In the Eye of the Beholder: Generational and Gender Differences in the Assessment of Leadership

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Abstract

This study analyzed age and gender differences in followers' implicit assumptions of what constitutes outstanding leadership. Among the findings were that female participants believed that charismatic and participative leadership were more important to being an outstanding leader than did male participants. Males participant, were more tolerant of self-protective leadership than females. Participants who were Baby Boomers preferred more participative leadership than participants who were members of Generation X. Generation X participants were more willing to embrace self-protective leadership than Baby Boomers.

1 Introduction

When conducting research in the field of leadership many options exist. Some researchers, for example, perform focus group interviews or case studies. The information garnered in these types of studies is very rich. However, typically these types of studies are conducted with small samples, which limit the ability to generalize their results. Additionally, even with methods of triangulation, these types of studies tend to lack something equivalent to an alpha level for establishing significance. They are primarily very rich, but descriptive information.

Many quantitative leadership studies tend to use the survey method. Generally, these types of studies fall into one of three designs. In *Leader-Only* types of studies, researchers ask leaders to complete self-assessments of how they lead. Demographic comparisons are often made, such as self-assessed leadership styles of women versus men. Leaders might also take a second instrument such as a personality assessment to assess the relationship between the constructs measured. For example, a researcher might explore relationships between leaders' personality scores and self-assessed leadership scores.

Leader-Only types of studies suffer from the problem of leader self-perception. Any working adult has encountered at least one leader who was a megalomaniac. The followers of that particular leader likely believed she/he was a very poor leader. Yet, the leader's inflated sense of self would result in that leader completing a self-assessment that would indicate she/he was an extraordinary leader. To some degree, the law of large numbers eventually accounts for some of this self-assessment bias, but it will still be present in leader-only types of studies.

In an *Other-Than-Leader* type of study, some combination of stakeholders assesses how the leader leads. Often these raters are the leader's followers, but they can also be peers, the leader's own boss or some other stakeholder group. This type of assessment provides a more realistic assessment of how the leader actually leads than does a leader-only study. One challenge to an other-than-leader study, however, is co-variation. While not absolute, in a large percentage of these types of studies follower independent variables such as age, experience and education often co-vary with the leader.

For example, a 60-year-old leader who holds a masters degree and has been leading for 20 years "typically" is at an elevated level of an organization, compared to a leader who is 22, holds a bachelors degree and who is in her/his first year as a leader. More times than not, the followers who work directly for the 20-year veteran are also likely to have many years of leadership experience, advanced education and so forth. Conversely, the followers of the younger, new leader, more than likely hold educational credentials of college or less and have more than likely had limited leadership experiences themselves. These co-variations between leader and follower demographics can be, to some degree, controlled for statistically, but a large number of other-than- leader types of studies do not report the results of the many spurious follower variables that might influence ratings of the leader.

A third type of study is often called *Implicit Leadership*. In this type of study, no "actual" leader is rated. Rather, the concept of desired or outstanding *leadership* is measured. In these types of studies, participants complete a survey concerning their prototypes of what constitutes outstanding leadership. There may be a second instrument, such as personality, as well, in order to examine associations between the second construct and participants' implicit views of what constitutes outstanding leadership, or the leadership scores obtained may be analyzed for participant demographics.

To date, the largest study of implicit leadership was the GLOBE Research Project (House, 2004). This study surveyed over 17,000 participants from 62 countries/societies about what contributed to the participants' concepts of outstanding leadership.

The primary focus of the GLOBE study was to analyze how cultural preferences predicted leadership preferences. While the study added significantly to the body of literature related to implicit leadership, the study did not report how participants' gender and education moderated their views of leadership. The present study builds upon the findings of the GLOBE study by analyzing how participant variables of gender and age impact implicit leadership views.

