates a spectrum of possibilities within which environmental influences operate, even as it defines the baseline potential for some behavioural traits. Therefore, even though people may be born with certain predispositions because of their family history either positive traits like emotional stability and resilience or vulnerabilities like aggression, anxiety, or impulsivity how these traits ultimately manifest depends largely on the environments they come into contact with throughout their lives. The basic blueprint is thus provided by heredity, but the interaction with environmental events continuously shapes, strengthens, or moderates its influence.

Role of Environment in shaping behaviour

The environment plays an equally significant and dynamic role in personality formation by shaping people via continuous education, social interactions, and cultural exposure, as well as by affecting how inherited potentials are expressed. The

family environment has a significant influence on the development of trust, autonomy, self-esteem, and emotional regulation from an early age, especially when it comes to parenting methods, emotional climate, communication patterns, and parental modelling. As kids get older, their views, values, coping mechanisms, and behavioural reactions are further shaped by external contextual elements such peer relationships, school environments, neighbourhood features, cultural beliefs, socioeconomic position, and media exposure. Although adverse circumstances characterized by conflict, inconsistent discipline, neglect, or affiliation with deviant peer groups may impede healthy development and raise the risk of maladaptive traits or behavioural issues, supportive and intellectually stimulating environments foster curiosity, social competence, and emotional stability inherited traits and lived experiences.

Introversion

Gordon Allport's Definition of Introversion: An individual's inclination to focus their interests and energies on their inner ideas, emotions, and experiences is known as introversion.

According to Zhang (2009), introverts are more energized by deep contemplation and solitary pursuits than by social interaction in large groups. They frequently steer clear of situations where they become the focus of attention since they are typically quiet, restrained, introspective, and sensitive to overstimulation. Jung (1971) defined introverts as inward-looking people who find psychological solace in the realm of concepts, symbols, and introspection. They exhibit high levels of self-awareness, emotional control, and intrapersonal intelligence—qualities that enable in-depth analysis and thoughtful decision-making.

Despite their seeming withdrawnness, introverts are noted for qualities like responsibility, self-discipline, and deliberate communication, and they develop deep, meaningful relationships with a select group of trusted people. Even if they are not very communicative, introverted people frequently have great verbal skills, large vocabularies, and high intellectual capacity, according to Ostojic (1983) and Furnham (2001).

The development of introversion is greatly influenced by a number of biological and temperamental factors. According to Eysenck's (1967) biological theory of personality, introverts are more aware to their surroundings because they have higher

baseline cortical arousal levels. They therefore favour calm, low-stimulation settings in order to prevent overwhelmed. This theory is further supported by temperament research by Kagan (1997), which demonstrates that newborns with high reactivity, sensitivity to novelty, and behavioural inhibition are more likely to grow up to be introverted adults. These early biological tendencies serve as the basis for adult introversion and typically do not change over time. Additionally, introversion is influenced by inherited biological predispositions, according to genetic research that shows traits like shyness, inhibition, and a liking for solitude have considerable heritability (Plomin et al., 2016). The way introverted people interpret reward, risk, and social information is also influenced by neurobiological processes, such as dopamine sensitivity and activity in the prefrontal cortex and amygdala.

The development and manifestation of introversion are further influenced by environmental, cultural, cognitive, and affective variables. Family experiences, including consistency, emotional support, and parenting style, are important. Hurlock (1976) says that while excessively critical or authoritarian situations may exacerbate social disengagement, anxiety, or feelings of inferiority, emotionally warm, regulated environments may assist introverted youngsters develop resilience, creativity, and confidence. Introversion is also influenced by culture. Collectivistic societies frequently place a high importance on stillness, modesty, and introspection, which fosters an environment where introverted characteristics are socially acceptable (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Conversely, introverts may feel pressured to act more extroverted in Western individualistic cultures that value assertiveness and social visibility, which could result in social exhaustion or diminished self-esteem. Additionally, introversion is reinforced by cognitive and emotional characteristics. Since introverts tend to be highly self-aware, have good emotional regulation abilities, and have profound reflective powers, solitary thought is inherently gratifying. Even while introverts may occasionally have internalized anxiety or social overstimulation, they are excellent at tasks that call for focus, perseverance, solo effort, and careful problem-solving. Thus, biological predispositions, early temperament, social experiences, cultural expectations, and cognitive-emotional patterns interact intricately to produce introversion, which results in a personality characterized by depth, reflection, creativity, and inner resilience.

A person's sensitivity to stimulation and social contact is shaped by a mix of biological and genetic elements that affect introversion. Eysenck's biological theory states that introverts have higher baseline cortical arousal, especially in the brain's reticular activating system, which makes them more receptive to outside stimuli and more at ease in calm, low-stimulation settings (Eysenck, 1967). Because of this increased reactivity, introverted people typically seek solitude and avoid excessive social interaction in order to preserve psychological equilibrium. According to genetic research, introversion-related characteristics like shyness, behavioural inhibition, and social disengagement have a moderate heritability, suggesting that introversion is partially inherited (Plomin et al., 2016). Additionally, temperamental research indicates that introverted personality characteristics are frequently developed later in life in newborns that are extremely reactive, cautious, or sensitive to novelty (Kagan, 1997).

The development and expression of introversion are significantly influenced by environmental circumstances. Early social experiences, parenting practices, and the family environment all have a big impact on how people develop their personalities. While excessively critical, authoritarian, or emotionally distant environments may exacerbate withdrawal, anxiety, or social inhibition, supportive, emotionally warm, and structured family settings enable introverted people to develop confidence, emotional stability, and independence (Hurlock, 1976). Introversion is also influenced by peer relationships and school experiences; a desire for seclusion and introspection may be reinforced by repeated encounters with rejection, criticism, or failure in social settings. Additionally, individualistic cultures frequently encourage assertiveness and sociability, which may put pressure on introverted people to repress their innate tendencies, whereas collectivistic cultures tend to value quietness, humility, and introspection (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). An inward orientation is reinforced by cognitive and emotional variables, which further contribute to introversion. Internal mental activity is more fulfilling than outward stimulation for introverted people since they frequently have high intrapersonal intelligence, excellent self-awareness, and reflective thinking skills (Jung, 1971). Due to the possibility of overstimulation or exhaustion, introverts seek to control their emotions in private and steer clear of emotionally charged or extremely stimulating situations. Introverted tendencies may also be strengthened by life experiences like extended periods of seclusion, academic involvement, creative endeavours, or intellectual hobbies. These biological,

environmental, cognitive, and cultural elements all work together to constantly form introversion as a stable but flexible personality orientation.

Extraversion

According to Hans Eysenck, extraversion: Sociability, activity, assertiveness, excitement-seeking, and a propensity to look for stimulation from the outside world are characteristics of extraversion. Eysenck (1967)

Extraversion is a major personality orientation characterized by an outward direction of energy, attention, and psychological interest toward the external world. According to Bozionelos (2004), extraversion is typified by sociability, assertiveness, ambition, social dominance, action orientation, sensation-seeking, and the frequent experience of positive affect. Individuals high in extraversion are enthusiastic, talkative, energetic, and comfortable in social settings, often seeking stimulation through interpersonal interaction and external activities. Jung (1989) conceptualized extraversion as an attitude type marked by the outward flow of libido, where psychological energy is directed toward people, objects, and events in the environment. Extraverted individuals think, feel, and behave in close connection with external objects, and their decisions are largely shaped by social norms, objective realities, and situational demands. Jung further emphasized that extraversion involves a strong, though not exclusive, attachment to the object, such that the individual's orientation toward the outer world is clearly visible and easily observable. Whether through intellectual extraversion, in which the individual thinks himself into the object, or emotional extraversion, in which he feels himself into the object, extraversion reflects an object-centred mode of psychological functioning. Several biological and temperamental factors contribute to the development of extraversion. Eysenck's (1967) biological theory suggests that extraverts have lower baseline cortical arousal levels, leading them to seek external stimulation to achieve optimal arousal. As a result, extraverted individuals are naturally drawn toward social interaction, excitement, novelty, and sensation-seeking activities. Genetic research also supports the heritability of extraversion, indicating that traits such as sociability, activity level, and positive emotionality are moderately influenced by genetic factors (Plomin et al., 2016). Temperament studies further reveal that children who display

high activity levels, emotional expressiveness, and approach-oriented behaviour are more likely to develop extraverted personality traits in adulthood.

In addition to biological influences, environmental, social, and cultural factors play a significant role in shaping extraversion. Family environments that encourage social interaction, open communication, independence, and emotional expressiveness tend to reinforce extraverted tendencies (Hurlock, 1976). Positive peer experiences, leadership opportunities, and reinforcement for assertive or outgoing behaviour further strengthen extraverted patterns. Cultural influences also shape the expression of extraversion; individualistic cultures that value assertiveness, competition, and self-expression often promote extraverted behaviour, whereas collectivistic cultures may place less emphasis on overt sociability and dominance (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Cognitive and emotional factors also contribute, as extraverts are more responsive to rewards, experience positive emotions more frequently, and regulate emotions through external engagement rather than introspection (Lucas & Diener, 2001). Thus, extraversion emerges through the interaction of biological arousal systems, inherited temperament, social learning, cultural expectations, and emotional processing styles, resulting in a personality orientation characterized by outward engagement, enthusiasm, and object-focused functioning.

Leadership Styles

Kurt Lewin (1939) defined autocratic, democratic, and laissez-faire leadership.Autocratic, democratic, and laissez-faire leadership represent three distinct approaches to guiding a group. Autocratic leadership involves a leader who maintains complete control over decision-making and provides group members with little to no independence. In contrast, democratic leadership is marked by shared decision-making, where the leader actively values members' opinions, encourages participation, and promotes involvement in group processes. Laissez-faire leadership, on the other hand, is characterized by minimal guidance from the leader, allowing group members substantial freedom to make their own judgments and decisions.

Leadership has long been recognized as a complex and multifaceted phenomenon that is widely observed yet insufficiently understood. Burns (1978) famously described leadership as "one of the most observed and least understood phenomena on earth," highlighting the persistent ambiguity surrounding its nature despite extensive

scholarly attention. Over the years, leadership research has produced a vast and diverse body of literature, encompassing numerous definitions, theories, and perspectives. Davis (2003) conceptualized leadership as a dynamic process involving movement, change, problem-solving, innovation, and the initiation of new directions within an organization. From this perspective, leadership is not merely about authority or position but about influencing organizational transformation, enhancing quality, and responding effectively to challenges.

