

The impact of leadership personality on team performance in community projects in a selected district in the Western Cape

Ву

Siyasamnkela Vutula

Dissertation submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree

Master of Project Management

In the Faculty of Business and Management Sciences

at the Cape Peninsula University of Technology

Supervisor: Dr Larry Enoch Jowah

District Six Campus

Date: 06 September 2021

CPUT copyright information

The dissertation may not be published either in part (in scholarly, scientific or technical journals), or as a whole (as a monograph), unless permission has been obtained from the University

DECLARATION

I, Siyasamnkela Vutula, declare that the contents of this dissertation represent my own unaided work, and that the thesis/dissertation has not previously been submitted for academic examination towards any qualification. Furthermore, it represents my own opinions and not necessarily those of the Cape Peninsula University of Technology.

Signed: Date: 01 September 2021

ABSTRACT

Since the beginning of project management, the personality of a project leader has been overlooked as an important requirement that should be considered when choosing a project leader. The impact of the personality of the project leader has also been neglected. This study seeks to find out if the project leader personality presents aspects that should be considered when selecting a project leader, together with their impact on projects. A questionnaire was used as the tool to gather the necessary information for the study because it is cost-effective and allowed flexibility in the size of the sample interviewed. A random selection of the sample was undertaken, which helped the study by allowing a mix of respondents. The gathered data was analysed and presented with the aid of charts. The study results show that the democratic leadership style is the best to deploy when implementing projects as it is an inclusive leadership style. The results also reveal that the personality of a project leader is very important as it plays a role in project failure or success. The study also found that there are numerous leadership traits that are needed for a project leader to run happy teams and ultimately successful projects.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to express my gratitude to God and my Ancestors for giving me strength and courage throughout this study.

I would also like to thank the following people who have helped me undertake this research: My supervisor, Dr Larry Enoch Jowah, for his enthusiasm for the project, for his support, encouragement and patience;

The Cape Peninsula University of Technology, for the resources availed for the study.

For their contributions to the document compilation:

Mr. Stainley Fore

Ms. Nozuko Sityodana

Mr. Neo Macuphe

The good project managers and team players of the organization where I was doing my study.

In addition, to my family and friends who supported me throughout the study.

The financial assistance of the Sector Education and Training Authority (SETA) towards this research is acknowledged. Opinions expressed in this thesis and the conclusions arrived at, are those of the author, and are not necessarily to be attributed to SETA.

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my grandmother who raised me and never attended any of my graduations and promised to live until I passed my masters studies.

I also dedicate this study to my family and most importantly to my daughter Qalokuhle, Iviwe my younger sister, and my cousins. I would like to inspire them to study like I did.

I also dedicate this dissertation to the youth of Nqadu Location, Willowvale, Eastern Cape and South Africa as a whole.

I furthermore dedicate this study to the members of Umsimbithi Foundation, I want them also to equip themselves educationally.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Contents

DECLARATION	i
ABSTRACT	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iii
DEDICATION	iv
TABLE OF CONTENTS	v
LIST OF FIGURES	x
LIST OF TABLES	xi
ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS	xii
GLOSSARY	xiii
CHAPTER 1: The impact of leadership personality on team performance in community projects in selected district in the Western Cape	
1.1 Introduction	1
1.2 Literature review	1
1.3 Problem statement	10
1.4 Research objectives	10
1.4.1 Primary research objective	10
1.4.2 Secondary research objective	10
1.5 Research questions	11
1.6 Research methodology	11
1.6.1 Data collection methods	11
1.6.2 Data analysis method	12
1.7 Ethical considerations	12
1.8 Chapter classification	12
1.8.1 Chapter 1	12
1.8.2 Chapter 2	12
1.8.3 Chapter 3	12
1.8.4 Chapter 4	12
1 8 5 Chanter 5	12

1.8.6 Chapter 6	13
1.9 Chapter summary	13
Chapter 2: Personality, personality traits, Five Factor Model of personality, leadership, leadership theories, leadership styles, Maslow's hierarchy	14
2.1 Personality	14
2.1.1 Personality Traits	14
2.1.2 Fitting personality into team coherence	18
2.2 Leadership	19
2.2.1 Leadership theories	19
2.2.2 Leadership Styles	21
2.2.2.1 Autocratic leadership style	22
2.2.2.2 Democratic leadership style	24
2.2.2.3 Laissez-faire leadership	25
2.2.2.4 Transactional Leadership Style	27
2.2.3 Maslow's hierarchy of needs	30
2.2.3.1 Physiological Needs	30
2.2.3.2 Safety and security needs	31
2.2.3.3 Love and belonging /social needs	31
2.2.3.4 Esteem Needs	32
2.2.3.5 Self-actualization Needs	32
Chapter 3: Teams, characteristics of teams, membership, team dynamics, team effectiveness, types teams, project teams, management teams, team diversity, team models and theories, and team built	
3.1 Teams	
3.1.1 Core characteristics of teams	
3.1.2 Advantages of working in teams	34
3.1.3 Membership	
3.1.4 Interdependence	37
3.1.5 Shared responsibility for outcomes	39
3.1.6 Team Dynamics	40
3.1.7 Team management	40
3.1.8 Flaments of a successful team	/11

3.1.9 Team Effectiveness	41
3.1.10 Team Effectiveness models	42
3.1.11 Different types of teams	49
3.1.11.1 Project teams	50
3.1.11.2 Management teams	50
3.1.12 Team diversity	50
3.1.13 Improving teamwork: models and theories	51
3.1.13.1 Tuckman's model Error! Bookmark not def	ined.
3.1.13.2 Kurt Lewin's individual change process model	51
3.1.13.3 Tubbs systems model	51
3.1.13.4 Fisher's theory of decision emergence in groups	53
3.1.13.5 McGrath's Time, Interaction, and Performance (TIP) theory	54
3.1.13.6 Gersick's punctuated equilibrium model	55
3.1.13.7 Wheelan's integrated model of group development	56
3.1.13.8 The TEAM model of Morgan, Salas, and Glickman	58
3.1.13.9 Hackman's multilevel perspective	59
3.2 Team building	61
3.2.1 Four approaches of team building	62
3.2.2 Teambuilding effectiveness	63
3.2.3 Challenges to team building	64
Chapter 4: Research Methodology	66
4.1 Research design and research methodology	66
4.2 Definition of key concepts	66
4.3 Types of research	67
4.3.1 Quantitative research	67
4.3.2 Qualitative research	67
4.4 Data collection	69
4.4.1 Data collection Instrument	70
4.4.2 Data Collection	70
CHAPTER 5: Data editing, data capturing, data analysis, reporting, interpretation and final reporting.	72
5.1 Section A: Biography	72
5.2.1 Question 1: How old are you?	72

	5.1.2 Question 2: Which area do you work for?	73
	5.1.3 Question 3: What is your employment position in the organization?	75
	5.1.4 Question 4: How long have you worked for the organization?	76
	5.1.5 Question 5: What kind of projects are you involved in?	77
	5.2 Section B: Likert scale - perceptions of respondents	78
	5.2.1 Statement 1: Team leader's personality has an impact on project success	78
	5.2.2 Statement 2: A project team leader must be a good communicator	78
	5.2.3 Statement 3: Project team leader must portray good project management skills	80
	5.2.4 Statement 4: I am expecting a good leadership-followership relationship in the team	81
	5.2.5 Statement 5: Cultural diversity affects team relationships	82
	5.2.6 Statement 6: Team building programmes are necessary in a team even if there are no differences amongst team members.	83
	5.2.7 Statement 7: Autocratic leadership style is the best leadership style to run projects	84
	5.2.8 Statement 8: Democratic leadership style is the best leadership style to run projects	85
	5.2.9 Statement 9: Laissez-faire leadership style is the best leadership style to run projects	85
	5.2.10 Statement 10: Transactional leadership style is the best leadership style to run projects	87
	5.2.11 Statement 11: Transformational leadership style is the best leadership style to run projection.	
	5.2.12 Question 12: List important comments you would like to make about your experience in project teams and project leader personality.	
	5.3 Section C: Open ended questions	90
	5.3.1 Question 1: List 3 project leader traits that you would like project leaders to possess in ord to deliver successful projects	
	5.3.2 Question 2: List any three changes or recommendations that you would like to see in your project teams.	
СН	APTER 6: Summary of results, conclusion, recommendations	94
	6.1 Introduction	94
	6.2 Summary of Chapters	94
	6.2.1 Chapter 1	94
	6.2.2 Chapter 2	95
	6.2.3 Chapter 3	95
	6.2.4 Chapter 4	95
	6.2.5 Chapter 5	95

	6.2.6 Chapter 6	95
	6.3 Section A – Biography	96
	6.3.1 Question 1: How old are you?	96
	6.3.2 Question 2: Which area do you work for?	96
	6.2.3 Question 3: What is your employment position in the organization?	97
	6.2.4 Question 4: How long have you been working for the organization?	97
	6.2.5 Question 5: What kind of projects are you involved in?	97
	6.4 Section B: Likert scale	98
	6.5 Section C: Open-ended questions	103
7.	. CONCLUSION	104
3.	. REFERENCES	105
9.	. APPENDICES	119
	9.1 APPENDIX A: Questionnaire	119
	9.2 APPENDIX B: Ethical clearance certificate	122
	9.3 APPENDIX D: Plagiarism report	123
	9.4 APPENDIX D: Proofreading certificate	127

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. 1.: Process Models for Change (Book 1 – Ch. 5)	9
Figure 2. 1: The Five Factor Model of personality	15
Figure 2. 2 Maslow's hierarchy of needs	30
Figure 3. 1: The GRPI Model of Team Effectiveness – Rubin, Plovnick and Fry Model (19	•
Figure 3. 2: The Wisdom of Teams -Katzenbach and Smith model	
Figure 3. 3: Driving team effectiveness-T7 model	
Figure 3. 4: Teamwork- the LaFasto and Larson model	
Figure 3. 5: Five Dynamics of Team Work and Collaboration	
Figure 3. 6: A Normative Model of work team effectiveness - the Hackman model	
Figure 3. 7: Five Dysfunctions of a Team - the Lencioni model	48
Figure 5. 1: Age of participants	73
Figure 5. 2: Working Area	
Figure 5. 3: Employment Position	
Figure 5. 4: Working Experience	
Figure 5. 5: Types of Projects	
Figure 5. 6: Team leader's personality has an impact on project success	
Figure 5. 7: A project team leader must be a good communicator	
Figure 5. 8: Project team leader must portray good project management skills	
Figure 5. 9: I am expecting good leadership-followership relationship in the team	
Figure 5. 10: Cultural diversity affects the team relationship	
Figure 5. 11: Team building programmes are a must in a team even if there are no differe	
amongst team members	
Figure 5. 12: Autocratic leadership style is the best leadership style to run projects	
Figure 5. 13: Democratic leadership style is the best leadership style to run projects	
Figure 5. 14: Laissez-Faire leadership style is the best leadership style to run projects	
Figure 5. 15: Transactional Leadership Style is the best leadership style to run projects	
Figure 5 16: Transformational Leadership Style is the best leadership style to run projects	

LIST OF TABLES

Table 3. 1:individual change process model	51
Table 3. 2:Tubbs systems model	53
Table 3. 3: Fisher's theory of decision emergence in groups	
Table 3. 4: McGrath's Time, Interaction, and Performance (TIP) theory	54
Table 3. 5: modes and functions	
Table 3. 6: Punctuated equilibrium model of Gersick	56
Table 3. 7: Integrated group development model of Wheelan	57
Table 3. 8: Multilevel Perspective of Hackman	60
Table 4. 1: Differences between quantitative and qualitative research	68
Table 5. 1: List important comments you would like to make about your experience	in project
teams and project leader personality	89
Table 5. 2: Ideal leadership traits for the organisations leaders	91
Table 5. 3: ideal changes to project teams	
Table 6. 1: Perceptions of respondents	99

ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

CPUT Cape Peninsula University of Technology

SETA Sector Education and Training Authority

LHT Leader heuristic transfer

II Idealized influence

IM Inspirational motivation

IC Individualized consideration

IS Intellectual stimulation

GRPI Goals, roles, processes and interpersonal relationships

TIP Time, interaction and performance

GDOS Group development observation system

GDQ Group development questionnaire

GLOSSARY

Team: Thompson (2008:476) defines a team as a group of people who are mutually reliant on

each other for information, resources, and abilities, and who aim to pool their efforts and work to

attain a single goal and set of objectives.

Team building: Team building refers to a variety of activities that are intended to improve social

connections and define responsibilities within teams, with most of them involving cooperative

duties.

Team effectiveness: team effectiveness is a team's capacity to fulfil its specified goals or

objectives, which are governed by authorized persons or the organization (Aube, Caroline; and

Rousseau. 2011:567).

Team leader: A team leader is a person who provides guidance, instruction, direction and

leadership to a group of individuals (the team) for the purpose of achieving a key result or group

of aligned results.

Team members: A collective group of individuals working together to achieve a specified goal.

xiii

CHAPTER 1: The impact of leadership personality on team performance in community projects in a selected district in the Western Cape

1.1 Introduction

Leadership personality has a huge impact on team performance because the leader passes his own leadership skills to the team to produce what is expected of them. (Stokols, Misra and Moser, 2008:S96-S115) suggest that leadership encompasses influencing one's teammates to act towards the attainment of a target goal. A leader cannot achieve the project goals and objectives alone; he/she needs high performing team to work with in reaching the goals and objectives of the project. As concluded by Aube et al. (2011:567), the capability of a working team led by an authorized team leader is known as team effectiveness. In order for the leader to lead successfully, he/she needs to have good leadership styles and skills as well as the appropriate personality. Chamorro-Premuzic and Furnham (2005:1) defines personality as the constant pattern of behavior or traits that subject an individual to act in a specific manner. An effective leader is one who can identify situational factors that influence follower's effectiveness, for an example an employee's needs, traits, and task structure, etc. Effective leaders have an impact in motivating team members in a positive way in order for them to perform well and do their jobs properly.

1.2 Literature review

Leadership traits or personality are the qualities and characteristics that make a leader different from other leaders or competitive with all other leaders These traits are the personal attributes of the leader that he/she should demonstrate when exercising leadership and management responsibilities. It is of paramount importance for the team leader to consider all leadership traits because failing to do so the team members that he or she are leading will lose respect and confidence in him/her. Here are the following traits that each and every leader should apply in order to lead successfully.

Zaccaro (2007:6) suggests that qualities of leadership are assimilated patterns of characteristics of an individual that reflect an array of personal or individual dissimilarities and foster reliable effectiveness of the leader through a range of team and organisational circumstances.

Heuristic transfer is a manner in which a person may grow because of their own knowledge and experience dealing with changed atmospheres and circumstances, and interaction with different

personnel as well. It is important to adopt Leader Heuristic Transfer (LHT) in order to lead successfully. (Perkins and Salomon, 1989:16-25and) leader heuristic transfer is the leader's knowledge created with regard to the methods for acknowledgement, findings and solving problems. LHT has a positive relationship with employee creativity. LHT influences employees' creativity by motivating them to be positive and capable. It is important that leaders must possess more advanced levels of proficiency and status than their employees in order for them to be respected by the employees.

Scouller (2011: 337-347) outlined the main roles and responsibilities of a team leader as follows: to ensure that leadership is available and exercised; and to make sure that all leadership dimensions are addressed all the time.

The major responsibilities of a leader in a project are as follows (Fridman, 2000:96):

- To have vision and a strategy: develop a vision and share it with the team, making sure that the vision is in line with the goals and objectives, as well as the strategy.
- To communicate and build trust with the team: to have open communication with everyone, which will make it easier for everyone to open up and formulate ideas. Open communication lead to creativity because no one will have fear to voice new ideas they have in mind.
- To build a team: this is how the leader develops an effective team. The leader explains in detail what need to be done, setting team standards and the performance level required from the team. The leader inspires the team to perform at a high level.
- To support the team: encouraging the team rather than individuals; accepting ideas and contribution from the team; creating team spirit and taking disagreements as opportunities.
- To evaluate and monitor the team: the leader checks on the performance of the team, to
 determine if it is on the right track for the task; if not, then to identify the area where they
 make errors and formulate ideas to rectify those errors.

Various methods of reasoning in the twentieth century contended that extraordinary leaders are not made but rather born. Current research shows that leadership is extremely unpredictable and it is impossible to reduce a person's worth to a few essential features.

Researchers concur that an individual's leadership skills do not alter according to the situation; qualities like insight, empathy, or physically engaging quality (Howell, 2012:4–6). Nonetheless, each leadership characteristic can be differently applied to circumstances, depending on the circumstances presented.

Drive and determination includes but is not limited to qualities such as inventiveness, zeal, confidence, determination and often supremacy. Individuals who possess the aforementioned qualities sometimes have a tendency to pursue their goals wholeheartedly, and spend longer than normal time at work. They are always ambitious and determined and are frequently very competitive with their teammates.

Cognitive capacity comprises several natural human qualities such as intellectual, speech or verbal ability, analytical ability, interactive flexibility, and better decision making. People who possess these attributes are capable of formulating solutions to complex complications, and are also good at working under immense stress and pressure that are sometimes caused by tight deadlines. They are flexible and quickly adapt to ever changing environments and situations and create future plans that are clear and easy to understand, Howell et al. (2012: 4–6).

Self-confidence incorporates qualities of emotive stability and self-assurance. Self-confident team players trust themselves and their judgement capabilities and decisions; they also capable of instilling self-confidence in other team members, thus building team members' commitment.

Integrity is always seen in people who are honest, reliable, ethical, consistent, responsible, faithful, and who do not misinform other people. Leaders of this calibre frequently share moral qualities with the teams they are leading, as this characteristic is mostly an ethical subject (Howell et al., 2012:4-6).

Emotional intelligence describes the ability to recognize, assess, and control the feelings of oneself with regard to other people. In a project or organization, a leader should have a control of their emotions and be capable of responding positively to team members when situations are uncontrollable. It is also how such leaders understand their emotions and use that understanding in the work that they are involved in at that given time. Leaders with emotional intelligence are concerned when it comes to people and the productions of the organization. Emotional intelligence is important to effective leadership as they show sensitivity in their own emotions and that will influence the team to be like that as well. Williams (2008:8) defines emotional intelligence

as the capability of regulating emotions to stimulate emotional and intellectual development. An intelligent leader effectively develops social judgment and complex problem solving skills. Intelligent leader have the following competences:

- Self-aware people know their value and set boundaries for their own lives. Self-awareness
 is all about being aware of their emotions, knowing their feelings as they transpire, and
 understanding their own emotions and manners. It is also revealed in self-confidence,
 realistic evaluation of individual strong points and weaknesses, and the ability to make
 themselves happy.
- Self-regulation refers to people who are able to control their feelings and emotions even if they are in a bad mood. This is revealed in dependability and openness to variation.
- Self-motivation: A leader cannot lead people without desire to achieve something in the long run. A leader motivates the team to have passion for what they do each and every day. Self-motivation is the ability to gathering up one's emotions and chase goals with drive or zeal, passion and determination.
- Empathy: A leader needs to consider the team members' feeling in the process of making decisions, and be able to sense and understand the viewpoints of others. Empathy is shown by the ability to maintain associations and in cross- and multi-cultural sensitivity.
- Social skills are skills of networking and interacting with the team, ability to manage and being able to build relationships with the team. Social skills include the ability to lead change, resolve conflicts and build effective teams.

Few team leaders possess all the afore listed qualities, but most leaders have the skill to apply several qualities to succeed as favourites of their team and environment.

A leader cannot achieve goals and objectives of the project alone; he/she needs a high performing team to work with the special skills needed for completion of the project within a specified time. Most people they believe that they fully understand what a team is and how to do their own tasks. Bradley and Hebert (2006:338) state that a team should be highly diverse in terms of their talents and knowledge in order to contribute to a project while maintaining open communication amongst team members. Leaders also find it difficult to group people within a team. Team members are a group of individuals who share common goals with each other; everyone is aware of their own roles with in the team and if they deliver what is expected of them, they produce high quality results.

As team members have common goals, they also have complementary skills that contribute to high performance. It is important to enforce an integrated project team as they must have the ability to solve problems, be self-managed, and know their own duties. Integrated project teams have their own characteristics that make them unique. They have a common purpose, they are committed and have a sense of belonging, shared interests, high performance standards, and show pride and satisfaction in teamwork. Team participants do not communicate at the beginning of a project task. There is no communication and team spirit, as they do not know each other. In order to achieve a winning team, it is important to use the most common model that employs five phases which effectively develop teams, as outlined below.

Forming is the initial phase of developing a team whereby members of the team have a meet and greet session for the first time. Group or team participants learn about one another and the job that needs to be done (Zubkoff, Neily and Mills, 2019:27). Pointers or signs of this phase might comprise vague goals and objectives, team members who are not involved, and members who are not committed to the team and its goals and objectives, confusion amongst team members, low team morale, unknown team member feelings, and very poor focus and listening. A leadership approach to form teams means playing a coordinating role by determining the forming phase picking teams, facilitating team targets, and establishing a collective mental model, conludes Manges et al. (2017:21-29). Members are not yet sure of their own task or role in the team. The leader here guides the team members to shift their mentality from being individuals to being team members. As suggested by Larson and Gray (2011:377), forming is a stage whereby team members get to understand one another and get to know and understand the scope of the project. They start establishing common ground rules and try to establish and agree on accepted behaviour in the team. This phase is complete once team members start to regard themselves as part of the team, then the team leader can introduce the next stage.

Storming: During this stage team members fight a lot; this is the reason why many team fails and they do not follow the guidance of the project vision. As a result, it is difficult to work through this stage. There is lack of progress, accusations, competition amongst team members and the team even breaks into different groups. Larson and Gray (2011:378) define storming as the stage where there is a high level of conflict, and while team members have accepted that they are part of the team, they want to do things individually. Conflict arise over the managerial structure of the team. As solutions are found to these conflicts, the team leader can take the team to the next stage.

Norming: Here the team members resolve their differences with each other. The conflict amongst the team members is no longer an issue as they are working closely together and there is less competition amongst the team. Larson and Grey (2011:378) state that it is in the norming stage that the team develops close relationships. Feelings are shared, and responsibilities. The norming stage is complete when the team members understand their expectations and work together as the team.

Performing: The team members here work towards achieving project goals and objectives. The team has become a unit, working in groups. They understand each other fully and they accept and appreciate each other's differences. The team members are able to make progress towards the project goals. Larson and Gray (2011:378) state that the performing stage is mutually accepted and fully functional. Team synergy has shifted from being acquainted with one another to how project goals and objectives will be achieved by the team. Members of the team know what is expected of them, and they work toward the project's objectives.

Based on evidence presented by Ramsden (1998:347-370) aachieving team effectiveness and inspiring the team to achieve high performance is not an easy road. The ability of the team members to thrive in the project is measured by their ability to achieve project objectives and aims, as well as their own satisfaction and well-being within the team. Project success depends on how the team members dedicate themselves to the task and how they work together as a team to achieve project goals. To develop an efficient project team, the project leader must have the necessary competencies.

Team building is the process of collecting individuals with different backgrounds and interests to be a part of an effective team, and is viewed as the procedure of transformation. In addition, team building is the process of bringing together a diverse group of people to operate as a unit and accomplish goals. It takes leadership abilities and a thorough awareness of the project or organization's culture, as well as motivational variables, to develop a team (Edmondson, Dillon and Roloff, 2007:269-314). Effective communication when building a team is important, which is what the success of the project relies on. Team building is important when:

- Establishing a new project;
- Improving project client relationships;
- Integrating a new project for a common goal;

- Working towards a major milestone;
- Re-organising a company.

Effective team building is amongst the most critical and important duties of the project leader. Team building encourages working effectively to lower risk of difficulties or conflicts within the project or organisation. It is also essential when working with diverse team members. Homan and Greer (2013:105) defines team diversity as disparities between individuals on any attribute that may lead to the perception that one person is different from another. Not taking teamwork into consideration in a project or organisation will lead to obstructed effectiveness, and eventually a particular project can go bankrupt or close down.