2   Previous Studies

2.1   Gender and Leadership, Work Related Attitudes and Behaviors

Table 1. Meta-analytic literature related to gender

Variable	Higher Group	k	N	Effect
Ethical Views				
Care Orientation in Moral Reasoning [b]	Females	160		-.28
Justice Orientation in Moral Reasoning [b]	Males	95		.19
Moral Sensitivity [e]	Females	19	4,000	.25
Emotions				
Forgiveness [a]	Females	70	15.731	.28
Guilt [h]	Females	307		-.27
Shame [h]	Females	232		-.29
Hubristic Pride [h]	Males	17		.14
Personality				
Anxiety [d]	Females	7		-.25
Impulsiveness [d]	Females	2		-.10
Gregariousness [d]	Females	5		-.06
Assertiveness [d]	Males	5		.67
Trust [d]	Females	2		-.22
Tender-Mindedness	Females	4		-.92
Risk Taking [f]	Males	322		.13
Self Esteem [d]	Males	27	10,755	.16
Communication				
Smiling [i]	Females	418	109.654	.41
Talkativeness [c]	Males	70	4,385	-.14
Affiliative Speech [c]	Females	54	2,781	.12
Assertive Speech [c]	Females	50	2,541	.09
Decision Making				
Rumination [g]	Females	59	14.321	.24
Brooding [g]	Females	23	4,873	.19
Reflecting [g]	Females	21	>4,000	.17

k is the number of effect sizes analyzed in the meta-analysis. N is the total sample represented by the studies analyzed. The effect size is generally the Cohen d score, but additional details are provided for each study. (a) Miller, Worthington and McDaniel (2008), the statistic reported is the d; (b) Jaffee and Hyde (2000), the statistic reported is the d; (c) Leaper and Ayres (2007) the statistic reported is the Cohen d score. (d) Feingold (1994), the statistic reported is the d; (e) You, Maeda and Bebeau, (2011), the statistic reported is the d; (f) Byrnes, Miller and Schafer (1999), the statistic reported is the d. (g) Johnson and Whisman (2013), the statistic reported is the Cohen's d; (h) Else-Quest, Higgins and Morton (2012), the statistic reported is the Weighted Mean Effect Size d; (i) LaFrance, Hecht and Paluck (2003), the statistic reported is the mean weighted effect size.

In a seminal meta-analysis of gender and leadership, Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt and van Engen (2003) meta-analyzed 45 studies which compared men and woman on measures of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire (passive-avoidant) leadership styles. The studies were conducted with people occupying leadership roles who were rated by their subordinates, peers, and superiors using the *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire*. The results of the meta-analysis revealed that female leaders were more transformational and scored higher on the subscales of charisma, idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration than their male counterparts. Female leaders also scored higher than males on the first subscale of transactional leadership, contingent reward. Male leaders scored higher on the subscales of management by exception active and management by exception passive. The study also found that women surpassed men in areas of leadership styles that were positively related to effectiveness.

Gender differences in behaviors and attitudes often observed in the workplace, have been studied so regularly that a body of meta-analytic literature exists. Table 1 summarizes several meta-analyses related to gender and workplace related attitudes and behaviors. We see that females tend to be more collaborative, participative, forgiving, tender-minded and trusting than males.

2.2   Age and Leadership, Work Related Attitudes and Behaviors

Age and workplace attitudes and behaviors have also been studied in a body of research. It is common to find leadership studies in which leader age is reported. Often, these are studies in which the leaders self-assessed their styles, rather than studies in which followers actually rated their leaders. Several, large sample studies, however, in which the leadership ratings are those of the followers do exist. The overall findings of this body of literature seem almost stereotypical. Older leaders tend to be rated higher on dimensions of leadership such as being calm, conservative, considerate, cooperative and deferent to authority. Younger leaders tend to be rated higher on being energetic, exciting and friendly, but tend to emphasize short-term results, have a production focus, and are somewhat self-focused.

In one of the largest studies performed, Sessa, Kabacof, Deal and Brown (2007) analyzed 79,866 direct report ratings of leaders using the Leadership Effectiveness Analysis instrument. Participants came from more than 6,000 North American companies in 23 industries across 48 states. Older leaders were rated as more calm and as using a more considered approach that drew on the skills and abilities of others. Younger leaders were rated as more energetic. They were also seen as focused on attaining short-term results and being more self-centered.

Haber (2012) performed content analysis on responses from 1,100 undergraduate participants who were selected through random criterion sampling from the 2009 Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership national dataset. Each participant was asked to provide a written definition of leadership. The researchers then coded the responses into ten possible themes. The most prevalent themes were influence (N = 467), task (N = 267), shared goal (N = 260), personal qualities (N = 219), and direct (N = 218). Influence involved mention of a leader and other people or a group in a transactional or top-down manner, whereby the leader influences, leads or guides others. Task involved accomplishing a goal or engaging in a task

or action. Shared goal involved recognition of a common or shared goal or purpose within a group. Personal qualities involved mentioning positive or admirable personal qualities that an individual has or demonstrates. Direct involved mention of other people or a group in a strictly transactional or top-down manner.