However, the complexity of leadership has made it difficult to arrive at a universally accepted definition. Bass and Stogdill (1990) reported more than 3,000 empirical studies on leadership, each contributing varied interpretations of what leadership entails. In this context, Birnbaum (1992) argued that any comprehensive understanding of leadership must account for both strong-leader and weak-leader perspectives, as evidence suggests that leadership effectiveness is contingent on situational and contextual factors rather than solely on individual traits. Traditional leadership theories initially focused on peripheral aspects of leadership, such as personality traits, leadership characteristics, and the debate over whether leaders are born or made. According to Rost (1991), these early approaches overlooked the deeper relational and process-oriented elements of leadership.

Contemporary leadership research has gradually shifted its focus toward understanding the interactions between leaders and followers and the processes through which collective goals are achieved. Rost emphasized that leadership is fundamentally about influence relationships and shared purpose rather than unilateral control. Similarly, Bolman and Deal (1991) proposed that leaders demonstrate leadership behaviour through four primary frames: structural, human resource, political, and symbolic. Each frame represents a distinct way of interpreting organizational realities and influencing followers. The effectiveness of a leader depends on the ability to apply the appropriate frame based on situational demands. This perspective underscores that leadership effectiveness is not inherent in a single style but depends on adaptability and contextual awareness. Leadership style refers to the distinctive manner in which a leader directs, motivates, and influences followers toward the attainment of organizational goals. It represents a consistent pattern of behaviour exhibited by a leader while interacting with subordinates. According to Newstrom and Davis (1993), leadership style encompasses the full range of a leader's

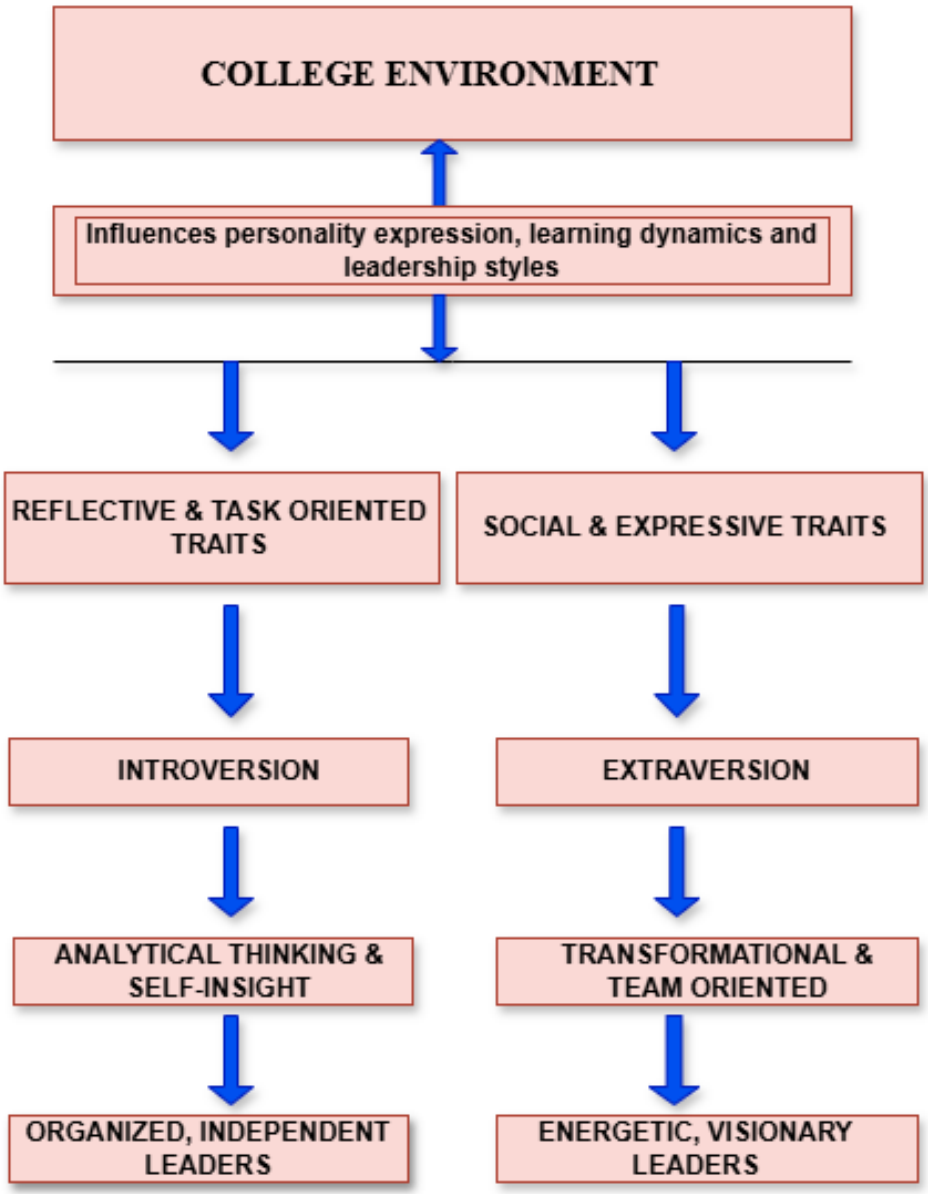
behaviours, both explicit and implicit, as perceived by employees. Every leader possesses a unique leadership style shaped by personality, experience, values, and situational demands. Leadership style determines how decisions are made, how authority is exercised, and how communication flows within a group. It also plays a crucial role in motivating employees, fostering commitment, and achieving organizational effectiveness. Thus, leadership style is not merely a method of control but a strategic approach to guiding and inspiring individuals and groups. One of the earliest and most influential studies on leadership styles was conducted by Kurt Lewin and his colleagues in 1939. Their research identified three fundamental leadership styles autocratic, democratic, and laissez-faire which continue to serve as a foundational framework in leadership studies (Lewin, Lippitt, & White, 1939; U.S. Army, 1973).

Autocratic or authoritarian leadership is characterized by centralized decision-making, where the leader exercises complete control and directs subordinates without seeking their input. This style can be effective in situations requiring quick decision-making, strict supervision, or crisis management, but it may reduce employee morale and creativity if overused. Democratic or participative leadership, in contrast, emphasizes shared decision-making and encourages input from group members while the leader retains final authority. This style fosters collaboration, motivation, and a sense of ownership among employees, often leading to higher job satisfaction and improved performance. Laissez-faire or delegative leadership involves minimal interference from the leader, granting group members autonomy in decision-making and task execution. While this approach can promote innovation and independence among highly skilled and motivated teams, it may result in confusion and inefficiency if roles and responsibilities are unclear. In conclusion, leadership styles represent varied approaches through which leaders influence, guide, and motivate followers. No single leadership style is universally effective; rather, the effectiveness of a style depends on organizational goals, follower characteristics, and situational demands. Understanding different leadership styles enables leaders to adapt their behaviour strategically, enhancing their ability to achieve desired outcomes and foster positive leader follower relationships.

Theoretical Framework: College Student's Personality Qualities and Leadership Style Foundational Theory

Two important organizational and psychological ideas serve as the foundation for this framework: Introversion and extraversion are two fundamental personality traits that affect social behaviour, energy orientation, and decision-making, according to Eysenck's Personality Theory (1967). Leadership styles are defined by motivation, goal orientation, and interpersonal interaction, according to Bass's (1985) Transformational and Transactional Leadership Theory. Collectively, these ideas imply that leadership behaviours are influenced by personality traits, particularly in learning contexts such as colleges.

LEADERSHIP STYLES:



Transformational Leadership: Transformational leadership focuses on inspiring and motivating followers to achieve higher levels of performance by aligning individual goals with collective goals. Leaders adopting this style encourage creativity, personal growth, and critical thinking. They act as role models, provide intellectual stimulation, and show individualized consideration to followers. In college environments, transformational leaders such as student leaders or faculty mentors often foster positive learning climates, increase student engagement, and promote self-confidence among peers. Extraverted individuals are more likely to exhibit transformational leadership behaviours because they tend to be expressive, socially confident, and enthusiastic. However, introverted leaders can also be transformational through reflective guidance, deep listening, and thoughtful encouragement.

Transactional Leadership: Transactional leadership is based on clear structures, rules, and exchanges between leaders and followers. Compliance is achieved through rewards (such as recognition or grades) and corrective actions when expectations are not met. This leadership style emphasizes task completion, efficiency, and adherence to established standards. In academic settings, transactional leadership is commonly observed in formal roles where rules and performance criteria are predefined, such as classroom management or administrative student bodies. Leaders with either introverted or extraverted traits can effectively adopt this style, as it relies more on organization and control than emotional engagement.

Democratic (Participative) Leadership: Democratic leadership emphasizes shared decision-making, collaboration, and active participation of group members. Leaders encourage opinions, discussions, and collective problem-solving, creating a sense of ownership and responsibility among followers. This style is particularly effective in colleges, where peer leadership, group projects, and student organizations require cooperation and mutual respect. Extraverted leaders often excel in democratic leadership due to their sociability and openness, while introverted leaders contribute by facilitating thoughtful discussion and ensuring that quieter members are heard.

Laissez-Faire Leadership: Laissez-faire leadership involves minimal leader intervention, allowing group members substantial autonomy in decision-making. Leaders provide resources and support when required but avoid close supervision. In educational contexts, this style may be effective with highly motivated and self-

directed students but can lead to confusion or lack of direction if group members require guidance. Introverted leaders may be more inclined toward this style due to their preference for independence and low control, although excessive use can reduce accountability

Link Between Personality and Leadership Styles: Eysenck's theory explains that extraverts are energetic, assertive, and socially active, making them more inclined toward transformational and democratic leadership styles. In contrast, introverts, who are reflective and internally oriented, may prefer transactional or laissez-faire approaches, where structured tasks or independent work are emphasized. Bass's leadership theory further supports the idea that effective leadership is not limited to one style. Instead, leadership behaviour emerges from the interaction between personality traits, situational demands, and learning environments, especially in colleges where leadership roles are dynamic and developmental.