With the ever-changing environment and technology and increased levels of completion, it is important to collect individuals with diverse backgrounds, skills and experience. Innovation in the team has been widely seen as an organisation's core competence, and is necessary to sustain effectiveness in rapidly changing, dynamic and challenging environments (Fidan and Balcı, 2017:11-26). (Somech and Khalaili, 2014:282), team innovation is the planned introduction and application within the team of thoughts, procedures and products intended to benefit the individual, team and the whole project. Team building develops a creative mind-set for everyone.

The benefits of team building

Maznevski and Chui (2013:153-174) posits that, team members are committed to support each other and to go the extra mile to ensure team success. Members of the team understand each other's priorities and duties, and assist each other when facing complications. Propp, Apker, Zabava Ford, Wallace, Serbenski and Hofmeister (2010:15-28) suggests that, the line of communication is always open when one does not understand something; they are there for each other and listen to every problem they come across and solve it as a team. That also encourages creativity. Team members having different expertise enables effective problem solving.

Feedback in team performance is significant because members of the team understand what is expected of them; they know when they need to deliver, and as the result their performance is beyond expectation.

Conflict is regarded as normal when working as a team and is also seen as an opportunity to solve problems. Conflict can be solved through open discussion before it obstructs the success of the team. There is a balance between team productivity and satisfaction of a particular

individual. Teamwork is encouraged more than individual work to get a task done in time (Somech, 2008:359:390).

Members are encouraged to have confidence in themselves. They can put their own abilities to the test and try out new ideas. This increases confidence and enables a person to become a strong performer. Team members understand the prominence of discipline and control their behavioural to achieve the standards of the team, denotes Pajares (2006:339-367).

Learning to work as a cohesive entity

When working as a team, it is critically important for the team leader to be conscious of the drivers and barriers to high performance. These factors and barriers influence the team's performance. It is critical to gain a deeper knowledge of these motivations and barriers in order to devise a strategy for effective teamwork (Tenzer and Pudelko, 2017:45-61). These include work that is both challenging and engaging, and demonstrates people's confidence; acknowledgment of achievement which offers positive support; technical management experts with a lot of experience who can help with integration management; and technical leadership and direction that reduces errors and inspires excellent performance. A qualified and experienced team guarantees quality outcomes, and potential for professional advancement motivates team members.

Negative elements such as ambiguous team directions, which limit team effectiveness and performance, are barriers to effective team creation. West (2012) states that common barriers that project leaders come across are team members putting less effort into projects, minimal creativity, bad problem-solving skills and poor decision-making. These factors should be taken care of in advance to minimise their impact in the project or organisation in the long run and to encourage the team to be involved in identifying such factors.

Schlenkrich and Upfold (2009:109-118) states that the following barriers can limit the effectiveness of team performance: project objectives that are unclear, while goals that are constantly changing cause uncertainty and confusion. Poor teamwork is also caused by a lack of team definition, structure, and environment. Poor communication leads to conflict, as well as a lack of involvement. Further obstacles include lack of support from upper management, power struggles and conflict in terms of who is doing what, and lack of commitment from team members.

These barriers should be analysed by the team to try to eliminate them as soon as possible. For a project to be successful and successfully managed, it needs to eliminate team performance

barriers by focusing on the human side of team management. Project or organisation leaders should foster an environment of innovation and creativity where people can be challenged and get opportunities to grow their own personalities (Cummings and Kiesler, 2008:437-446).

In such an atmosphere, communication barriers will be reduced, conflict will be reduced, and team members will be encouraged to be proactive in change management. Project leaders should also focus on minimising barriers as they lower the chances of high productivity and reinforce the drivers that create more opportunities for the project to be successful (Ensor and Cooper, 2004:69-79). The project leader or manager of a team has the task of helping the employees to perform their task effectively. This task can be implemented fully only if the team leader understand how to motivate both team members and the leader as well. Helleriegel et al. (2008:267) define inspiration as the influence of the leader that directs or maintains goal-directed behavior of the team. Figure 1 shows situational factors that influence a leader's effectiveness.

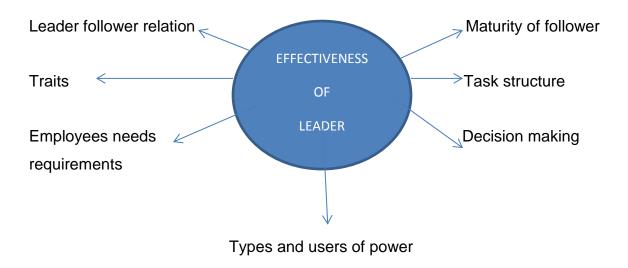


Figure 1. 1: Process Models for Change (Helleriegel et al., 2008:301)

Larson et al. (2011: 375-376) states that high performing teams have the following set of attributes: The team share common goals and each member of the team is willing to work in the direction of accomplishing project or organisation goals and objectives. The team recognises talent and proficiencies and uses them where there is a need for them depending on the task on hand. The team put more effort into problem solving instead of allowing competitive struggles drain the team. Differences of opinion are encouraged and expressed freely. Risk taking and

creativity and encouraged, and mistakes are viewed as opportunities for learning. Sohmen (2013:1-18) denotes that, team members set their own high personal standards of performance and inspire one another to achieve the objectives of the project. Members of the team recognise the team as a vital cause of professional and personal growth. Finally, high performing teams become winners when they meet and sometimes exceed client expectations, and complete the project within its initial given constraints. Team members are bounded together by common goals or vision. They trust each other and they work collectively together with the project leader.

1.3 Problem statement

As alluded to in the preceding literature review, authors have differing views on the extent to which the leadership-team performance dynamics play out. It is however, agreed on that teams are a very important element of effective implementation of any project; hence, the critical need for effective leadership. The types of leadership styles, based partly on personalities of both the team leader and individual team players compound the situation. This necessitates this study on the need to understand the impact of team leader personality traits on the performance of the team. It can also be highlighted that failure to provide acceptable leadership may result in many other problems, among which are a demotivated, non-performing team. This study seeks to identify the personality traits ideal for the effective leadership of a team in community projects with specific emphasis on maintenance of public facilities.

1.4 Research objectives

The research objectives are to have an appropriate leader for the project as well as the team members working together to accomplish project objectives. Businessdictionary.com (2014) defines objectives as specific outcomes that an individual or system targets to attain within a given period and with available resources. The research objectives of this study are:

1.4.1 Primary research objective

Identify the impact of leader personality traits in the inspiration of project teams to effectively perform.

1.4.2 Secondary research objective

These are the finer details of the primary research objectives:

Identify the different personality traits displayed by leaders in the execution of projects.

Identify the acceptability of a leader's personality traits portrayed in the execution of projects.

Identify team expectations in terms of the leadership-followership relation in the execution of projects.

Identify any cultural diversions that may affect the leader-team relationship during execution.

1.5 Research questions

Does a team leader's personality have any impact on project success?

What are the different personality traits displayed by leaders in the execution of projects?

What leader personality traits are portrayed in the execution of projects?

What are the team expectations in terms of the leadership-followership relation in the execution of projects?

Does cultural diversity affect the leader-team relationship during project execution?

1.6 Research methodology

The tool that the author will use to gather the necessary information for the study is a questionnaire because it is cost effective and flexible with regard to sample size. For the study, the author will interview employees (excluding their managers) within an organization who are involved in performing project tasks. The management is excluded because they are not involved in performing the tasks; they are only concerned with the outcome.

The author used a questionnaire combined with a face-to-face interview to allow questioning by the respondents, making it less likely to gather false information. In addition, people are familiar with this method and they have experience and understanding of how to answer questionnaires. A questionnaire reduces unfairness and it is less disturbing, unlike a telephonic interview. Jowah (2011:114) defines questionnaires as a research tool providing a set of questions and expecting specific answer from the respondent for the purpose of conducting data analysis for research.

Other reasons for using a questionnaire as the tool to gather information are that they are cheap and standard, they bring uniformity, and are used to gather information from human beings. They also have limitations, and test separate variables.

1.6.1 Data collection methods

The tool that the author will use to gather the necessary information for this study is a questionnaire because it is cost-effective and flexible with regard to sample size.

1.6.2 Data analysis method

The collected raw data will be analyzed, processed, and presented with the aid of charts using Microsoft Excel.

1.7 Ethical considerations

Research has been abused or treated without ethical concern for the participants. This research respects the principle of voluntary participation. Participants are free to withdraw at any stage; they do not have to give reasons to withdraw. No information would be given to any authorities and no identification was used on the questionnaires that could identify the respondents.

1.8 Chapter classification

1.8.1 Chapter 1

This chapter introduces the subject, and provides the theoretical background necessary to investigate the leadership gap in the organisation. The research gap is therefore developed into the problem statement, research objectives, research questions, research methodology (population, sampling, sample size, data collection instrument, data collection method and the data analysis).

1.8.2 Chapter 2

This chapter covers personality, personality traits, the Five Factor Model of Personality, leadership, leadership theories, leadership styles, and Maslow's hierarchy.

1.8.3 Chapter 3

This chapter discusses teams, membership, team dynamics, team effectiveness, types of teams, project teams, management teams, team diversity, team models and theories, and team building.

1.8.4 Chapter 4

Research design for the project, research methodology and types of research methodology, difference between quantitative and qualitative research, target population, sample, sampling methods, sample size, data collection, data reporting and definition of key concepts are all discussed in this chapter.

1.8.5 Chapter 5

This chapter presents data and convert it to illustration, explanation and interpretation, analysis and variable comparisons.

1.8.6 Chapter 6

This chapter presents a summary of findings of the research, conclusions, recommendations, limitations and prospects for future study.

1.9 Chapter summary

In conclusion, leadership personalities or traits are the qualities that make a specific leader different from other leaders. It is important to have leadership traits in order to lead a project successfully. In a project a leader cannot work alone: it needs a project team to work with, especially a diverse team that has all kinds of different skills necessary for the project.

Chapter 2: Personality, personality traits, Five Factor Model of personality, leadership, leadership theories, leadership styles, Maslow's hierarchy

The study focuses on the appropriate personality of the team leader.

2.1 Personality

Personality is defined by Benjamin et al. (2017:330-346) as the distinctive sets of behaviors, cognitions, and emotional patterns that emerge as a result of biological and environmental influences. While no universally accepted definition of personality exists, most theories center on motivation and psychological interactions with one's surroundings. Personality is described by trait-based personality theories (Zaccaro, 2007:6). More behaviorally based methods, on the other hand, determine personality through learning and lifestyles. Corr et al. (2009:3-26) claims that most theories regard personality as reasonably stable.

Personality development

Personality development is a long-term pattern of ideas, feelings, and behaviors that distinguishes one person from another. Today's mainstream perspective in the area of personality psychology is that personality develops early in childhood and changes in significant ways throughout life (Robert, Wood and Caspi, 2010: 375-398).

2.1.1 Personality Traits

The 5 Factor Model of personality

Individual differences in levels of the big five personality traits (neuroticism, extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness, and conscientiousness) have been found to map onto dimensions of childhood character, implying that individual differences in levels of these five personality traits are present from early ages of individual physical growth claims (Martin et al., 2005: 315-334).

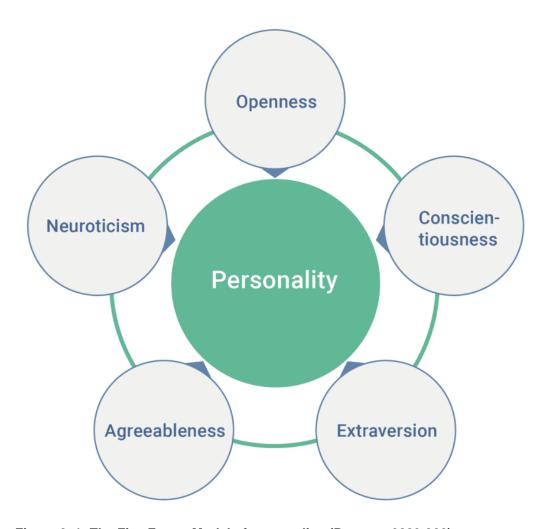


Figure 2. 1: The Five Factor Model of personality (Poropat, 2009:322)

The five factors are: (Poropat, 2009:322)

Openness to experience: inventiveness versus consistent.

Conscientiousness: organized versus careless.

Extraversion: outgoing versus reserved.

Agreeableness: compassionate versus challenging.

Neuroticism: nervous versus confident.

• Openness to experience: inventive versus consistent

A general sense of gratitude for emotions, adventure, art, unusual ideas, imagination, curiosity, and a diverse range of experiences is referred to as openness. People who are

open to new tasks and difficulties are emotionally open, intellectually curious, sensitive to beauty, and willing to try new things. They are more creative and conscious of their emotions. They're also more prone to believe in strange things. High openness might be interpreted as impulsivity or a lack of attention, making one more prone to engage in risky action (Ambridge, 2014:11). Furthermore, people with a high level of openness are reported to seek out strong, ecstatic experiences in order to achieve self-actualization. Those with low openness, on the other hand, seek fulfillment through resolve and are regarded as pragmatic and data-driven, and are often accused of being dogmatic and closed-minded. There is still some debate on how to calculate and contextualize the openness factor.

Conscientiousness: organized versus careless.

Conscientiousness is the ability to exercise self-discipline, perform obediently, and strive for achievement in the face of arbitrary goals or external pressures. It has to do with how humans regulate, control, and steer their instincts. High conscientiousness is generally perceived as tenacious and concentrated (Toegel and Barsoux 2012:51-60). Flexibility is related to low conscientiousness. Low conscientiousness is linked to impulsivity and flexibility, but it can also manifest as sloppiness and a lack of consistency. Conscientiousness scores above a certain threshold indicate a propensity for planned rather than spontaneous conduct.

Extraversion: outgoing versus reserved.

Laney (2002:28) claims that extroversion is defined by the scope of activities, surgency from external action or events, and energy production from external sources. The attribute is manifested by a strong desire to engage with the outside world. Extroverts like connecting with a variety of individuals and are typically described as energetic. They are usually passionate and action-oriented people. They maintain a high level of group visibility, enjoy talking a lot, and impose themselves. Extraverted people may appear to be more dominant in social contexts than introverted people in the same setting express Friedman and Schustack (2016:13).

Introverts have lower levels of social involvement and energy than extraverts. They are usually reserved, low-key, methodical, and uninterested in social situations. They are more independent of their social surroundings than extroverts, therefore their lack of social interaction should not be attributed to shyness or despair. Extraverts require more inspiration and time alone than introverts. This does not imply that they are unpleasant or antisocial; rather, Rothmann and Coetzer claim that they are reserved in social situations (2003:29). In most cases, teams are made up of a mix of extroverted and introverted members.

Agreeableness: compassionate versus challenging

Individual differences in general desire for social peace are revealed by the agreeableness trait. People who are agreeable value getting along with others. They are usually courteous, kind, giving, trustworthy and trusting, helpful, and prepared to meet others halfway in order to reach an agreement, even if it means surrendering their own interests (Rothmann et al., 2003:29). People who are agreeable also have a good outlook on human nature.

Disagreeable people prioritize their own interests over getting along with others. They are usually unconcerned about other people's well-being and are less willing to put themselves at jeopardy for others. Bartneck et al. (2007:217-222) state that people who are unpleasant, distrustful, and uncooperative are suspicious of others' motives.

Low agreeable characters (Toegel and Barsoux, 2012:51-60) are generally competitive or challenging, and can be perceived as untrustworthy or combative.

Because agreeableness is a social trait, research has found that it has a positive association with the quality of one's team members' interactions. Individuals who are agreeable are more likely to have transformative leadership skills. Judge and Bono (2000:751-765) states that leaders who are more agreeable are more likely to be transformative rather than transactional.

Similarly, agreeableness has been linked to transactional leadership in the military, despite the fact that this sector does not require individuals to be friendly (Arnold and Connelly, 2013:175-194)

. According to a study of Asian military units, commanders with a high level of agreeability are more likely to obtain a low grade for transformational leadership qualities. As a result, with more research, businesses may be able to predict an individual's performance potential based on personality factors.

Neuroticism: nervous versus confident.

(Jeronimus, Riese and Sanderman, 2014: 751-764) defines neuroticism as the proclivity to experience negative emotions such as worry, rage, or depression. It is sometimes referred to as emotional instability, or it can be reversed and referred to be emotional stability. Neuroticism is associated with a limited tolerance for stress conditions (Eysenck's 1967) theory of personality. Neuroticism is a well-known temperament attribute that has been examined extensively in the field of temperament study. Those with high neuroticism scores are emotionally reactive and stressed easily. Ordinary events are more likely to be interpreted as frightening, and slight irritations as hopelessly complex. They are frequently in a poor mood because their negative emotional reactions tend to last for exceptionally lengthy periods. Neuroticism is defined by a gloomy attitude toward work, the belief that work obstructs personal relationships, and the appearance of job-related anxiety.

Furthermore, persons with high neuroticism scores may have more skin conductance reactivity than those with low neuroticism scores (Norris et al., 2007:823-826).

These issues with emotional regulation can limit a person's capacity to achieve high neuroticism scores. Jeronimus et al. (2013: 2403-2415) established that people with a high level of neuroticism suffer more negative life events. Neuroticism also varies in response to happy and bad life experiences. People with higher degrees of neuroticism have lower psychological well-being (Dwan and Ownsworth, 2019:1119-1130). On the other hand, those with low neuroticism scores are less likely to become angry and are less emotionally reactive. They are usually peaceful, emotionally stable, and free of lingering bad emotions. Having no bad feelings does not imply that persons with low neuroticism have many happy feelings.

2.1.2 Fitting personality into team coherence

Personality diversity of team members

A team's personality diversity refers to the individuals' or members' differing personality characteristics. According to several studies, team members with different levels of extraversion and emotional stability function better (Bell 2007:595). Even on a small scale, personality variety and talent diversity are associated, even in teams that can seem very specialized, unique and focused. This is also true in situations when personality variety manifests as talent diversity, requiring teams to take a step back and re-evaluate their procedures and outputs states (Capretz and Ahmed, 2010:1-11).

O'Neill, Thomas and Kline (2008:10) note that it is significant that personality traits of an individual affect a team's procedures and results. Mathieu (2008: 410–476) states that, the existence of extraversion in a team member leads to improved team communication and pragmatism. The manifestation of conscientiousness leads to improved overall team performance. Team members who are friendly have higher levels of cohesiveness, communication, productivity, and overall performance. When team members are willing to learn from their experiences, communication improves. Team members with high levels of neuroticism had higher levels of cohesiveness and overall performance.

2.2 Leadership

Chin (2015:199-216) states that leadership is both a research topic and a practical talent that encompasses a person's or an organization's ability to lead or guide diverse individuals, teams, or entire organizations. Expert literature disputes a variety of points of view, contrasting Eastern and Western approaches to leadership, as well as American versus European approaches. Management is a system of social influence in which a person can enlist the valuable resource and assistance of others in the fulfillment of a common task in academic institutions in the United States as defined by Savage, Nix, Whitehead and Blair(1991:61-75).

2.2.1 Leadership theories

Rise of alternative theories

A series of qualitative reviews of studies by Stogdill (1948:35-71) and Mann (1959:241-270) in the late 1940s and early 1950s prompted academics to take a significantly different view of the driving elements underlying leadership. Stogdill and Mann discovered, after analyzing the existing research, that while some traits were common across a variety of investigations, others were not. Humans who are leaders in one context may not always be leaders in other settings, according Snowden and Boone, (2007:68). As a result, leadership was no longer seen as a permanent human quality, as situational tactics asserted that men and women (individuals) can be effective in some contexts but not in others. The focus then switched away from leadership traits and toward an examination of effective leader behaviors. For the next two decades, this perspective dominated much of leadership thought and research.

Trait theory re-emergence

Kenny and Zaccaro (1983:678-685) claim that new methodologies and assessments have been devised in response to these important viewpoints, which will eventually reestablish trait theory as a manageable strategy for leadership research. Researchers, for example, have improved their use of the round robin study design methodology, allowing them to understand that people can and do emerge as leaders in a variety of situations and jobs. Furthermore, statistical breakthroughs allowed researchers to do meta-analyses in the 1980s, in which they statistically examined and summarized the findings from several studies. As a result of this introduction, trait theorists were able to construct a comprehensive picture of previous leadership research rather than relying on qualitative opinions from the past. Equipped with new methods, leadership researchers Lord, De Vader and Alliger (1986:402-410), Arvey et al. (2006:1-20), Judge et al. (2002:765-780), and Foti and Hauenstein (2007:347-355) published the following:

- Intelligence
- Adjustment
- Extraversion
- Conscientiousness
- Openness to experience
- General self-efficacy

While the trait theory of leadership has reawakened in popularity, it has not been matched by a matching growth in advanced conceptual frameworks. Trait theories, as discovered by Zaccaro et al. (2007:6-16), still:

Focus on a small number of personality qualities, such as "The Big Five," at the expense of cognitive talents, reasons, values, social skills, knowledge, and problem-solving capabilities.

Failure to think about patterns or integrations of a couple of attributes.

Do not make a distinction between leadership qualities that are not normally malleable over time and those that are shaped by and dependent on situational factors.

Do not consider how the behavioral range required for effective leadership is accounted for by stable leadership qualities.

Attribute pattern approach

In light of the above criticisms of trait theory, a number of researchers, including Foti et al. (2007:347-355), Zaccaro et al. (2008:13-29), Foti et al. (2003:170-196), and Zaccaro et al. (2000:11-35), have begun to pursue a unique perspective on leader individual differences – the leader attribute pattern approach. Unlike the traditional approach, the leader attributes pattern strategy is primarily based on theorists' arguments that the influence of individual traits on outcomes is best understood by considering the character as an integrated whole rather than a collection of character variables (Magnusson, 1995:219-247). To put it another way, the leader attribute pattern strategy claims that integrated constellations or combinations of individual variations can explain widespread variation in each leader's emergence and effectiveness beyond what can be explained by single attributes or additive combinations of multiple attributes.

2.2.2 Leadership Styles

A leader's leadership style is how he or she gives orders, implements plans, and motivates others. It is the culmination of the leader's ideas, personality, and experience. Models for understanding leadership have also been developed by rhetoric experts. Different situations necessitate different leadership styles. An autocratic leadership style may also be most effective in an emergency where there is little time to reach an agreement and a single authority has significantly more

expertise or knowledge than the rest of the team. However, in a highly motivated and aligned team with a similar level of knowledge, a more democratic or laissez-faire approach may be more productive. Lewin, Lippitt, and White (1939:271-301) argues that the style adopted must be the one that most efficiently fulfills the team's goals while balancing the interests of individual team members. The conceptual talents of a leader include agility, judgment, invention, interpersonal tact, and understanding of the topic. Tactical and technical skill, as well as cultural and geopolitical understanding, are all part of domain information for leaders.

The following are examples of common leadership styles:

2.2.2.1 Autocratic leadership style

The gap between authoritarian leaders and their followers is highlighted by the autocratic leadership style. These types of leaders make it a point to cultivate only a professional relationship. They believe that direct supervision is critical to maintaining a prosperous environment and a loyal following. Authoritarian leadership styles frequently reflect the vision of people in power, and they may not always be compatible with those who are being led. Authoritarian leaders who are focused on efficiency may see different styles, such as a democratic style, as an impediment to growth. A police officer controlling traffic is an example of authoritarian leadership, as are a supervisor instructing a subordinate to tidy a workstation, and an instructor ordering a student to do their job. All of these jobs necessitate a unique set of characteristics that enable the leader to bring things into order or make a point. Chira and Robert, (2016:412) indicates that authoritarian qualities include creating individual goals, communicating mostly oneway and downward, managing dialogues with followers, and dominating interactions. (Salin and Heldge, 2010:7), an authoritarian leadership style can generate a climate of dread, leaving little or no possibility for conversation and making subordinates believe that complaining is pointless. As a result, authoritarian leadership styles have been linked to lower group member pride in the past when compared to more democratic leadership approaches.