Table 2. Meta-analytic literature related to age

Variable	k	N	Effect
Satisfaction			
Satisfaction with work itself [a]	41	19,381	0.22
Overall job satisfaction [a]	388	151,105	0.18
Satisfaction with pay [a]	52	29,453	0.11
Satisfaction with supervisors [a]	41	20,633	0.10
Satisfaction with promotion [a]	36	18,723	-0.31
Commitment			
Job involvement [a]	85	27,395	0.25
Affective Commitment [a]	296	108,315	0.24
Normative commitment [a]	33	9,652	0.22
Loyalty [a]	10	3,301	0.21
Continuance commitment [a]	52	16,230	0.20
Organizational identification [a]	26	9,786	0.20
Organizational Commitment [c]	88	36,482	0.19
Absenteeism (Time Lost) [d]	29	6,507	-0.09
Absenteeism (Frequency) [d]	27	6,737	-0.14
Type of Motivation			
Autonomy [e]	34	28,384	0.27
Use of skills (self-actualization), interesting work [e]	14	22,512	0.10
Helping people or contributing to society [e]	15	7,987	0.09
Accomplishment or achievement [e]	41	15,862	0.06
Job security [e]	17	13,341	0.06
Prestige and status [e]	12	20,707	-0.02
Development or challenge [e]	26	22,298	-0.07
Working w people (affiliation) [e]	25	23,555	-0.07
Compensation and benefits [e]	24	33,191	-0.10
Recognition [e]	9	19,168	-0.13
Advancement or promotion [e]	13	27,282	-0.23
Relationships			
Self-Esteem in College Students [b]	115		0.48
Interpersonal trust [a]	12	5,456	0.17
Person–organization fit [a]	13	2,604	0.10
Perceived organizational support [a]	75	27,323	0.09
Leader–member exchange [a]	51	11,930	0.07
Supervisor Support [a]	59	37,265	0.04
Relationship conflict [a]	14	2,752	-0.18

k is the number of effect sizes analyzed in the meta-analysis. N is the total sample represented by the studies analyzed. The effect size is generally the Cohen d score, but additional details are provided for each study. (a) Ng and Feldman (2010) the statistic reported is the sample-size weighted corrected; (b) Twenge and Campbell (2001), the statistic reported is linear correlation across 30 years' of studies (2001); (c) Cohen (1993), the statistic reported is the mean weighted correlation corrected for attenuation; (d) Martocchio (1989), the time lost index is the number of days absent in a specified period for any reason other than organization-sanctioned leave, the frequency index is the number of absences in a specified period, regardless of duration, excluding holidays and workdays. The statistic reported is the average weighted correlation corrected for error of measurement; (e) Kooij, De Lange, Jansen, Kanfer and Dikkers (2011), the statistic reported is the mean true score correlation.

Kabacoff and Stoffey (2001) administered the Leadership Effectiveness Analysis to 640 managers in the 25-35 year range and 640 managers in the 45 – 55 year range. Each manager underwent 360-degree evaluations from followers, peers and supervisors. Participants were from 282 North American companies. Older managers were rated higher on leadership that emphasized being conservative, practicing restraint, cooperation and deference to authority. Younger leaders were rated higher on strategic thinking, excitement, having a tactical, management focus and emphasizing production.

Barbuto, Fritz, Matkin and Marx (2007) used the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire with 234 followers of 56 leaders from a variety of organizations. The 46+ age group was rated the highest for transformational leadership including the subscales of idealized influence, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration and effectiveness. The lowest ratings were given to the 36–45 age groups for intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration.

Generally, the meta-analytic literature on age and workplace attitudes and behaviors provides the following broad findings. The older workers are, generally the more satisfied they are with various aspects of the workplace, except opportunities for promotion. The older workers become the more committed and loyal they are, the more they identify with the organization and the less likely they are to engage in absenteeism.