Leadership styles represent distinct ways in which individuals guide and influence others. When viewed through the lens of personality traits and leadership theory, it becomes evident that introversion and extraversion significantly shape leadership behaviour. In learning environments such as colleges, understanding these leadership styles helps explain how student leaders and educators motivate peers, manage groups, and contribute to academic and personal development.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Introversion and extraversion are two important personality qualities that influence how people think, act, and relate to others. Influencing and directing others toward common objectives is a quality of leadership that is equally significant. Understanding the relationship between personality orientations and various leadership styles is crucial for college students, who are going through a critical period of personal and professional development. Extroverted traits like aggressiveness and sociability are frequently linked to leadership in social and academic contexts, while introverted people are occasionally disregarded even when they have reflective and sympathetic leadership abilities. Because of this, it is necessary to look at the ways that introverts and extraverts display leadership in various ways. Furthermore, little study has looked at this link in the Indian cultural context, where group dynamics and social conventions are different from those in the West. In order to create inclusive

leadership programs that acknowledge and foster the potential of both introverted and extraverted people, educators and counsellors can benefit greatly from researching the personalities and leadership styles of college students.

Statement of the problem

The study aims to investigate the relationship between introversion-extraversion personality traits and leadership styles in college students from various educational institutions of Jammu.

Operational Definitions

Introversion A personality trait in which an individual directs their energy and attention inward, preferring solitary activities, quiet environments, and deep reflection over social interaction and external stimulation.

Extraversion A personality trait characterized by an outward direction of energy toward the external world, marked by sociability, assertiveness, enthusiasm, and a preference for seeking stimulation through social interaction and external activities.

Leadership Style A consistent pattern of behaviour exhibited by a leader while interacting with subordinates, reflecting how decisions are made, authority is exercised, and followers are guided and motivated toward common goals.

Objectives

- To examine gender differences in leadership style preferences among college students.
- There will be a significant relationship between introversion and preferred leadership styles among college students.
- There will be a significant relationship between extraversion and preferred leadership styles among college students.

Hypotheses

Ho1: There will be no significant gender differences in leadership style preferences among college students.

Ho2: There will be no significant relationship between introversion and preferred leadership styles among college students.

Ho3: There will be no significant relationship between extraversion and preferred leadership styles among college students.

Limitations of the Study

• The study is limited to college students aged 18–26 years, excluding adolescents and older adults.

• The sample size is restricted to 150 participants, which may limit the generalizability of findings.

• The study focuses exclusively on introversion–extraversion traits and does not include other personality dimensions such as the Big Five.

• Leadership styles are assessed only through the Lewin, Lippitt, and White (1939) model, excluding other leadership frameworks such as transformational or servant leadership.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A review of literature is an extensive and well-structured synopsis of earlier investigations, theories, and academic publications pertaining to a certain subject. It aids the researcher in comprehending previous research on the subject and established findings. Important ideas, factors, and theoretical frameworks are found by examining the body of existing literature. It also aids in identifying limits, contradictions, and research gaps in past studies. The review gives the current study a solid theoretical and empirical foundation. It also directs the development of research goals, theories, and procedures. In general, a literature review guarantees that the current research is based on current understanding and makes a significant contribution to the subject.

Judge and Bono (2000) investigated the connection between transformational leadership behaviour and the Big Five personality traits. The study postulated that transformative leadership would be predicted by neuroticism, extraversion, agreeableness, and openness to new experiences. Extraversion and agreeableness were found to be substantial positive predictors of transformative leadership based on data from 14 separate samples of executives from over 200 organizations. When the influences of other personality qualities were taken into account, Openness to Experience's predictive value became non-significant despite the positive connection. Transformational leadership was found to be unrelated to neuroticism and conscientiousness. Additionally, the results showed that transformative leadership was better predicted by broad Big Five dimensions than by particular trait features. Furthermore, even after adjusting for transactional factors, transformational leadership was substantially linked to a number of measures of leader effectiveness.

Easley (2019) investigated the connection between undergraduate college students' preferred leadership styles and personality attributes. The purpose of the study was to evaluate how individual personality traits affect preferences for various leadership philosophies in the workplace. The study included 47 undergraduate students from a small university in northern California. An online poll measuring the Big Five personality traits and preferred leadership styles was used to gather data. The study hypotheses were partially validated by the results. Extraversion and preference for

transformational leadership were shown to be positively and significantly correlated, suggesting that more gregarious students favoured leaders who prioritized teamwork, communication, and inspiration. Conscientiousness and affinity for autocratic leadership were found to be negatively correlated, indicating that highly disciplined and organized people are less inclined to favour rigid and dominating leadership philosophies. The anticipated favourable correlation between neuroticism and authoritarian leadership was not well supported.

Spark and O'Connor investigated whether situational behaviour or trait extraversion drives leadership emergence using a group-based experimental design with 601 participants. After completing a Big Five personality test, participants were divided into three groups at random: control, extraverted, and introverted. Emergent leadership and post-task affect were evaluated using both peer and self-rating. Regression analysis and between-group comparisons were used to validate the extravert advantage in leadership emergence. However, the results indicated that state extraversion was the main causative element, since both introverts and extraverts developed as leaders when told to behave extraverted. All participants' self-rated leadership significantly decreased when they acted introverted, and ambiverts and extraverts experienced a decrease in positive affect and an increase in negative affect, but introverts did not. This suggests that situational behavior rather than stable personality traits has a greater influence on the emergence of leadership.

Chai (2015) examined the influence of personality on leadership qualities among 59 peer-elected student leaders (33 males, 26 females) from a private Malaysian university using a quantitative cross-sectional design. Personality was assessed with the Leonard Personality Inventory (LPI), and leadership qualities were measured through self-ratings on 10 leadership traits. Multiple regression analysis revealed that student leaders showed high levels of integrity, with the Neutral personality dimension significantly predicting concern for others, the Open dimension predicting self-confidence, and the Relational dimension predicting charisma and integrity. The findings indicate that personality significantly influences leadership qualities among student leaders, while also suggesting that certain traits, such as charisma, can be strengthened through leadership training.

Colbert et al. (2012) examined the trait theory of leadership among 155 participants in leaderless group discussions using both self- and observer-rated measures of personality. Using relative weight analysis and two-stage least squares regression, the findings revealed that models combining self and observer ratings explained greater variance in leadership than self-ratings alone, highlighting the value of external perceptions. Observer-rated extraversion emerged as the strongest predictor of leadership, followed by self- and observer-rated openness to experience. Importantly, the personality–leadership relationship was mediated by individuals' contributions to group success, suggesting that personality traits influence leadership by shaping behaviours that support group performance and effectiveness.

Chhom et al. (2024) conducted a systematic literature review of 69 studies published between 2014 and 2024 to examine research trends and outcomes related to laissez-faire leadership in higher education. Using descriptive analytical methods (publication volume, journal and geographic distribution, study types, authorship patterns, citation impact, research methods, and reported outcomes), the review found that most studies were empirical, with a growing use of qualitative approaches in recent years. The findings indicated significant associations between laissez-faire leadership and outcomes such as academic performance, faculty satisfaction, innovation, and institutional effectiveness, while also highlighting the role of contextual factors (institutional culture and regional differences) in shaping leadership effectiveness. The authors recommended improving research quality through cross-cultural and longitudinal designs to address existing gaps.

Atamanik (2013) offered an early and important analysis highlighting the significance of introversion in leadership. The study emphasized that introverts, who are often underrepresented in traditional leadership research, possess unique strengths such as reflective thinking, active and empathetic listening, and careful analytical problem-solving. These characteristics were shown to enhance leadership effectiveness, particularly in contexts that require thoughtful decision-making, planning, and consideration of multiple perspectives. By drawing attention to these advantages, the study challenged the long-standing dominance of extraversion in leadership theory and suggested that effective leadership can take multiple personality-based forms depending on situational demands.

Houghton et al. (2018) investigated the relationship between personality traits and self-leadership among 400 undergraduate students enrolled in leadership programs. Through structural equation modelling, the study demonstrated that extraversion and conscientiousness influenced self-leadership indirectly via self-efficacy and goal orientation. Extraverted students were more engaged in group leadership activities, whereas introverted students exhibited strong self-regulated and task-focused leadership abilities. These results underscored the complementary contributions of both introversion and extraversion in the development of diverse student leadership skills.

Sparks (2021) examined the role of state extraversion temporary, situation-specific increases in outgoing and assertive behaviour in leadership emergence. The study was conducted using an experimental, within-person research design with a sample of approximately 150–200 adult participants, primarily university students, selected through convenience sampling. State extraversion was measured using momentary self-report personality scales adapted from the Big Five framework, while leadership emergence was assessed through peer and observer ratings. Data were analysed using multilevel modelling and regression analyses to account for within-person variability across situations. The findings demonstrated that even individuals with introverted dispositions could exhibit leadership behaviours when situational cues promoted assertiveness and engagement, supporting the view that leadership can emerge dynamically based on situational demands rather than being solely trait-based.

Alshaabani et al. (2021) examined the relationship between the Big Five personality traits and leadership effectiveness among a large sample of 518 student leaders drawn from business schools across the UAE, using a quantitative, cross-sectional research design. Participants were selected through survey-based sampling, and data were collected using standardized Big Five personality inventories alongside validated leadership style and effectiveness questionnaires measuring transformational, participative, and servant leadership. Statistical analyses, including correlation and multiple regression techniques, revealed that extraversion and openness to experience significantly predicted transformational and participative leadership styles, while introverted students were more inclined toward servant leadership behaviours. Emotional stability emerged as a consistent predictor across all leadership styles. Overall, the study emphasized that both introverts and extraverts can be effective

leaders, differing mainly in their behavioural pathways empathy, humility, and service for introverts, and vision, assertiveness, and social influence for extraverts.

Huszczo and Endres (2017) examined personality-based antecedents of leadership self-efficacy (LSE) and gender differences using a quantitative cross-sectional design. The study involved 325 business students, with personality traits assessed using Big Five measures and LSE measured through a standardized self-report scale. To address multicollinearity and determine the unique contribution of each trait, the authors employed relative importance analysis. Results showed that extraversion, conscientiousness, and openness to experience explained significant variance in LSE. Gender-based differences were observed: conscientiousness and openness to experience were stronger predictors of LSE for women, whereas extraversion was a stronger predictor for men. The findings highlight the role of personality traits in shaping leadership self-beliefs and underscore gender differences in leadership self-perceptions, offering important implications for leadership development research and practice.

Liegl and Furtner (2023) investigated whether perceptions of extraversion are influenced by leadership behaviours rather than stable personality qualities using a scenario-based experimental design with 204 participants. Participants assessed the perceived extraversion, assertiveness, and sociability of leaders exhibiting transactional, transformational, and passive-avoidant behaviours. The findings demonstrated that there was no clear correlation between perceived extraversion and leadership effectiveness, with transactional leadership receiving the greatest extraversion attributions and transformative intellectual stimulation and laissez-faire behaviours receiving the lowest extraversion ratings. The results allude to a possible introverted leadership advantage shaped by follower perceptions and imply that effective leadership may not require high extraversion.

