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Follow Me! Followership, Leadership and the Multigenerational Workforce

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FOLLOW ME! FOLLOWERSHIP, LEADERSHIP AND THE
MULTIGENERATIONAL WORKFORCE

by

Ronald M. Johnson

A DISSERTATION

Submitted to
H. Wayne Huizenga School of Business and Entrepreneurship
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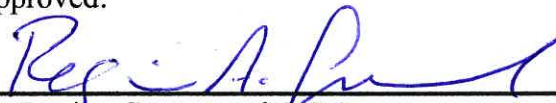

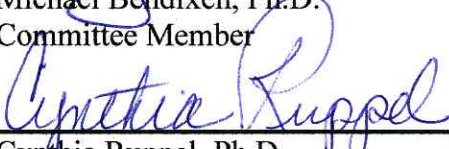
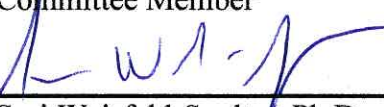
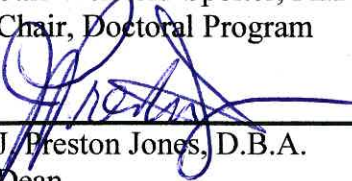
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MULTIGENERATIONAL WORKFORCE

By

Ronald M. Johnson

We hereby certify that this Dissertation submitted by Ronald M. Johnson conforms to acceptable standards, and as such is fully adequate in scope and quality. It is therefore approved as the fulfillment of the Dissertation requirements for the degree of Doctor of Business Administration.

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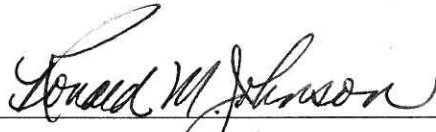
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2014

CERTIFICATION STATEMENT

I hereby certify that this paper constitutes my own product, that where the language of others is set forth, quotation marks so indicate, and that appropriate credit is given where I have used the language, ideas, expressions, or writings of another.

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A handwritten signature in cursive script, reading "Ronald M. Johnson", written over a horizontal line.

Ronald M. Johnson

ABSTRACT

FOLLOW ME! PERCEPTIONS OF FOLLOWERSHIP AND LEADERSHIP

by

Ronald M. Johnson

This research was designed to develop an understanding of today's multigenerational workforce with respect to a preferred styles or characteristics of followership and leadership. Specifically this research sought to determine if there was a relationship between an individual's generational cohort and the preferred styles of leadership and followership, as measured by implicit theories of leadership and followership. Therefore, this study draws upon generational theory (Mannheim, 1952), implicit theories of leadership (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004) and implicit theories of followership (Sy, 2010). The changes in the composition of the US workforce which have occurred, and which will continue to occur in the near future, make it appropriate and timely to jointly examine followership and leadership, particularly from a generational perspective. By examining the various US workforce generational cohorts, the potential exists to uncover additional insight that has been absent from the extant literature. The sample population consisted of Baby Boomer, Gen X and Millennial employees drawn from individuals working for an integrated delivery and financing system in the Northeastern US, as well as individuals recruited via social media (N = 249). The implicit leadership scale (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004) was utilized to measure participant's preferred characteristics of leaders. The implicit followership scale (Sy, 2010) was utilized to measure participant's preferred characteristics of followers. Data analysis was conducted utilizing principal components analysis (PCA) to determine the factor structures of both leadership and followership. A one-way ANOVA was conducted on the results of these factor analyses to test whether there were any differences which could be attributed to membership in a generational cohort. Cluster analysis was also conducted. The results indicated that generation does not significantly influence an individual's preferred characteristics of leaders or followers. Implications for theory, practice and further research are also discussed.