Hackman and Johnson (2009:41) stipulates that communication patterns of authoritarian leadership can be described as follows:

- Downward, one-way communication.
- Maintains control over follower discussion.
- Takes command of interactions
- Establishes policies and processes unilaterally or independently.

- Oversees the performance of tasks on an individual basis.
- Does not provide feedback on a consistent basis.
- Acquiescent compliant behavior is rewarded, while erroneous behaviors are punished.
- Inept listening.
- Takes advantage of hostilities for personal gain.

Ways to properly integrate autocratic leadership

Clearly explain regulations all of the time: this allows subordinates to finish the project the leader wants to be completed as quickly as possible. It is important to be consistent: if the leader wants subordinates to take him/her seriously, make to implement policies and laws on a regular basis. This will help to establish a higher level of trust. Always acknowledge and respect subordinates' efforts and accomplishments. Before imposing rules, educate subordinates so that they are not surprised. This may cause problems in the future because of erroneous communication. Even if the leader does not use the advice of subordinates, s/he should pay attention to it.

Communication styles of autocratic leaders and their effects

When a leader is there, productivity rises states Shaw (1955:127-134). Cammalleri et al. (1973:32-37) claim that when the leader is knowledgeable, autocratic leadership delivers more correct solutions. Authoritarian is more positively regular in large groups, (Vroom and Mann,1960:125-140). Furthermore, authoritarian leadership improves overall performance on simple activities while decreasing overall performance on more difficult tasks (Rudin, 1964:577-578). Authoritarian leadership increases followers' aggressiveness levels, state Day and Hamblin (1964:499-510). Moreover, it increases sales charges, posits Ley (1966:497-500). Also, successful when projects must be completed within a certain amount of time. Authoritarian leadership improves the future work of these subordinates whose skills are not particularly useful or relevant to the needs of others.

Downfalls of authoritarian leadership (Way, 2016:64-75)

- Subordinates may develop resentment if this style is employed for an extended period. This type of leadership should only when it is absolutely essential.
- Researchers have discovered that these types of leaders lack inventive problem-solving skills.
- Confusion may emerge if subordinates are not properly educated and fail to grasp the situation.

Advantages of autocratic leadership

It refers to the rapidity with which decisions can be made; the leader does not need to seek consent from the rest of the group before making a decision

Disadvantages of autocratic leadership

- Autocratic leadership has a negative impact on group morale.
- Members may dislike how decisions are made and hence provide only sporadic support.

2.2.2.2 Democratic leadership style

The democratic leadership style entails the leader sharing decision-making powers with team members in order to promote team members' interests and work toward societal equality (Foster, 2002:4-6).

The needs of the organization or the team, as well as the instrumental value of people's attributes, tend to inhibit democratic involvement (skills, attitudes, etc.). The democratic style embraces the notion that everyone, regardless of their human standing, should have a say in the group's decisions. However, democratic leadership still necessitates coaching and manipulation by a certain leader. The democratic approach requires the leader to decide who within the team must be called upon and who is given the authority to participate in, make, and vote on decisions (Woods, 2010:3-36).

According to research, this management style is one of the most beneficial, resulting in increased production, increased contributions from team members, and enhanced team morale. Democratic

leadership can lead to better ideas and more imaginative solutions to problems since team members are encouraged to express their views and ideas. While democratic leadership is one of the most beneficial management models, it is not without its drawbacks. Democratic management can lead to communication disasters and unfinished initiatives in situations where responsibilities are ambiguous or time is limited. When team members are professional and eager to share their knowledge, democratic leadership works well. It is also important to allow enough time for team members to provide input, develop a strategy, and then vote on the best course of action denotes Martindale (2011:32-35).

Advantages of democratic leadership style

- Employee morale is often boosted as a result of it.
- It improves acceptance by management of ideas.
- It encourages management and staff to work together.
- It reduces the amount of complaints and grievances filed.

Disadvantages of democratic leadership style

- It explains sluggish decision-making and diminished decision-making responsibility.
- There may be compromises that are intended to satisfy not everyone yet may provide the optimum option.

2.2.2.3 Laissez-faire leadership

Robbins (2007:475) advocates that the laissez-faire style abdicates obligations in order to avoid making judgments. Similar to Luthans (2005:562), the laissez-faire approach is defined as one that "abdicates tasks and avoids making judgments." A laissez-fair leader is uninvolved in the unit's activities. It is difficult to defend this leadership approach until the leader's subordinates, such as scientists, are specialists and well-motivated specialists. Mondy and Premeaux (1995:347) recommend that leaders should allow team members to make all decisions. Bartol and Martin (1994:412) asserts that it is a behavioral style of leaders who generally give their teams

complete autonomy, provide required materials, participate exclusively to answer queries, and avoid giving feedback. Osborn (2006) defined laissez-faire thinking as abdicating obligations and avoiding decisions.

Above all, the authors Robbins, Luthans, Bartol, and Osborn referenced above define laissez-faire leadership in their own words, based on their own definitions, yet their concepts of this type of leadership are the same. According to the authors, leaders in this style do not wish to be involved in the decision-making process. They are free to accomplish their work in their own way and are accountable for their choices. Normally, leaders avoid making judgments and do not have functioning units because they give their subordinates complete autonomy in making decisions. Sometimes the leaders present them with important information, and they are merely engrossed in the response and inquiry, avoiding feedback.

Advantages of the laissez faire leadership style

- It enables team members to develop their own leadership abilities.
- It allows those who have the most experience to shine.
- It fosters a sense of self-sufficiency.
- It encourages members of the team to try out fresh ideas.
- It gives each team the freedom to construct their own atmosphere.
- It leads to a higher level of individual satisfaction with the work being done.
- It enables the leader to use their abilities strategically.

Disadvantages of the laissez faire leadership style

- It minimizes the importance of the team leader.
- It erodes the team's cohesiveness.
- It alters the way the team assigns accountability.
- It enables leaders to avoid taking on leadership responsibilities.
- It is a leadership style in which personnel have the ability to abuse their position of authority.
- Adapting to shifting circumstances might be difficult.
- It gives rise to the possibility of employee lawsuits.
- It results in the formation of silos.

2.2.2.4 Transactional Leadership Style

Transactional leadership or transactional administration as defined by Odumeru and Ogbonna (2013:355-361), is a portion of one style of leadership that focuses on supervision, organization, or performance; it is a critical part of the Full Range Leadership Model. Transactional leadership is a management style in which leaders use both rewards and penalties to encourage followers to comply. Transactional leaders may keep their followers inspired and motivated in the short term by using a rewards and punishments system. Those that use the transactional style, unlike transformational leaders, do not appear to be interested in changing the future; instead, they appear to want to keep things the same. Leaders who follow the transactional leadership approach pay close attention to their followers' work in order to spot flaws and deviations. This type of leadership is very useful in catastrophic and emergency situations, as well as for activities that must be completed in a specific manner.

Two factors are commonly ascribed to transactional leadership. The first, conditional reward leadership, is regarded as a productive and optimistic relationship between the leader and team members. When these team members reach certain goals and targets, they receive bonuses, merits, or acknowledgment from the organization they work for, claims Bycio, Hackett, and Allen (1995:468-478). The dependent incentive is fully contingent on agreement between the leader and the team members. Administration by exception is the second feature of transactional leaders. This can be both active and passive. Active leaders are always on the lookout for ways to improve employee performance. Howell and Avolio (1993:891-902) states that passive administration only checks after the task is completed and only informs subordinates about problems after they occur.

Transformational Leadership Style

Transformational leadership, as explained by Odumeru and Ogbonna (2013:355), is a concept of leadership in which a chief works with teams to identify needed change, develop a vision to guide the change through inspiration, and execute the exchange in tandem with dedicated team members. Through a variety of processes, transformational leadership helps to improve team members' motivation, morale, and overall job performance. These entail linking team members' sense of self and affiliation with a project as well as the organization's collective identity. It entails being a role model for employees to motivate them and raise their enthusiasm for the project. It induces difficult followers to take more responsibility for their job; knowing the strengths and

weaknesses of followers, it allows the team leader to assign tasks that will improve and stimulate their performance. It is also important to understand the benefits that transformative leadership may offer to a company. While leading a team of employees, transformational leaders have the ability to adapt to unusual events, share a collective consciousness, self-manage, and be inspirational.

Four components to transformational leadership, occasionally known as the 4 ls:

- Idealized Influence (II) the leader is a flawless role model for his or her followers; the leader "walks the walk" and is admired for it. A transformational leader embodies the qualities that his or her team requires. The followers regard the leader as a model to imitate in this situation. It is simple for followers to believe in and trust a transformational leader.
- Inspirational Motivation (IM) Transformational leaders may motivate and inspire their followers by having a vision and communicating it. These first two I's together symbolize the charisma of a transformational leader. A transformational leader effortlessly and clearly encourages his or her followers. The followers are persuaded by the transformational leader's personal image and straightforward, easy-to-understand language.
- Individualized Consideration (IC) Transformational leaders show genuine concern for their followers' desires and feelings and help them achieve self-actualization. This one-on-one attention to each and every follower helps to build trust between the organization's members and its authority figure. For example, a transformative leader can recognize the challenges that a group member is having. From this vantage point, the leader can work toward training and development of a follower who is having difficulty at work. This is a critical issue because when groups can rely on each other and work together, decisions can be made more rapidly, and buy-in of the transformational leader' will increase.

Intellectual Stimulation (IS) - the leader motivates his or her followers to be progressive and creative by challenging the status quo. Transformational leaders are frequently misunderstood as "soft," but the reality is that they constantly push their followers to higher levels of performance.

Table 2. 1: Transactional versus transformational leadership (Odumeru and Ogbonna, 2013:355-361)

Transactional leadership style	Transformational Leadership style
Responsive leadership	Proactive leadership
Guided by organizational culture	Works to change the current existing
	organizational culture by implementing ideas
Employees accomplish objectives through	Employees attain objectives through higher
rewards and punishments set by leader	principles and moral values
Motivates employees by appealing to their	Motivates employees by encouraging them to put
own self-interest	team interests first
Management-by-exception: maintain the	Individualized consideration: each behaviour is
status quo; stress correct actions to	directed to each individual to express
improve performance	consideration and support.
	Intellectual stimulation: Promote creative and
	innovative ideas to solve problems

Table 2.1 illustrates the differences between transactional leadership and transformational leadership. The table does not advise on which one is better but it just gives an insight on what you can get when implementing either of the two leadership styles.

2.2.3 Maslow's hierarchy of needs



Figure 2. 2 Maslow's hierarchy of needs (Milheim, 2012:159)

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs was developed by Abraham Maslow, an American psychologist, in 1943. Maslow (1943:370-396) proposed that human requirements be divided into five categories. Maslow postulated the following hierarchy levels in order of relevance in his study:

2.2.3.1 Physiological Needs

Primary human needs are found at the physiological level of Maslow's hierarchy. Water, breathing, nourishment, and sleep are among them. The physiological level contains the most basic requirements. They are the most basic requirements in the entire hierarchy. The human body strives to maintain internal balance. When a person's body is missing a physiological need, the body will naturally crave that need. Physiological demands may also be the only needs that must be addressed in simple species like rats. In humans, however, this is just the bottom of the hierarchy. Maslow believes that after physiological demands are addressed, there are four higher levels in the hierarchy (Maslow, 1943:370-396). When these demands are no longer addressed, however, it will be clear. Most people, for example, do not consider every inhalation and exhalation

they make. This satisfies their requirement for oxygen. If the oxygen supply was turned off, however, all humans would become aware of the need to breathe immediately. Maslow et al. (1943:370) claims physiological demands are required from the moment a person is born and at some point during their lives. When it comes to work, this translates to a wages. If a job pays enough for employees to be able to pay their own rent, utilities, and buy food and clothing, then the job meets their necessities. Employees may also have an easier time sleeping if the job is not overly demanding.

2.2.3.2 Safety and security needs

Maslow's safety stage comprises varying degrees of safety. These include safety of self, family, resources, job, health, and life. Young people and adults are both well aware of their security requirements. Security requirements are just as important as physiological requirements. These requirements, on the other hand, are more mental in nature. They include having a sense of protection or safety in the world, states Poston (2009:347-353). Depending on where they reside, each person's perception of safety is different.

If employees are to be successful in the job, they must have a sense of safety and security. Employers can assist employees in feeling physically protected by treating sexual harassment and threats more seriously and establishing protocols to deal with potential violence. Employees must also have a sense of job security. Employees may be fearful of losing their employment if a company makes a large number of layoffs or fails to communicate with them about layoffs. This would mean they would no longer be able to meet their fundamental necessities and would be unmotivated to work.

2.2.3.3 Love and belonging /social needs

Maslow's hierarchy's love/belonging level addresses a variety of social requirements. These include a desire for friendship, family, and other forms of team participation. Private relationships are also included in the definition of love/belonging. This category includes romantic connections. It is critical that an individual's physiological and security requirements are satisfied first. Then they will be able to fulfill their yearning for love and belonging. Once a person's basic requirements are addressed, he or she can concentrate on their social demands. These desires shift over the course of a person's life. Poston et al. (2009: 347-353) avows that if a person's desire for

belonging is not realized, he or she may experience depression. This tier of the hierarchy is the focus of psychology.

Employees attempt to meet their requirements for belonging and affection in the workplace once their fundamental needs and security demands have been met. Employees must feel at ease with their co-workers and managers. They need to feel that they belong and are loved by at least some of the people they work with, even if they do not like or get along with everyone. If an employee feels cut off from the rest of the firm, she may not perform at her best. This is especially true in the case of employer-employee relationships. Employees will not want to accomplish their work if they do not believe their employers value them or their efforts.

2.2.3.4 Esteem Needs

Maslow et al. (1943: 370-396), esteem is about how people need to feel that they have a role to perform in the world. People want to feel as if they have accomplished something valuable and significant. They also want to be independent, which implies they want to be able to do things on their own and not have to rely on others.

The highest levels of Maslow's hierarchy of needs in the workplace are related to how people feel about themselves. The employee's self-esteem is a measure of how much he or she likes and regards themselves. Employees who feel productive and are doing something worthwhile with their time have higher self-esteem than those who do not. The highest level of Maslow's hierarchy of needs, self-actualization, is an employee's need to feel that he is living up to his full potential and using his creativity and enthusiasm. Employees may change careers if their current position does not satisfy their needs. However, if an employee is in the correct position for him and his other needs are addressed, he should be able to feel satisfied in his job.

2.2.3.5 Self-actualization Needs

Maslow et al. (1943:370-396) argue that we cannot be happy unless we become everything we desire to be. People may choose many aspects of their lifestyles that correspond to this level. These wants do not appear until all of the necessities from the previous levels have been met. It is more vital to make sure they have food and a place to live. The self-actualization stage is only reached once all of the other tiers have been completed.

Chapter 3: Teams, characteristics of teams, membership, team dynamics, team effectiveness, types of teams, project teams, management teams, team diversity, team models and theories, and team building

3.1 Teams

A team, as defined by Thompson (2008:476), is a group of people who are mutually reliant on each other for information, resources, and abilities, and who aim to pool their efforts and work to attain a single goal and set of objectives. A collection of people does not automatically constitute or form a team. Teams typically have individuals with similar skills and collaborate through a concerted effort that allows each team member to maximize their strengths while minimizing their deficiencies (Sage and Rouse, 2009:347). Naresh (2009:96) believes that team members must learn to aid one another, assist other team members in realizing their true potential, and establish a work atmosphere that allows and empowers everyone to go beyond their limits. Whereas academic study of teams and teamwork has increased steadily and dramatically over the last four decades, the societal spread of teams and teamwork really followed an instable trajectory in the twentieth century (Weiss and Hoegl, 2015:589–622). The concept was first introduced into the corporate world around the turn of the twentieth century, and it was quickly followed by the concept of forming teams.

3.1.1 Core characteristics of teams

Scientists and practitioners striving to understand teams face significant obstacles due to the flexibility with which actual teams operate in real-world contexts. To produce research findings relevant to these real-world teams, putting strict constraints on how to qualify real teams is not the appropriate. Rather, this researcher believes that a full deconstruction of the basic aspects of teams, which takes into account how changes within each feature affect his approach to studying and strengthening teams, can provide a more practical route.

3.1.2 Advantages of working in teams

Group work has also been shown to be quite beneficial, concludes Katzenbach and Smith (2015:1-26). The following are the benefits of working in teams:

- a) Problem solving: To solve a problem, a group of people might bring together varied viewpoints and integrate thoughts and opinions. Each team member has a responsibility to participate and share their unique perspective on a problem in order to arrive at the best potential solution (Chin 2015:199-216). Teamwork can lead to better decisions, products, or services in general. Hoegl and Gemuenden (2001:335-449) points out that efficacy of teamwork is determined by the following six components of team member collaboration:
 - Communication
 - Coordination
 - Balance of member contributions
 - Mutual support
 - Team effort
 - Team unity
- b) Healthy competition in groups is utilized to drive individuals while also helping the team achieve more strongly.
- c) Building relationships: A team that works together on a regular basis will eventually establish a stronger bond. Because they have grown well acquainted with each other through teamwork, this can help members avoid unnecessary disputes. LePine et al. (2008:273–307), states that creating good relationships between team members improves team members' happiness with their team, therefore enhancing both teamwork and performance.
- d) Individual characteristics: Each team member can contribute their unique expertise and abilities to help other team members' progress. The sharing of these characteristics will allow team members to be more productive in the future through teamwork.
- e) Due to increased accountability for individual achievement, working as a team might result in higher motivation levels within a team. When members of different groups are compared, they are more motivated to improve their performance. Providing a benchmark for groups improves their performance, which encourages members to collaborate.

3.1.3 Membership

The greatest distinguishing feature of a team is its membership. After all, it is the members of a team that distinguishes it as such. Team membership is the foundation of all other factors, including team composition, team size, and team tenure. Teams must include two or more members suggests Salas et al. (2007:185-243). This does not imply that the members must

remain the same; in fact, it is frequently assumed that they are states that are consistent. Teams have been generally viewed as stable units, claims Wageman et al. (2005:373-398).

Complete teams are defined as those with a stable membership. Meanwhile, Bushe and Chu (2011:181-188) suggests that teams with changing membership are thought to be exposed and flexible. This flexibility is attributed to three scenarios: team membership changes (adding, removing, or substituting members); adding a new team member to an existing one; the loss of a member of a team without a replacement; and the loss of a team member and the introduction of a new team member. Tannenbaum et al. (2014:130-160) allude to the fact that such changes occur at all levels, from the simplest level of a single individual to the most sophisticated level of a whole group.

Membership changes in an organization happen for a variety of reasons:

- The urge to learn new skills at various phases of employment.
- The requirement for flexible team member allocation.
- The desire to create opportunities for professional development.
- The reaction to increased revenue.
- The requirement for organizational team downsizing or upsizing.
- A desire to encourage active and efficient communication.
- To encourage team members or employees to avoid collusive behavior. Every organization's membership changes.

The consideration of multiple team membership, which refers to persons serving on many teams at the same time, adds another layer of complication to membership change. Van de Brake et al. (2018:1219-1231). Multiple team membership adds to the complexity because there are two important factors to consider: the shifting context and chronological mismatch, claim O'Leary et al. (2011:141-172). Context-switching occurs when team members move their focus from one team context to another, and temporal misalignment occurs when there is a time gap between work completion and task completion. Understanding these concerns is critical because some estimates suggest that 81 percent of people belong to many teams (O'Leary et al. 2011:141-172). Multiple team membership is widespread because competent individuals are in high demand, teams are project-focused and require personnel with specific knowledge, and work has become more flat and distributed.

Researchers have begun to investigate the potential consequences of multiple team membership or even membership change within a single team, recognizing the occurrence of multiple team membership or even membership change within a single team. There are two opposing viewpoints on the role of membership change. One school of thinking considers such changes to

be harmful or detrimental. Individual and shared experience and knowledge are lost as a result of membership changes, reduced member commitment, and a lack of togetherness (Bushe et al., 2011:181-188). Finally, there is proof that member instability has a negative impact on performance. Lewis et al. (2007:159-178) are among names that come to mind. Team familiarity strengthens team processes. The opposing school of thinking considers switching memberships to be beneficial. (Bedwell et al., 2011:599-622), improved breadth of expertise, transfer of resources and knowledge, number and variety of ideas generated, higher productivity, and heightened team learning are all examples. Furthermore, Tannenbaum et al. (2012:2-24) concludes that such flexibility may assist in maintaining a team's adaptability, which is especially important in emerging scenarios and circumstances. As Bush et al. (2018:423-433) points out, more flexible teams are better able to deal with task conflict, which can be a beneficial facilitator of communication as well as a tool for avoiding group thinking. As a result, team membership decisions should be made with the goal of strategically supporting the organization's mission and promoting organizational flexibility in competitive contexts (Outland et al., 2018:349-362). Regardless of one's point of view, changes in membership have an undeniable impact on processes and outcomes.

Studies have repeatedly shown that the members of a team have a major impact on teamwork, New questions emerge as a result of findings by Bell et al. (2018) on performance and the everchanging nature of membership. When team membership is so fluid, how should measurement be handled to accurately reflect the team's current situation as well as its dynamism. Is it still appropriate to use traditional cross-section or correlational designs? Can we conduct fair longitudinal comparisons if the team organization differs? These questions clearly demonstrate that team membership flexibility affects not only team dynamics, but also the team's dependency, goals, and limitations. Furthermore, such flexibility membership presents concerns regarding selection, mediation, and work design, all of which should be investigated further.

3.1.4 Interdependence

Interdependence refers to the level of interaction (communication, interface, contact, collaboration and relations) obligatory for team members in order to complete a task or accomplish a particular goal or result and is frequently the reason teams are formed in the first place, claims Campion, Medsker and Higgs (1993:823-847). The nature of what a team is trying to achieve can be characterized by a two-dimensional framework i.e. scope and complexity (Mathieu et al., 2017:

452-467). Interdependence regulates the relationship among team processes and team performance obscure

The source of interdependence, as viewed by Van der Vegt et al. (2001:51-69), can be complicated. The nature of the work, the way objectives are created, the process by which those objectives are met, and the system or procedures for evaluating team performance may all play a role. Task interdependence, according to popular belief, refers to the degree of task-driven interaction between team members. To put it another way, task interdependence refers to the degree to which employees must rely on one another in order to effectively carry out their separate tasks and duties (Saavedra, Earley, and Van Dyne, 1993:61-72). As task dependency grows, so does the need for communication, coordination, and collaboration. Task interdependence varies from a lower degree of integration to a much higher degree of integration with greater complexity. Pooled/joint dependency is a performance-sum connection in which each team member contributes to the group without having to contact other team members directly. This is the simplest level/degree of dependency because it simply states that team performance is the total of the individual performance of each team member. When task dependency is shared, each team member contributes their own work to the final output/product without relying on the labor of others. An automobile assembly line is a good illustration of pooling interdependence because each team member performs a distinct activity that contributes to the final product. Mutual interdependence is the next conceptualization and happens when team performance needs individuals to hand tasks back-and-forth between one another. When team members have various specialty jobs that can be accomplished in a flexible order, these temporally lagged, two-way interactions are common (Saavedra et al., 1993:63).

The difficulty with conceptualizing interdependence in this way is that it is more complicated in actuality than it is currently understood. In fact, many modern teams are working on many tasks at the same time, and each of these jobs may be associated with varying levels of cooperation, as Bell et al. point out (2018:349-362). Similarly, the longer a team has been together, the more likely it is that it will move between different levels of interdependence.

The questions that arise are: how does interdependence affect or effect team definition and conceptualization if it is a shifting target? Is it possible to regard real teams to be teams if their level of interdependencies varies over time? Is it true that a change in interdependency within a working team affects the team's tameness? Can a single team be more or less of a team as its

dependent nature changes throughout its lifecycle/existence? What does this entail, most critically, for teams working in the real world?