Kalenderli (2013) studied 50 college students using a mixed-method approach to see if personality affects leadership development. The study employed an online Big Five Inventory (BFI) to measure personality traits and semi-structured interviews to examine important leadership-related developmental events and lessons learned. The Big Five qualities were thought to be predictive of the kinds of leadership lessons learned and developmental experiences recalled. The results of qualitative thematic

analysis and quantitative statistical analysis revealed no significant correlations between any of the Big Five personality dimensions and leadership developmental events or lessons. This suggests that situational factors may be more significant in predicting leadership development through experience-based learning than personality.

Zhao et al. (2023) conducted a large-scale quantitative study examining the influence of the Big Five personality traits on key competencies among college students, with a particular focus on leadership-related outcomes. The study involved a substantial sample of undergraduate students (over 1,000 participants) recruited through institution-based convenience sampling from multiple universities. Data were collected using standardized. The researchers employed structural equation modelling and mediation analysis to test the relationships among variables. Results indicated that extraversion positively predicted interpersonal and communication competencies, while psychological capital significantly mediated the relationship between extraversion and leadership-related competencies, demonstrating that personality traits influence leadership potential indirectly through psychological resources such as confidence, resilience, and positive motivation.

Nasir et al. (2024) investigated the relationship between personality traits and leadership styles among student leaders enrolled in Malaysian public universities using a quantitative, cross-sectional survey design. The study included a moderate to large sample of student leaders (approximately 300–500 participants) selected through purposive and convenience sampling from multiple institutions. Statistical analyses, including correlation and multiple regression analysis, revealed that extraversion and agreeableness were strong predictors of people-oriented leadership, while conscientiousness significantly predicted task-oriented leadership. The findings reaffirm that personality traits play a crucial role in shaping leadership preferences and behaviours in university settings, offering meaningful parallels for broader research on leadership development among college students

Hutchinson and Gul (1997) examined the interactive effects of personality and cultural beliefs on students' group learning preferences using a quantitative, cross-sectional survey design. The study involved 76 final-year students from two universities in Hong Kong, who completed a 10-item MBTI-based extroversion–

introversion scale and a 4-item collectivism–individualism scale. Using interaction-based statistical analyses (examining combined effects of personality and cultural beliefs), the results showed that the relationship between extraversion–introversion and group learning preferences was significantly influenced by students' collectivist or individualist beliefs. The findings explain inconsistencies in earlier research and highlight that personality effects on student attitudes and behaviour should be interpreted alongside cultural context, rather than in isolation.

Liegl and Furtner (2023) used a scenario-based experimental design to examine whether judgments of extraversion are influenced by leadership behaviors rather than stable personality traits. 204 participants in the study assessed how leaders used transactional, transformational, and passive-avoidant leadership behaviors to address coordination issues. Participants evaluated the leaders based on their perceived friendliness, assertiveness, and extraversion. The findings demonstrated that there was no clear correlation between perceived extraversion and leadership effectiveness, with transactional leadership receiving the greatest extraversion attributions and transformative intellectual stimulation and laissez-faire behaviors receiving the lowest extraversion ratings. The results point to the possibility of an introverted leadership advantage influenced by follower perceptions and imply that high extraversion is not always necessary for effective leadership.

Lemoine et al. (2016) conducted two studies using a multilevel research design to examine leadership emergence in leaderless groups, with particular attention to individual gender, group gender composition, and group-level extraversion.. Multilevel analyses revealed that gender alone did not significantly predict leadership emergence. However, a significant three-way interaction indicated that women were more likely to emerge as leaders in highly extraverted groups that had a higher proportion of men, highlighting how group personality dynamics and composition shape leadership opportunities. These findings emphasize that leadership emergence is influenced not only by individual traits but also by the broader social and personality context of the group

Karlsen and Langvik (2021) investigated the facet-level effects of extraversion on leadership behaviour in 234 leaders and subordinates using a quantitative correlational design. While subordinates evaluated leaders using the Change, Production,

Employee (CPE) leadership behaviour scale, leaders completed the NEO Personality Inventory. The value of facet-level personality analysis was highlighted by the fact that while overall extraversion positively predicted change and production leadership, facet-level results varied: assertiveness positively predicted subordinate-rated change and production, while excitement seeking was negatively related to self-rated production and subordinate-rated employee-focused leadership.

Dubee (2022) conducted a quantitative survey study to examine the relationship between introverted and extraverted student behaviour and teachers' perceptions of student engagement. The study used a purposive sample of high school teachers in the United States. Teachers rated student engagement using the Engagement Rating Scale (ERS) across four domains behavioural, cognitive, emotional, and agentic engagement for two hypothetical student profiles: one described with introverted characteristics and the other with extraverted characteristics. Independent samples t-tests were employed to compare engagement ratings by personality type. Results indicated a significant overall preference for extraverted students, with teachers perceiving higher agentic and emotional engagement in extraverted students, while introverted students were rated higher in behavioural and cognitive engagement. The findings highlight perceptual bias in engagement assessment and suggest the need for differentiated instruction and evaluation to better support students across personality types.

Hall (2023) conducted a qualitative phenomenological study to explore how introverted leaders experience the workplace, addressing the gap in leadership research that predominantly focuses on extraversion. The study involved recorded, in-depth interviews with introverted leaders of companies, aimed at understanding their lived experiences in leadership roles. Data were analysed using thematic coding and qualitative analysis techniques, rather than statistical tools, in line with phenomenological methodology. The analysis revealed four central themes: introverted leaders received positive feedback, were quality-focused in their work, valued and understood relationships, and demonstrated awareness of others' differing expectations. The findings suggest that introverted leaders contribute meaningfully to organisational practices through reflective decision-making and relational awareness. The study highlights that effective leadership is not limited to extraverted traits and

encourages organisations to recognise diverse leadership characteristics regardless of personality type

Parr et al. (2016) examined the relationship between personality characteristics and leadership performance in 2,461 executive-level executives evaluated in assessment centers using a quantitative, person-centred design. Six different personality types—including Creative Communicators, Power Players, Protocol Followers, and Unpredictable Leaders—were found using Latent Class Analysis (LCA). Different profiles had different performance outcomes; some consistently performed well, while others showed particular strengths and shortcomings. The results underline the importance of profile-based statistical methods in leadership research by showing that personality profiles predict leadership effectiveness more thoroughly than individual qualities.

Zhang et al. (2022) investigated the mechanism by which leader extraversion influences team performance using a quantitative, time-lagged survey approach. Two waves of data were gathered from 226 Chinese team leaders who were enrolled in management training courses. Leader extraversion, work engagement, team performance, goal clarity, and process clarity were all assessed using standardized questionnaires. Mplus 7 and SPSS 26 were used for the analyses, which used a moderated mediation model. The findings showed that extraverted leadership had a positive indirect impact on team performance through leader work engagement. This relationship was reinforced in situations with high goal and process clarity, indicating that situational factors increase the motivational impact of extraverted leadership.

Kiekel (2020) presented a qualitative reflective case study describing an academic's experiences as an introverted leader across multiple institutions and professional organisations. The study used autoethnographic reflection and narrative analysis rather than statistical tools, focusing on lived experiences of leadership development. The findings highlighted that the author successfully compensated for introverted tendencies that conflicted with extroversion-oriented leadership norms by developing adaptive strategies, such as deliberate communication and reflective decision-making. Key factors contributing to leadership effectiveness included support from mentors, participation in professional learning communities, and ongoing skill development through collaboration. The chapter concludes that introverts can be effective leaders

when supported by developmental networks and inclusive leadership environments, emphasizing the importance of alternative leadership pathways beyond extroverted models.

Emanuelsson and Lindqvist (2014) conducted an exploratory mixed-method study on introverted leadership using a survey to identify introverted leaders and semi-structured interviews with six introverted managers from knowledge-intensive companies in Sweden. Using qualitative thematic analysis, the study found that introverted leaders effectively used traits such as engaged listening, quiet reflection, deep conversations, and structured working styles to engage employees, handle conflicts, support decision-making, influence others, and plan strategically. The findings linked introverted leadership to participative and leader member exchange (LMX) styles, demonstrating that introvert traits can be as effective as extravert traits in leadership.

Kao et al. (2023) examined the influence of coach extraversion on athlete outcomes through transformational leadership using a quantitative moderated mediation research design. Data were collected through standardized self-report questionnaires administered to 570 athletes from high school and collegiate teams and 48 basketball coaches, selected through institution-based convenience sampling. Regression-based moderated mediation analysis revealed that coach extraversion indirectly predicted athlete cohesion and satisfaction through transformational leadership. Notably, this indirect effect was significant only in university-level teams, highlighting the role of the educational environment in shaping how personality traits translate into leadership behaviours and performance outcomes

Stiliadi (2024) conducted a narrative review study examining the relationship between personality traits, individual differences, and leadership behaviour within the field of organizational psychology. Using a systematic review of existing theoretical and empirical literature, the paper explored how personality and individual variations influence multiple leadership styles, including transformational, servant, and shared leadership, while also considering the roles of gender and cultural factors. As a review article, the study did not employ statistical tools; instead, it relied on conceptual analysis and synthesis of prior research findings. The review highlighted that personality traits and individual differences interact dynamically with leadership

styles and organizational and cultural contexts, significantly shaping leadership behaviour and effectiveness. The findings underscore the complexity of personality–leadership relationships and emphasize the need for integrative and context-sensitive approaches in future leadership research.

Ali (2023) examined the relationship between leadership styles, introverted and extroverted traits, and their impact on effective leadership using a conceptual and theoretical research approach. The thesis was based on an extensive review and analytical synthesis of existing leadership and personality literature, rather than empirical data collection. As such, no statistical tools were employed. The study systematically discussed major leadership styles servant, transformational, identity, autocratic, democratic, and coaching leadership and analysed how introverted and extroverted characteristics contribute to leadership effectiveness. The findings highlighted that effective leaders demonstrate adaptability, drawing on extroverted strengths such as charisma, communication, and social engagement, as well as introverted strengths such as vision, introspection, and analytical thinking. The thesis concluded that leadership effectiveness depends on the ability to flexibly adjust leadership style and personality expression according to situational demands, emphasizing important implications for leadership development and training programs in organizations.