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CHAPTER 1 - INTRODUCTION

Decades of leadership research has produced a wide variety of leadership theories and models, in addition to hundreds of books about leaders and leadership. This plethora of leadership theories, research, processes, models and books suggests that there is no general agreement that one particular leadership theory or process may be effective for all organizations in every situation (Bass, 2008; Jago, 1982). Among the many definitions of leadership, one of the most popular definitions considers leadership to be a process which includes at least two individuals – the leader and the follower (Bass, 2008). Yet, leadership research has too often neglected the follower, choosing instead to pursue what Meindl (2004) referred to as *The Romance of Leadership*, which he defined as the “...causal attribution, entailing a strong inclination to reference leaders and leadership when accounting for the fates and fortunes of groups and organizations”(p. 463). This research proposes to develop an understanding of both the follower’s preferences for the characteristics of both leaders and followers, as well as the leader’s preferences for the characteristics of both followers and leaders, utilizing today’s multigenerational workforce. These topics which have yet to be explored in academic research.

The impact of multiple generations in today’s workforce has garnered much attention, both in the popular media and among academic researchers (Appelbaum, Serena, & Shapiro, 2005; Arsenault, 2004; Cennamo & Gardner, 2008; Deal, Altman, & Rogelberg, 2010; Gibson, Greenwood, & Murphy, 2009; Hammill, 2005; Jaeger, 1985; Johnson & Lopes, 2008). Today’s multigenerational workforce includes three, and

possibly four different generations: the Veterans (alternatively labeled as the Silent Generation); the Baby Boomers (Boomers); Generation X (Gen X, or Gen Xers); and Generation Y (Gen Y, Gen Yers, NetGen, GenMe, Echo Boomers, or more commonly, Millennials) (Howe & Strauss, 2000; Strauss & Howe, 1991; Twenge & Campbell, 2008). This multi-generational workforce creates a unique situation which has not previously existed (Hammill, 2005), as each generation brings different characteristics to the workplace; characteristics which research has posited as being shaped, molded and influenced by the eras in which the individuals were raised (Mannheim, 1952; Zemke, Raines, & Filipczak, 2000). Generational theorists have posited that these differing characteristics, which are developed from early childhood and adolescent experiences, exhibit an enduring influence upon an individual's future perceptions, attitudes and beliefs (Eyerman & Turner, 1998; Mannheim, 1952; Twenge, 2010). These perceptions may influence and apply to a variety of workplace factors, including influencing the preferences for certain characteristics pertinent to both followers and leaders.

The changes which have occurred, and which will continue to occur, in the composition of the US workforce, make it appropriate and timely to jointly examine followership and leadership, particularly from a generational perspective, with a focus on the preferred styles or characteristics of both followers and leaders. By examining the various generational cohorts of followers and leaders, as well as each generation's preferred characteristics of followers and leaders, the potential exists to uncover additional insight that is absent from the extant literature regarding today's multigenerational workforce, followers and leaders. A joint examination of both

followership and leadership also addresses criticisms by various academic researchers regarding the singular focus on leaders and leadership and the neglected, yet important role of the follower (Burns, 1978; R. E. Kelley, 1992; Meindl, Ehrlick, & Dukerich, 1985).

Problem

The purpose of this research is to determine if there are differences in an individual's preferred characteristics of followers and leaders within and between today's multi-generational workforce. Specifically, this research will test whether the generational cohort to which an individual belongs influences his or her preferred characteristics of followers and leaders.

Sub-problems

The first sub-problem is to determine if members of a particular generational cohort exhibit similarities in the preferred characteristics of followers.

The second sub-problem is to determine if members of a particular generational cohort exhibit similarities in the preferred characteristics of leaders.

Background and Justification

Today's workforce is significantly different from the workforce of a few decades ago (Zemke et al., 2000). For the first time in US history, there are as many as four generations in the workforce at the same time (Hammill, 2005). While authors may

disagree about the appropriate label to assign to these differing generations, as well as the specific range of years applicable to each generation, what is universally agreed upon is that each of these generations exhibit unique characteristics attributable to their specific generational cohort (Zemke et al., 2000).

Generational research has posited that the generational cohort to which an individual belongs contributes to and influences the beliefs, values and attitudes of each individual member of a specific generational cohort (Eyerman & Turner, 1998; Mannheim, 1952; Twenge, 2010). Among these influences may be an individual's preference for the characteristics of both followers and leaders. Thus, linking generational preferences for the characteristics of leaders and followers with an individual's generation may increase our understanding and comprehension of both followership and leadership.