3.1.5 Shared responsibility for outcomes

Another distinguishing feature of teams is the presence of at least one common goal. This component is essential since there would be no reason for several individuals to interact with the idea of establishing a team if they did not have a common goal or objective. They would like to pursue their own interests. However, when two or more people work together to achieve a common goal, they become connected. While the path to achieving goals may differ, their unity shows as goal interdependence, which governs their performance (Saavedra et al. (1993:61-72). As a result, goals control team members' attention, tenacity, and effort, as well as impacting on interactions within teams, claim Liden and Hu (2011: 851-862). Goals lead and advise teams on how to describe individual roles, control activities, and build efficient work procedures, claims Klein and Mulvey (1995:44-53).

The amount of work put in by team members in pursuit of common goals affects the rewards, punishments, and feedback that teams receive. Obstructing, undermining, and impeding behaviours, and competitive and individual distribution of outcomes, can inhibit team performance. Shared goals can promote shared responsibility for results among team members, stress Shea and Guzzo (1987:323-356), which is likely to boost effectiveness by inspiring team members to work together and aid in the performance of other team members.

The link between shared goals and outcome responsibilities clearly has an impact on how teams perform. Team relationships serve as a gluing force and a source of motivation for the team as well as influence how work is shared and how team members interact. As a result, teams are defined in part by the goal(s) they are working together to achieve. If the team's aims change, the team's quality may alter as well. It is possible that work will need to be rearranged. Team members may need to be undergo work readiness examination, which could result in their removal or addition.

From a theoretical and research standpoint, this suggests that one should be cautious in defining and measuring teams. If goals change noticeably, and work flows change as a result, it may no longer be fair to consider a group of people to be part of the same team. In such circumstance, one must use caution when deriving conclusions from the evaluation of these groups over time.

3.1.6 Team Dynamics

To achieve common goals and manage task interdependencies, team members must obviously interact with one another. Team dynamics and interactions, on the other hand, vary widely and are influenced by a variety of attitudes and behaviors. Marks et al. (2001:357) outline processes and emergent states, which is the most widely used classification for describing team interactions and dynamics. Processes are the interconnected acts of team members that change inputs into outputs through intellectual, verbal, and behavioural activities aimed at structuring teamwork to achieve common goals. The interaction of team members with each other and their work environment is referred to as the team process. Processes are the mechanisms through which members of team pool critical and diverse resources such as skill, experience, financial backing, and equipment to achieve team goals. As a result, (LePine et al., 2008:356–376), team process drives the achievement of team goals.

Of course, cooperation entails more than just following a set of rules. Salas et al. (2011:599-622) suggest that teamwork also includes values, motivations, attitudes, and cognitions. Marks et al. (2001:357) refer to these emotive and cognitively focused aspects of collaborative emergent states. Emergent states are notions that describe team properties that are generally dynamic and change as a result of team inputs, procedures, and outcomes. The quality of these team properties varies, they are classified as states. As a result, emergent states have the ability to impact how the team process unfolds while also changing in response to team member interactions. As a result, emergent states are outcomes of the team experience that can have a positive or bad impact on how team members interact.

3.1.7 Team management

A team leader's or an organization's ability to control, lead, and organize a group of people to complete a task with the goal of accomplishing a specific goal or objective is known as team management. Team management entails a great deal of collaboration, excellent and clear communication, goal-setting, and performance evaluations. Above all, team management is the ability to recognize problems and resolve disagreements within a group. A team leader can use

a variety of strategies and leadership styles to boost team member productivity and develop an effective team.

3.1.8 Elements of a successful team

Cohesive leadership: (Lencioni, 2011), in any functional team, harmony among team leaders and decision makers is extremely important. Instead of each breaking off into their own task and functioning as an individual, this form of leadership requires team leaders to work together as a unit and make choices as a leadership team.

Common Goal: When team members initially meet, they will all have different ideas; nonetheless, alignment of goals and objectives within the team is the key to an effective and successful team. It is critical that the team leader establish a common goal that the entire team is enthusiastic about pursuing. If this is done, all of the team members will work harder to achieve the established goal. If there is no common goal, team members who disagree with the goal will be hesitant to put forth their best effort in their team, resulting in failure to meet the established goal. Team members may redirect their attention to other obligations due to a lack of enthusiasm or belief in the goal (Meyers, Riccucci and Lurie, 2001:165-202).

Effective communication: From top management to the bottom of the chain of command, and vice versa, there must be a clear and effective communication model. An effective communication medium will allow messages to be sent correctly and quickly to the intended recipient, which will undoubtedly speed up decision-making and team procedures. Additionally, better communication will boost the team's flexibility and make it less vulnerable to external changes; a faster decision-making process will provide companies more time to adjust to changes and implement contingency plans (Abudi et al., 2011).

3.1.9 Team Effectiveness

Aubé and Rousseau (2011:567) defines team effectiveness as a team's capacity to fulfill its specified goals or objectives, which are governed by authorized persons or the organization. Teams and groups have formed an equal relationship within the confines of procedures and studies relevant to their efficacy, posit Kozlowski and Ilgen (2006:77–124).

3.1.10 Team Effectiveness models

There are six diverse team models of effectiveness:

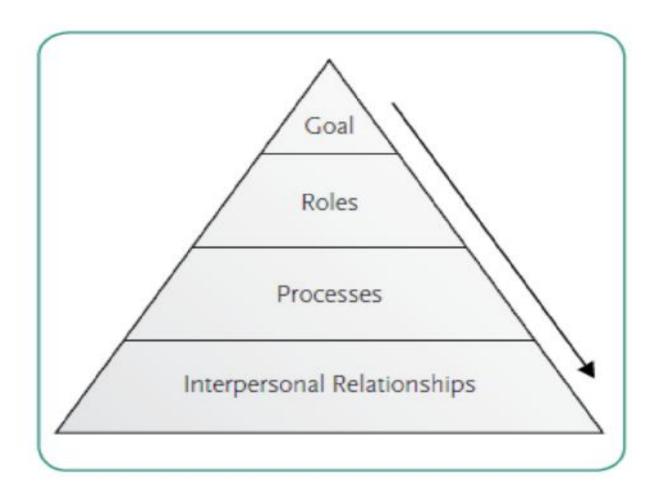


Figure 3. 1: The GRPI Model of Team Effectiveness (Rubin, Plovnick and Fry, 1977:7)

Rubin, Plovnick and Fry (1977) proposed the aforementioned model of team performance. The abbreviation GRPI stands for goals, roles, processes, and interpersonal relationships. The GRPI model identifies four components that teams must have in order to be successful:

Goals: Clearly defined aims and desired outcomes, as well as prioritized and stated priorities and expectations.

Roles: Clear and well-defined tasks, as well as a leader's acceptance.

Processes: Well-defined decision-making and work procedures.

Communication, trust, and adaptability are all important aspects of interpersonal interactions.

The GRPI model is ideal for forming a team or when dealing with a team-related problem that stems from an unknown source because of its simplicity.

In the diagram below, "team basics" are outlined, which must be applied rigorously to eliminate the obstacles to establishing what is referred to as a "real team".

The vertices of a triangle represent the things that teams deliver

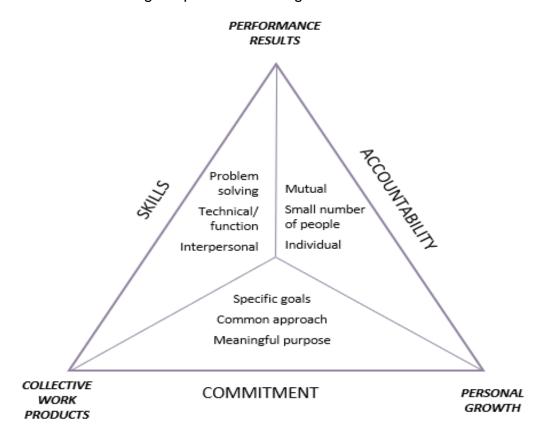


Figure 3. 2: The Wisdom of Teams (Katzenbach and Smith, 1993)

After a thorough study of teams across several companies and various work challenges, authors Jon Katzenbach and Douglas Smith introduced their team effectiveness model in 1993. Their book, *The wisdom of teams*, lays out their model of efficient teams in a triangular diagram. The three points represent the larger deliverables of any team: collective work products, performance results, and personal growth.

There are three important and necessary factors to reach these goals. These make up the sides of the triangle:

Commitment: Teams that have a clear purpose, specific goals, and a shared approach to their work are committed.

Skills: Problem-solving skills, technical skills to complete their craft, and interpersonal skills to improve teamwork are all required of team members.

Accountability: Personal and mutual accountability is required of team members.

THE T7 Model of Team Effectiveness

There are five internal factors, and two external ones (all beginning with 'T'), that are necessary for a team to work effectively. This model helps with understanding the factors that affect team effectiveness as well as how they relate.

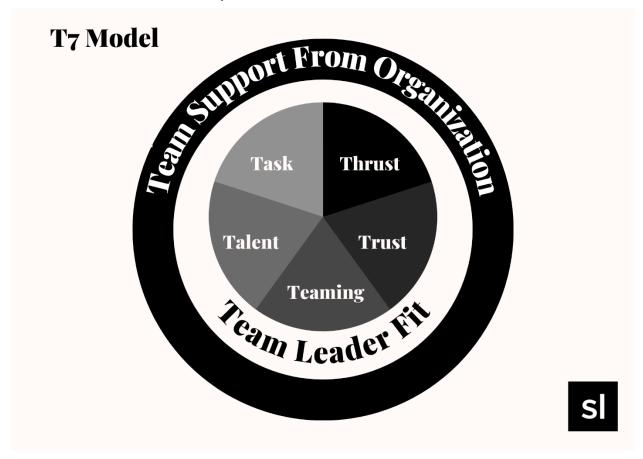


Figure 3. 3: Driving team effectiveness-T7 model (Bates, 2014:25)

Writers Michael Lombardo and Robert Eichinger, to identify what aspects determine team effectiveness, created the T7 Model in 1995. They formulated five internal and two exterior elements, each beginning with the letter "T."

Internal influences affecting the team

Thrust; A shared objective or goal.

Trust: The assurance that your team is on your side

Talent: Abilities required for the work

Teaming skills: Ability to work as part of a group

Task skills: Ability to carry out duties

External influences affecting the team

Team leader fit: Whether the leader is a good team player.

Team support from the organization: How the organization makes it possible for the team to work together.

For high-performing teams, all five internal components must be present. However, no matter how comprehensive the internal components are, the team's success is jeopardized if leadership and organizational support are inadequate.

Team Effectiveness Model

As part of their version of a team effectiveness model, Dr. Frank LaFasto and Carl Larson studied 6,000 team members and leaders from various industries and organizations in 2001.

It was initially referred to as the "Five Dynamics of Team Work and Collaboration", but it was narrowed down to five components:

- 1. Team member: What kind of skills and qualities do they have? Are they the right fit for the role?
- 2. Team relationships: When you pick any individual with a top notch attitude, then forming appropriate working relationships won't be so difficult.
- 3. Team problem solving: When there are good working relationships within the team, it can help in making team decisions less complicated and minimize conflict.
- 4. Team leadership: Having a leader that encourages and engages their team is indispensable to their success.

5. Organization environment: The possibility of dedication from a team is extended when there are the right strategies and organisation culture in place

Figure 3. 4: Teamwork – the LaFasto and Larson model (Irving and Longbotham, 2007:98-113)



Figure 3. 5: Five Dynamics of Team Work and Collaboration (Frank LaFasto and Carl Larson, 2001)

Frank LaFasto and Carl Larson (2001) presented the "Five Dynamics of Team Work and Collaboration" concept. To address the question, "What constitutes an effective team?" they gathered perceptions from 600 teams across a variety of businesses. The resulting model has five layers or components, each of which increases the likelihood of success:

Team member: What are his or her abilities and personality traits? The first step is to find the proper person.

Team relationships: In a team, appropriate behaviour fosters strong working relationships.

Team problem solving: Working together to tackle challenges is made feasible by good team relationships.

Team leadership: Effective leadership aids the success of a team.

Organization environment: In an organization, the correct practices and organizational culture encourage team commitment.

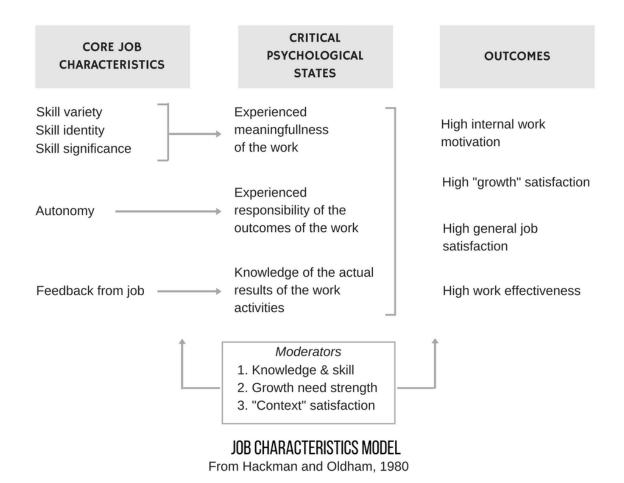


Figure 3. 6: A normative model of work team effectiveness - the Hackman model (Ali, Said, Kader, Latif and Munap, 2014:46-52)

In his book *Leading Teams: Setting the Stage for Great Performances* (2002), Richard Hackman suggested an effectiveness model. It provides five requirements that must be met in order for teams to work effectively together.

Being a real team rather than a fictitious one: Effective teams have a defined boundary that clearly defines who belongs on the team, individuals who are interdependent, and a reasonably steady membership.

Having a compelling goal that everyone strives for: This entails establishing goals that are clear, difficult and consequential enough to encourage team members to work together.

Having a supportive system that encourages collaboration: The structure of the team – its behavior and the way it organizes and works on its tasks – must facilitate rather than hinder teamwork. For example, if only one person has the authority to approve the work of 20 employees, the team's effectiveness is hampered.

Within the organization, having a supportive environment that allows the team to perform efficiently: This implies that the team has sufficient resources, rewards, information, and the collaboration and support they require to complete their tasks.

Having access to professional coaching and guidance for the team: In business, effective teams are those that have access to a mentor or coach who can guide them through problems.



The Five Behaviors of a Cohesive Team™ Model

Figure 3. 7: Five Dysfunctions of a Team - the Lencioni model (Pane, Siregar, Ruman and Rumeser, 2018:49-53)

The book *The five dysfunctions of a team* by author Patrick Lencioni (2005) lays out a work team performance model based on what creates dysfunctions, disagreements, and political manipulations in a work team. He identified five characteristics that effective teams do not possess. The leader must first understand their team's dysfunctions in order to correct it. These are the dysfunctions:

Lack of trust: If team members are reluctant to be vulnerable or ask for support, they will not seek assistance from their teammates.

Fear of conflict: There are no dynamic disagreements that result in productive ideas if everyone is attempting to keep the peace at all costs.

Lack of commitment: People who are not devoted to their work or team are less likely to stick to their decisions or meet deadlines.

Avoidance of accountability: Another drawback of conflict phobia is that no one wants to make others responsible for their job.

Inattention to results: If personal goals take precedence over group success, no one will be monitoring and optimizing team performance.

Lencioni's team effectiveness leadership paradigm is depicted as a pyramid, with each dysfunction being addressed one by one from the bottom up.

3.1.11 Different types of teams

- Action teams :a grouping of people with management skills. It devises strategies, analyze situations and execute desired actions.
- Advisory teams: advisory teams make suggestions about a final product and the advisory team consists of experts who possess extraordinary skills.
- Command team: the purpose of the command team is to combine instructions and to coordinate action amongst management. In other words, command groups serve as the "middle man" in tasks to be performed
- Executive team: this is a management team that draws up plans for activities and then directs these activities
- Project teams: a team used only for a defined period of time and for a separate, concretely definable purpose, often becomes known as a project team
- Virtual teams: a virtual team is a group of people who work interdependently and with shared purpose across space, time, and organisational boundaries using technology to communicate and collaborate
- Work teams: these teams are responsible for the actual act of creating tangible products and services

Relevant type of teams to the study

This study focuses mainly on project teams and management teams

3.1.11.1 Project teams

A project team is a team whose members usually belong to different groups, have different functions in the organization and are assigned by the project manager to activities for the same project. Project teams (also known as development teams) produce new products and services for an organization on a specified period or one-time or limited basis. The assignment of these teams may vary from just improving a current project, concept or plan to creating entirely new projects with very few confines. Projects teams depend on their members being educated and competent in many disciplines and functions, as this allows them to complete the task effectively (Lapoint and Haggard, 2013:121-125).

3.1.11.2 Management teams

Menz (2012: 45-80) claims that management teams (also known as action and negotiation teams) are responsible for the coordination and direction of a division within an organization during various assigned projects and functional, operational or strategic tasks and initiatives. Management teams are responsible for the overall performance of the division they manage with regard to day-to-day operations, delegation of tasks and the supervision of employees (Guchait et al., 2014:401-425).

Management teams are additionally accountable of team selections and team leader selection.

3.1.12 Team diversity

Any project team should be formed of a best mix of characters, skills, experience and even gender and age. Individual disparities in a team can exist on a variety of dimensions, including age, nationality, religious background, functional background or work skills, sexual orientation, and political preferences, among other qualities (Schnippers and Van Knippenberg, 2017:515-521). Team diversity can have an impact on a team's performance, member satisfaction, and ability to innovate. Team diversity is an input factor that has an effect on the processes as well as the team outputs of collaboration.

3.1.13 Improving teamwork: models and theories

To maintain teamwork benefits, teams must be trained continuously. Salas et al. (2008:540–547) suggests that training that targets individual team members and the entire team can increase teamwork and team performance.

3.1.13.1 Kurt Lewin's individual change process model

The first comprehensive study of team development was conducted by Kurt Lewin. Arrow et al. (2005:313-367) believes that Kurt Lewin coined the term "team dynamics states." Although uncommon in traditional experiential research on team formation, his beliefs concerning mutual, cross-level impact, and quasi-stationary equilibria have recently resurfaced. Kurt Lewin's early model of individual change, which has influenced many team development models, portrayed change as a three-stage process: unfreezing, change, and freezing.

Table 3. 1:individual change process model (Lewin, in Arrow et al. (2005)

Unfreezing	This stage involves overcoming inertia and disassembling the existing mind-
stage	set. Defence mechanisms have to be bypassed.
Change	This is the stage where change occurs. This is normally a period of confusion
stage	and transition of team members. Individuals are aware that the old system
	or ways are being challenged but do not have a clear picture to replace them
	with yet.
Freezing	At this third stage, the new mindset is crystallizing and individuals' comfort
stage	levels are returning to previous levels. This is often misquoted as refreezing

3.1.13. Tubbs systems model

Stewart Tubbs' (2007:348-349) systems approach to researching small group/team communication led to the development of a four-phase team development model:

Table 3.2:Tubbs (2007) systems model

Orientation	In this phase team members get to know each other, they start to talk about
phase	the problem at hand, and they examine the limitations and opportunities of the
	project to be undertaken.
Conflict	Conflict is a necessary part of a team's development. Conflict allows the group
phase	to evaluate ideas and it helps team conformity and to think as a team.
Consensus	Conflict ends in this stage, when team members compromise, select ideas,
phase	and agree on alternatives.
Closure	In this stage, the outcome is publicised to the team and team members
phase	reiterate their support of the decision.

3.1.13.3 Fisher's theory of decision emergence in groups

Littlejohn and Foss (2010:322) states that Fisher's theory identifies four steps through which task teams often proceed while making decisions. Fisher noted how the interaction varied as the team choice was made and solidified by carefully analysing the distribution of interactions throughout distinct times of the team process. Fisher's technique classifies assertions in terms of how they respond to a decision proposal, giving specific emphasis to the content dimension of interactions.

Table 3.3: Fisher's theory of decision emergence in groups Fisher (1970:53-66).

Orientation	During this phase, team members get to know each other and they
phase	experience a primary tension; this is the awkward feeling people have before communication rules and expectations are established. Teams should take time to learn about one another and feel comfortable communicating around new people.
Conflict phase	This phase is marked by tension surrounding the task to be performed. Team members will definitely disagree with one another other and debate ideas. In this phase conflict is viewed as positive, because it helps the team achieve positive results.
Emergence phase	In this phase, the results of the team's task and its social structure become apparent. Team members soften their positions and undergo an attitudinal change that makes them less stubborn in defending their individual perspective.
Reinforcement	In this phase, team members bolster their final decision by using supportive
phase	verbal and nonverbal communication.

3.1.13.4 McGrath's Time, Interaction, and Performance (TIP) theory

McGrath (1991:147–174) addressed the possibility that various teams could take different developmental pathways to achieve the same outcome. McGrath (1991:147-174) claims that teams participate in four types of group activity: inception, technical issue solving, conflict resolution, and execution.

Modes 1 and 4 (inception and execution) are involved in all team activities and projects, but modes 2 (technical problem solving) and 3 (conflict resolution) may or may not be involved in any given team activity, according to this paradigm. These four modalities are described by Hare (2003:123–154) as meaning, resources, integration, and goal accomplishment.

McGrath (1991:147-174) says that all team projects begin with mode 1 (goal selection) and end with mode 4 (goal achievement), although mode 2 and 3 may or may not be required depending on the task and the history of the team's actions. The author says that teams could take a variety of different time-activity paths to go from the initiation stage to the completion stage of a project for each designated function. TIP theory asserts that between two modes of activity, there is a default way that needs the least effort, and that this default path will dominate until conditions dictate a more sophisticated approach.

Table 3. 4: McGrath's Time, Interaction, and Performance (TIP) theory (McGrath, 1991:147-174)

Mode 1: Inception	Inception and acceptance of a project (goal choice)
Mode 2:Technical problem	Solution of technical issues (means choice)
Solving	
Mode 3: Conflict resolution	Resolution of conflict (policy choice)
Mode 4: Execution	Execution of the performance requirements of the project (goal
	attainment)

According to McGrath's TIP theory, teams use these four modes for each of the three team functions: production, team member well-being, and member support. In this sense, teams are seen as always acting in one of the four modes with respect to each of the three functions. But they are not necessarily acting in the same mode for all functions, nor are they acting in the same mode for a given function on multiple projects that may be running at the same time (McGrath et al., 1991:153).

The table below demonstrates the correlation between modes and functions

FUNCTIONS			
MODES	Production	Well-being	Member Support
Mode 1:	Production	Interaction	Inclusion
Inception	Demand/ Opportunity	Demand/ Opportunity	Demand/ Opportunity
Mode 2:	Technical	Role	Position/
Problem Solving	Problem Solving	Network Definition	Status Attainment
Mode 3:	Policy	Power/	Contribution/
Conflict Resolution	Conflict Resolution	Payoff Distribution	Payoff Relationships
Mode 4:	Performance	Interaction	Participation
Execution			

Adapted from;: (McGrath 1991:154)

Table 3.5: modes and functions

3.1.13.5 Gersick's punctuated equilibrium model

Gersick's research on current teams deviates from traditional team development frameworks. Gersick's punctuated equilibrium model (Gersick, 1988:9-41; 1989:247-309; 1991:10-36) indicates that teams evolve through the rapid construction, maintenance, and revision of a performance framework. This model outlines the methods by which such frameworks are formed and altered, as well as the timing and manner in which their development teams are likely, or unlikely, to be influenced by their settings.

Since organizations' historical techniques are likely to differ, the specific problems and activities that dominate their work are left out of the model. Her proposed model uses the following method.

Table 3. 6: Gersick's punctuated equilibrium model (Gersick, 1991:10-36)

Phase 1	Teams might show very little visible progress throughout; as a result, members might also be unable to find a use for the data have generated till they have revised the initial framework.
Midpoint	At their calendar midpoints, teams' expertise transitions shifts in their approaches to their work, enabling them to accomplish the most the gradual learning they need done and create vital advances. However the transition should be used well, for once it is past a team is unlikely to change its basic plans once more.
Phase 2	A second period of inertial movement, takes its direction from plans crystallized throughout the transition. At completion, once a team makes a final effort to satisfy outside expectations, it experiences the positive and negative consequences of past selections.