The older the workers, the more important feeling as though they are accomplishing something is important, while prestige and recognition are less important. The older the workers the more loyal they are with a concomitant desire for job security. Finally, the older the workers, the more relationships, trust and workplace support matter, and the less relationship conflict is desired.

2.2.1 Comparing Generations

In modern water cooler parlance, it is popular to describe workers by birth cohorts. While the exact edges that form the cohorts vary slightly from author to author, generally people talk about three cohorts that are currently in the workplace. The age breaks shown below are how the Pew Research Center defines the cohorts, and how the data collected in 2016 maps to the ages of participants in this study.

Baby Boomers - Born 1945-1964 (ages 53 to 71 in this study)

Generation X - Born 1965-1980 (ages 36 to 51 in this study)

Generation Y or Millenials - Born after 1980 (ages 18 to 35 in this study)

Table 3. Pew Research Group Findings on What Generation Say Make Their Generation Unique

Generation Y	Generation X	Baby Boomer
Technology Use (24%)	Technology Use (12%)	Work Ethic (17%)
Music/Pop Culture (11%)	Work Ethic (11%)	Respectful (14%)
Liberal/Tolerant (7%)	Conservative/Traditional	Values/Morals (8%)
Smarter (6%)	Smarter (6%)	"Baby Boomers" (6%)
Clothes (5%)	Respectful (5%)	Smarter (5%)

In 2004, the Society for Human Resource Management randomly selected 2,000 SHRM members of which 258 responded. They asked these

SHRM members to assign a list of traits to the three generations shown below.

Table 4. Society for Human Resource Management Findings on How HR Managers Explain the Generations

Generation Y	Generation X	Baby Boomer
Technologically Savvy	Technologically Savvy	Give Maximum Effort
Like Informality	Like Informality	Accepting of Authority Figures in The Workplace
Embrace Diversity	Learn Quickly	Results Driven
Learn Quickly	Seek Work/Life Bal-	Plan to Stay with Organization
Need Supervision	Embrace Diversity	Retain What They Learn

Two large-scale studies have provided insight into characteristics of Generation Y. NG (2010) analyzed data on 23,413 Canadian undergraduate students (Generation Y). Seventy-one percent of the respondents indicated that they would accept a less-than-ideal job as a career starter. However, 68.5% of respondents expect to be promoted within the first 18 months in their first job. In a smaller sample 11,398 students listed the following five job aspects as most important in considering employment following graduation: a) opportunities for advancement in position, b) good people to work with, c) good people to report to, d) good training opportunities/developing new skills and e) work-life balance.

Stewart and Bernhard (2010) selected data from 518 undergraduate students whose ages were between 18 and 25 or graduate student who were between 20 and 25 at the time of completing the *California Psychological Inventories* test. These were members of Generation Y. The students had been full time students between 2004 and 2008. They then compared this 2004-2008 group to 7,361 students who had completed the *California Psychological Inventories* test prior to 1987. This group roughly approximates Baby Boomers. The 2004-08 undergraduates scored substantially lower than pre-1987 undergraduates on psychological health, achievement assets and impulse control, somewhat lower on ascendancy/self-assuredness, and higher than pre-1987 undergraduates on narcissism.

3   Participants

The participants in this study consisted of 1,102 working adults from the state of Texas. The sample ranged in age from 19 to 81 with a mean age of 42 years. There were 82 participants who self-identified their ethnicity as Asian, 128 as African-American, 623 as White, 197 as Hispanic and 72 were classified as other ethnicity. There were 475 males and 604 females who reported their gender.

Education was collected as years of formal education. Years of formal education ranged from 10 years (approximately sophomore in High School) to 22 (PhD, MD and other doctoral credentials). The mean number of years of formal education was 16.4 years (slightly more than four years of college). Years of work experience ranged from only 1 year to 51 with a mean of 19.11. Years of management experience ranged from 0 years to 39 with a mean of 6.39 years. Table 5 provides the breakdown of participants by gender and generation. Figure 1 provides the age distribution.

4   Instrument

The instrument used in this study was the *Project Globe Leadership Questionnaire*. (House et al. 2004). Over 20,000 participants have used this instrument worldwide. To develop the instrument, House et al. conducted two empirical pilot studies in 28 countries to assess the instrument's psychometric properties. In the first pilot study, the survey was distributed in 28 countries to people who had full-time working experience as a white-collar employee or manager. Exploratory factor analysis, aggregation analysis, reliability analysis and intra-class correlations were then conducted on the results of the surveys.