Despite the lack of consensus regarding the birth years of the various generational cohorts, and the disagreement among researchers regarding the validity of specific characteristics pertaining to specific generational cohorts (Tolson, 2001), research into generational characteristics has provided insights into a multitude of factors, including: work values, leadership attributes, and intrinsic/extrinsic motivation (Appelbaum et al., 2005; Arsenault, 2004; Beutell & Wittig-Berman, 2008; Gibson et al., 2009; Jurkiewicz & Brown, 1998; Levy, Carroll, Francoeur, & Logua, 2005; Oshagbemi, 2004; Sessa, Kabacoff, Deal, & Brown, 2007; Smola & Sutton, 2002; Sullivan, Forret, Carraher, & Mainiero, 2009; Twenge, 2010; Twenge & Campbell, 2008; Twenge, Campbell, Hoffman, & Lance, 2010). A major premise of this current research is that an individual's

generational cohort exerts an influence on a variety of factors, which may also extend to the preferences for follower and leaders characteristics.

Various authors utilize different labels for the various generational cohorts. This research will utilize the most common generational labels: Baby Boomers, Gen X, and Millennial. This research will use the birth years associated with these generational cohorts consistent with the framework proposed by Strauss and Howe (1997). Therefore, the generational cohort label and birth years to be utilized in this research are: Baby Boomers, 1946-1964; Generation X, 1965 – 1980; and, Millennials, 1981 - 2003.

Followership is a relatively neglected topic of research when compared to the voluminous research that exists on leadership (R. E. Kelley, 1992). Even today, a Google search on the terms follower and followership yields 137,000,000 and 461,000 results, respectively; while leader and leadership yields 877,000,000 and 428,000,000 results, respectively. However, as early as 1933, Mary Parker Follett spoke about the importance of followership in her essay entitled, *The Essentials of Leadership* (Follett, 1933). In fact, Mary Parker Follett begins her discussion of followers by stating,

And now let me speak to you for a moment of something which seems to me of the utmost importance, but which has been far too little considered, and that is the part of the follower in the leadership situation (Follett, 1933, p. 170).

In the seminal work of Kelley, *The Power of Followership* (1992), Kelley stresses the importance of followership, particularly considering that 70 to 90 percent of an individual's work day may involve followership rather than leadership activities. Chaleff

(2009), while recognizing that there was a growing body of followership research, at the same time cautioned that any serious study of leadership must also include a study of followership.

Several authors have called for research that combines and examines both the follower and the leader. Shamir (2007) argued that a balanced model of leadership should include both leaders and followers as causal agents, which would resolve the one-sided emphasis on leaders in leadership research (Shamir et al., 2007). A balanced model would recognize the influence of followers, while at the same time continuing to recognize the influence of the leader and the impact of leader characteristics and behavior on followers (Shamir et al., 2007). As Collinson (2006) pointed out, followers are essential and necessary both to the leadership process and organizational success.

Given this overarching theme in existing leadership research regarding the relative absence of a discussion of followers (Burns, 1978; Chaleff, 2009; R. E. Kelley, 1992; Shamir et al., 2007), the composition of today's workforce, and the underlying importance of followership to the leadership process, it is therefore important to examine followership and leadership jointly, as proposed by Burns (1978) and Shamir (2007). Through a joint examination of followers, leaders, and generations, both practical and theoretical implications may be discovered. This research has practical implications for organizations, as similarities and/or differences in the preferred characteristics of leaders and followers, particularly as it relates to an individual's generational cohort, may help organizations more effectively deal with today's multigenerational workforce.

Definitions

A generation refers to “... a cohort of people passing through time who share a common habitus, hexis and culture ... providing ... a collective memory which serves to integrate the cohort over a finite period of time” (Eyerman & Turner, 1998, p. 93). For the purposes of this research, the generations being studied included: the Baby Boomers, or individuals born between 1946 and 1964; Generation X (Gen X), or individuals born between 1965 and 1979; and Millennial (Gen Y) to refer to individuals born between 1980 and 2003 (Strauss & Howe, 1997).

Prior leadership research commonly referred to the individuals a leader directs as subordinates (Crossman & Crossman, 2011). However, due to the negative connotation that may be associated with that terminology (Uhl-Bien & Pillai, 2007), and the more popular current usage of follower to define individuals not in a leadership position (R. E. Kelley, 1992), this research utilizes the term follower. Since leaders at times may also be followers, all individuals surveyed will be considered followers. An analysis of job titles and job responsibilities assisted the categorization of individuals who may also be considered leaders.