3.1.13.6 Wheelan's integrated model of group development

Since team development is the basic work paradigm, Wheelan used Tuckman's concept to assist her own inquiry. Although this model is linear in some ways, it is based on the idea that teams are productive as they work rather than simply passing between stages of activity. The early stages of team growth, according to this model, are tied to certain difficulties and patterns of communication, such as those associated with reliance, counter-dependency, and trust, and occur before the "more mature" stages of a group's life. All of those phases are listed in the table below (Smith, 2001:14-45).

Table 3. 7: Wheelan's integrated group development model (Wheelan et al., 2003:223-245)

Stage 1: Dependency and Inclusion	The first stage of team development is characterised by vital member dependency on the selected leader, considerations regarding safety, and inclusion problems. During this stage, members depend on the leader and powerful team members to supply direction. Team members might have interaction in what has been known as "pseudo-work", like exchanging stories regarding outside activities or alternative topics that are not relevant to team goals.
Stage 2: Counter dependency and Fight	In the second stage of team development, members disagree among themselves concerning team goals and procedures. Conflict is to a degree an inevitable a part of this method. The team's task at stage two is to develop a unified set of goals, values, and operational procedures, and this task inevitably generates some conflict. Conflict is also necessary for the institution of trust and a climate within which members will be at liberty to help one another.
Stage 3: Trust / Structure	If the team manages to work through the inevitable conflicts of stage 2, member trust, commitment to the team, and disposition to collaborate increase. Communication becomes more open and task-oriented. This third stage of team development, named the trust and structure stage, is characterised by mature negotiations concerning roles, organization, and procedures. it is additionally a time within which members work to solidify positive operating relationships with one another
Stage 4 Work / Productivity	As its name implies, the fourth stage of team development could be a time of intense team productivity and effectiveness. Having resolved several of the problems of the previous stages, the team will focus most of its energy on goal action and task accomplishment
Final	Teams that have a definite ending purpose experience a fifth stage. However, the termination at hand could cause disruption and conflict in some teams. In some teams, separation problems are addressed, and members' appreciation of every alternative, and therefore the cluster expertise could also be expressed.

Wheelan developed and verified a Group Development Observation System (GDOS) and a Group Development Questionnaire based on this model (GDQ). Researchers can use the GDOS to determine a group's developmental stage by categorizing and counting each complete idea spoken during a group session into one of eight categories: dependency statements, counter-dependency, fight, flight, pairing, counter pairing, work, or unscorable statements (Wheelan, 1994). The GDQ is a questionnaire that is used to survey group members and analyse their

individual perceptions of the developmental state claims made by their group (Hochberger and Wheelan, 1996:143-170). GDQ Associates, Inc., has taken her academic work and turned it into a commercial venture. Wheelan et al. (2003: 223-245) examined the relationship between the amount of time a group has been meeting and the verbal behaviour patterns of its members, as well as the members' judgments of the group's state of development, in order to empirically validate the model. Her findings suggest that there is a link between the amount of time a group has been meeting and its members' verbal behaviour patterns. Members of older groups also tended to perceive their groups as having more Stage 3 and Stage 4 traits, and as being more productive. Wheelan's position is based on these findings, which support classic linear models of group formation, while casting doubt on cyclic models and Gersick's punctuated equilibrium model.

3.1.13.9 The TEAM model of Morgan, Salas, and Glickman

Morgan, Salas and Glickman (1994:277-291) developed the Team Evolution and Maturation (TEAM) model by combining different ideas including Tuckman and Gersick's development models to explain a series of 9 developmental stages through which freshly formed, task-oriented teams evolve. According to this paradigm, teams can start a development phase at various stages and spend varying amounts of time in each stage. Teams are not always expected to move through all of the stages in linear fashion. The qualities of the team and team members, their past histories and competence, the character of their jobs, and the environmental demands and limits all influence a team's starting position and pattern of growth through the stages, states Morgan et al. (1994:277–291).

The TEAM model identifies nine stages, with seven central ones and two additional ones. The seven central stages begin with the team's formation during its first meeting (forming) and progress through the members' first, and often insecure, exploration of the situation (storming). Initial efforts toward accommodation, as well as the formation and acceptance of roles (norming), performance leading to inefficient patterns of performance on occasion (Performing-I), rating and transition (reforming), focusing efforts to provide effective performance (performing-II), and completion of team assignments (conforming). If a team's development is necessitated by a failure to achieve sufficient performance, changes in environmental demands, or poor team interactions, the team's growth can be recycled from any of the final phases to an earlier level.

The model's main stages are preceded by a pre-forming stage that acknowledges the factors from the setting (environmental needs and restrictions) that determine and contribute to the formation of the team; in other words, forces outside the team (before it exists) that cause the team to be established. The final stage signifies that once the team has completed its mission, it will be disbanded. People leave the team (individually or in groups), and the group loses its identity and ceases to exist.

In addition, the TEAM model assumes the existence of two distinct activity tracks that run through all stages. The most important of these tracks involves activities that are related to the task(s) being completed. These activities include team members' interactions with tools and machines, as well as technical components of the job (e.g., processes, policies, and so on) and other task-related tasks. The activities on the opposite track are aimed at improving the quality of team interactions, interdependencies, relationships, emotions, cooperation, and coordination.

The model's proponents failed to test the model's parts or sequence of stages through trial and error, but they did ensure that team members' perceptions of the team's performance processes appeared to embody both team-centered and task-centered activities, and that these perceptions appeared to change over time as a result of team coaching (Morgan et al,1994:277–291).

3.1.13.9 Hackman's multilevel perspective

Since its inception, the study of team dynamics has sparked debate among scholars, with some arguing that the primary goal should be at the individual level, while others argue that the primary goal should be at the group level. The construction perspective combines those studies into a single, coherent approach. It implies that the best way to understand team development and success is to consider elements from all levels of study.

The team's behaviour will be split down into three levels of analysis: individual (micro), team (meso), and structure or social level (macro).

Table 3. 8: Hackman's multilevel perspectives (Hackman, 2003:905-922)

Micro-Level: Individual Level	Refers to the non-public qualities and characteristics of individual team members.
Meso-Level: Team Level	Refers to the qualities and characteristics of the entire team, like cohesion, size, structure, etc.
Macro-Level: Organizational or Societal Level	Refers to the qualities, characteristics, and processes of the larger collectives of that a team may be a part of (i.e., the organization or the community).

Hackman et al. (2003:905-922) suggests that the scientific community has a predisposition toward explanatory reductionism, which is the belief that the workings of all natural systems can be described by the attributes of the constituents that make them up. In reality, complex systems, such as teams, will have components that cannot be explained solely by looking at the attributes of an individual. It is vital to focus on the bigger picture in order to gain a true knowledge of team dynamics.

Hackman (2003:905-922) underlines this point with an example from his prior research on airline cockpit crew effectiveness. The study looked at 300 crew members from a variety of airlines in the United States, Europe, and Asia (Hackman, 2003:905-922). Teams differed in in success and, as a result, they face obstacle such as economic issues and other external stressors.

Initially, the investigation focused on structural aspects (the design of the flying task and, as a result, the crew itself), which were evaluated through surveys, interviews, and evaluations of coaching and procedure manuals. A unidirectional analysis of variance revealed that the airlines had almost no variation on measures of crew structure and behaviour once the information analysis began. These results were quite the opposite of what had been predicted, but luckily, Hackman had also gathered information on a range of individual and environmental factors. At the individual level, it looked like the airlines had once again failed to differ significantly, but at the structural level, a source of variation was discovered. The heterogeneity in crew success was discovered to be linked to the structural context of each crew. Adequacy of material resources, clarity of performance objectives, acknowledgment and reinforcement for excellent crew performance, accessibility of educational and technical aid, and accessibility of information resources were all factors of crew success. The study would not have yielded significant results if the researchers had opted to collect knowledge at only one level of study (for example, at the team level).

It is critical to think about each level of study when learning about team building and dynamics. While it may be tempting to concentrate just on the team level, important data may also be available one level up (at the structure level) or one level down (the individual level).

3.2 Team building

Once project teams have been developed, team building is needed during the life cycle of the project. "Team building" refers to a variety of activities that are intended to improve social connections and define responsibilities within teams, with the majority of them involving cooperative duties. It differs from team training, which is designed to improve the effectiveness of a group of business managers, learning and development professionals, and a human resource business partner (if one exists) rather than social relations.

Many team-building exercises try to demonstrate and address societal challenges at regular intervals, according to the team (Salas et al., 2008:903-933). These activities are designed to improve performance in a team-based environment over time. Team building is one of the foundations of structure development that can be used by sports teams, faculty groups, military units, and aircraft crews.

Team building includes:

- Alignment with objectives
- Creating and maintaining productive working and operational relationships
- Reducing the role confusion of team members
- Identifying and solving team problems

One of the most widely employed group-development activities in organizations is team building. A common technique is to hold a "team-building retreat" or "corporate love-in," in which team members try to address underlying issues and build trust by participating in activities that are not typical of what they do as a group.

Macy and Izumi (1993:235-313) denotes that team-development has the greatest influence on improving team performance of all structure activities. According to a meta-analysis published in 2008, team-development activities, such as team building and coaching, increase both a team's objective performance and subjective higher-up ratings (Salas et al., 2008:903-933). As claimed

by Pollack and Matous (2019:473-484), team development can be done through targeted personal self-disclosure activities.

3.2.1 Four approaches of team building

Salas et al. (2005:1-48) and Salas et al. (2004:465-470) described the following as the major approaches of team building.

Defining team objectives

This underlines the significance of well-defined objectives as well as individual and team goals. Team members participate in action planning to determine how to define success and failure as well as achieve objectives. This can be done to boost motivation and build a sense of belonging. Teams will be able to track their progress by identifying particular outcomes and tests of progressive achievement. Several groups work with the team to create a team charter (union leaders).

Clarification of roles

This heightens team members' awareness of their own and others' particular roles and responsibilities. Activities focused on process and role adjustment are frequently used to reduce uncertainty and promote appreciation of the necessity of structure. It emphasizes the interdependence of the members and the importance of having each member specialize in their own role in the team's success.

Problem solving

This method focuses on detecting problems within the team, analysing them, and then resolving them.

Interpersonal relationships

This focuses on improving collaboration skills such as providing and accepting support, as well as communication and sharing. Teams with less social conflict are more likely to perform well than others. A facilitator facilitates the discussions in order to foster mutual trust and open communication among team members.

3.2.2 Teambuilding effectiveness

Sanborn and Huszczo (2007:799-790) believes that the success of team building varies greatly from one business to the next. When team members are reliant, knowledgeable, and experienced, and when organizational leadership actively builds and supports the team, the most effective efforts occur. The ability to effectively form a team requires an understanding of the team's goals. Teams should develop all goals, roles, and processes. As a result, increasing task completion, goal attainment, and result attainment at intervals groups suggests that team building is often connected to boosting task completion, goal attainment, and result attainment (Salas et al., 2011:365-372).

Team building effects on performance

Salas et al. (2011:365-372) denotes that team building has been scientifically proven to have a comprehensive impact on team effectiveness. Setting goals and clarifying roles were found to have an impact on psychological characteristics, affective responses, method, and performance outcomes. Further, they had the most powerful impact on affective and process outcomes, implying that team building can help teams dealing with negative affect issues, such as a lack of cohesion or trust. It may also help groups affected by process issues, such as a lack of role clarity.

Goal setting and role clarity (Locke and Latham, 2002:705-717) have the greatest influence because they increase motivation, minimize conflicts, and make it easier to create individual functions, goals, and motivation.

Teams of ten or more people appear to benefit the most from team building exercises. Halebian and Finkelstein (1993:844-863), this is due to larger teams having a higher pool of psychological feature resources and skills than smaller teams.

Application of team building in organisations

Organizational team development is a common method for improving performance. While having fun is an important part of team development, the goal is to become more productive, focused, and aligned. Purely recreational activities can be beneficial, but they must be timed and take into account the competencies of team members (e.g., sports

activities are not for everyone). Other activities aimed at creating a learning atmosphere, achieving superior results, and luring personnel must be present.

Employee engagement exercises enable teams to develop solutions that are meaningful to them, with a direct impact on individuals, teams, and organizations. Experiential learning and ramification tactics are both excellent ways to keep millennials engaged at work. Employee involvement is highly effective for the following reasons:

- Employees enjoy activities that require them to solve problems.
- Solving problems gives people a sense of ownership.
- It has the ability to increase capacity.
- Competitive activities encourage a results-oriented mind-set.
- Outdoor activities can be an excellent method to get the team to interact; however, there are many other types of team-building activities to choose from.

3.2.3 Challenges to team building

When agencies are looking for a 'quick cure' to inadequate communication structures or unclear management directions, the word 'team building' is commonly used as an evasion, resulting in unproductive teams with no clear understanding of how to succeed. The best work is done in groups.

Teams are then formed to address specific issues, with the fundamental causes no longer being overlooked. Three problems for team builders are (Dyer, 2007:217-223):

Lack of teamwork skills: Finding team-oriented personnel is one of the obstacles that leaders face. Most businesses rely on educational institutions to instil these skills in their employees. However, Dyer believes that, in addition to having to collaborate, college students are motivated to work alone and achieve success. This is in direct contradiction to the types of behaviour that are desired in teamwork. According to another study, team education improved cognitive, affective, process, and overall performance outcomes (Salas et al., 2008:903-933)

Virtual workplaces and collaboration beyond organizational boundaries: (Dyer, 2007), organizations are increasingly collaborating with employees who are not in the same physical environment. Members are frequently unable to form solid bonds with other team members. In another study, Oertig and Buergi (2006:23-30) found that face-to-face communication is critical in forming an effective team atmosphere. Face-to-face communication was once essential for building trust.

Globalization and virtualization: Teams are increasingly made up of people who speak different languages, have different cultures, have different values, and have different problem-solving methodologies. In some organizations, one-on-one sessions have proven to be effective (Oertig et al., 2008:23-30).

Chapter 4: Research Methodology

4.1 Research design and research methodology

Research design are the steps to be followed during the research, demanding answers to "what" should be done (Jowah, 2017:78). The researcher opted for the descriptive research design because it is simple and allows for simultaneous use of the two research methodologies which are questionnaire and observational research method. On the other hand, research methodology is about "how" the "what" will be executed at the different stages of the research design (Tobi and Kampen, 2018:1209-1225). The researcher used both qualitative and quantitative research methodologies (mixed research methodology) because they complement each other in helping with understanding the phenomenon understudy. These can be used simultaneously in the same research, and in this case this assisted in cutting down on time with all the advantages. This approach enabled the researcher to have a full understanding of the phenomenon. Therefore, with the use of a research tool (questionnaire) data was collected. The decision to carry out the research using these methods took into consideration both the type of data required and the population from whom data was to be collected.

4.2 Definition of key concepts

Leadership: Leadership is both a research topic and a practical talent or ability that encompasses an individual or organization's ability to lead or guide other people, teams, or entire organizations. Specialist literature compares and contrasts Eastern and Western leadership techniques. Leadership is defined in academic settings as a process of social influence in which a person can enlist the help and support of others to attain a common goal (Chin, 2015: 199-216).

Personality: Corr et al. (2009) define personality is a combination of behaviors, cognitions, and emotional patterns that develop over time because of biological and environmental factors. Interdependence: the process whereby team members influence one another's experiences, suggest Van Lange and Balliet (2014:65).

Team: Thompson (2008:476) defines a team as a group of persons who are interdependent in terms of information, resources, knowledge, and skills and who want to pool their efforts in order to achieve a common purpose.

Team diversity: Individual team members can differ on a variety of factors, including age, nationality, religious background, functional background or work skills, sexual orientation, and political preferences, claim Van Knippenberg et al. (2007: 515-521).

Extraversion: a wide range of activities, positive emotionality derived from external activity/conditions, and energy generation derived from external sources defines extraversion. Friedman et al. (2016:13) believe that extraversion is beneficial. Extraverts are enthusiastic, outspoken, aggressive, and expressive people who appreciate human conversation and interaction.

4.3 Types of research

4.3.1 Quantitative research

In natural and social sciences, and occasionally in other fields, quantitative research is the systematic experimental investigation of observable phenomena through statistical, mathematical, or computational techniques. Jowah et al. (2011:20) state that, quantitative research is very focused and there is significant emphasis on reliability of the results, which is why large numbers are used in samples. The main objective of quantitative research is to develop and employ mathematical models, theories, and hypotheses pertaining to phenomena. The practice of measurement is central to quantitative research because it provides the essential connection between empirical observation and mathematical expression of quantitative relationships.

Quantitative data is any data that is in numerical form such as statistics, percentages, etc. The researcher analyses the data with the aid of statistics and hopes the numbers will produce an unbiased result that can be generalized to some larger population. Quantitative research is commonly used in psychology, economics, demography, sociology, marketing, community health, health and human development, gender studies, and political science; and less frequently in anthropology and history.

4.3.2 Qualitative research

Babbie (2014:303-304) claims that qualitative research is a scientific method of observation to collect non-numerical data. This style of research refers to the meanings, concepts, definitions,

characteristics, metaphors, symbols, and description of things and not to their counts or measures. This type of research answers why and how a certain phenomenon may occur rather than how often (Aurini, Heath and Howells, 2016). Qualitative research approaches are employed across numerous academic disciplines, focusing predominantly on the human elements of the social and natural sciences.

The study adopted a mixed research method which is a combination of both quantitative and qualitative research method

Table 4.1 below outlines the differences between the two above types of research.

Table 4. 1: Differences between quantitative and qualitative research (Jowah et al., 2011:19)

Quantitative research	Qualitative research
Focuses on observable behavior	Focuses on laws of relationship
Focuses on universal relationship laws	Focuses on human experience
Focuses on causes of phenomenon	Focuses on experience of phenomenon
Uses natural science model	Uses experiential model
Is aided by checks and balances	Does not have checks and balances
Emphasizes measurement and analysis	Emphasizes investigating procedures
Employs structures based on natural science	Emphasises the social construction of reality
Emphasizes causal relationships and variables	Focuses on relationship of the object to researcher
Best for objective data with numbers	Uses subjective data from opinions
Uses rigidly structured methods	Uses flexible exploratory methods
Tries to understand from outside	Tries to be involved with subjects
Needs a static environment	Works with realities that are non-static
Uses particularistic approach	Uses holistic approach
Uses large samples	Uses small samples

4.3.3 Advantage of Mixed Research Methodology

The researcher opted to use the mixed research methodology, equally informed by the choice of a descriptive research design. This design enabled simultaneous use of both methodologies, and provided breadth and depth in understanding phenomenon (Ivankova and Wingo, 2018:978-997). The advantages of using the mixed research methods are stated as, namely;

• Provides strengths that offset the weaknesses of both quantitative and qualitative research (Blackman and Muskat, 2012:09-21).

- Provides a more complete and comprehensive understanding of the research problem than either quantitative or qualitative approaches alone (Blackman and Muskat, 2012:09-21).
- Provides an approach for developing better, more context specific instruments (Blackman and Muskat, 2012:09-21).
- Helps to explain findings or how causal processes work (Blackman and Muskat, 2012:09-21).

For these reasons the researcher felt that the advantages outweighed the disadvantages considering the nature of the research. This also had a lot to do with the source of the data needed to make the conclusions, and was judged that the information needed and target population be taken into consideration.

4.4 Data collection

4.4.1 Target population

Target population refers to the entire group of individuals or objects that researchers are interested in (Draugalis and Plaza, 2009:73). The population contains the fundamental elements that gives them a chance of being sampled to take part in the study. According to (McGrath,1981:179-210) a group of people, events or things that a researcher has some form of interest in researching is regarded a population of a study. For this research, the author interviewed employees (excluding their managers) within an organization that is implementing community projects in a selected district in the Western Cape, the population for the study is amounting to 156 employees.

4.4.2 Sample frame

Sample frame here is the total number of people whose characteristics fit into the category of the people who qualify for the study (DiGaetano, 2013:296-329).

4.4.3 Sampling method

Sampling is a process used by researchers to identify, select and separate a certain number of individuals or objects from which a survey of a study will be conducted (Jowah, 2011:83). Systematic random sampling was used for the purpose, the respondents were randomly selected.

4.4.4 Sample size

A sample of 100 people were randomly selected for the research. Yang, Huang and Wu (2011: 258,267) posits that the bigger the sample the better, but advocates that one tenth of a representative sample will be sufficient for generalisations if the sample has all the characteristics required for the study. This sample was considered large enough.

4.4.5 Data collection Instrument

A questionnaire was constructed as a research tool for the purposes of data collection for this research. The mixed research methodology that was used informed the nature of the questionnaire to be constructed and utilised, hence the questionnaire was designed to fit that. The questionnaire was divided into three sections: Section A – Biography, Section B – Likert scale, and Section C – Open ended questions. There were multiple questions in each section for specific information. Section A was mainly biographical with the aim of evaluating the importance and involvement of respondents in the study. Section B used a Likert scale to assess variables such as perceptions, opinions, expectations, experiences and allowed respondents to express their views on project leadership issues and what they expect of their project team leaders. Section C comprised open-ended questions, to which the respondents were not necessarily expected to respond.

4.4.6 Data Collection

The author conducted the interviews and first consulted the supervisor on how he should go about doing the interviews in the best way possible, which meant that there were no fieldworkers needed.

For the research, the author interviewed employees (excluding their managers) within an organization, as they were the ones who performed the project tasks, unlike management, who were only concerned with the outcomes. The questionnaires was used as the preferred research tool because 90% of the people who responded to it would understand it, as it was a face-to-face interview which allowed respondents to seek clarity and ask questions, which would improve the accuracy of responses by the respondent.

4.4.6 Data Analysis

The collected data was brought together (questionnaires) and they were cleaned, edited, coded and captured onto the Excel Spread Sheet (ESS). This was the most readily available, and was equally ideal for the purpose of the research study. Tables, graphs, histograms and charts were constructed, and these were used to compare the variables under study. Content analysis was opted for as the instrument ideal to analyse open ended questions

CHAPTER 5: Data editing, data capturing, data analysis, reporting, interpretation

and final reporting

5.1 Introduction

In this chapter the findings of the study from the fieldwork as described in the previous chapter on

research methodology are depicted and interpreted. The raw data was collected using a

questionnaire that was designed with closed and open-ended questions. The focus of the study

was primarily on the impact of leadership personality on team performance in community projects

in a selected district in the Western Cape. Project Managers, Technical Support team, Community

Facilitators and general team members express their different views on the phenomenon but were

guided by the structured questionnaire.

The collected data was captured and analyzed on an Excel spreadsheet that was used to

construct charts (graphs, tables, bar graphs and histograms). These charts and tables are used

to represent the fieldwork results and to illustrate the connection between the variables in the

study. Findings are presented in the pages below.

5.1 Section A: Biography

Since there was a specified research target group, the goal of this section questions was to qualify

respondents to participate.

5.2.1 Question 1: Age of participants

This question is asked to discover the age group of the people employed by the organization in

the project management unit.

Response: The research was carried out by 100 persons in total, and their responses are shown

as percentages.; the results are shown in Figure 5.1 below.

72

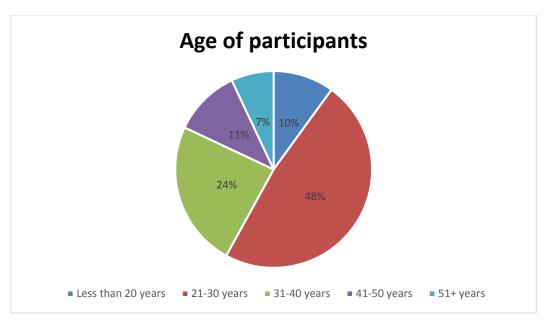


Figure 5. 1: Age of participants

The study shows that the Project Management Unit of the selected organisation in the Western Cape has a large subset of their team in the age range of 21-30 years with 48% of staff members. The organisation second highest age range is 31-40 years with 24%, followed by range 41-50 years with 11%. The organisation also has employees who are less than 20 years of age and the amount to 10%. The unit has only 7% of staff members who will soon retire due to age restrictions (pension age).