Tsai et al. (2024) conducted a quantitative cross-sectional study to examine how personality traits influence employability among hospitality and tourism college students, with self-efficacy and creativity as mediating variables. Data were collected using standardized self-report questionnaires. The analysis included descriptive statistics, factor analysis, and reliability and validity testing to confirm the measurement model, followed by Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) and mediation analysis, along with gender-based comparisons. The results indicated that personality traits significantly affected self-efficacy, which in turn enhanced creativity and improved employability, demonstrating an indirect pathway from personality to employability and emphasizing the role of psychological resources in career readiness.

Qiu and Dooley (2018) conducted a mixed sequential explanatory study to examine gender differences in leadership behaviour among 37 graduate students enrolled in a

leadership course, focusing on task-oriented and relationship-oriented leadership styles. In the quantitative phase, data were analysed using descriptive statistics and the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test due to the small sample size, revealing no significant differences between male and female students and showing that students were more inclined toward relationship-oriented leadership. In the qualitative phase, thematic analysis identified three key themes similar leadership orientations across genders, situation-dependent leadership, and a shift toward balanced leadership behaviour which complemented and reinforced the quantitative findings, suggesting that leadership style is influenced more by situational factors than gender.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Introversion and extraversion are two important personality qualities that influence how people think, act, and relate to others. Influencing and directing others toward common objectives is a quality of leadership that is equally significant. Understanding the relationship between personality orientations and various leadership styles is crucial for college students, who are going through a critical period of personal and professional development. Extroverted traits like aggressiveness and sociability are frequently linked to leadership in social and academic contexts, while introverted people are occasionally disregarded even when they have reflective and sympathetic leadership abilities. Because of this, it is necessary to look at the ways that introverts and extraverts display leadership in various ways. Furthermore, little study has looked at this link in the Indian cultural context, where group dynamics and social conventions are different from those in the West. In order to create inclusive leadership programs that acknowledge and foster the potential of both introverted and extraverted people, educators and counsellors can benefit greatly from researching the personalities and leadership styles of college students.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter presents the methodological framework adopted to examine the relationship between introversion–extraversion personality traits and leadership styles among college students. It outlines the research design, population, sample characteristics, sampling technique, inclusion and exclusion criteria, psychological tools used for data collection, statistical techniques employed for analysis, and the delimitations of the study. The methodology has been systematically planned to ensure objectivity, reliability of measurement, and validity of findings. By employing standardized psychological instruments and appropriate statistical procedures, the present study aims to empirically investigate how personality orientation relates to leadership styles among young adults, thereby addressing the stated research objectives and hypotheses.

Design of the Study

The present study adopts a quantitative method. The design of the study is correlational. This design is appropriate as it allows the researcher to examine the nature and direction of the relationship between introversion–extraversion personality traits and leadership styles at a single point in time without manipulating any variables. The correlational approach facilitates an objective assessment of associations between psychological constructs as they naturally occur among college students.

3.2.1 Method of the Study

The present study employs a quantitative research method. Quantitative methods are suitable for this investigation as they allow for objective measurement of personality traits and leadership style preferences through standardized instruments. Statistical procedures such as Pearson's product-moment correlation and independent samples t-tests were used to analyse the data, enabling precise examination of relationships and group differences among the variables of interest.

3.2.2 Variables of the Study

The present study involves the following variables:

- Independent Variables: Introversion and Extraversion personality traits, as measured by the Introvert–Extravert Personality Questionnaire (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1964).
- Dependent Variable: Leadership style preference, as measured by the Leadership Style Questionnaire (Lewin, Lippitt, & White, 1939).
- Control Variable: Gender (Male/Female), examined to assess group differences across all study variables.

3.2.3 Population and Sample

The target population for the present study comprises college students between the age range of 18–26 years. This age group represents an important developmental stage characterized by identity formation, academic demands, social interactions, and emerging leadership roles, making it a suitable group for examining the relationship between personality traits and leadership behaviour. The sample for the present study consists of N = 238 participants (146 males, 92 females) drawn from college settings.

3.2.4 Sample of the Study

The study employs a probability sampling method, specifically the Simple Random Sampling technique, to select participants from the target population. Simple random sampling was chosen for the following reasons:

- It provides equal opportunity for selection to all members of the population.
- It minimizes selection bias and enhances the objectivity of findings.
- It ensures representativeness of the sample.
- It is appropriate for quantitative correlational research designs.

Inclusion Criteria:

- College students within the age range of 18–26 years.
- Ability to read and understand the language of the questionnaire.

- Willingness to participate voluntarily in the study.

Exclusion Criteria:

- Participants who submit partially filled or incomplete questionnaires.
- Individuals below 18 years or above 26 years of age.

3.2.5 Data Collection

Data were collected through offline and/or online administration of questionnaires. Participants were approached in college settings after obtaining necessary permissions from the concerned authorities. The purpose of the study was clearly explained to each participant, and informed consent was obtained prior to participation. Participants were instructed to respond honestly and independently to all items. Confidentiality and anonymity were strictly maintained throughout the entire data collection process. Completed questionnaires were checked for missing responses, and incomplete forms were excluded from the final analysis.

3.3 Tools Employed and their Description

The following standardized psychological tools were used for data collection in the present study:

3.3.1 Introvert–Extravert Personality Questionnaire (IEPQ)

The Introvert–Extravert Personality Questionnaire, developed by Hans Eysenck and Sybil Eysenck (1964), is a self-report instrument designed to assess introversion and extraversion personality traits. The questionnaire consists of 10 items, each rated on a five-point Likert scale. Scores are calculated according to the standardized manual, with higher scores indicating a stronger orientation toward either introversion or extraversion.

3.3.2 Leadership Style Questionnaire (LSQ)

The Leadership Style Questionnaire, developed by Kurt Lewin, Ronald Lippitt, and Ralph White (1939), is a standardized measure used to assess leadership behaviour and style preferences. The questionnaire comprises 18 items that evaluate three distinct leadership styles: Authoritative (Autocratic), Democratic, and Laissez-Faire.

The instrument has been extensively applied in leadership research and effectively differentiates leadership styles based on behavioural patterns.

3.4 Administration of the Tools

Both tools were administered either offline (in person, in college settings) or online (via a digital questionnaire link), depending on participant availability and convenience. Prior to administration, participants were briefed about the purpose of the study and assured of the confidentiality of their responses. Written or verbal informed consent was obtained from all participants. The questionnaires were self-administered, and participants were given adequate time to complete all items without any pressure or time restriction. The researcher or research assistant was present during offline sessions to address any queries. Completed questionnaires were reviewed for completeness, and those with missing data were excluded from the analysis.

3.6 Statistical Technique Used

The collected data were analysed using SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences), Version 27.0. The following statistical techniques were employed:

- Descriptive Statistics: Mean (M) and Standard Deviation (SD) were computed to summarize participant characteristics and scores on all study variables.
- Pearson's Product-Moment Correlation: Used to examine the nature and direction of the relationship between introversion, extraversion, and leadership style preferences, as well as to assess associations with gender.
- Independent Samples t-Test: Employed to assess statistically significant differences between male and female participants on leadership, introversion, and extraversion scores. Levene's test for equality of variances was examined prior to interpreting t-test results, and Welch's correction was applied where variances were unequal.
- Effect Size (Cohen's d): Calculated alongside t-test results to assess the practical significance of observed group differences.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

The present study examined gender-based differences in leadership orientation, introversion, and extroversion among young adults. A sample of 238 participants (146 males, 92 females), ranging from 18 to 26 years of age, completed self-report measures assessing these constructs. Data were analyzed using Pearson correlations and independent samples t-tests in SPSS Version 27.0.

4.2 Demographic Details

The demographic composition of the sample is summarized below. As illustrated in Figures 1 and 2, the sample was predominantly male and clustered in the 21–23 age bracket.

Table 1

Demographic Characteristics of the Sample (N = 238)

Variable	Category	n	%
Gender	Male	146	61.3
	Female	92	38.7
Age	18–20 years	74	31.1
	21–23 years	107	45.0
	24–26 years	57	23.9

Note. Gender was coded as 1 = Male, 2 = Female.

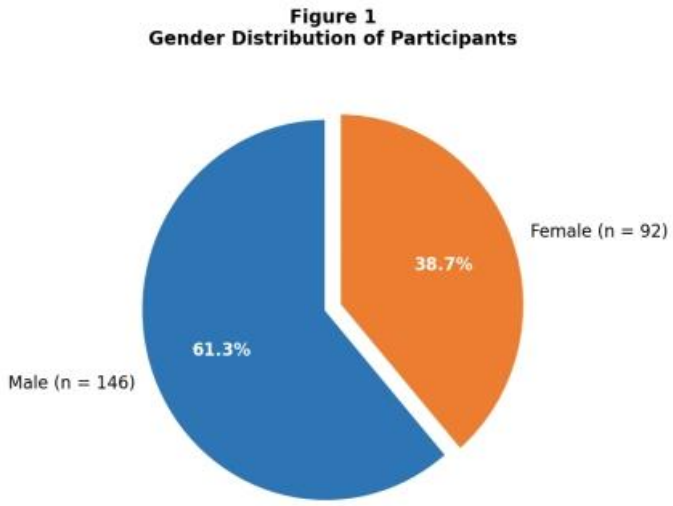


Figure 1. *Gender distribution of participants*

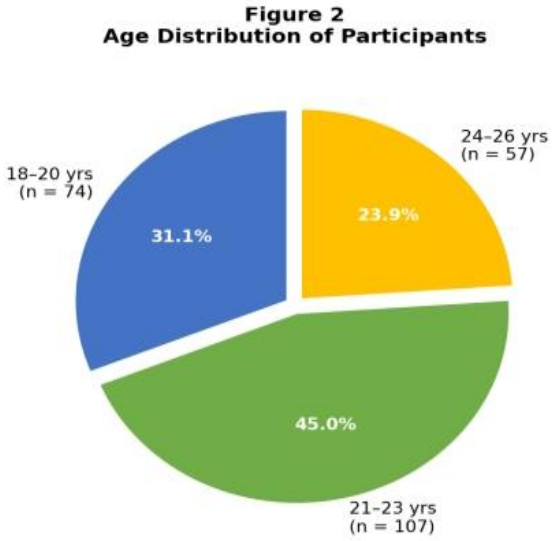


Figure 2. *Age distribution of participants*

4.3 Correlation Analysis

Table 2 presents Pearson correlation coefficients among gender, leadership, introversion, and extroversion.

Table 2

Pearson Correlations Among Study Variables (N = 238)

Variable	1	2	3	4
1. Gender	—			
2. Leadership	.420**	—		
3. Introversion	-.345**	-.696**	—	
4. Extroversion	.277**	.140*	.134*	—

Note. *p< .05. **p< .01 (two-tailed).