Implicit theories refer to an individual’s naïve, or lay theories, regarding a particular construct, such as followership or leadership. These lay theories are derived from the “cognitive structures containing the traits and behaviors ... stored in memory, and ... activated when individuals are confronted with (a stimulus)” (Kenney, Schwartz-Kenney, & Blascovich, 1996, p. 1128). These lay theories provide individuals a means to

construct meaning to particular stimuli, such as a leader or a follower, as well as producing effects outside the perceiver's conscious awareness (Eden & Leviatan, 1975).

Delimitations

The delimitations of this study include the segregation of individuals into the categories of leaders and followers. While all survey participants were considered to be followers, to facilitate the identification of individuals as leaders, job titles and responsibilities were also used as factors to identify individuals as leaders. For example, individuals were categorized as leaders if they held a position title that included supervisor, manager, director or vice president. Individuals were also categorized as leaders if his/her job responsibilities included the hiring, firing, performance appraisal, or management/supervision of other employees.

Of the four generations in the workforce, the focus of this research included only the Baby Boomers (Boomers), Generation X (Gen X, or Gen X'ers) and Millennials (Gen Y, or Gen Y'ers). While there are Veteran generational cohort members still in the workforce, this research assumed that there was not a large enough population of this generational cohort to be included in this research to be statistically meaningful.

This study was not a cross-cultural comparison of the preferred characteristics of followers and leaders, although individuals who are not US citizens did participate in the research. Finally, this study was not longitudinal in nature, thus any insights gained into

the preferred characteristics of followers and leaders are based solely on a one point in time survey of the participants.

Assumptions

This research assumed that the generational cohort to which an individual belongs influenced preferences for characteristics of followers and leaders. This research also assumed that followers within a particular generational cohort shared similar preferences of the characteristics of both followers and leaders. While categorizing individuals as leaders solely based on job title and responsibilities may not necessarily present an accurate categorization of an individual as a leader, this research assumed that individuals holding particular job titles, such as supervisor, manager or director; or those individuals with specific job responsibilities that included the management or supervision of other employees, could be categorized as leaders. This research also assumed that leaders within a particular generational cohort shared similar preferences for the characteristics of both followers and leaders. Finally, this research also assumed that implicit theories influenced an individual's preferences for both the characteristics of followers and leaders.

Summary

This chapter introduced the problem and sub-problems to be examined by this research. Further, it provided background information about the generations in the workforce, followership and leadership. Justification for this proposed research was also

introduced in this chapter. Finally, the delimitations of study, pertinent definitions, and assumptions were also detailed in this chapter.

The next chapter provides a review of the relevant literature on generational theory and generations in the workforce. It also examines pertinent followership and leadership literature. Since this study proposes utilizing implicit theories of followership and implicit theories of leadership, the literature review also examines the role of perception and cognition.

CHAPTER II - LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

This chapter reviews the relevant literature regarding generational theory, US workforce generational characteristics, generational research, followership, leadership, cognition and perception and implicit theories, all of which are pertinent to, and form the basis of, this research.

As stated in Chapter 1, followership has not enjoyed the same level of academic research interest as has leadership, yet much of extant leadership research has focused on follower's perceptions of leader behaviors and characteristics. Various leadership theories have been derived from the follower's ratings of leader behaviors and characteristics (Bass, 2008). A popular conception of leadership is that it is a process involving the cognitions, interpersonal behaviors and attributions of both the leader and the follower. This conception requires the involvement of at least two individuals, in an interactive, bilateral process which occurs between the leader and the follower (Bass, 2008). Thus, the neglect of followers in leadership research excludes an important component in the leadership process.

