

The Interaction of Generation and Gender: Differences in Leadership Assessment of the Dark Triad

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Abstract

2017/18 was sometimes dubbed the “me too,” year in which sexist and overtly inappropriate behaviors of male leaders made the headlines. This study explored attitudes toward three aspects of personality often called the dark triad: Narcissism, Machiavellianism and Psychopathy. This study asked 1,283 participants to rate the degree to which characteristics of Narcissism, Machiavellianism and Psychopathy were seen to inhibit the stereotype of good leadership. Results found that Baby Boomer female participants were less tolerant of narcissistic leadership than other sub-groups.

1 Introduction

There is ample evidence that leadership styles such as transformational leadership (Wang, 2011; Banks, 2016; Rowold, 2016) or authentic leadership (Banks, 2016) are positively related to a variety of desirable workplace outcomes. Conversely, there is also a growing body of literature that indicates that abusive supervision of bad leadership have the opposite results. The table below provides a sample of meta-analytic results.

1.1 Correlates of Abusive or Bad Leadership

Variable	k	N	Effect
Aggression/delinquency (Muri)		9,417	.24
Turnover Intention (Schy)	11	6,034	.31
Stress (Mont)	15	6,440	.32
Emotional Exhaustion (Harm)	22	8,585	.35
Burnout (Mont)	16	8,181	.36
Counterproductive	9	7,610	.37
Organizational Justice (Schy)	12	4,625	-.32
Psychological Functioning (Mont)	8	3,355	-.33
Job Satisfaction (Schy)	21	8,707	-.34
Ethical Leadership (Ng1)	8	1,639	-.49

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 weighted correlation or the estimated population correlation. The letters in parentheses are codes for the article. The codes are the first four letters of the lead author.

Within the broad range of personality research, there is also an emerging body of literature on what is often referred to as the dark triad: Narcissism, Machiavellianism and Psychopathy.

Narcissism has been defined as the pursuit of gratification from vanity or egotistic admiration of one's own attributes (Muris, Merckelbach, Otgaar, & Meijer 2017). In their review of the literature O'Boyle, Forsyth, Banks, and McDaniel (2012) indicated that Narcissism includes an inflated view of self; fantasies of control, success, and admiration and a desire to have this self-love reinforced by others.

Machiavellianism has been defined as a duplicitous interpersonal style, a cynical disregard for morality, and a focus on self-interest and personal gain. Psychopathy has been defined as a personality trait characterized by enduring antisocial behavior, diminished empathy and remorse, and disinhibited or bold behavior (Muris et al.2017).

While there is sufficient research for meta-analytic summaries of various correlates of the dark triad, there is little research on how the dark triad and attitudes about leadership connect. In this study 1280 adults completed the 128-item *Project Globe Questionnaire*. The questionnaire measures the degree to which participants believe 21 dimensions of leadership inhibit or contribute to outstanding leadership.

While not designed to measure the dark triad, an exploratory factor analysis found four factors among the 21 scales. The largest factor were positive aspects of leadership, while the other three, negative aspects, were somewhat related to the dark triad.

This study explored gender and generational differences in attitudes about these four dimensions of leadership.

2 Previous Studies

Narcissistic leaders tend to be almost entirely self-focused and expect others to admire and cater to them. As can be seen in Table 2.1, the behaviors related to this type of leadership are often displayed as erratic, antisocial, counterproductive, and downright immoral.

2.1 Narcissism

Variable	k	N	Effect
Counterproductive Workplace Behaviors (O'boy)	9	2,708	.43
Counterproductive Workplace Behaviors (Grij)	16	4,424	.32
Erratic behavior (Muri)		7,016	.28
Socioemotional deficits (Muri)		16,809	.25
Aggression/delinquency (Muri)		9,417	.24
Morality problems (Muri)		4,773	.22
Antisocial tactics		5,279	.20
Interpersonal difficulties (Muri)		33,246	.19
Poor well-being (Muri)		9,840	.14
Job Performance	18	3,124	-.03

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 weighted correlation or the estimated population correlation. The letters in parentheses are codes for the article. The codes are the first four letters of the lead author..

Psychopathy is antisocial, impulsive, and without remorse. You can see in Table 2.2 Psychopathy is related to many of the same behaviors as Narcissism, with the addition of sex-related issues and interestingly, a much smaller relationship with counterproductive work behaviors.

2.2 Psychopathy

Variable	k	N	Effect
Aggression/delinquency (Muri)		5,789	.28
Socioemotional deficits (Muri)		5,222	.25
Sex-related issues (Muri)		5,382	.24
Morality problems (Muri)		2,458	.22
Antisocial tactics (Muri)		5,877	.20
Erratic behavior (Muri)		5,693	.19
Interpersonal difficulties (Muri)		5,359	.19
Poor well-being (Muri)		5,001	.14
Counterproductive Workplace Behaviors (O'boy)	27	6,058	.07
Job Performance (O'boy)	68	10,227	-.10

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 weighted correlation or the estimated population correlation. The letters in parentheses are codes for the article. The codes are the first four letters of the lead author.