Gender showed a moderate positive association with leadership ($r = .42$, $p < .001$), indicating that higher gender code scores (i.e., being female) were associated with higher leadership. Gender was negatively correlated with introversion ($r = −.35$, $p < .001$), reflecting that female participants tended to report lower introversion relative to their male peers. A small but significant positive correlation was observed between gender and extroversion ($r = .28$, $p < .001$), suggesting females reported slightly higher extroversion as illustrated in Table 2.

Among personality variables, a strong negative relationship emerged between leadership and introversion ($r = −.70$, $p < .001$), which is conceptually coherent, as leadership tends to be associated with outward-oriented traits. Leadership and extroversion shared a small positive relationship ($r = .14$, $p < .05$), and introversion and extroversion were also mildly positively correlated ($r = .13$, $p < .05$), possibly as reflecting shared item variance or the dimensionality of the scales used.

4.4 Independent Samples t-Test

Group statistics and independent samples t-test results are reported in Tables 3 and 4.

Table 3

Group Statistics by Gender

Variable	Gender	n	*M*	*SD*	*SE*
Leadership	Male	146	42.21	18.93	1.57
	Female	92	58.22	13.17	1.37
Introversion	Male	146	19.19	4.90	0.41
	Female	92	15.82	3.74	0.39
Extroversion	Male	146	22.75	4.03	0.33
	Female	92	25.54	5.71	0.60

Note. *M* = Mean; *SD* = Standard Deviation; *SE* = Standard Error of the Mean.

Table 4

Independent Samples t-Test Results Comparing Gender Groups

S No.	Variables	Males		Females		*t-value*	*p-value*
		N = 50		*N = 151*			
		M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*		
1	Leadership	42.21	18.93	58.22	13.17	−7.686	<.001
2	Introversion	13.75	6.39	19.11	4.85	−7.315	<.001
3	Extraversion	14.66	6.97	20.73	5.16	−7.688	<.001

Note. M = Mean; SD = Standard Deviation.
*p < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .001.

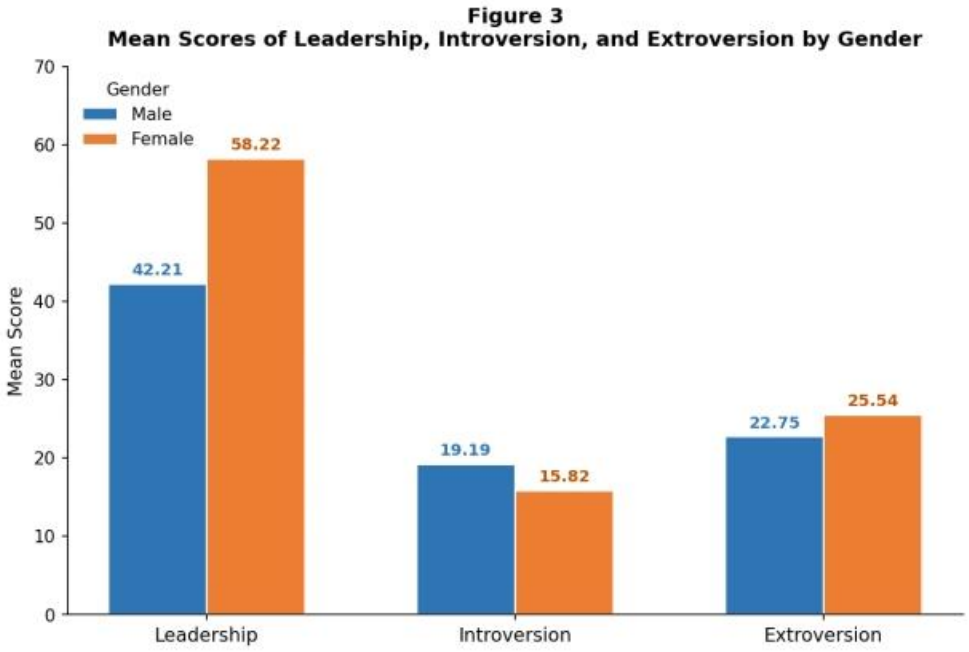


Figure 4*. Mean scores on leadership, introversion, and extroversion by gender.*

Table 4 presents the results of independent samples *t*-tests conducted to examine gender differences across three psychological variables — Leadership, Introversion, and Extraversion — among a total sample of 201 participants (males: $n = 50$; females: $n = 151$).

Leadership: Female participants ($M = 58.22$, $SD = 13.17$) scored significantly higher on Leadership than male participants ($M = 42.21$, $SD = 18.93$), $t = -7.686$, $p < .001$. This indicates that females demonstrated notably stronger leadership tendencies compared to males.

Introversion: Females ($M = 19.11$, $SD = 4.85$) also scored significantly higher on Introversion than males ($M = 13.75$, $SD = 6.39$), $t = -7.315$, $p < .001$, suggesting that female participants exhibited greater introverted tendencies.

Extraversion: Similarly, females ($M = 20.73$, $SD = 5.16$) scored significantly higher on Extraversion than males ($M = 14.66$, $SD = 6.97$), $t = -7.688$, $p < .001$, indicating that females also reported higher extraverted behavior.

Overall, the findings reveal statistically significant gender differences across all three variables, with female participants consistently scoring higher than their male counterparts on Leadership, Introversion, and Extraversion (all $ps < .001$). The negative *t*-values across all variables confirm that the female group mean exceeded

the male group mean in each case. These results suggest that gender may be a meaningful factor influencing personality and leadership-related traits in this sample.

4.5 Conclusion

This study set out to explore how gender relates to leadership, introversion, and extroversion among a sample of 238 young adults. Across all three variables, statistically significant and practically meaningful differences were observed. Female participants scored higher on leadership and extroversion, while male participants showed greater introversion. The correlation structure of the data reinforced these group-level findings, with gender, leadership, and introversion forming a coherent network of relationships. These results add to the empirical record on gender and personality in young adulthood and invite continued inquiry into the social and developmental processes that shape these differences.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

The present chapter examines and interprets the empirical findings obtained from the investigation into the relationship between introversion–extroversion personality traits and leadership orientation among college students. The study comprised 238 young adults (146 males, 92 females) between the age range of 18 and 26 years. Pearson correlation coefficients and independent samples t-tests were employed to assess interrelationships among variables and to examine group differences based on gender. The discussion situates the findings within established theoretical frameworks and contextualises them in relation to prior empirical literature. By doing so, the chapter seeks to illuminate the psychological and social mechanisms that may account for the observed patterns and to highlight the contribution of the present study to the broader scholarship on personality and leadership.

Any attempt to understand who becomes a leader or who believes they can must begin with the architecture of personality itself. Walter Mischel's (1968) classic work on personality and situational behaviour laid the groundwork for understanding that stable traits interact with social environments to produce consistent patterns of behaviour. For the students in this study, two such traits: introversion and extroversionemerged as central organising forces in how leadership identity was expressed and experienced.

The Five-Factor Model, which remains the dominant taxonomic framework in personality psychology, positions extraversion as a disposition towards sociability, positive affect, and assertiveness (McCrae & Costa, 1987). In environments dense with social interaction like university campuses, these qualities are not merely personality descriptors; they are social currencies. Situated learning theory (Lave & Wenger, 1991) helps illuminate why: when learning and identity formation happen within communities of practice, the visible, vocal, and relationally engaged individual accrues social capital in ways that quieter, more reflective peers may not. Extraverted students occupy the visible spaces of campus life; introverted students often retreat from them. Leadership, then, may be less a fixed trait and more a social attribution something others assign, or that individuals claim, within specific ecological conditions.

Self-concept theory (Markus, 1977) offers another crucial layer. How one thinks of oneself and whether 'leader' is part of that self-concept is shaped by repeated experiences of social recognition and affirmation. If extraverted individuals receive more consistent social feedback that positions them as influential, communicative, and authoritative, it follows that their self-perceived leadership would be higher than that of their introverted peers. The findings of this study, where a strong negative correlation between introversion and leadership emerged, are consistent with precisely this mechanism. These are not merely individual differences; they are the product of social environments that reward certain personality configurations over others.

Gender schema theory (Bem, 1981) provides a foundational explanation. From early childhood, individuals internalise schemas about what it means to be male or female, and these schemas shape not only behaviour but self-perception. In an era where leadership frameworks increasingly emphasise relational competencies like listening, inclusion, emotional atonement, and collaborative decision-making, women who have been socialised into these very qualities may find their self-concept aligning naturally with leadership identity. The leadership measure in this study, grounded in the Lewin, Lippitt, and White (1939) framework, captures orientations including democratic and participative styles, and it is precisely these styles that tend to be more culturally scripted for women.

Bronfenbrenner's (1979) ecological systems theory situates human development within nested contexts from the immediate microsystem of family and peers to the broader macrosystem of cultural norms and values. For young women in Indian higher education, the macrosystem is shifting. Cultural expectations around women's social roles are evolving, and increasingly, educated young women are internalising leadership as both a possibility and an aspiration. The college environment itself the mesosystem where family expectations, peer dynamics, and institutional norms intersect becomes the crucible within which gender identity and leadership identity either cohere or conflict. The present findings suggest they cohere strongly for women in this sample.

Identity theory (Stryker, 1980) further clarifies this. When 'leader' occupies a prominent position in a person's role identity hierarchy, it becomes a lens through which they interpret their own behaviour. If female students in this sample have

increasingly incorporated leadership into their role identity perhaps through participation in student organisations, academic performance, or peer mentorship then higher self-rated leadership orientation is not surprising but expected. The present data offer a snapshot of this identity consolidation in action.

If the gender difference in leadership is the most striking finding, the relationship between introversion and leadership is the most theoretically rich. With a correlation of $r = -.70$, the association between introversion and lower leadership orientation dominated the correlation matrix. To understand this, one must look not only at what introversion is, but at what it signals within social environments that reward extraverted behaviour.

Introversion, as conceptualised in this study, reflects a preference for solitary activity, reserve, and reflective engagement. In the context of higher education, these tendencies can translate into social invisibility. Attribution theory (Heider, 1958; Kelley, 1967) helps explain what happens next: when others observe reserved, quiet behaviour, they often make dispositional attributions concluding that the person lacks confidence, enthusiasm, or leadership potential. These attributions, repeated across classroom discussions, group projects, and social events, accumulate into a social reality in which introverted individuals are less often nominated, invited, or recognised as leaders. Over time, this external reality shapes internal self-perception.