Today's workforce is comprised of individuals who represent both followers and leaders, and many companies have employees who represent as many as four different generations. Generational research has demonstrated that an individual's birth cohort, or generation, influences his/her values, beliefs and attitudes. Many of these values, beliefs

and attitudes also carry over into the workplace (Arsenault, 2004; Beutell & Wittig-Berman, 2008; Cennamo & Gardner, 2008; Oshagbemi, 2004; Twenge, 2010; Twenge & Campbell, 2008; Twenge et al., 2010). Since an individual's perceptions of leaders occupy an important role in the assessment of both followers and leaders (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004; Goodwin, Wofford, & Boyd, 2000; Jago, 1982; Phillips & Lord, 1981; Whiteley, Sy, & Johnson, 2012), these are important concepts in a combined study of followership and leadership, as differing generations may hold different perceptions of these constructs. Perception is a central component of implicit theories, as an individual's perceptions and beliefs about followership and leadership have been found to influence an individual's ratings of a wide variety of leader behaviors (Chong & Wolf, 2010).

The following sections provide the background for this proposed research, providing a definition of a generation derived from generational theory, as well as identifying some of the characteristics attributed to the various generations in the workforce. Both followership and leadership, as applied to this research, are also discussed, particularly with respect to perception and cognition, as perceptions form the basis of implicit theories of followership and leadership.

Generational Theory

Many widely held beliefs attributed to today's multigenerational workforce are derived mostly from non-empirical sources, such as newspapers, magazines and other popular media (Hammill, 2005; Rodriguez, Green, & Ree, 2003). However, a substantial body of empirical research on generational differences also exists (Beutell & Wittig-Berman, 2008; Twenge, 2010; Twenge & Campbell, 2008). Understanding what

constitutes a generation, the characteristics attributed to today's multigenerational workforce, and how an individual's generational cohort may influence perceptions of followership and leadership is pertinent to this research.

The widely cited generational theorist, Mannheim (1952), defined a generation as a concrete group which creates a type of social bond among its members. While this social bond is not the same as the social bond created by a family, a social bond still exists within a generation. For example, individuals born in the US between 1946 and 1964 are categorized as Baby Boomers (Strauss & Howe, 1997). Any generation has a social bond created by being born around the same time span in history. In addition, any generation experiences similar national, historical and social events during their lifetimes (Eyerman & Turner, 1998). This common historical location of generations, according to Mannheim (1952, p. 382), is another characteristic of a generation, and is a "...social phenomenon...(which) represents nothing more than a particular kind of identity of location, embracing 'age groups' embedded in a historical-social process." Thus, individuals who are born around the same span of years share a common location and social bond created through shared experiences, and are therefore considered to be a generation (Mannheim, 1952).

Generations, through this common historical time period and range of shared historical experiences, create the requisite social bond, and predisposes a generation to certain ways of thinking (Mannheim, 1952). According to Mannheim the shared experiences occurring during childhood create lasting impressions. These lasting impressions help to mold, create and solidify a generational identity. This generational identity also influences and shapes an individual's perceptions, attitudes, beliefs and

values, as well as providing a context for deciphering the meaning of future events (Mannheim, 1952).

King's (2005) definition of a generation, which is similar to Mannheim's (1952), defines this shared range and influence of historical and social events as a generational consciousness. Further, he states that this generational consciousness influences each generational member's future decisions, as well as providing a context for the interpretation of future events (King, 2005).

Eyerman and Turner (1998) define a generation as:

... a cohort of persons passing through time who share a common habitus, hexis, and culture, a function of which is to provide them with a collective memory that serves to integrate the cohort over a finite period of time (p. 93).

This definition explicitly includes the shared emotions, attitudes and dispositions of a generation, referring to this as the collective memory of a generation. Further, Twenge and Campbell (2008, p. 863), proposed that a generation is a "meaningful psychological variable (that) captures the culture of one's upbringing during a specific time period." The influences of many forces, such as parents, peers and the media, as well as the distinct events which a generation experiences during the formative childhood and early adolescent years, all contribute to create common value systems, beliefs and attitudes among members of a particular generational cohort (Twenge & Campbell, 2008).

Strauss and Howe (1991) proposed that a generation consists of people moving through a specific time period, with each group or generation possessing a distinctive sense of self, shaped by the specific 'age location' of the cohort. They defined a

generation as “a special cohort-group whose length approximately matches that of a basic phase of life” (Strauss & Howe, 1991, p. 34). Repeating the recurring theme regarding the impact of childhood and adolescent experiences, they further proposed that these experiences produce a set of behaviors and traits that are unique to the individuals sharing this same age location (Strauss & Howe, 1991).