Machiavellianism is again self-focused, but with less focus on self-love and more on self-gain through whatever means necessary. Based on the lower correlations in Table 2.3 we could possibly surmise that the Machiavellian leader has less trouble in the workplace than the other two, although they are still plagued by interpersonal issues with others.

2.3 Machiavellianism

Variable	k	N	Effect
Interpersonal difficulties (Muri)		5,359	.16
Antisocial tactics (Muri)		5,877	.14
Aggression/delinquency (Muri)		5,789	.12
Sex-related issues (Muri)		5,382	.10
Socioemotional deficits (Muri)		5,222	.10
Poor well-being (Muri)		5,001	.09
Morality problems (Muri)		2,458	.08
Erratic behavior (Muri)		5,693	.06
Job Performance (O'boy)	57	9,297	-.07
Counterproductive Workplace Behaviors (O'boy)	13	2,546	-.10

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 weighted correlation or the estimated population correlation. The letters in parentheses are codes for the article. The codes are the first four letters of the lead author.

2.4 Gender

2.4 Gender and Leadership, Work Related Attitudes and Behaviors

Variable	Higher Group	k	N	Effect
Ethical Views				
Care Orientation in	Females	160		-.28
Justice Orientation in	Males	95		.19
Moral Sensitivity (e)	Females	19	4,000	.25
Emotions				
Forgiveness (a)	Females	70	15,731	.28
Guilt (b)	Females	307		-.27
Shame (b)	Females	232		-.29
Hubristic Pride (b)	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, Johannes-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 2.4 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.

2.5 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 calmer 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.

2.5 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.

2.5.1 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 Millennials - Born after 1980 (ages 18 to 35 in this study)

2.5.1 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.

2.5.2 Meta-analytic literature related to age

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 Balance	Plan to Stay with Organization Over the Long Term
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 1,283 working adults from the state of Texas. There were 647 Millennials, 437 Generation X and 199 Baby Boomers in the sample. There were 530 male and 750 female participants. There were 427 participants who self-identified as Hispanic, 423 as White, 341 as Black and 89 participants were grouped together as Other.

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 conducted 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.*

4.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis

An initial exploratory factor analysis was conducted on the 21 measures of leadership. The scales loaded on four separate components with Eigenvalues greater than 1. Table 4.1 provides the scales, means and factor loadings. The authors assigned the labels Narcissistic, Machiavellian and Psychopathic Leadership based on the definitions of both the dark triad and each scale.

4.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis Results

Variable	Mean	Factor Loading
Outstanding Leadership, Eigenvalue, 8.38		
Integrity	6.28	.84
Visionary Leadership	6.15	.91
Performance Orientation	6.14	.80
Administratively Competent	5.93	.82
Team Integrater	5.87	.83
Decisive	5.83	.78
Inspirational Leadership	5.82	.87
Diplomatic	5.48	.78
Modesty	5.47	.77
Humane Orientation	5.40	.73
Self-Sacrificial Leadership	5.12	.59
Team Collaborative	4.71	.82
Narcissistic Leadership, Eigenvalue, 2.63		
Self-Centered	5.00	.76
Status Conscious	5.00	.77
Machiavellian Leadership, Eigenvalue, 1.28		
Procedural and Bureaucratic	4.38	.50
Conflict Inducer	3.40	.72
Face Saver	2.99	.60
Autocratic	2.19	.82
Psychopathic Leadership, Eigenvalue, 1.03		
Malevolent	1.81	.45
Non-Participative Leadership	1.11	.44

5 Results

There were no differences in ratings of the composite scale Outstanding Leadership as a result of the gender or generation of the participant. Neither were there interaction effects for gender and generation.

A two-way ANOVA and Scheffe post-hoc test found that for narcissistic leadership, Baby Boomers ($M = 4.61$) were less tolerant of that style of leadership than either Millennials ($M = 5.08$) or Generation X ($M = 5.05$). The interaction effect was also significant. Additionally, and interaction effect between gender and generation was significant. Figure 5.1 indicates that female Baby Boomer participants were less tolerant of narcissistic leadership than male Baby Boomers.

For Machiavellian leadership there were no significant main effects, but the interaction of gender and generation was significant. 5.2 depicts that female participants from all three generations were somewhat similar in their beliefs that Machiavellian leadership inhibits outstanding leadership. Baby Boomer males were less tolerant of Machiavellian leadership than Generation X and Millennial males.

In this study, Psychopathic leadership included the leader behaviors of being malevolent and non-participative. Main effects were found for both gender and generation.