A second pilot study was conducted in 15 countries that did not participate in the first pilot study in order to replicate the scales in a different sample. The results confirmed the findings from the first pilot study and verified through aggregation tests their target level of analysis. Following the administration of the instrument to 17,370 middle managers from 62 societies the researched conduced confirmatory factor analysis. The comparative fit index for the hypothesized six second level factors was CFI = .92. The Cronbach alpha scores for the second order scales ranged from .59 for autonomous leadership to .95 for charismatic/value based leadership.

The instrument consists of 112 questions. For each question, the participant is asked to rate to what degree that behavior or characteristic inhibits or contributes to outstanding leadership. The rating scale ranges from one to seven. The instrument measures 21 first-order dimensions of leadership that can comprise six second-order dimensions.

The 21 first-order dimensions are: *Administratively Competent, Autocratic, Autonomous, Charismatic I: Visionary, Charismatic II: Inspirational, Charismatic III: Self-Sacrifice: Risk Taker, Self-Sacrificial, Convincing, Conflict Inducer, Decisive, Diplomatic, Face Saver, Humane Orientation, Integrity, Malevolent, Modesty, Participative, Performance Oriented, Procedural, Self-Centered, Status Conscious, Team I: Collaborative Team Orientation and Team II: Team Integrator*. The 21 first-order scales can be combined into six second order scales called *Charismatic/Value-Based, Team Oriented, Participative, Humane-Oriented, Autonomous* and *Self-protective* leadership.

4.1   Scale Descriptions

Charismatic/value-based leadership includes the ability to inspire, to motivate, and to expect high performance outcomes from others on the basis of firmly held, core beliefs. These leaders are visionary, inspirational, engage in self-sacrifice, demonstrate integrity, are decisive and performance-oriented.

Team-oriented leadership emphasizes effective team building and implementation of a common purpose or goal among team members. Team-oriented leaders are collaborative integrators, who are diplomatic, benevolent, administratively competent and procedural.

Participative leadership reflects the degree to which managers and leaders involve others in making and implementing decisions.

Humane-oriented leadership reflects supportive and considerate leadership but also includes compassion and generosity.

Autonomous leadership refers to independent and individualistic leadership attributes.

Self-protective leadership focuses on ensuring the safety and security of the individual and group through status enhancement and face saving.

The means and standard deviations for these dimensions from this study are provided in Table 6.

Table 5. Means for this study

Second Order	Comprised of These First-Order Dimensions	Mean	SD
Contributing to Outstanding Leadership on a Scale of 1 - 7			
Charismatic Value Based	Charismatic Visionary, Charismatic Inspirational, Charismatic Self-Sacrifice, Integrity, Decisive, Performance-Oriented	5.74	1.03
Team Oriented	Collaborative Team Orientation, Team Integrator, Diplomatic, Benevolent, Administratively Competent	5.55	0.76
Humane	Modesty, Humane Orientation	5.38	1.05
Participative	Non-Autocratic, Participative	4.94	1.51
Autonomous	Autonomous	4.68	1.01
Inhibiting Outstanding Leadership on a Scale of 1 - 7			
Self-Protec-tive	Self-Centered, Status Conscious, Conflict Inducer, Face Saver, Procedural	2.70	0.81

5 Results

5.1 Correlational Analysis

An initial correlational analysis was run for participant age and the six dimensions of leadership. Both zero-order Pearson correlations (r) and partial correlations controlling for gender (r_p) were run. Three leadership dimensions, participative leadership ($r = .09$), humane oriented leadership ($r = .08$) and self-protective leadership ($r = -.15$) were related to age.

When controlling for the gender of the participant, the partial correlation results were similar. Participative leadership ($r_p = .06$), humane oriented leadership ($r_p = .07$) and self-protective leadership ($r_p = -.15$) were related to participant age. An additional observation is that of the 15 possible inter-correlations among the six dimensions of leadership 13 inter-correlations were found.