Social comparison theory (Festinger, 1954) adds another dimension. Students do not assess their leadership potential in a vacuum; they compare themselves to visible peers. In environments where extraverted behaviour is normative and publicly celebrated, introverted students may consistently perceive themselves as falling short of an extraverted leadership ideal. The negative correlation between introversion and self-reported leadership in this study may thus reflect not only a difference in outward behaviour but also a difference in how introverted students interpret their own capacities through the lens of extraverted comparison standards.

This matters enormously, because the narrative that introverts cannot lead is empirically contested. Research has consistently demonstrated that introverted individuals bring distinct strengths to leadership analytical depth, careful listening, and the capacity to create space for others' ideas. The finding in this study that introversion correlates negatively with self-perceived leadership does not mean

introverts are less capable; it may mean, more precisely, that they are less likely to claim leadership for themselves in environments that have not signalled that their style is valued. This is a structural and cultural problem as much as a personality one, and it carries significant implications for how educational institutions design and communicate leadership development opportunities.

The positive relationship between extroversion and leadership ($r = .14$, $p < .05$), though modest in magnitude, is theoretically consistent. In the context of this study's college-student sample, extroversion's association with leadership likely operates through social visibility and peer recognition. Signalling theory (Spence, 1973), originally developed in economics but applicable to social psychology, proposes that individuals use observable behaviours to communicate qualities that are not directly visible. Extroverted behaviour like speaking up in class, initiating social interactions, taking on visible roles in group activities, signals confidence and engagement in ways that others interpret as leadership-relevant.

The comparatively small size of this correlation ($r = .14$ vs. $r = -.70$ for introversion) is itself telling. It suggests that the absence of introversion may be more consequential for self-perceived leadership than the active presence of extroversion. Put differently, reducing the inhibition that introversion imposes on social behaviour may matter more than amplifying outward sociability per se. This interpretation is consistent with approach-avoidance motivation theory (Gray, 1982), which distinguishes between systems that drive individuals toward reward (approach, associated with extraversion) and systems that direct attention to threat or punishment (avoidance, associated with introversion and neuroticism). In social leadership contexts, it may be the avoidance system, the hesitancy, the preference for withdrawal that most powerfully constrains self-perceived leadership, rather than the strength of the approach drive.

The descriptive statistics revealed that the sample comprised 50 male and 151 female college students, with the majority of participants (45.0%) belonging to the 21–23 years age group. Independent samples t-tests revealed statistically significant gender differences across all study variables. Female participants obtained significantly higher leadership scores ($M = 58.22$, $SD = 13.17$) compared to male participants ($M = 42.21$, $SD = 18.93$), $t = -7.686$, $p < .001$. Female participants also scored significantly higher on introversion ($M = 19.11$, $SD = 4.85$) than male participants ($M = 13.75$, SD

= 6.39), t = −7.315, p < .001, as well as on extraversion (M = 20.73, SD = 5.16) compared to males (M = 14.66, SD = 6.97), t = −7.688, p < .001. In terms of correlational findings, a strong negative correlation was found between introversion and leadership orientation (r = −.696, p < .001), indicating that higher introversion was significantly associated with lower self-perceived leadership orientation. A small but statistically significant positive correlation was observed between extraversion and leadership orientation (r = .140, p < .05), suggesting that higher extraversion was mildly associated with higher leadership orientation. Gender also showed a moderate positive association with leadership (r = .42, p < .001), with female participants scoring considerably higher on leadership orientation overall.

Sociocultural theory (Vygotsky, 1978) frames development as inherently social individuals internalise the tools and norms of their cultural environments through interaction. If women are more consistently socialised into relational, communicative, and cooperative modes of engagement, then higher extroversion and lower introversion in adulthood may reflect the internalisation of these cultural imperatives as much as any biological predisposition. This interpretation does not deny the role of biological factors in personality but contextualises those factors within the developmental histories that shape them.

The moderate correlations between gender and both personality variables (r = −.35 for introversion, r = .28 for extroversion) also invite consideration of stereotype threat (Steele & Aronson, 1995) as a potential mechanism operating in reverse. If social expectations create pressure on men to appear reserved, stoic, or independent and on women to appear warm, engaged, and sociable then the personality profiles observed in this study may partly reflect performance of culturally expected roles rather than solely intrinsic dispositional differences. The college setting, with its heightened social visibility and identity exploration, may amplify these performance pressures.

When the findings of this study are read together, what emerges is an integrated portrait of how personality and gender jointly shape leadership orientation within the particular ecology of higher education. Female participants who are, on average, more extroverted and less introverted than their male peers, inhabit a social world where their personality configuration aligns naturally with the interpersonal demands of leadership as it is typically construed in peer-oriented environments. Male

participants, who are comparatively more introverted, face a dispositional profile that is less congruent with the extraverted prototype of leadership that dominates in these same environments.

Person-environment fit theory (Holland, 1985) provides a useful organising metaphor here. When individuals' personality profiles align with the demands and norms of their environments, they feel more competent, more engaged, and more likely to identify with relevant roles. The college environment, with its emphasis on group work, public speaking, social networking, and peer visibility, is in many respects an extraverted environment. For students whose personalities fit this environment disproportionately female in this sample leadership identity follows naturally. For those whose personalities do not fit disproportionately the more introverted male students, leadership self-perception is inhibited not by incapacity but by misalignment.

This has profound implications for educational practice. If leadership identity is partly a function of person-environment fit, then expanding the ecological niches within which leadership is expressed and recognised creating space for reflective, analytical, and quietly influential forms of leadership may be more effective than attempting to change students' personalities. The goal should not be to make introverts more extroverted, but to create educational environments in which the full spectrum of leadership styles is visible, valued, and taught.

Limitations

The present study offers valuable insights but must be interpreted within the context of several methodological boundaries.

- The reliance on self-report measures means that findings reflect students' perceptions of themselves rather than behavioural or observer-rated assessments of leadership.
- The cross-sectional design captures a single point in the developmental trajectory of emerging adulthood and cannot establish causal ordering among personality, gender, and leadership orientation.
- Furthermore, the sample was drawn from a single institution in northern India, which constrains generalisability across regional, institutional, and cultural contexts.

- The leadership measure employed, while empirically established, reflects a classical tripartite model of leadership styles and does not capture the full contemporary range of servant, transformational, or relational leadership constructs.

- The absence of moderating variables including team composition, institutional climate, and family socialisation backgrounds limits the contextual richness of the findings.

Future Recommendations

- The pattern of findings in this study opens several productive avenues for future inquiry. Longitudinal research following students across the course of their undergraduate years would illuminate whether the gender differences observed here are stable, intensified, or attenuated by academic and social experiences over time.

- Multi-method designs that supplement self-report data with peer-nominated leadership assessments and behavioural observations would provide a more ecologically valid picture of the introversion-extroversion-leadership relationship.

- Cross-cultural replications, particularly comparing samples from collectivist and individualist cultural contexts, would test whether the personality-leadership associations observed here are culturally specific or broadly generalisable.

- Future studies should also examine potential mediating variables including self-efficacy, peer recognition, and participation in student organisations to clarify the mechanisms through which personality shapes leadership identity.

- Intervention research testing the effects of leadership development programmes explicitly designed to cultivate introverted leadership strengths such as reflective practice seminars, mentoring relationships, and visible recognition of quiet influence would have direct applied value for educational institutions seeking to develop inclusive and diverse leadership pipelines.

Conclusion

This study set out to understand how introversion, extroversion, and gender relate to leadership orientation among college students, and what came back was a story of consistency and coherence. Across every analysis, the same portrait emerged: female students are more extroverted, less introverted, also claimed higher leadership orientation. And at the heart of the correlation matrix was a powerful negative

relationship between introversion and leadership, one that speaks not to the incapacity of introverted individuals but to the ways in which social environments shape who gets to see themselves as a leader.

The theoretical frameworks reviewed in this chapter from self-concept theory and attribution processes to ecological systems and person-environment fit converge on a shared insight: leadership identity is not simply a reflection of what individuals are, but of how their dispositions interact with the social, cultural, and institutional environments they inhabit. The college setting, with its extraverted ecology, its peer visibility, and its shifting gender norms, has produced a pattern of findings that carries both scientific significance and practical urgency. In a society that increasingly demands diverse, inclusive, and relationally sophisticated leadership, educational institutions have both an opportunity and a responsibility to ensure that leadership development reaches beyond the extraverted few to the full spectrum of human personality.

SUMMARY

TOPIC: RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN INTROVERSION-EXTRAVERSION PERSONALITY TRAITS AND LEADERSHIP STYLES AMONG COLLEGE STUDENTS

SUPERVISOR INVESTIGATOR: HarshikaJethiDr.Neha TewatiaRoll No. 2415009

SEMESTER: IV

Introduction

Personality is a fundamental psychological construct that encompasses the stable and enduring patterns of thoughts, emotions, and behaviours that characterize individuals across contexts. Among the most significant dimensions of personality are introversion and extraversion, two orientations that profoundly influence how individuals interact with the world, manage energy, and engage in social and professional environments. Introversion refers to an inward direction of psychological energy, characterized by reflectiveness, preference for solitude, and reserved social behaviour. Extraversion, in contrast, denotes an outward orientation marked by sociability, assertiveness, enthusiasm, and a drive for external stimulation. Leadership style constitutes another critical construct that has received extensive attention in organizational and educational psychology. Leadership styles reflect consistent patterns of behaviour through which individuals guide, motivate, and influence others toward shared objectives. The classical framework proposed by Lewin, Lippitt, and White (1939) identifies three distinct styles: autocratic, democratic, and laissez-faire, each representing a qualitatively different approach to authority, decision-making, and follower engagement. College students represent a particularly important population for examining the personality-leadership relationship. The college environment is a critical developmental period characterized by identity formation, social exploration, and the emergence of leadership roles in academic, extracurricular, and peer contexts. Understanding how introversion and extraversion relate to leadership styles among college students can offer valuable insights for educators and counsellors seeking to foster inclusive leadership development.

Need and Significance of the Study

The present study holds considerable significance in the fields of educational and organizational psychology. As leadership demands in academic and professional contexts evolve to encompass relational, collaborative, and reflective competencies, understanding how personality traits shape leadership preferences becomes increasingly critical. Extroverted traits such as assertiveness and sociability have long been associated with leadership effectiveness; however, introverted individuals possess distinct strengths, including analytical thinking, empathic listening, and reflective decision-making, that are equally valuable in leadership roles. The findings of this study are expected to provide valuable insights for educational institutions, counsellors, psychologists, and policymakers in developing inclusive leadership development programmes that acknowledge and foster the potential of both introverted and extraverted students. Furthermore, the research contributes to the existing body of knowledge in personality and leadership psychology within the Indian higher education context.