5.1.2 Question 2: Working Area?

The project management unit is divided into four areas: Area East, Area North, Area South and Area Central. This helps to have a dedicated team for a certain area. It must be noted that there were staff members who formed part of the technical team and they worked in all the areas to provide technical support. The above question was posed to actually understand which area the participants worked for.

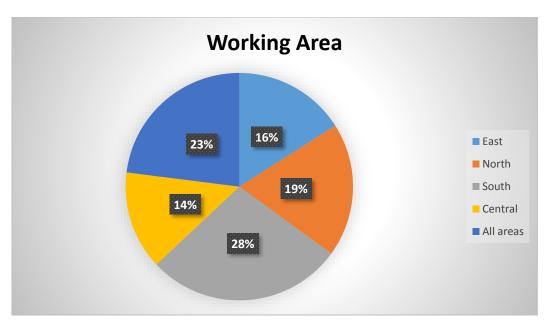


Figure 5. 2: Working Area

Figure 5.2 shows that the area with most participants is Area South with 28% of the sample size. Followed by Technical Team who work on all areas with 23%. The third ranked is Area North with 19%. Area East is the fourth ranked area with 16%. Area Central has the lowest number of participants, namely 14%.

5.1.3 Question 3: Employment Position

In the targeted project management unit, there were several professions which all worked together to realize the end-product which was a project. The unit had project managers, community facilitators, technical support team and general team members. All these professionals formed the panel of interviewees that took part in the study.



Figure 5. 3: Employment Position

Figure 5.3 shows that, of the 100% of the interviewees, 33% were general team members, while 30% were project managers. The figure also shows that 22% of the participants worked all round, being the technical support team. Community facilitators were the least represented on the study with 15% of participants.

5.1.4 Question 4: Working Experience

This question seeks to identify the number of years a participant has spent in the targeted project management unit. It is believed that with more experience one tends to know beforehand how to implement projects and what kind of challenges will arise and how to avoid those challenges.

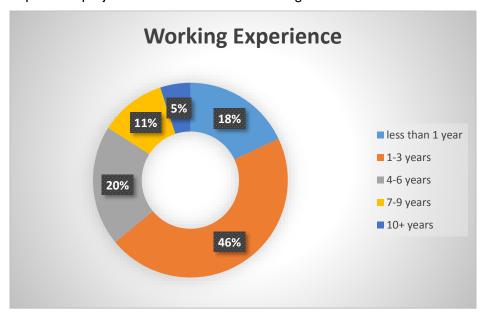


Figure 5. 4: Working Experience

Figure 5.4 reveals that a significant number (46%) are employees who had only been with the unit for one to three years. These employees had some experience but they do not yet form part of the well of knowledge. Of the 100% of the participants 20% of the employees had only been with the unit for four to six years, 18% had not even finished a year in the unit, 11% of the employees had been with the unit for seven to nine years and 5% of the employees had been with the unit for ten years and more. This proves that the unit had a working succession plan that seeks to recruit more and new staff members, which assisted in making sure that those who had been in the unit for a long time would have new people to share their skill and experience with before they left the unit.

5.1.5 Question 5: Types of Projects

This question seeks to classify the type of projects the staff members are implementing. This is because the targeted project management unit is implementing two sets of projects, which are capital projects and operational projects. Not everyone can implement both types of projects because of their technicalities and complexity. Operational projects are entry-level projects, which are less technical, while capital projects are very technical and difficult to implement. For the most experienced it is possible that one can implement both sets of projects.

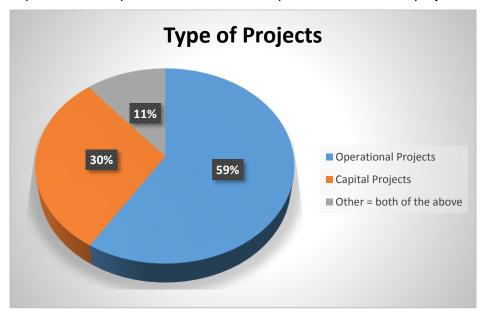


Figure 5. 5: Types of Projects

Figure 5.5 shows 59% of staff members implemented and were involved in only operational projects. This makes sense as Figure 5.4 revealed that the majority of the employees were new in the unit. Of the 100% of participants 30% of the employees only implemented capital projects. These were the more experienced employees. As illustrated in figure 5.5, 11% worked on both sets of projects and were possibly members of the technical support team.

5.2 Section B: Likert scale - perceptions of respondents

The Likert scale is used in this section to measure the perceptions of respondents and personal views against certain statements coming from the research question, problem statement and research objectives. Strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree, and strongly disagree are the responses to the statements on the Likert scale. The following are the statements and figures:

5.2.1 Statement 1: Team leader's personality has an impact on project success

This statement aims to address the primary research question. Answers to this question will therefore, give information to the study and further guide the conclusion of the study and help in the selection of project team leader in the targeted organization.



Figure 5. 6: Team leader's personality has an impact on project success

Figure 5.6 clearly indicates that the personality of a team leader is very vital for project success. This is proven by 53% who strongly agree and 36% who agree that the personality of a project team leader has an impact on project success. As illustrated in figure 5.6, 8% of the participants are undecided or neutral about the said question. Only a total of 3% of the participants disagree or strongly disagree that the personality of the project team leader has an impact on project success.

5.2.2 Statement 2: A project team leader must be a good communicator.

This claim seeks to verify the relevancy of one of the oldest and most common leadership traits. The answers to this question will help in deciding whether good communication as a trait should be considered as one of the requirements when selecting a project team leader.



Figure 5. 7: A project team leader must be a good communicator

Figure 5.7 shows without a doubt that communication is a very important and critical trait every project team leader must have. Of the participants 74% strongly agree and 25% agree that this is an essential trait. Only 1% is neutral. None strongly disagree or disagree with the statement.

5.2.3 Statement 3: Project team leader must portray good project management skills.

This statement seeks to understand the project management skills required from the project team leader. The answers will prove or not if anyone can be a project team leader without or with bad project management skills.

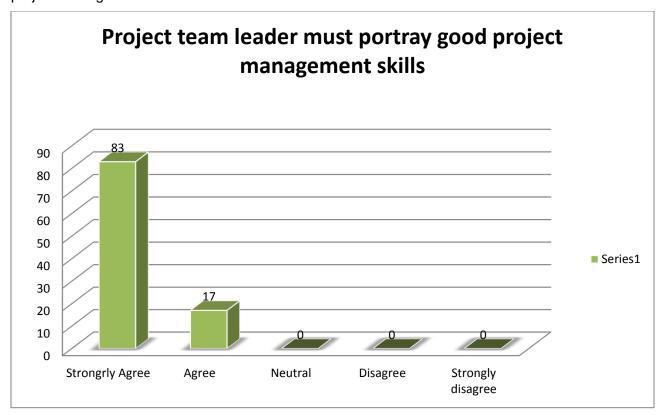


Figure 5. 8: Project team leader must portray good project management skills

Figure 5.8 shows that 83% of participants strongly agrees and 17% agree that the project team leader must portray and possess good management skills. This also reveals that project risks are minimised by having an experienced project team leader. None of the participants was neutral on the question and none of the participants disagreed nor strongly disagreed on the matter.

5.2.4 Statement 4: I am expecting a good leadership-followership relationship in the team.

This statement seeks to understand and reveal the relationship amongst the team leader and ordinary team members.

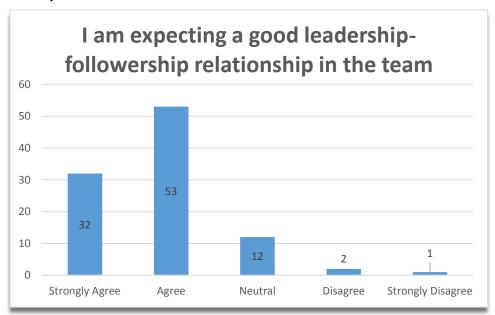


Figure 5. 9: I am expecting good leadership-followership relationship in the team

Figure 5.9 shows that 32% strongly agree on the above statement. This figure further shows that 53% of the participants agree on the statement. As illustrated in figure 5.9, 12% of the participants are neutral on the statement, 2% of participants disagree that a good relationship amongst the entire team is important and 1% strongly disagree. A team that does not have good leadership-followership relationship is expected to have so many challenges that might include, amongst many, lack of motivation.

5.2.5 Statement 5: Cultural diversity affects team relationships

This statement investigates whether cultural diversity should be considered when selecting project teams. Since the organisation practiced the rainbow nation/organisation philosophy, this has been realised by understanding the interaction between different team members' cultures..

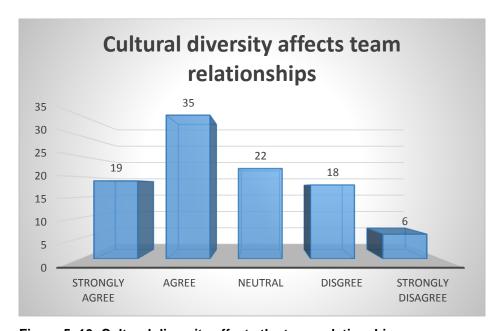


Figure 5. 10: Cultural diversity affects the team relationship

Figure 5.10 shows that 19% of the participants strongly agree and 35% agree that cultural diversity affects team relationships. The 22% of participants see no significance and relevance in cultural diversity on project team member relationships. 18% of participants strongly and 6% of the participants strongly disagree that cultural diversity affects project teams. The majority of the participants say that cultural diversity affects teams, which might also be because of language barriers amongst many and different religious practices.

5.2.6 Statement 6: Necessity of team building programmes

This statement seeks to understand the importance and relevance of team building. The question asked to the respondent read; Can teams do with or without team building programmes?

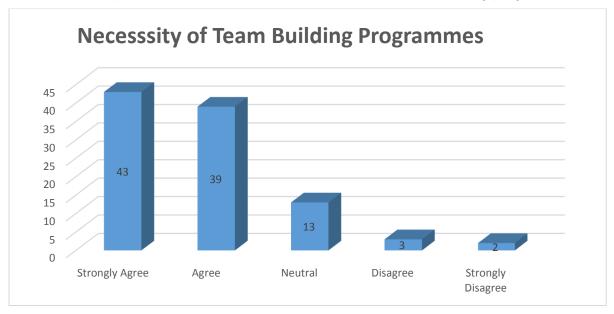


Figure 5. 11: Team building programmes are necessary in a team even if there are no differences amongst team members

Figure 5.11 show that 43% of participants strongly agree and 39% of participants agree that team-building programmes are necessary for teams if the team is to be happy and work perfectly. 13% of the participants are neutral on the statement. As illustrated by figure 5.11, 3% of participants disagree while 2% strongly disagree, which may be because they do not see the need to have team building programmes for teams with no personal differences and teams that are working perfectly well and delivering the required outputs.

5.2.7 Statement 7: Autocratic leadership style is the best leadership style to run projects.

This statement raises the question of whether or not autocratic leadership is the ideal leadership style to use when working on projects.

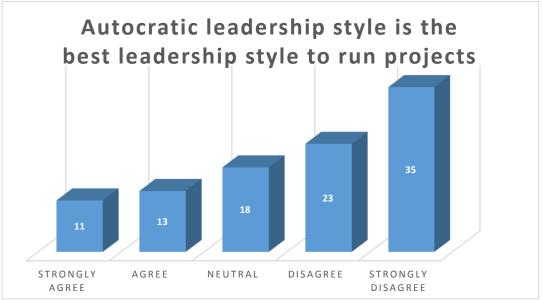


Figure 5. 12: Autocratic leadership style is the best leadership style to run projects

Figure 5.12 reveals that 11% of the participants strongly agree and 13% of the participants agree that the autocratic leadership style is the best leadership style to use when implementing projects. 18% of the participants are neutral on the statement. On the other hand, 23% of the participants disagree and 35% of participants strongly disagree that this is the best leadership style. The majority of the participants disagree with the statement.

5.2.8 Statement 8: Democratic leadership style is the best leadership style to run projects.

This statement aims to determine whether democratic leadership is the most appropriate leadership style to use while implementing projects.

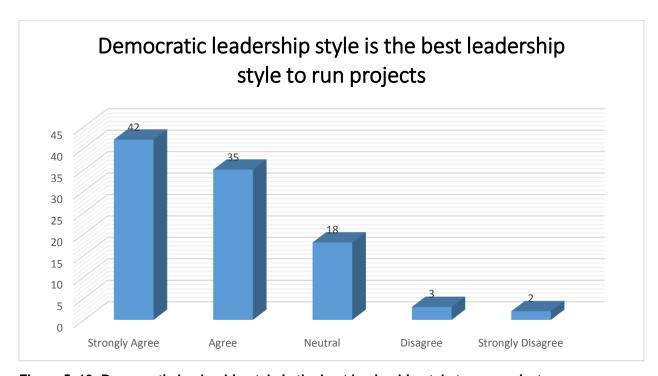


Figure 5. 13: Democratic leadership style is the best leadership style to run projects

Figure 5.13 shows that 42% participants strongly agree and 35% of the participants agree that the democratic leadership style is the best style to employ when implementing projects. As shown in figure 5.13, 18% of the participants are neutral on the statement, 3% of participants disagree and 2% of participants strongly disagree with the democratic leadership style being the best leadership style to use when implementing projects.

5.2.9 Statement 9: Laissez-faire leadership style is the best leadership style to run projects.

This statement aims at revealing the relevance and popularity of laissez-faire as the best leadership style to use when running project.

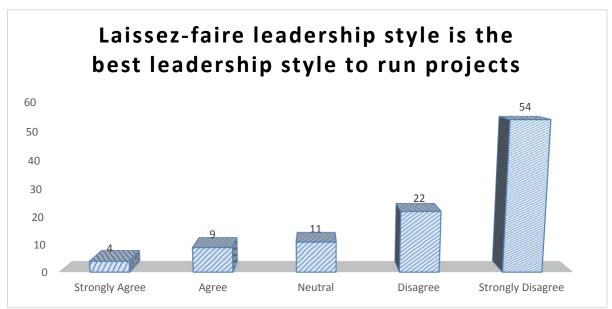


Figure 5. 14: Laissez-Faire leadership style is the best leadership style to run projects

Figure 5.14 reveals that 4% of the participants strongly agree with the statement while 9% of the participants agree with the claim that laissez-faire is the best leadership style for implementing projects. 11% of the participants are neutral on the claim. As illustrated by figure 5.14, 22% of the interviewees disagree, while a significant 54% strongly disagree with the claim that laissez-faire is the best leadership style for implementing projects.

5.2.10 Statement 10: Transactional leadership style is the best leadership style to run projects.

The purpose of this statement is to determine whether transactional leadership is the best style to use when implementing projects.

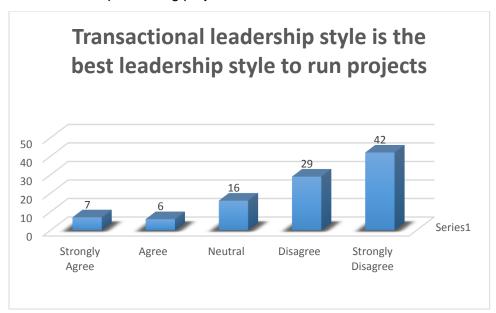


Figure 5. 15: Transactional leadership style is the best leadership style to run projects

Figure 5.14 shows that 7% of participants strongly agree that the transactional leadership style is the best style for running projects and a further 6% agrees that the transactional leadership style is the best style for running projects. As illustrated in figure 5.15, 16% of the participants are neutral on the claim. 29% of participants disagree with the claim that transactional leadership style is the best style for running projects, while 42% strongly disagree with the claim that transactional leadership style is the best style for running projects.

5.2.11 Statement 11: Transformational leadership style is the best leadership style to run projects.

The purpose of this statement is to determine whether or not transformational leadership is the ideal style to use when implementing projects.



Figure 5. 16: Transformational leadership style is the best leadership style to run projects.

Figure 5.15 reveals that 7% strongly believe that transformational leadership is the best leadership style for project management, while 13% agree that transformational leadership is the best leadership style for project management. Of the participants, 5% are neutral on the claim that the transformational leadership style is the best leadership style for running projects. Of the participants, 36% disagree that the transformational leadership style is the best leadership style for running projects while 39% of the participants strongly disagree with the claim that the transformational leadership style is the best leadership style for running projects.

5.2.12 Question 12: List important comments you would like to make about your experience in project teams and project leader personality.

This section aims to explore attitudes that were not captured in the closed-ended questions, thus adding more information to the study. Table 5.1 below shows the responses of the participants. It is important to note that responses with the same meaning were fused and summarised.

Table 5. 1: List important comments you would like to make about your experience in project teams and project leader personality

No.	PARICIPANTS RESPONSES
1	Democratic leadership style is the best, because the leader includes the workers when making
	a decision, so they do not feel left out or like they are just given orders. This also helps workers
	to grow in experience.
2	Project leader personality has an impact on project success. A leader with a good personality
	runs successful projects. Projects do not only fail because of lack of financial resources, they
	also fail because of wrong project leadership. A leader with bad personality leads a badly
	performing team.
3	Leadership is at the center of project success.
4	All leadership styles can be used, depending on circumstances prevailing in that particular
	project.
5	Good project communication results in good and happy project teams. Happy project teams
	deliver successful projects.
6	Project leaders must be willing to attend to every individual in the team. Team members'
	problems must be resolved as they affect project progress
7	A leader has to be patient.
8	A project leader has to be emotionally intelligent.
9	Team members perform reluctantly due to the bad personality of their team leader.
10	Meeting deadlines should be a primary goal in all projects involved. Delivering the best outcome
	and allowing team members to have an input in the process are also important.

The democratic leadership style prevails as the most preferred leadership style by project teams. This is because the majority of the study participants feel that the style is inclusive of everyone in the team and it grooms individuals as it allows them to take decisions. Even though the democratic leadership style is the most preferred, it must be noted that all leadership styles remain useful and they can be implemented depending on situations. The study has proven beyond doubts that the personality of a project team leader has an impact on the project success. Team members perform exceptionally under a conducive environment and under a pleasant, exciting, team

member-oriented and well-behaved leader. A happy project team always goes an extra mile to make sure that the project is successfully implemented without any complaints and they need less convincing. Good communication remains at the center of project implementation. This is because any wrong communication or poor communication can jeopardise the entire project. Project communication must be made in media that accommodate everyone and communication must always happen timeously.

5.3 Section C: Open ended questions

This section is designed with the aim of expanding the discussion with participants, and encouraging respondents to make their own recommendations that they deem relevant on the study. The section acknowledges that there might have been some aspects that might have been omitted on the questionnaire.

5.3.1 Question 1: List 3 project leader traits that you would like project leaders to possess in order to deliver successful projects.

This section seeks to add more leadership traits that the participants feel are important for a leader to possess in order for the leader to run successful projects and lead happy, motivated and effective project teams.

Table 5.2: Ideal leadership traits for the organisation's leaders

No.	PARTICIPANTS RESPONSES
1	Must delegate some of the tasks to the workers, it will make them prove their capabilities and feel good.
2	Visionary
3	Be a good communicator.
4	Time management.
5	Good listener.
6	Humility
7	Good communicator, leader, organisational skills.
8	Democratic, transformational, communication.
9	Leadership skills.
10	Team-building skills.
11	Honesty and integrity.
12	Problem-solving skills.
13	Neutrality during discussions and no favoritism.
14	Trustworthy, accountable, sensitive.
15	Good decision-maker.
16	Technical expertise.
17	Good negotiation skills.
18	Must have stakeholder management skills.
19	Good motivator.
20	High level of competence.
21	Passionate.
22	Critical thinker.
23	Intelligent.
24	Confidence.
25	Empathy. Resilience.

Table 5.3 shows that there are several leadership traits that a project team leader must possess in order to run successful projects. The above-mentioned traits clearly show that some traits can be learnt but some a leader must be born with, perhaps a leader is born a leader.

5.3.2 Question 2: List any three changes or recommendations that you would like to see in your project teams.

All teams always have a room for improvements. This request asks the participants to recommend changes needed in the way projects are currently implemented by the unit.

Table 5.3: Ideal changes to project teams

No.	PARTICIPANTS RESPONSES
1	Good communication in the entire organisation including project teams.
2	Analytic ability.
3	Forecasting ability.
4	Democratic leadership style, sharing responsibilities.
5	Team building programmes.
6	Fairness.
6	Unity.
7	Proactive, positive mindset, goal/vision oriented.
8	Accountability and transparency.
9	Patriotism and high confidence.
10	Autonomy allows teams to produce quality results; it important that top managers allows team to have work
	discretion within the organisations.
11	Management that supports /encourages all employees or team members to formulate innovative ideas.
12	Rewards or motivation for teams who perform beyond expectations.
13	Ethical and professional.
14	Respect.
15	Team work and assistance.
16	Development of individuals.
17	Better attendance of meetings.
18	Sharing of knowledge and rotation of leadership roles.
19	Management ability to quickly deal with bottlenecks.
20	Management and team leader to lead by example.
21	Shared resources.
22	Dedicated teams.
23	Make key people available to projects.
24	Prioritise project objectives.
25	Clearly set project goals and objectives.
26	Prioritise human resource safety.
27	More effective and efficient team support system.
28	Job security.
29	Prior planning.

According to Table 5.3 above, there is a lot that the target project unit has to change. Considering the recommendations made by team members means that the unit is democratic enough to include them. These recommendations are a proof that not everything is perfect in the targeted project unit.

CHAPTER 6: Summary of results, conclusion, recommendations

6.1 Introduction

The main objective of the previous chapters was to give a deep and complex synopsis, learning further about the phenomenon, and meeting the research objectives of the research topic, "The impact of leadership personality on team performance in community projects in a selected district in the Western Cape", and further give answers to the research questions:

Does a team leader's personality have any impact on project success?

What are the different personality traits displayed by leaders in the execution of projects?

What are the leader personality traits portrayed in the execution of the projects?

What are the team expectations in terms of the leadership-followership relation in the execution of projects?

What cultural diversions may affect the leader-team relationship during project execution? In many cases project leader personality is always overlooked and neglected when selecting a project leader

6.2 Summary of Chapters

6.2.1 Chapter 1

The phenomenon was introduced with a synopsis of the entire study and the study's problem statement, and then primary and secondary research objectives, research questions, research design and methodology, data collection methods, and ethical considerations were presented.

6.2.2 Chapter 2

This chapter explored and unpacked personality, personality traits, the Five Factor Model of personality, leadership, leadership theories, leadership styles, and Maslow's Hierarchy.

6.2.3 Chapter 3

In this chapter, the following were discussed: teams, membership, team dynamics, team effectiveness, types of teams, project teams, management teams, team diversity, team models and theories, and team building.

6.2.4 Chapter 4

In this chapter, the research method was discussed, including research design, research methodology, data collection methods, construction of the research instrument and data collection methods.

6.2.5 Chapter 5

This chapter focused only on the raw data collected from the 100 survey participants who participated in the study: data cleaning, data editing, data coding with the use of Microsoft Excel, data capturing from the respondents and data analysis and interpretation.

6.2.6 Chapter 6

In this chapter, results/finding were presented and discussed, and conclusions were drawn from the raw data collected, and recommendations were made.

6.3 Section A - Biography

Since there was a specified research target group, the goal of this questions was to qualify respondents to participate.