Table 6. Bi-variate Correlations

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1 Age						
2 Charismatic/Value Based	-.01					
3 Team Oriented	.04	.68**				
4 Participative	.09**	.10**	.01			
5 Humane Oriented	.08**	.21**	.44**	-.17**		
6 Autonomous	-.03	.36**	.37**	.02	.20**	
7 Self-Protective	-.15**	-.20**	-.35**	-.14**	-.15**	.09**

6 Multivariate Analysis

For the multivariate tests, three methodological options were considered. One option was to run six separate two-way analyses of covariance with gender as a main effect and age as a covariate. The second option was to run six separate two-way analyses of variance with gender and genera-

tional cohort as two main effects. The method selected as a multiple analysis of variance. Gender and generational cohort were independent variables, and the six dimensions of leadership: charismatic/value-based, team oriented, participative, humane-oriented, autonomous and self-protective leadership as dependent variables.

An advantage of the MANOVA over separate univariate analyses is that the multivariate test controls for correlations among the dependent variables (Pituch & Stevens, 2015). This is particularly relevant in this study since the leadership variable were highly inter-correlated with each other.

The MANOVA also reduces the likelihood of a Type I error that may occur when running multiple univariate tests (Pituch & Stevens, 2015). Due to the correlations among the dependent variables and the desire to control for alpha inflation, this analysis proved to be the best option.

The MANOVA results are shown in table 6. The generation to which the participants belonged, participant gender and the interaction

Table 6. Multivariate Analysis Results

	Wilks' Lambda	F	Hypothesis df	Sig.
Generation	.98	2.17	12	.01
Gender	.94	11.88	6	.00
Generation * Gender	.98	2.04	12	.02

6.1 Univariate Analysis

Univariate tests were run for each of the variables shown in table 8. The independent variable of generation was significant for participative, humane oriented and self-protective leadership. The independent variable of gender was significant for charismatic/value based, participative, humane oriented and autonomous leadership. The interaction of gender and generation was significant for charismatic/value based, team oriented and self-protective leadership.

Table 7. Univariate Analysis

Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	F	Sig.
Generation				
Participative Leadership	8.17	2	4.34	.01
Humane Oriented Leadership	5.47	2	2.48	.08
Self-Protective Leadership	9.09	2	7.06	.00
Gender				
Charismatic/Value Based Leadership	23.05	1	22.16	.00
Participative Leadership	225.43	1	111.24	.00
Humane Oriented Leadership	8.55	1	7.75	.01
Autonomous Leadership	4.71	1	4.62	.03
Generation * Gender				
Charismatic/Value Based Leadership	10.26	2	4.93	.01
Team Oriented Leadership	6.65	2	5.772	.00
Self-Protective Leadership	4.93	2	3.827	.02

6.1.1 Charismatic/Value Based Leadership

Generation Y females rated charismatic/value based leadership as more important to being an outstanding leader than did Generation Y males.

Baby Boomer females rated charismatic/ value based leadership as more important to being an outstanding leader than both Generation X females and Baby Boomer males. Generation X females also rated charismatic/value based leadership higher than Baby Boomer males.
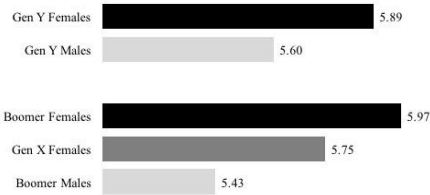

Fig. 1. Differences in charismatic/value based leadership.

6.1.2 Team-Oriented Leadership

Generation X males rated team-oriented leadership as more important to being an outstanding leader than did Generation X females. Both Generation X males and females rated team-oriented Leadership as more important to being an outstanding leader than Baby Boomer males

Baby boomer females rated team- oriented leadership higher than both Generation X females and Baby Boomer males. Generation X females also rated team-oriented leadership slightly higher than Baby Boomer males.

Fig. 2. Differences team-oriented leadership.

6.1.3 Participative Leadership

Females rated participative leadership as more important to being an outstanding leader than did males.

Generation Y rated participative leadership higher than Baby Boomer males.
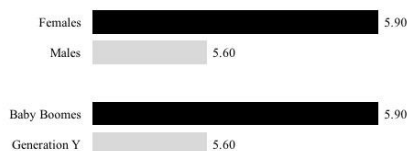

Fig. 3. Differences participative leadership.