While all three generations believed psychopathic leadership was a bad form of leadership, there was a cascading effect among the generations. The results of a Scheffe post-hoc test found that Baby Boomers rated Psychopathic leadership ($M = 2.87$) more tolerable than Generation X ($M = 2.38$). Both of those generations rated Psychopathic leadership higher than Millennials ($M = 2.23$). Females overall ($M = 2.54$) were slightly more tolerant of psychopathic leadership than males ($M = 2.44$). Finally, an interaction effect existed for Psychopathy.

Figure 5.1 Interaction Effect for Generation, Gender and Attitudes about Narcissistic Leaders

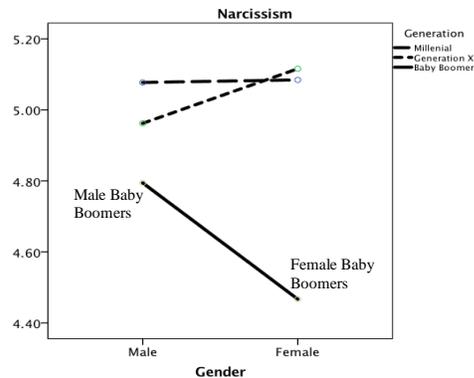


Figure 5.2 Interaction Effect for Generation, Gender and Attitudes about Machiavellian Leaders

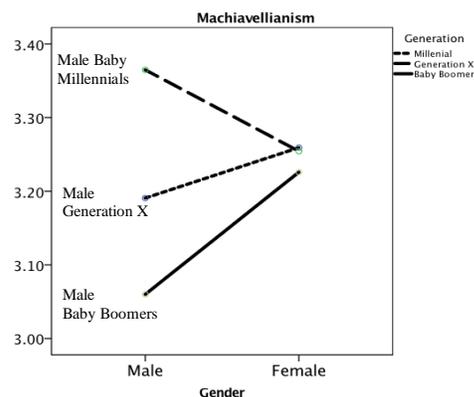
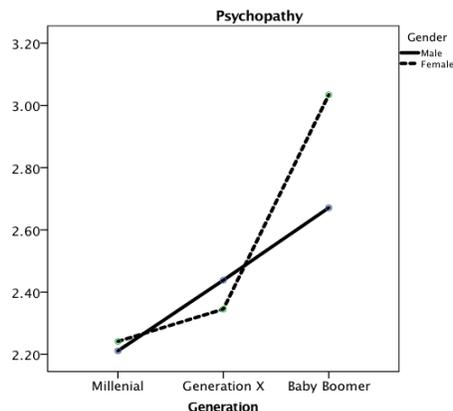


Figure 5.2 Interaction Effect for Generation, Gender and Attitudes about Machiavellian Leaders



6 Discussion

Perhaps the most interesting finding of this study was the lower tolerance of the idea of a narcissistic leader by female Baby Boomers than the other five subgroups. While it is not known if the differences are statistically significant, there are some interesting trends among female Baby Boomers. Specifically, Baby Boomers in general, and female Baby Boomers in particular, rated psychopathic leadership (Malevolent, Non-Participative) higher than millennials or Generation X, and higher than male Baby Boomers. Women began entering the workforce in increasing numbers beginning in the early 60s, reaching a peak in 1999 before beginning to decline (BLS.gov, 2017).

Research conducted as late as the early 1990s indicated women in leadership positions may have faced negative stereotypes and the proverbial “glass ceiling” (Everett, Thorne & Danehower, 1996).

Owen and Todor (1993) also pointed out that female leaders are often viewed as outsiders. This could explain why women of the Baby Boomer generation may have viewed attributes characteristic of psychopathic leadership, such as self-protection and non-cooperative behaviors, as more effective leadership behaviors than men of that generation. After all, if one is going against the grain of a system, one may, indeed, need to be non-cooperative with that system in order to effect change and establish new guidelines and norms of leadership. Still, it must be noted that while women Baby Boomers rated psychopathic leadership behaviors higher in effectiveness than men Baby Boomers, or younger generations, they still, on average, all sub groups rated these behaviors as inhibiting effective leadership.

A second implication may be related to stereotypes of how males and females are “expected” to lead. Koenig, Eagly, Mitchell, and Ristikari (2011) conducted a meta-analysis of 51 effect sizes. One finding was that, despite the increasing number of women in leadership positions, in quantitative studies participants tend to envision leaders as male much more than as female.

Similarly, traditional stereotypes of leaders are that male leaders emphasize tasks and following orders, often called agentic, while female leaders emphasize community and relationship, often called communal (Koenig et al, 2011). In the same meta-analysis, (k = 48) the researchers found that participants tend to envision leaders as more agentic than communal.

Female Baby Boomers have likely worked in organizations in which the stereotype of leadership was task-oriented males than have Generation

X or Millennial participants. Stated simply, having lived through less egalitarian workplace cultures than we see today are more acutely less tolerant for forms of leadership related to those more chauvinistic times.

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