6.3.1 Age of Participants

Conclusion The study shows that the Project Management Unit had a large subset of their team being in the age range of 21-30 years with 48% of staff members. This was a very good sign of a succession plan being implemented. The unit had only 7% of staff members who would soon retire due to age restrictions (pension age). The study also showed that the unit was a mix of different age groups as it also had staff that was younger than the age of 20 years.

Recommendation: it may be interesting that a stratified population may be used in future and check on the perceptions according to the age groups. This might helpful in understanding if there is much difference between the age groups, which may be used to in selecting project teams amongst different age groups.

6.3.2 Working Area

The project management unit worked in four areas, namely Area East, Area North, Area South and Area Central. It must be noted that there were staff members who formed part of the technical team and they worked in all the areas to provide technical support. The above question was posed to actually understand in which area a participant works.

Conclusion:

Figure 6.2 shows that Area Central represented 28% of the sample size. Area Central had the lowest number of participants, namely 14%. The diagram also show that the participation was encouraged in all areas and was nearly equally distributed as there was not a significant difference in areas, including the technical team.

Recommendations: it may best help if the sample size can be divided equally amongst all areas then random selection can be done in each area when carrying out any study in the future.

6.2.3 Employment Position

In the targeted project management unit, there were several professions which all worked together to realise the product, which was a project. The unit had project managers, community facilitators, a technical support team and general team members. All these professionals formed the sample of interviewees that took part on the study.

Conclusion All clusters of employees were involved in the study with general team members dominating the study survey participation. The randomisation of the employees yielded excellent results as general team members are always the one who suffered or benefited from the team leader selected.

Recommendations: for future studies, it may be useful if the sample size can be equally divided amongst all available positions in the organisation more especially on position/duty related studies

6.2.4 Question 4: Working Experience

This question seeks to identify the number of years a participant has spent in the targeted project management unit. It is believed that with more experience one tends to know beforehand how to implement projects and what kind of challenges one will face and how to avoid those challenges.

Conclusion: This shows that the unit had a working succession plan that sought to recruit more and new staff members, which assisted in making sure that those who had been in the unit for a long time would have new people to share their skill and experience before they left the unit.

Recommendation: as recommended in previous questions, it may be necessary to break these according to the ages to enable a full understanding of the impact on the way people thinking.

6.2.5 Question 5: What kind of projects are you involved in?

This question seeks to classify the type of projects the staff members are implementing. This is because the targeted project management unit implemented two sets of projects, which are capital projects and operational projects. Not everyone can implement both types of projects because of their technicalities and complexity. Operational projects are entry-level projects, which are less technical, while capital projects are very technical and difficult to implement. For the most experienced it is possible that one can implement both sets of projects.

Conclusion: The targeted project unit mainly focused on operational projects and the majority of employees implemented operational projects. This is because operational projects are of shorter duration and they are easy to implement, as they are less technical.

Recommendation: project implementers must at least be balanced when carrying out a study in the future as implementers of different projects types might have different experiences.

6.4 Section B: Likert scale

The Likert scale is used in this section to measure the perceptions of respondents and personal views against certain statements coming from the research question, problem statement and research objectives. Strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree, and strongly disagree are the responses to the statements on the Likert scale. The following are the statements and diagrams:

Table 6. 1: Perceptions of respondents

1	STATEMENT Team leader's personality has an impact on project success	Strongly agree	Agree 936%	%8%	disagree	Strongly disagree
2	A project team leader must be a good communicator	74%	25%	1%	0%	0%
3	Project team leader must portray good project management skills	83%	17%	0%	0%	0%
4	I am expecting good leadership-followership relationship in the team	32%	53%	12%	2%	1%
5	Cultural diversity affects the team relationship	19%	35%	22%	18%	6%
6	Team building programmes are necessary in a team even if there are no differences amongst team members	43%	39%	13%	3%	2%
7	Autocratic leadership style is the best leadership style to run projects	11%	13%	18%	23%	35%
8	Democratic leadership style is the best leadership style to run projects	42%	35%	18%	3%	2%
9	Laissez-faire leadership style is the best leadership style to run projects	4%	9%	11%	22%	54%
10	Transactional leadership style is the best leadership style to run projects	7%	6%	16%	29%	42%
11	Transformational leadership style is the best leadership style to run projects	7%	13%	5%	36%	39%

STATEMENT 1: Team leader's personality has an impact on project success.

Conclusion: 89% of the respondents agreed with the claim that team leader's personality has an impact on project success.

Recommendations: It is therefore recommended that before the selection of a project leader, the personalities of the potential project leaders must be studied and analysed as this will help optimise the team participation and performance.

STATEMENT 2: A project team leader must be a good communicator.

Conclusion: 99% of the respondents agreed that a project leader must be a good communicator. This therefore makes sense as one of the main pillars of project management is proper and good communication.

Recommendations: It is not only the project team leader who must always practice good communication, even the project team as well. This is advised because bad communication can lead to project failure.

STATEMENT 3: Project team leader must portray good project management skills.

Conclusion: 100% of the survey participants agree that a project team leader must portray good project management skills.

Recommendations: All project implementing and project support teams must undergo project management skills training.

STATEMENT 4: I am expecting a good leadership-followership relationship in the team.

Conclusion: 85% of the respondents agreed with the sentiments, while 12% were neutral because they did not understand what a leadership-followership relationship is.

Recommendations: The team relationship expectations must be shared and relationship must be built through team building programmes.

STATEMENT 5: Cultural diversity affects the team relationship.

Conclusion: 54% of the respondents agreed that cultural diversity affects team relationships, while 22% of the respondents were neutral as they did not understand how cultural diversity affects team relationship. 24% of the survey participants disagreed with the statement that cultural diversity affects team relationship.

Recommendations: Cultural diversity should not even be a matter of consent. South Africa is a rainbow nation, therefore it must be encouraged to have multi-racial and multi-cultural teams. This will then uplift every team member to learn the common language of communication.

STATEMENT 6: Team-building programmes are necessary in a team even if there are no differences amongst team members.

Conclusion: 82% of the participants agreed that team-building programmes are necessary even if the team relation and team performance is good. 13% of respondent were neutral on the claim because they did not see the need of team-building programmes in effectively performing teams.

Recommendations: Team-building programmes must have set dates in the organisation calendar year. They must take place regardless of how good the project team relationship and performance is.

STATEMENT 7: Autocratic leadership style is the best leadership style to run projects.

Conclusion: 58% of the respondents disagreed with the claim that autocratic leadership style is the best leadership style to implement when implementing projects. 24% agreed with the claim. The majority thus concluded that this is not the best style to deploy when implementing projects.

Recommendations: with 18% of the respondents being neutral, employees must be taught about the leadership styles.

STATEMENT 8: Democratic leadership style is the best leadership style to run projects

Conclusion: 77% of the sample agreed that democratic leadership style is the best leadership style to deploy when executing projects.

Recommendations: With 18% of the respondents being neutral, employees must be taught about different leadership styles

STATEMENT 9: Laissez-faire leadership style is the best leadership style to run projects.

Conclusion: The majority (76%) of participants disagreed with the claim. Therefore laissez-faire leadership is not the best style to use when implementing projects in the unit.

Recommendations: With 11% of the respondents being neutral, employees must be taught about the leadership styles

STATEMENT 10: Transactional leadership style is the best leadership style to run projects **Conclusion:** The majority (71%) of the participants disagreed with the claim that transactional leadership is the best leadership style to deploy in project teams and project implementation.

Recommendations: With 16% of the respondents being neutral, employees must be taught about the leadership styles

STATEMENT 11: Transformational leadership style is the best leadership style to run projects.

Conclusion: A majority of 75% disagreed with the claim, therefore transformational leadership style is not the one to use when implementing projects.

Recommendation: The 20% who find transformational leadership style as the best leadership style must be made to understand why the majority is not in favor of this leadership style.

STATEMENT 12: List important comments you would like to make about your experience in project teams and project leader personality.

See Table 5.1 above for the summarised comments.

Conclusion: Democratic leadership style prevailed as the most preferred leadership style by project teams. This is because the majority of the study participants felt that the style was inclusive of everyone in the team and it groomed individuals as it allowed them to take decisions. Even though the democratic leadership style was the most preferred, it must be noted that all leadership styles remain useful and they can be implemented depending on situations. The study has proven beyond doubt that the personality of a project team leader has an impact on project success. Team members perform exceptionally under a conducive environment and under a pleasant, exciting, team member-oriented and well-behaved leader. A happy project team always goes an extra mile to make sure that the project is successfully implemented without any complaints and they need less convincing. Good communication remains at the center of project implementation. This is because any wrong communication or poor communication can jeopardise the entire project. Project communication must be made in media that accommodates everyone and communication must always happen in due time.

Recommendation: The project implementing unit must focus on what makes the employees happy without turning a blind eye to what makes them unhappy. It must always make decisions that are employee-centered. The organisation and unit must always work towards improving what is good. The unit must make it a point that its communication and communication models are inclusive of every employee.

6.5 Section C: Open-ended questions

This section is designed with the intention of expanding the discussion with participants, encouraging respondents to make their own recommendations that they deem relevant on the study. The section acknowledges that there might have been some aspects that might have been omitted on the questionnaire

See Table 5.2 for ideal leadership traits revealed in this study.

STATEMENT 1: List 3 project leader traits that you would like project leaders to possess in order to deliver successful projects.

Conclusion: There are several leadership traits that a project team leader must possess in order to run successful projects. Some traits can be learnt but some a leader must be born with; perhaps leadership is an inborn characteristic.

Recommendation: The unit must train all the employees about leadership traits that can be learnt. This will make it a bit easier to choose a project team leader.

Question 2: List any three changes or recommendations that you would like to see in your project teams.

See Table 5.3 for ideal changes to project teams

Conclusion: There is a lot that the targeted project unit has to change. Considering the recommendations made by team members means that the unit is democratic enough to include them. However, these recommendations indicate that not everything is perfect in the targeted project unit.

7. CONCLUSION

The main objective of considering personality when choosing a project leader is to have a project team leader that every project team member is comfortable working with in order to ultimately yield the desired results with fewer challenges for the team. The study has proven beyond doubt that it is very critical to consider the personality of project team leader candidates. A project team leader with a good personality leads a happy and motivated project team.

Project team leadership is a very broad term that encompasses a vast number of project team leader traits. These traits can be learned through sharing of experience; nonetheless, some traits cannot be learnt, as they are innate. Communication remains at the center of project management, this therefore qualifies good communication skills as the most essential project leadership trait.

Project teams are a ground on which to display good leadership-followership relationships. In project teams, respect must be a practice regardless of the role one plays in the team. Cultural diversity should not even be viewed as a problem in project teams but rather an opportunity to learn different cultural ways of doing things and communicating.

.

8. REFERENCES

Ali, S.A.M., Said, N.A., Abd Kader, S.F., Ab Latif, D.S. and Munap, R., 2014. Hackman and Oldham's job characteristics model to job satisfaction. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 129, pp.46-52.

Ambridge, B., 2014. Psy-Q: You know your IQ-now test your psychological intelligence. Profile Books.

Amos, T., Hellriegel, D., Jackson, E., Klopper, H., Louw, L., Oosthuizen, T., Slocum, J. and Staude, G., 2008. Management. 3rd South African edition. *Cape Town: Oxford University Press Southern Africa*.

Andresen, K. and Gronau, N., 2005, May. An approach to increase adaptability in ERP systems. In *Managing modern organizations with information technology: proceedings of the 2005 Information Resources Management Association international conference, San Diego, Idea Group Publishing, Herschey* (pp. 15-16).

Arnold, K.A. and Connelly, C.E., 2013. Transformational leadership and psychological well-being: Effects on followers and leaders. The Wiley-Blackwell handbook of the psychology of leadership, change, and organizational development, pp.175-194.

Arrow, H., Henry, K. B., Poole, M. S., Wheelan, S. A., and Moreland, R. L. (2005). Traces, trajectories, and timing: The temporal perspective on groups. In M. S. Poole & and A. B. Hollingshead (Eds.). *Theories of small groups: Interdisciplinary perspectives*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage. Pp.313-367.

Arvey, R.D., Rotundo, M., Johnson, W., Zhang, Z. and McGue, M., 2006. The determinants of leadership role occupancy: Genetic and personality factors. *The leadership quarterly*, *17*(1), pp.1-20.

Aubé, C. and Rousseau, V., 2011. Interpersonal aggression and team effectiveness: The mediating role of team goal commitment. *Journal of occupational and organizational psychology*, 84(3), pp.565-580.

Aube, C.aroline and; Rousseau, Vincent (2011). Interpersonal aggression and team effectiveness: The mediating role of team goal commitment. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*. 84: 567.

Aurini, J.D., Heath, M. and Howells, S., 2016. The how to of qualitative research: Strategies for executing high quality projects. Sage.

Babbie, Earl (2014). The Basics of Social Research (6th ed.). Belmont, California: Wadsworth Cengage.

Bartol, K., &and Martin, D.C. (1994). Management (2nd ed.). McGraw-Hill Inc.

Bates, S.B., 2014. Committee Effectiveness in Higher Education: The Strengths and Weaknesses of Group Decision Making. Research in Higher Education Journal, 25.

Bell S. T., Brown S. G., Colaneri A. & and Outland N. (2018). Team composition and the ABCs of teamwork. *Amateur Psychology*, 73(4): 349–362.

Bell, S.T., 2007. Deep-level composition variables as predictors of team performance: a meta-analysis. *Journal of applied psychology*, *92*(3), p.595.

Bradley, B.H., Baur, J.E., Banford, C.G. and Postlethwaite, B.E., 2013. Team players and collective performance: How agreeableness affects team performance over time. *Small Group Research*, *44*(6), pp.680-711.

Bradley, J.H. and Hebert, F.J., 2006. The effect of personality type on team performance. *Journal of Management Development*, 338.

Bush, J.T., LePine, J.A. and Newton, D.W., 2018. Teams in transition: An integrative review and synthesis of research on team task transitions and propositions for future research. *Human Resource Management Review*, *28*(4), pp.423-433.

Bushe, G.R. and Chu, A., 2011. Fluid teams: solutions to the problems of unstable team membership. *Organizational Dynamics*, *40*(3), pp.181-188.

Business Dictionary. *Objectives*. www.businessdictionary.com/definition/objective.html (25 October 2014)

Bycio, P., Hackett, R. D., & Allen, J. S. (1995). Further assessments of Bass's (1985) conceptualisation of transactional and transformational leadership. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 80(4): 468-478.

Cammalleri, J.A., Hendrick, H.W., Pittman Jr, W.C., Blout, H.D. and Prather, D.C., 1973. Effects of different leadership styles on group accuracy. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *57*(1), p.32.

Campion M. A., Medsker G. J., Higgs A. C. (1993). Relations between work group characteristics and effectiveness: implications for designing effective work groups. Personnel Psychology, 46(4): 823–847.

Capretz, L.F. and Ahmed, F., 2010. Why do we need personality diversity in software engineering?. ACM SIGSOFT Software Engineering Notes, 35(2), pp.1-11.

Chamorro-Premuzic, T. and Furnham, A., 2005. Intellectual competence. *The Psychologist*, 18(6), pp.352-354.

Chin, Roger (2015). Examining teamwork and leadership in the fields of public administration, leadership, and management. *Team Performance Management*, 21: 199–216.

Chira, R., 2016. *International Logistics Management*. Bloomington: AuthorHouse.

Corr, P. J. & and Matthews, G. (2009). *The Cambridge handbook of personality psychology*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Cummings, J.N. and Kiesler, S., 2008, November. Who collaborates successfully? Prior experience reduces collaboration barriers in distributed interdisciplinary research. In *Proceedings* of the 2008 ACM conference on Computer supported cooperative work (pp. 437-446).

Day, R.C. and Hamblin, R.L., 1964. Some effects of close and punitive styles of supervision. *American journal of Sociology*, *69*(5), pp.499-510.

Deal, J. E., Halverson, C. F., Havill, V. & Martin, R. (2005). Temperament factors as longitudinal predictors of young adult personality. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly*. 51(3): 315–334.

DiGaetano, R., 2013. Sample frame and related sample design issues for surveys of physicians and physician practices. Evaluation and the health professions, 36(3), pp.296-329.

Dolan, S., 2006. Stress, self-esteem, health and work. Springer.

Draugalis, J.R. and Plaza, C.M., 2009. Best practices for survey research reports revisited: implications of target population, probability sampling, and response rate. American journal of pharmaceutical education, 73(8).

Dwan, T. & and Ownsworth, T. (2019). The Big Five personality factors and psychological well-being following stroke: a systematic review. *Disability and Rehabilitation*, 41(10): 1119–1130.

Dyer, W. G., Dyer, W. G., &and Dyer, J. H. (2007). Team building: Proven strategies for improving team performance. San Francisco: Jossey-Bas.

Edmondson, A.C., Dillon, J.R. and Roloff, K.S., 2007. 6 three perspectives on team learning: outcome improvement, task Mastery, and group process. *Academy of Management annals*, *1*(1), pp.269-314.

Ensor, T. and Cooper, S., 2004. Overcoming barriers to health service access: influencing the demand side. *Health policy and planning*, 19(2), pp.69-79.

Fidan, T. and Balcı, A., 2017. Managing schools as complex adaptive systems: A strategic perspective. *International electronic journal of elementary education*, *10*(1), pp.11-26.

Fisher, B.A., 1970. Decision emergence: Phases in group decision-making. *Communications Monographs*, *37*(1), pp.53-66.

Foster, D. E. (2002). A Method of Comparing Follower Satisfaction with the Authoritarian, Democratic, and Laissez-faire Styles of Leadership. *Communication Teacher*, 16 (2): 4–6.

Foti, R. J. & and Hauenstein, N. M. A. (2007). Pattern and variable approaches in leadership emergence and effectiveness. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92(2): 347–355.

Friedman, H. & and Schustack, M. (2016). *Personality: Classic theories and modern research* (Sixth ed.). Pearson Education Inc.

Gershenoff, A. G. & and Foti, R. J. (2003). Leader emergence and gender roles in all-female groups: A contextual examination. *Small Group Research*. 34 (2): 170–196.

Gersick, C. J. G. (1988). Time and transition in work teams: Toward a new model of group development. *The Academy of Management Journal*, 31 (1), 9-41.

Gersick, C. J. G. (1989). Marking time: Predictable transitions in task groups. *The Academy of Management Journal*, 32 (2), 274–309.

Gersick, C. J. G. (1991). Revolutionary change theories: A multilevel exploration of the punctuated equilibrium paradigm. *The Academy of Management Review*, 16 (1), 10–36.

Gersick, C.J., 1991. Revolutionary change theories: A multilevel exploration of the punctuated equilibrium paradigm. *Academy of management review*, *16*(1), pp.10-36.

Given, Lisa M. (2008). *The SAGE Encyclopedia of Qualitative Research Methods*. Los Angeles: SAGE Publications.

Guchait, P., Hamilton, K. & And Hua, N. (2014). Personality predictors of team taskwork, understanding and transactive memory systems in service management teams. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 26 (3): 401–425.

Hackman, J. R. (2003). Learning more by crossing levels: evidence from airplanes, hospitals, and orchestras. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour*, 24, 905–922.

Hackman, J. R. (2003). Learning more by crossing levels: evidence from airplanes, hospitals, and orchestras. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 24, 905–922.

Hackman, M. Z., &and Johnson, C. E. (2009). *Leadership: A communication perspective* (5th ed.). Long Grove, IL, Waveland Press.

Halebian, J., & and Finkelstein, S. (1993). Top management team size, CEO dominance, and firm performance: The moderating roles of environmental turbulence and discretion. *Academy of Management Journal*, 36 (4): 844–863.

Half, R., 2018. Does job hopping help or hurt your career.

Halvorsen, Kristin (2013). Team decision making in the workplace: A systematic review of discourse analytic studies. Journal of Applied Linguistics and Professional Practice. 7(1): 273–296.

Hare, A.P., 2003. Roles, relationships, and groups in organizations: Some conclusions and recommendations. *Small group research*, *34*(2), pp.123-154.

Hoegl, M. & and Gemuenden H.G. (2001). Teamwork quality and the success of innovative projects: A theoretical concept and empirical evidence. *Organization Science*, 12 (4): 435–449.

Hollander E.P.2009. *Inclusive Leadership: The essential leader follower relationship.* New York: Routledge

Homan, Astrid C., and Lindred L. Greer. "Considering diversity: The positive effects of considerate leadership in diverse teams." *Group Processes & and Intergroup Relations* 16, no. 1 (2013): 105-125.

Howell, J.M., &and Avolio, B.J. (1993). Transformational leadership, transactional leadership, locus of control, and support for innovation: Key predictors of consolidated-business-unit performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78(6), 891-902.

Hu, J. and Liden, R.C., 2011. Antecedents of team potency and team effectiveness: An examination of goal and process clarity and servant leadership. *Journal of Applied psychology*, 96(4), p.851.

Irving, J.A. and Longbotham, G.J., 2007. Team effectiveness and six essential servant leadership themes: A regression model based on items in the organizational leadership assessment. *International Journal of Leadership Studies*, *2*(2), pp.98-113.

Ivankova, N. and Wingo, N., 2018. Applying mixed methods in action research: Methodological potentials and advantages. American Behavioral Scientist, 62(7), pp.978-997.

Jain, N. (2009). Run marathons, not sprints. In Davis, B. (ed.). 97 Things every project manager should know: Collective wisdom from the experts. O'Reilly Media, Inc. p. 96.

Jeronimus B.F., Ormel J., Aleman A., Penninx B.W., Riese H. (November 2013). Negative and positive life events are associated with small but lasting change in neuroticism. *Psychological Medicine*, 43 (11): 2403–2415.

Jeronimus B.F., Riese H., Sanderman R. & Ormel J. (2014). Mutual reinforcement between neuroticism and life experiences: A five-wave, 16-year study to test reciprocal causation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 107 (4): 751–764).

Jowah L.E. 2011. Research methodology. 1st edition. Jowah Book Publishers. 83-114.

Judge, T.A., Bono, J.E., Ilies, R. & Gerhardt, M. W. (2002). Personality and leadership: A qualitative and quantitative review. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87 (4): 765–780.

Katzenbach, J.R. and Smith, D.K., 2015. *The wisdom of teams: Creating the high-performance organization*. Harvard Business Review Press.

Kenny, D.A. & and Zaccaro, S.J. (1983). An estimate of variance due to traits in leadership. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 68 (4): 678–685.

Klein, H.J. and Mulvey, P.W., 1995. Two investigations of the relationships among group goals, goal commitment, cohesion, and performance. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *61*(1), pp.44-53.

Kozlowski, Steve W.J. & and Ilgen, Daniel R. (December 2006). Enhancing the effectiveness of work groups and teams. *Psychological Science in the Public Interest*, 7 (3): 77–124.

Lance, P.M. and Hattori, A., 2016. Sampling and evaluation, a guide to sampling for program impact evaluation. *Chapel Hill, North Carolina: MEASURE Evaluation, University of North Carolina.*

Landrum, S., 2017. Millennials aren't afraid to change jobs, and here's why. Forbes.

Laney, M.O. (2002). The Introvert Advantage. Markham: Thomas Allen & and Son Limited.

Lapoint, P.A. and Haggard, C.R., 2013. Design Prototypes Inc. project management (a): Selection of the project team. *Journal of the International Academy for Case Studies*, *19*(5), p.95.

Larson E.W. & and Gray C.F. 2011. *Project Management: The managerial process*. 5th edition. New York: McGraw-Hill Higher Education

Larson, R. and Csikszentmihalyi, M., 2014. The experience sampling method. In Flow and the foundations of positive psychology (pp. 21-34). Springer, Dordrecht.

Lencioni, P (2011). The four traits of healthy teams. IESE Business School. [Online video]. Available: https://www.catcat.com/student/activity/334449-patrick-lencioni-the-four-traits-of-healthy-teams, 24 November 2020.