Each generation also exhibits a peer personality determined through various factors, such as parenting and educational systems. These, and a multitude of other factors, also influence and shape the characteristics of each generation (Strauss & Howe, 1991). Therefore, this complex mix of influences contributes to molding and shaping a wide variety of an individual’s beliefs, values and attitudes.

Thus, a generational cohort represents a finite number of individuals, born within a specific range of years. The individuals comprising a generational cohort, by means of common, shared experiences occurring throughout childhood and adolescence, develop particular behaviors, value, attitudes and beliefs. These behaviors, values, attitudes and beliefs may be unique to their specific generational cohort, and are formed based upon multiple influences, such as peers, parents, media, historical and social events and other forces. The implication of these shared common beliefs, values and attitudes is that members of a particular generational cohort may exhibit similar conceptions of followership and leadership.

Generations in the US Workforce

Despite the wealth of information regarding the various generations in the workforce, no consensus exists among authors regarding the exact birth years associated

with each of the various generations. Nor is there consistent label applied to each of the generational cohorts as well. This research utilized the following framework to define the birth years and labels assigned to each of the generations. Veterans are the individuals born beginning in 1925 and ending in 1945. In 2014, these individuals ranged in age from 69 to 89. Since most of these individuals have reached normal retirement age, this research did not include this generational cohort.

Baby Boomers are individuals born between 1946 and 1964, and will range in age from 50 to 68 years old as of 2014. Although the oldest individuals in this generational cohort have also reached normal US retirement age (age 65), a substantial number of these individuals are also still in the workforce (*Labor Force Statistics from the Current Population Survey, 2012*). Therefore, these individuals represent one of the generations studying by this research. Generation Xers are individuals born in the years following the Baby Boomers, from 1965 to 1981, and ranged in age from 33 to 49 years old in 2014. The succeeding generation, the Millennials, were born between 1982 and 2000 and ranged in age from 14 to 32 years old in 2014. Table 1 summarizes the generational cohorts to be utilized within this research.

Table 1

US Workforce Generations

Generation	Birth Years		Age Range 2014
	Beginning	Ending	
Baby Boomers	1946	1964	50 – 68
Generation X	1965	1981	33 – 49
Millennials	1982	2000	14 – 32

Lancaster and Stillman (2005) use the term ‘cuspers’ to identify those individuals who were born at either the beginning or the end of a particular generation. They identify three sets of cuspers: those born between 1940 and 1945 (Veteran/Boomer); those born between 1960 and 1965 (Boomer/Gen X); and those born between 1975 and 1980 (Gen X/Millennial). According to these authors, individuals born on the cusp of a generation may identify more strongly with either the preceding generation, with their assigned generational cohort, or may even exhibit characteristics attributable to both generations (Lancaster & Stillman, 2005). Other researchers have also noted differences between older and younger members of various generations, dividing the rather expansive Boomer cohort into the early Baby Boomers (born between 1946 and 1954) and the late Baby Boomers (born from 1955 to 1963) (Sessa et al., 2007). A similar division also applies to Gen X, with researchers splitting this generational cohort into those born between 1965 and 1976 (early Gen X) and those born between 1977 and 1982 (late Gen X) (Sessa et al., 2007). Thus, cuspers, early/late Boomers and early/late Gen X, due to the large range of birth years assigned to their generational cohorts, may exhibit characteristics that are consistent with their assigned generational cohort, or characteristics attributable to either the preceding or succeeding generation (Lancaster & Stillman, 2005; Sessa et al., 2007).

Generational Characteristics

Much of the popular literature regarding the US generations has been generated by consultants, marketers and other non-academic authors. Despite the non-empirical nature of these works, it does provide a foundation for understanding the commonly held

perceptions attributed to today's workforce generations. These works also provide summaries of the many historical, social and national events associated with each of these generations (Anonymous, 2008; Appelbaum et al., 2005; Deal et al., 2010; Hammill, 2005; Howe & Strauss, 2000; Johnson & Lopes, 2008; Strauss & Howe, 1991). The importance of these works cannot be ignored as these works have contributed to the popular perceptions, and misconceptions, attributed to today's workforce and is reviewed in the following sections.