6.1.4 Humane-Oriented Leadership

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Baby Boomers rated humane oriented leadership as more important to being an outstanding leader than did Generation Y. Females rated humane oriented leadership higher than males.
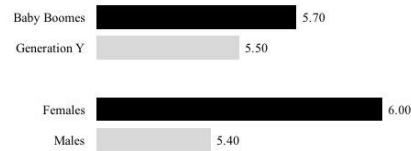

Fig. 4. Differences humane oriented leadership.

6.1.5 Self-Protective Leadership

Generation Y females tolerated self-protective leadership more than Generation X Males, Baby Boomer males and Baby Boomer females.

Generation Y tolerated self-protective leadership more than Generation X and Baby Boomers. Generation X also tolerated self-protective leadership more than Baby Boomers.

Fig. 5. Differences in self-protective leadership.

7 Discussion

7.1 Gender

Researchers who study gender role stereotypes and expectations often use the phrases communal and agentic for women and men. Women are often viewed as more communal than men, exhibiting more friendliness, concern for others and emotional expressivity than men. Men, on the other hand, are often viewed as more agentic than women, exhibiting more assertive, competitive and dominant behaviors than men. (Eagly, 2009; Newport, 2001; Spence and Buckner, 2000).

There are many possible explanations for the findings in this study. In the meta-analyses described earlier, females rated higher on constructs such as being more caring, morally sensitive and forgiving. Females also rated higher on collaborative communication, smiling, being tender-minded and engaging in positive speech. The more communal nature of women, in general, likely explains part of the stronger preference for participative and humane oriented leadership.

7.2 Generation

The meta-analytic literature related to age indicates that older workers tend to value organizational and supervisor support than younger workers (Ng and Feldman, 2010). This may partially explain Baby Boomers' stronger preference for humane oriented leadership than Generation Y.

The meta-analytic literature also indicates that younger individuals tend to value recognition and affiliation a bit more than older workers (Kooji, et al., 2011). This may partially explain Generation Y's increased

preference for participative leadership. In participative leadership, the barriers between leader and follower are greatly reduced. This form of leadership likely allows for much more frequent praise and recognition for a generation raised on an expectation that everyone receives a trophy, regardless of the outcome of the event.

In this study, members of Generation Y also were more tolerant of self-protective leadership than were Baby Boomers. One possible explanation of this tolerance is that Generation Y's experiences of school violence and the associated "protective" efforts by school leaders and parents. Between 1995 and 2015, the percentage of students ages 12–18 who reported being victimized at school decreased overall, as did the percentages of students who reported theft, violent victimization, and serious violent victimization (NCES, 2016, p. 54.)

To some degree, this generation has grown up expecting authority figures to protect them from harm, and that expectation might be manifesting itself in this expectation from workplace leaders. To some degree, these increased

Older workers are, as a group, typically entering the final stages of their work lives. Rather than emphasize promotion and prestige, these workers are often trying to place their careers in perspective (Kooji, et al., 2011). Associated with this is a need to believe that "it was all worthwhile." As a result, we see that feeling a sense of accomplishing something as well as a desire to be granted autonomy might be inversely related to their desire for participative leadership. Baby Boomers/older workers, however, do have an increased desire for job security (Kooji, et al., 2011). and a sense of support and trust from their leaders (Ng & Feldman, 2010). This likely explains their decreased tolerance of leader self-protective or self-serving behaviors. These workers have seen enough leaders to understand that self-protective leadership can readily lead to workers being sacrificed or "thrown under the bus" in return for a leader protecting her/his own career.

8 **Future Research**

Table 4 earlier in this paper described the results of a Human Resource Management survey about generational differences in the workplace. Both Generations Y and X were viewed as being technologically savvy, compared to Baby Boomers. Generation Y's views on technology – particularly the use of texting and social media as a workplace tool - warrants additional study.

This study used globally validated measures of attitudes about what constitutes outstanding leadership. None of the dimensions, however, measured leadership behaviors such as "uses social media to maintain workgroup cohesiveness" or "keeps me current on workplace issues by texting me." Future research should consider developing and using a measure that focuses on leader use of newer technologies.

Many leaders certainly use email to communicate with their followers. It is quite reasonable, however, to think that many leaders view technology such as texting and social media as "after work" or leisure technologies. It could well be, however, that Generation Y may view leaders who incorporate these newer technologies as part of their leadership communication channels quite differently than leaders who rely much more on either face-to-face or email communication.