LePine, J.A., Ronald F., Piccolo, R.F., Jackson, C.L., Mathieu, J.E. and Saul, J.R. (2008). A metaanalysis of teamwork processes: Tests of a Multidimensional Model and Relationships with Team Effectiveness criteria. *Personnel Psychology*. 61(2): 273–307.

Lewin, K., Lippitt, R. & White, R. K. (1939). Patterns of aggressive behaviour in experimentally created social climates. *Journal of Social Psychology*, 10 (2): 271–301.

Lewis, K., Belliveau, M., Herndon, B. and Keller, J., 2007. Group cognition, membership change, and performance: Investigating the benefits and detriments of collective knowledge. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *103*(2), pp.159-178.

Ley, R., 1966. Labor turnover as a function of worker differences, work environment, and authoritarianism of foremen. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *50*(6), p.497.

Littlejohn, Stephen W., and Karen A. Foss. *Theories of human communication*. Waveland press, 2010.

Locke, E. A., &and Latham, G. P. (2002). Building a practically useful theory of goal setting and task motivation: A 35-year odyssey. *American Psychologist*, 57 (9): 705–717.

Lord, R.G., De Vader, C.L. & And Alliger, G. M. (1986). A meta-analysis of the relation between personality traits and leader perceptions: An application of validity generalization procedures. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71 (3): 402–410.

Luthans, F. (2005). Organizational Behaviour (10thed.). McGraw-Hill/Irwin Publications.

Macy, B.A. and Izumi, H., 1993. Organizational change, design, and work innovation: a meta-analysis of 131 North American field studies—1961–1991. Research in organizational change and development, 7(1993), pp.235-313.

Magnusson, D. (1995). Holistic interactionism: A perspective for research on personality development. In L. A. Pervin & O. P. John (Eds.), Handbook of personality: Theory and research (pp. 219–247). New York: Guilford Press.

Manges, K., Scott-Cawiezell, J., Ward. 2016. Maximizing team performance: The critical role of the nurse leader. *Nursing Forum*, 52 (1): 21–29.

Mann, R. D. (1959). A review of the relationship between personality and performance in small groups. *Psychological Bulletin*, 56 (4): 241–270.

Marks, M.A., Mathieu, J.E. and Zaccaro, S.J., 2001. A temporally based framework and taxonomy of team processes. *Academy of management review*, *26*(3), pp.356-376.

Martindale, N. (2011). Leadership Styles: How to handle the different personas. *Strategic Communication Management*, 15 (8): 32–35.

Maslow, A.H., 1943. A theory of human motivation. *Psychological review*, 50(4), p.370.

Maslow, A.H., 1943. A theory of human motivation. *Psychological review*, *50*(4), p.370.

Mathieu, J. (2008). Team effectiveness 1997-2007: A review of recent advancements and a glimpse into the future. *Journal of Management*, 34 (3): 410–476.

Mathieu, J.E., Hollenbeck, J.R., van Knippenberg, D. and Ilgen, D.R., 2017. A century of work teams in the Journal of Applied Psychology. *Journal of applied psychology*, *102*(3), p.452-467.

Mathieu, J.E., Tannenbaum, S.I., Donsbach, J.S. and Alliger, G.M., 2014. A review and integration of team composition models: Moving toward a dynamic and temporal framework. *Journal of management*, 40(1), pp.130-160.

Maznevski, M.L. and Chui, C., 2013. Leading global teams. In *Global Leadership 2e* (pp. 153-174). Routledge.

McGrath, J.E. (1991). Time, interaction, and performance (TIP): A theory of groups. *Small Group Research*, 22 (2), 147–174.

McGrath, J.E., 1981. Dilemmatics: The study of research choices and dilemmas. *American Behavioral Scientist*, 25(2), pp.179-210.

McGrath, J.E., 1991. Time, interaction, and performance (TIP) A Theory of Groups. *Small group research*, 22(2), pp.147-174.

McMahon, S.R. and Ford, C.M., 2013. Heuristic transfer in the relationship between leadership and employee creativity. *Journal of Leadership & and Organizational Studies*, 20(1), pp.69-83.

Menz, M. 2012. Functional top management team members: A Review, Synthesis, and Research agenda. *Journal of Management*, 38(1), 45-80.

Meyers, M.K., Riccucci, N.M. and Lurie, I., 2001. Achieving goal congruencein complex environments: The case of welfare reform. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory*, 11(2), pp.165-202.

Milheim, K.L., 2012. Towards a better experience: Examining student needs in the online classroom through Maslow's hierarchy of needs model. *Journal of online learning and teaching*, 8(2), p.159.

Mondy, R.W., &and Premeaux, S.R. (1995). *Management* (7th ed.). Englewood-Cliffs-New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Morgan, B.B., Salas, E., &and Glickman, A. S. (1994). An analysis of team evolution and maturation. *The Journal of General Psychology*, 120 (3): 277–291.

Morgeson, F.P., Reider, M.H. and Campion, M.A., 2005. Selecting individuals in team settings: The importance of social skills, personality characteristics, and teamwork knowledge. *Personnel psychology*, *58*(3), pp.583-611.

Mumford, M.D., Zaccaro, S.J., Harding, F.D., Jacobs, T.O. and Fleishman, E.A., 2000. Leadership skills for a changing world: Solving complex social problems. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *11*(1), pp.11-35.

Norris C.J., Larsen J.T. & Cacioppo J.T (2007). Neuroticism is associated with larger and more prolonged electrodermal responses to emotionally evocative pictures. *Psychophysiology*, 44 (5): 823–826).

O'Leary M. B., Woolley A. W., Mortensen M. (2011). Multiteam membership in relation to multiteam systems. In Zaccaro S. J., Marks M. A., DeChurch L. A. (eds.). *Multiteam systems: An introduction*. New York, NY: Routledge; 141–172.

Odumeru, J.A. & and Ogbonna, I.G. (2013). Transformational vs. transactional leadership theories: Evidence in literature. *International Review of Management and Business Research*, 2 (2): 355–361.

Oertig, M. and Buergi, T., 2006. The challenges of managing cross-cultural virtual project teams. *Team Performance Management: An International Journal*.

O'Neill, T.A. and Kline, T.J., 2008. Personality as a predictor of teamwork: A business simulator study. *North American Journal of Psychology*, *10*(1).

Pajares, F., 2006. Self-efficacy during childhood and adolescence. Self-efficacy beliefs of adolescents, 5, pp.339-367.

Pane, M.M., Siregar, C., Ruman, Y.S. and Rumeser, J.A., 2018, May. The Application of the Lencioni Model in Online Learning: A Case Study in Higher Education. In *Proceedings of the 2018 International Conference on Distance Education and Learning* (pp. 49-53).

Peck, R., Olsen, C. & Devore, J. (2008) *Introduction to statistics and data analysis* (3rd ed.). Belmont, CA: Thomson Brooks/Cole.

Perkins, D.N. and Salomon, G., 1989. Are cognitive skills context-bound? Educational researcher, 18(1), pp.16-25.

Pollack, J. and Matous, P., 2019. Testing the impact of targeted team building on project team communication using social network analysis. *International Journal of Project Management*, 37(3), pp.473-484.

Poole, M.S., & and Van de Ven, A.H. (2004). Central issues in the study of change and innovation. In Poole, M. S. & and A. H. Van de Ven (Eds.). *Handbook of organizational change and innovation* (pp. 3–31). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Poropat, A.E., 2009. A meta-analysis of the five-factor model of personality and academic performance. *Psychological bulletin*, 135(2), p.322.

Poston, B., 2009. Maslow's hierarchy of needs. *The surgical technologist*, 41(8), pp.347-353.

Propp, K.M., Apker, J., Zabava Ford, W.S., Wallace, N., Serbenski, M. and Hofmeister, N., 2010. Meeting the complex needs of the health care team: Identification of nurse—team communication practices perceived to enhance patient outcomes. *Qualitative Health Research*, 20(1), pp.15-28.

Ramsden, P., 1998. Managing the effective university. *Higher education research & and development*, 17(3), pp.347-370.

Robbins, S.P., Judge, T.A. & Sand Sanghi, S. (2007). *Organizational Behaviour*. (12th ed.). Upper Saddle River: Pearson, Prentice Hall. 475

Roberts, B. W., Wood, D., &and Caspi, A. (2010). The development of personality traits in adulthood. In John, O.P., R.W. Robins, &and L.A. Pervi (Eds.). *Handbook of personality: theory and research* (3rd ed), pp. 375-398. New York, NY: Guilford Press.

Rothmann, S. and Coetzer, E.P., 2003. The big five personality dimensions and job performance. SA Journal of Industrial Psychology, 29(1), pp.68-74.

Rousseau, V. and Aubé, C., 2014. The reward–performance relationship in work teams: The role of leader behaviors and team commitment. *Group Processes & and Intergroup Relations*, 17(5), pp.645-662.

Rudin, S.A., 1964. Leadership as psychophysiological activation of group members: A case experimental study. *Psychological Reports*, *15*(2), pp.577-578.

Saavedra, R., Earley, P.C. and Van Dyne, L., 1993. Complex interdependence in task-performing groups. *Journal of applied psychology*, 78(1), p.61.

Sage, A.P. & and Rouse, W.B (2009). *Handbook of systems engineering and management* (2 ed.). Hoboken, New Jersey: John Wiley & and Sons.

Salas E., Stagl K. C., Burke C. S., Goodwin G. F. (2007). Fostering team effectiveness in organizations: toward an integrative theoretical framework of team performance. In Dienstbier R. A., Shuart J.W., Spaulding W., Poland J. (eds). *Modeling complex systems: Motivation, cognition and social processes*. Lincoln, NE: University of Nebraska Press, 185–243.

Salas, E., Cooke, N.J. and Rosen, M.A., 2008. On teams, teamwork, and team performance: Discoveries and developments. *Human factors*, *50*(3), pp.540-547.

Salas, E., Diazgranados, D., Klein, C., Burke, C. S., Stagl, K. C., Goodwin, G. F., &and Halpin, S. M. (2008). Does team training improve team performance? A meta-analysis. *Human Factors*, 50 (6): 903–933.

Salas, E., Priest, H.A. & DeRouin, R.E. (2004). Team Building. In Stanton, N.A., Hedge, A., Brookhuis, K., Salas, E. & and Hendrick, H.W. (eds.). *Handbook of human factors and ergonomics methods*. CRC Press, 465–470.

Salas, E., Priest, H.A., & De Rouin, R. E. (2005). Team building. In N. Stanton, H. Hendrick, S. Konz, K. Parsons, & E. Salas (Eds.) *Handbook of human factors and ergonomics methods*. London: Taylor & Francis, 1-48.

Salas, E., Shuffler, M.L., Thayer, A.L., Bedwell, W.L. and Lazzara, E.H., 2015. Understanding and improving teamwork in organizations: A scientifically based practical guide. *Human resource management*, *54*(4), pp.599-622.

Salas. E., DiazGranados D. & Shuffler M. L. (2011). There's a science for that: Team development interventions in organizations. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 20 (6): 365–372.

Salin, D. & and Helge, H. (2010). Organizational causes of workplace bullying, bullying and harassment in the workplace: developments in theory, research, and practice. CRC Press.

Sanborn, L.O. & Huszczo, G.E. (2007). *Encyclopedia of Industrial and Organizational Psychology*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.

Savage, G.T., Nix, T.W., Whitehead, C.J. and Blair, J.D., 1991. Strategies for assessing and managing organizational stakeholders. *Academy of management perspectives*, *5*(2), pp.61-75.

Schermerhorn, J.R., Hunt, J., Osborn, R. and Passmore, J., 2006. *Organizational behaviour*. Langara College.

Schlenkrich, L. and Upfold, C., 2009. A guideline for virtual team managers: The key to effective social interaction and communication. *Electronic Journal of Information Systems Evaluation*, *12*(1), pp.pp109-118.

Scouller, J. (2011). The three levels of leadership: How to develop your leadership presence, know-how and skill. Cirencester: Management Books 2000.

Shaw, M.E., 1955. A comparison of two types of leadership in various communication nets. *The Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, *50*(1), p.127-134.

Shea G.P. & and Guzzo R. A. (1987). Groups as human resources, in Rowland K. M. & and Ferris G. R. (eds.). Research in personnel and human resources management Vol. (Greenwich, CT: JAI Press, 323–356.

Smith, G., 2001. Group development: A review of the literature and a commentary on future research directions. *Group Facilitation*, *3*(Spring), pp.14-45.

Snowden, D.J. and Boone, M.E., 2007. A leader's framework for decision making. *Harvard business review*, 85(11), p.68.

Sohmen, V.S., 2013. Leadership and teamwork: Two sides of the same coin. *Journal of IT and Economic Development*, *4*(2), pp.1-18.

Somech, A. and Khalaili, A., 2014. Team boundary activity: Its mediating role in the relationship between structural conditions and team innovation. *Group & and Organization Management*, 39(3), pp.274-299.

Somech, A., 2008. Managing conflict in school teams: The impact of task and goal interdependence on conflict management and team effectiveness. *Educational administration quarterly*, *44*(3), pp.359-390.

Stogdill, R.M., 1948. Personal factors associated with leadership: A survey of the literature. *The Journal of psychology*, *25*(1), pp.35-71.

Stokols, D., Misra, S., Moser, R.P., Hall, K.L. and Taylor, B.K., 2008. The ecology of team science: understanding contextual influences on transdisciplinary collaboration. *American journal of preventive medicine*, *35*(2), pp.S96-S115.

Tannenbaum, S.I., Mathieu, J.E., Salas, E. and Cohen, D., 2012. Teams are changing: Are research and practice evolving fast enough?. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, *5*(1), pp.2-24.

Tenzer, H. and Pudelko, M., 2017. The influence of language differences on power dynamics in multinational teams. *Journal of World Business*, *52*(1), pp.45-61.

Thompson L. (2008). Making the team: a guide for managers (3rd ed.). Pearson/Prentice Hall.

Tobi, H. and Kampen, J.K., 2018. Research design: the methodology for interdisciplinary research framework. Quality and quantity, 52(3), pp.1209-1225.

Toegel, G. and Barsoux, J.L., 2012. How to become a better leader. *MIT Sloan Management Review*, *53*(3), pp.51-60.

Tubbs, S.L., 2007. A systems approach to small group interaction, 9th ed. New York: McGraw Hill.

van de Brake, H.J., Walter, F., Rink, F.A., Essens, P.J. and van der Vegt, G.S., 2018. The dynamic relationship between multiple team membership and individual job performance in knowledge-intensive work. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *39*(9), pp.1219-1231.

Van der Vegt, G.S., Emans, B.J. and Van De Vliert, E., 2001. Patterns of interdependence in work teams: A two-level investigation of the relations with job and team satisfaction. *Personnel Psychology*, *54*(1), pp.51-69.

Van Knippenberg, D. and Schippers, M.C., 2007. Work group diversity. *Annu. Rev. Psychol.*, *58*, pp.515-541.

Vroom, V.H. and Mann, F.C., 1960. Leader authoritarianism and employee attitudes. *Personnel psychology*.

Wageman, R., Hackman, J.R. and Lehman, E., 2005. Team diagnostic survey: Development of an instrument. *The journal of applied behavioral science*, *41*(4), pp.373-398.

Way, L., 2016. The authoritarian threat: Weaknesses of autocracy promotion. *Journal of Democracy*, 27(1), pp.64-75.

Weiss, M. and Hoegl, M., 2015. The history of teamwork's societal diffusion: A multi-method review. *Small Group Research*, 46(6), pp.589-622.

West, M. (2012). *Effective teamwork: Practical lessons from organizational research* (3rd ed.). Oxford: Blackwell Publishing.

Wheelan, S., Davidson, B., &and Tilin, F. (2003). Group development across time: Reality or illusion? *Small Group Research*, 34 (2): 223–245.

Wheelan, S.A. and Hochberger, J.M., 1996. Validation studies of the group development questionnaire. *Small group research*, *27*(1), pp.143-170.

Wheelan, S.A., Davidson, B. and Tilin, F., 2003. Group development across time: Reality or illusion?. *Small group research*, *34*(2), pp.223-245.

Williams, H.W., 2008. Characteristics that distinguish outstanding urban principals: Emotional intelligence, social intelligence and environmental adaptation. *Journal of Management Development*.

Woods, A. P. (2010). Democratic leadership: Drawing distinctions with distributed leadership. *International Journal of Leadership in Education*, 7 (1): 3–36.

Yang L.R, Huang, C.F and Wu, K. 2011. The Association among Project Manager's Leadership Style, Teamwork and Project Success. International Journal of Project Management, 29(3): 258-267.

Zaccaro, S. J., Gulick, L. M. V. & And Khare, V. P. (2008). Personality and leadership. In C. J. Hoyt, G. R. Goethals & And D. R. Forsyth (Eds.), *Leadership at the crossroads (Vol 1)*, 13–29).

Zaccaro, S.J., 2007. Trait-based perspectives of leadership. American psychologist, 62(1), p.6.

Zaccaro, S.J., 2007. Trait-based perspectives of leadership. American psychologist, 62(1), p.6.

Zaccaro, S.J., 2007. Trait-based perspectives of leadership. American psychologist, 62(1), p.6.

Zubkoff, L., Neily, J. & and Mills, P.D., 2019. How to do a virtual breakthrough series collaborative. *Journal of medical systems*, 43(2), p.27.

9. APPENDICES

9.1 APPENDIX A: Questionnaire

TITLE: The impact of leadership personality on team performance in community projects in a selected district in the Western Cape.

HYPOTHESIS: A team leader with a positive and good personality will always attain project success as the project team is highly motivated by the leader and stakeholders will feel free to support the project.

RESEARCH QUESTION: Does a team leader's personality have any impact on project success?

Please note that this is an academic study, also note that the information you will provide won't be given to any other entity or authorities. Please do not give any hint of your identity when answering the questionnaire. Please answer by ticking /(X) the boxes and yes or no where appropriate and comment where needed.

SECTION A BIOGRAPHY

1. How old are you?

	,				
Less than	21-30	31-40	41-50	51+	
20					

2. Which area do you work under?

East	North	South	Central	All	
				areas	

3. What is your employment position in the organisation?

Project	Community	Technical Support	Team	
Manager	Facilitator	member	member	

4. How long have you been working for the organisation

Less than 1	1-3	4-6	7-9 years	10+	
year	years	years		years	

5. What type of projects are you involved in?

Operational	Capital	Other
Projects	Projects	

	SECTION B LIKERT : CONFLICT SITUATIONS					
leas	e select your answer by putting X in the appropriate box.					
		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
	Leader personality and Teams					
1.	Team leader's personality has an impact on project success					
2.	A project team leader must be a good communicator					
3.	Project team leader must portray good project management skills					
4.	I am expecting good leadership-followership relationship in the team.					
5.	Cultural diversity affects the team relationship					
7	Teambuilding programs are a must in a team even if there are no differences amongst team members					
	Leadership Styles					
8	Autocratic leadership style is the best leadership style to run projects					
9	Democratic leadership style is the best leadership style to run projects					
10	Laissez-Faire leadership style is the best leadership style to run projects					
11	Transactional Leadership Style is the best leadership style to run projects					
12	Transformational Leadership Style is the best leadership style to run projects					
	style to run projects nportant comments you would like to make about your exp s and project leader personality.		nce	in p	oroje 	ect

4
5
SECTION C Personal Additions
reisonal Additions
List 3 project leader traits that you would like project leaders to possess in order to deliver successful projects 1
2
3
List any 3 changes or recommendations that you would like to see in your project teams. 1
2
3

Thank you for participating in the study. Please be reminded that the information you have given will not be shared with any entity.

THANK YOU

9.2 APPENDIX B: Ethical clearance certificate



P.O. Box 1906 • Beliville 7535 South Africa •Tel: •27 21 4603291 • Email: fbmsethics@cput.ac.za Symphony Road Beliville 7535

Office of the Chairperson Research Ethics Committee	FACULTY: BUSINESS AND MANAGEMENT SCIENCES
--	---

The Faculty's Research Ethics Committee (FREC) on 20 October 2020, ethics Approval was granted to Siyasamnkela Vutula (212216058) for a research activity M Tech: Business Administration in Project Management at Cape Peninsula University of Technology.

The impact of leadership personality on team performance in community projects in a selected district in the Western Cape

Lead Supervisor (s): Dr E L Jowah

Comments:

Decision: APPROVED

3 November 2020
Signed: Chairperson: Research Ethics Committee Date

9.3 APPENDIX D: Plagiarism report

The impact of leadership personality on team performance in community projects in a selected district in the Western Cape

ORIGIN	ALITY REPORT	
	3% 15% 7% 16% ARITY INDEX INTERNET SOURCES PUBLICATIONS STUDENT PAI	PERS
PRIMAR	Y SOURCES	
1	en.wikipedia.org	5%
2	www.frontiersin.org	2%
3	www.eiilmuniversity.ac.in	1 %
4	Submitted to Asia Pacific University College of Technology and Innovation (UCTI)	1%
5	Submitted to University of Reading Student Paper	1%
6	Submitted to American Public University System Student Paper	1%
7	www.wrike.com Internet Source	1 %
8	Submitted to Coventry University Student Paper	1%

9	Submitted to Westcliff University Student Paper	1%
10	Submitted to University of KwaZulu-Natal Student Paper	<1%
11	Lauren E. Benishek, Elizabeth H. Lazzara. "Teams in a New Era: Some Considerations and Implications", Frontiers in Psychology, 2019 Publication	<1%
12	wikimili.com Internet Source	<1%
13	Submitted to International Islamic University Malaysia Student Paper	<1%
14	Submitted to Universiti Tenaga Nasional Student Paper	<1%
15	Submitted to Southern Business School Student Paper	<1%
16	etd.cput.ac.za Internet Source	<1%
17	Submitted to Napier University Student Paper	<1%
18	howieswebs.ipage.com Internet Source	<1%

Submitted to 2702

19	Student Paper	<1%
20	Ismail Hussein Amzat, Habibat Abubakar Yusuf. "chapter 9 Leadership Style and School Culture as Perceived by Teachers in Malaysian Northern State Schools", IGI Global, 2019	<1%
21	Submitted to Corinthian Colleges Student Paper	<1%
22	Submitted to British University in Egypt Student Paper	<1%
23	Submitted to Leyton Sixth Form College, London Student Paper	<1%
24	Submitted to Mount Kenya University Student Paper	<1%
25	Putifatma Hanum Melati, Nor Diana Mohd Mahudin, Nazariah Shari'e Janon. "Chapter 5 Factors Influencing the Implementation of Islamic Work Ethics in Banks: A Qualitative Study", Springer Science and Business Media LLC, 2018	<1%
26	en.m.wikipedia.org	<1%
27	Submitted to University of Wales Swansea	

	Student Paper	<1%
28	Submitted to Intercollege Student Paper	<1%
29	Submitted to Polytechnic Institute Australia Student Paper	<1%
30	Submitted to University of Wales Institute, Cardiff Student Paper	<1%
31	Submitted to University of Rwanda Student Paper	<1%
32	Segun Oluwaseun OLABODE, Akeem Abayomi BAKARE, Wowo IHEONUNEKWU. "LEADERSHIP STYLE AND EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE IN NIGERIAN OIL AND GAS SECTOR", LASU Journal of Employment Relations & Human Resource Management, 2018	<1%
33	Submitted to University of Bolton Student Paper	<1%
34	secretstotheirsuccess.com Internet Source	<1%
35	Submitted to AUT University Student Paper	<1%
36	Submitted to EDMC Student Paper	

9.4 APPENDIX D: Proofreading certificate

Ken Barris, PhD

Editing and research writing services

18 Doris Road, Claremont 7708, Cape Town, South Africa <u>ken.barris@gmail.com</u> +27(0)829289038

26 August 2021

To whom it may concern

This is to certify that I have proofread the following thesis by Mr Siyasamnkele Vutula (student number 212216058) titled 'The impact of leadership personality on team performance in community projects in a selected district in the Western Cape.'

Kindly note that this attends to English language usage only, and does not cover content.

Best regards

Ken Bernin

KEN BARRIS