The Baby Boomers

The Baby Boomers have influenced and changed almost every facet of American life due to the sheer size of this generational cohort. Approximately 79 million individuals were born during the Baby Boom years, as compared to the previous generation's (Veterans) birthrate of 49 million (Strauss & Howe, 1991). Boomers were the first generation to grow up with television, which became, and continues to be, an important means of learning and entertainment for all generations. Two examples of early television programming that Boomers were exposed to include *Leave it to Beaver* and *Father Knows Best*, both of which depicted a cohesive family and a friendly and orderly society which existed at the beginning of the Baby Boom. However, rapid societal changes occurred during the 1960s and television continued to play an important role in the life of the Boomers by documenting these societal changes, including deeply divisive national events such as the Vietnam War, the Civil Rights movement, women's equality and Watergate were prominent television news reports (Lancaster & Stillman, 2005).

The birth rate following World War II was not the only boom that occurred; the United States economy was also booming from the late 1940s through to 1960s. Jobs were readily available and the production of, and demand for, consumer goods increased substantially during this period. A boom can also be considered to have occurred in educational opportunities for individuals during this time period.

Yet, Boomer's eventually began to question the conservative ideals of their parents, viewing their generation's mission to justify, purify, and sanctify society (Strauss & Howe, 1991). Dubbed "the Consciousness Revolution," Boomers began to revolt against their fathers and the traditionally male-dominated authority and institutions (Strauss & Howe, 1991). There was widespread disillusionment with government, family, the military and other large institutions – the same institutions upon which the Veteran generation had grown to depend upon and trust. This led to social unrest, protests and various attacks against these institutions, which also led to dramatic social changes in the US during the Boomer's early adolescence and young adulthood (Strauss & Howe, 1991).

As a generation, Boomers have been described as idealistic and narcissistic. Boomers also have the distinction of being a generation associated with worsening trends, such as: increased accidental death rates from drunk driving; increased suicide; an increased number of unwed mothers; increased teen unemployment; increased crime rates; and a steady decline in Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) scores (Strauss & Howe, 1991).

The Baby Boomer/Generation X cuspers, born between 1960 and 1965, were too young to join the protest movements of the 1960's, or to even recall much of the

disillusionment of the 1970s. While they may vaguely recall some of the defining events of the Baby Boomer generation, such as Woodstock or Watergate, these events did not have the same impact upon them as they did for older Baby Boomers. By the time the late Baby Boomers or cuspers had graduated from college, the economic boom years had declined into recession (Lancaster & Stillman, 2005).

Individuals born in the mid- to late-1950s, the late Baby Boomers, do not necessarily agree with the popular press characterizations of the entire Baby Boomer generation. Late Boomers view earlier Boomers as idealistic workaholics who were more likely to have placed an emphasis on career over family. Those born in the first half of the Baby Boom were a more integral part of the events of the 1960s, as these first Boomers would have just entered their teens in 1960, while those born in the second half of the Boom would have still been young children in 1960 (Zemke et al., 2000). Thus, these later Baby Boomers did not necessarily share the same experiences as the younger Baby Boomers. This dichotomy between older and younger Baby Boomers reinforces the division of Boomers into early and late Boomers (Zemke et al., 2000) and provides justification by some researchers to divide this generation into separate, distinct generational cohorts of early and late Baby Boomers (Sessa et al., 2007).

Today, older Boomers are reaching normal retirement age, yet the influence of the Baby Boomer generation in the workforce is not waning, as demonstrated by the fact that over fifty six percent of the current US workforce is age 45 to 69 (*Labor Force Statistics from the Current Population Survey*, 2012). Boomers in particular, have been substantially affected by the recent US and worldwide economic events, causing many of them to postpone retirement. For example, many corporations have frozen or terminated

retiree pension plans and/or are no longer offering retiree health care. This has created the need for many Boomers to remain in the workforce beyond the usual retirement age of 65 (Brandon, 2011). Thus, despite their advancing age, Boomers continue to be a significant influence in today's workforce.