8.3 Conclusion

In general, this research is congruent with much of previous research about gender effects on various behaviors. We continue to find that female leadership preferences and behaviors are aligned with what might be referred to as "soft" or "people" skills or behaviors including, participation, team building, and motivation. This research additionally provides a new layer of insight about generational effects both within and in conjunction with gender effects on leadership preferences. Specifically, it casts a light on how the experiences and characteristics among generational cohorts appear to transcend the effects on leadership preferences of the more conventional demographic properties (such as gender) often studied in the leadership discipline.

Appendix Additional Interaction Graphs
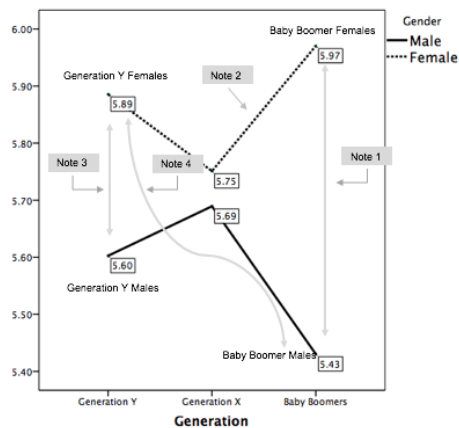
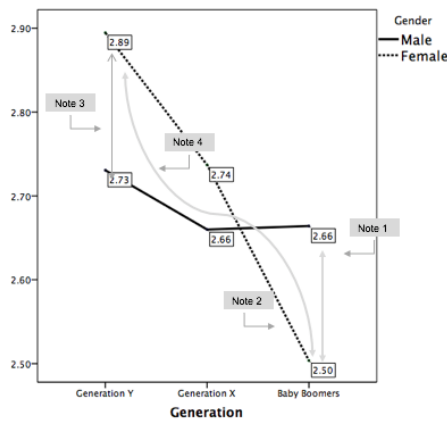**Fig. 6. Significant interactions for gender, generation and charismatic/value based leadership.**

1. Baby Boomer Females M = 6.0, rated Charismatic/Value Based Leadership as More Important than Baby Boomer Males M = 5.4
2. Generation Y Females M = 5.9, rated Charismatic/Value Based Leadership as More Important than Generation Y Males M = 5.6
3. Baby Boomer Females M = 6.0, rated Charismatic/Value Based Leadership as More Important than Generation X Females M = 5.4
4. Generation Y Females M = 5.9, rated Charismatic/Value Based Leadership as More Important than Baby Boomer Males M = 5.4
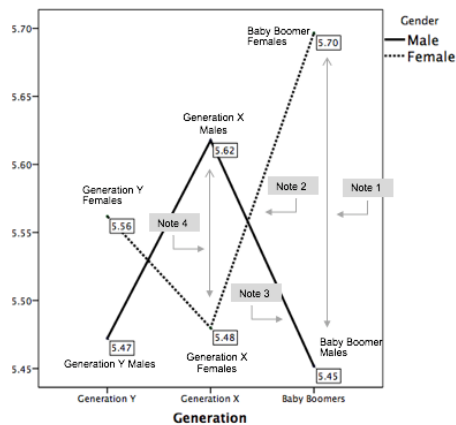
Fig. 7. Significant interactions for gender, generation and team oriented leadership.
1. Baby Boomer Females M = 5.7, rated Team Oriented Leadership as More Important than Baby Boomer Males M = 5.5
2. Baby Boomer Females M = 5.7, rated Team Oriented Leadership as More Important than Generation X Females M = 5.5

3. Generation X Males M = 5.6, rated Team Oriented Leadership as More Important than Baby Boomer Males M = 5.5
4. **Generation X Males M = 5.6, rated Team Oriented Leadership as More Important than Generation X Females M**

Fig. 8. Significant interactions for gender, generation and self-protective leadership.
1. Baby Boomer Females M = 2.50, were less tolerant of Self Protective Leadership than Baby Boomer Males M = 2.66
2. Baby Boomer Females M = 2.50, were less tolerant of Self Protective Leadership than Generation X Females M = 2.73
3. Generation Y Males M = 2.73, were less tolerant of Self Protective Leadership than Generation Y Females M = 2.89
4. Baby Boomer Females M = 2.50, were less tolerant of Self Protective Leadership than Generation Y Females M = 2.89

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