Statement of the Problem The present study is entitled as "The Relationship Between Introversion-Extraversion Personality Traits and Leadership Styles Among College Students."

Operational Definitions

Introversion: Introversion refers to a personality trait in which an individual directs their energy and attention inward, preferring solitary activities, quiet environments, and deep reflection over social interaction and external stimulation.

Extraversion: Extraversion refers to a personality trait characterized by an outward direction of energy toward the external world, marked by sociability, assertiveness, enthusiasm, and a preference for seeking stimulation through social interaction and external activities.

Leadership Style: Leadership style refers to a consistent pattern of behaviour exhibited by a leader while interacting with subordinates, reflecting how decisions are made, authority is exercised, and followers are guided and motivated toward common goals.

Objectives of the Study

The following objectives were formulated for the present study:

O1 To examine gender differences in leadership style preferences among college students.

O2 To assess the relationship between introversion and preferred leadership styles among college students.

O3 To assess the relationship between extraversion and preferred leadership styles among college students.

Hypotheses of the Study

Ho1 There will be no significant gender differences in leadership style preferences among college students.

Ho2 There will be no significant relationship between introversion and preferred leadership styles among college students.

Ho3 There will be no significant relationship between extraversion and preferred leadership styles among college students.

Population of the Study

The population of the present study comprised college students pursuing undergraduate and postgraduate courses from different colleges and academic streams across educational institutions in Jammu. The participants belonged to the age group of 18-26 years.

Sample for the Study

In the present study, simple random sampling technique was employed for selecting the sample. The final sample consisted of N = 238 participants, comprising 146 male and 92 female students. The sample was predominantly composed of participants in the 21-23 years age bracket (45%), followed by those in the 18-20 years group (31.1%) and the 24-26 years group (23.9%).

Sampling Technique

Simple random sampling technique was used for collecting the data in the present study. This probability sampling method ensured that every individual in the population had an equal chance of being selected for participation, thereby minimizing selection bias and enhancing the representativeness and objectivity of the findings.

Tools Used

Introvert-Extravert Personality Questionnaire (IEPQ)

The Introvert-Extravert Personality Questionnaire, developed by Hans Eysenck and Sybil Eysenck (1964), is a standardized self-report instrument designed to assess introversion and extraversion personality traits. The questionnaire consists of 10 items, each rated on a five-point Likert scale. Higher scores indicate a stronger orientation toward either introversion or extraversion.

Leadership Style Questionnaire (LSQ)

The Leadership Style Questionnaire, developed by Kurt Lewin, Ronald Lippitt, and Ralph White (1939), is a standardized measure used to assess leadership behaviour and style preferences. The questionnaire comprises 18 items evaluating three distinct leadership styles: Authoritative (Autocratic), Democratic, and Laissez-Faire. The instrument has been extensively applied in leadership research to differentiate leadership styles based on behavioural patterns.

Statistical Techniques Used

The following statistical techniques were employed for analyzing the data:

➤ Mean and Standard Deviation

➤ Pearson's Product Moment Correlation

➤ Independent Samples t-Test

➤ Effect Size (Cohen's d) The statistical analyses were conducted using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), Version 27.0.

Results of the Study

The major findings of the present study are summarized as follows:

• The descriptive statistics revealed that the sample comprised 146 male (61.3%) and 92 female (38.7%) college students. The majority of participants (45.0%) belonged to the 21-23 years age group.

• A strong negative correlation was found between introversion and leadership orientation ($r = -0.696$, $p < .001$), indicating that higher introversion was significantly associated with lower self-perceived leadership orientation.

• A small but statistically significant positive correlation was observed between extraversion and leadership orientation ($r = 0.140$, $p < .05$), suggesting that higher extraversion was associated with higher leadership orientation.

• The descriptive statistics revealed that the sample comprised 50 male ($N = 50$) and 151 female ($N = 151$) college students. The majority of participants (45.0%) belonged to the 21–23 years age group.

• A strong negative correlation was found between introversion and leadership orientation ($r = −0.696$, $p < .001$), indicating that higher introversion was significantly associated with lower self-perceived leadership orientation.

• A small but statistically significant positive correlation was observed between extraversion and leadership orientation ($r = 0.140$, $p < .05$), suggesting that higher extraversion was associated with higher leadership orientation.

• Gender showed a moderate positive association with leadership ($r = .42$, $p < .001$), with female participants scoring significantly higher on leadership orientation.

• Independent samples t-tests revealed statistically significant gender differences across all study variables. Female participants obtained significantly higher leadership scores ($M = 58.22$, $SD = 13.17$) compared to male participants ($M = 42.21$, $SD = 18.93$), $t = −7.686$, $p < .001$.

• Female participants scored significantly higher on introversion ($M = 19.11$, $SD = 4.85$) than male participants ($M = 13.75$, $SD = 6.39$), $t = −7.315$, $p < .001$.Female

• participants also scored significantly higher on extraversion ($M = 20.73$, $SD = 5.16$) compared to male participants ($M = 14.66$, $SD = 6.97$), $t = -7.688$, $p < .001$.

• Overall, the findings indicate that personality traits, particularly introversion, are strongly related to leadership orientation, and that female college students in this sample demonstrate higher extroversion, lower introversion, and markedly higher leadership orientation than their male peers.

Limitations of the Study

• The study was limited to college students aged between 18-26 years only, which may restrict the generalizability of the findings to other age groups.

• The research was conducted in selected colleges and institutions in Jammu, limiting wider representation of the student population.

• The study relied entirely on self-report questionnaires, which may be subject to response bias and social desirability effects.

• The cross-sectional research design makes it difficult to establish causal relationships between personality traits and leadership orientation.

• The leadership measure employed reflects a classical tripartite model and does not capture the full contemporary range of leadership constructs such as transformational or servant leadership.

• The absence of moderating variables including team composition, institutional climate, and family socialization backgrounds limits the contextual richness of the findings.

Suggestions for Future Research

• Similar studies can be conducted on larger and more diverse samples to improve the generalizability of the findings.

• Comparative studies may be conducted among students from different academic disciplines, regions, and cultural backgrounds.

• Longitudinal studies can be undertaken to examine the development of personality-leadership relationships across the course of undergraduate and postgraduate education.

• Future research may include additional personality dimensions such as the Big Five traits and psychological variables like self-efficacy, resilience, and emotional intelligence.

• Multi-method designs incorporating peer-nominated leadership assessments and behavioural observations would provide a more ecologically valid picture of the personality-leadership relationship.

• Intervention-based studies testing the effectiveness of leadership development programmes designed to cultivate introverted leadership strengths would have direct applied value for educational institutions.

• Cross-cultural replications comparing samples from collectivist and individualist cultural contexts would test whether the observed associations are culturally specific or broadly generalisable.

Conclusion

The present study concluded that introversion-extraversion personality traits are significantly related to leadership orientation among college students. A strong negative relationship between introversion and leadership and a modest positive relationship between extraversion and leadership were observed. Significant gender differences emerged across all study variables, with female students demonstrating higher extraversion, lower introversion, and markedly higher leadership orientation than their male counterparts. The findings highlight that leadership identity is shaped not merely by individual personality traits but by the interaction of personality with social, cultural, and institutional environments. The college setting, with its emphasis on social engagement and peer visibility, creates conditions that are more congruent with extraverted personality orientations, potentially inhibiting leadership self-perception among introverted students. The study emphasizes the need for educational institutions and mental health professionals to develop inclusive leadership programmes that recognize and cultivate the diverse leadership strengths of both introverted and extraverted students. Promoting psychologically supportive academic

environments that value reflective, analytical, and collaborative forms of leadership can significantly enhance students' leadership identity, academic performance, and overall personal development.

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APPENDICS

APPENDIX-I-LEADERSHIP STYLE QUESTIONNAIRE

Statements	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. Members need to be supervised closely or they are not likely to do their work.	1	2	3	4	5
2. It is fair to say that most members in the general population are lazy.	1	2	3	4	5
3. In complex situations, leaders should let members work out problems on their own.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Members want to be apart of the decision-making process.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Providing guidance withough pressure is the key to being a good leader.	1	2	3	4	5
6. As a rule, members must be given rewards or punishments in order to motivate them to achieve organizational objectives.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Leadership requires staying out of the way of members as they do their work.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Most members want frequent and supportive communication with their leaders.	1	2	3	4	5
9. As a rule, leaders should allow members to appraise their own work.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Most members feel insecure about their work and need direction.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Leaders need to help members accept responsibility for completing their work.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Leaders should give members complete freedom to solve problems on their own.	1	2	3	4	5
13. In most situations members prefer little input from the leader.	1	2	3	4	5
14. It is the leader's job to help members find their "passion".	1	2	3	4	5
15. The leader is the chief judge of the achievements of the members of a group.	1	2	3	4	5

.5. The leader is the chief judge of the achievements of the nembers of a group.	1	2	3	4	5
.6. Effective leaders give orders and clarify procedures.	1	2	3	4	5
.7. In general, it is best to leave members alone.	1	2	3	4	5
.8. People are basicially competnet and if given a task will do good job.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX-II INTRAVERSION,EXTRAVERSION QUESTIONNAIRE

Extrovert/Introvert Self-evaluation

	Statements	Completely true	Mostly true	Somewhat true/false	Mostly false	Completely false
1	I am seen as "outgoing" or as a "people person."					
2	I feel comfortable in groups and like working in them.					
3	I am seen as "reflective" or "reserved."					
4	I feel comfortable being alone and like things I can do on my own.					
5	I have a wide range of friends and know lots of people.					
6	I sometimes spend too much time reflecting and don't move into action quickly enough.					
7	Before I start a project, I sometimes forget to stop and get clear on what I want to do and why.					
8	I prefer to know just a few people well.					
9	I sometimes jump too quickly into an activity and don't allow enough time to think it over.					
10	I sometimes forget to check with the outside world to see if my ideas really fit the experience.					

Completely true	5 pts
Mostly true	4 pts
Somewhat true/false	3 pts
Mostly false	2 pts
Completely false	1 pts

INTROVERSION POINTS		EXTRAVERSION POINTS	
1		3	
2		4	
5		6	
7		8	
9		10	
Total		Total	

Favorite and Least Favorite Subject

1.) What is your favorite subject (regardless of subject teacher/mentor)?

2.) What is your least favorite subject (regardless of subject teacher/mentor)?

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