Generation X

Gen Xers have the dubious distinction of being born in the shadow of the Baby Boom (Strauss & Howe, 1991; Zemke et al., 2000). Unlike their predecessors, this generation grew up in an era characterized by financial insecurity, family instability, societal insecurity, rapid change and great diversity (Smola & Sutton, 2002). For example, the typical Gen Xer was reared in a home where both parents worked, or where there was only one parent present (Smola & Sutton, 2002). Throughout their childhood and adolescence, Gen Xers were exposed to increasing crime rates, increasing rates of suicide and increasing substance abuse rates (Strauss & Howe, 1991). They were also the first 'wired' generation, as Gen Xers were raised with cable and satellite TV, VCR's, video games, microwave ovens, pagers, cell phones and the personal computer (Lancaster & Stillman, 2005). Gen Xers were also influenced by their parent's experiences during the economic turmoil of the 1980's. Many Gen Xers saw their parents lose their jobs during the 1980s and this has been posited as contributing to a sense of job insecurity among Gen Xers (Johnson & Lopes, 2008).

Viewed as frenetic, shocking, dumb and numb by other generations, negativity and pessimism abound in popular media characterizations of Gen X (Strauss & Howe, 1991). Yet, Lancaster and Stillman (2005, p. 24) refer to this generation as "possibly the

most misunderstood generation in the workforce today,” a sentiment echoed by Tulgan (1995, p. 22), who refers to Gen X as “the most widely misunderstood phenomena facing the HR professional today.” For example, Gen Xers have been demonstrated the ability to slowly reverse several of the earlier trends attributed to them, such as the decline in standardized educational testing scores. Youth violence and crime, as well as substance abuse rates, have also declined among this generation. However, despite evidence to the contrary, these perceptions of Gen X persist, both in the popular media, as well as in the workplace (Strauss & Howe, 1991).

The Millennials

The children of the Baby Boomers, the Millennials, are just beginning to make their impact felt in the workplace. Although the youngest of this generation has not yet joined the workforce, the older members of this generational cohort have been in the workforce for several years now. This is the generation that experienced culture wars, the conflicts in Iraq and Kosovo, a long economic boom, the ‘dot-com’ boom and bust, minivans and SUVs, and the ever growing influence of the internet. This generation, like their Gen X counterparts, grew up with laptops, cell phones and cable and satellite TV (Howe & Strauss, 2000; Twenge & Campbell, 2008).

The Millennials are typically characterized as optimistic, civic-minded, confident, achievement-oriented, sociable, moral, street smart and increasingly diverse (Zemke et al., 2000). Millennials bring collective action, tenacity and technological savvy to the workplace. Millennials also tend to desire less supervision and structure at work. Possibly due to their limited workforce tenure, these individuals are also characterized as having

difficulty dealing with people issues in the workplace (Howe & Strauss, 2000; Zemke et al., 2000). Unlike their Boomer parents, Millennials tend to view authority with polite respect (Zemke et al., 2000). It is also important to realize that the earliest members of this workforce may be categorized as cuspers, as defined by Lancaster and Stillman (2005), since the Millennials in today's workforce were born at the end of the range of years associated with Gen X, but the beginning of the Millennial generation. This means that the cusper Millennials may share similar characteristics as Gen Xers.

As stated at the beginning of this section, popular media characterizations of today's generations are typically presented with little or no supporting evidence. This has spurred much academic research on the multigenerational workplace in an attempt to validate some of these characterizations. The next section reviews some of this empirically-based multi-generational workplace research.

Workplace Generations Research

While the previous section reviewed non-empirical characterizations, this section reviews the academic research regarding the generations in the workplace. Academic researchers have conducted numerous studies in an attempt to validate a number of workforce generational differences, similarities, needs, attitudes, values and beliefs (Levy et al., 2005; Sessa et al., 2007; Smola & Sutton, 2002; Twenge, 2010). A review of this research does confirm some, but not all, of these non-empirical generational characterizations. However, more importantly, it provides evidence of specific, distinguishing attributes among the various generational cohorts. Some of these differences include personality traits, attitudes and behaviors (Twenge, 2010), work

values (Cennamo & Gardner, 2008; Smola & Sutton, 2002), intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Twenge et al., 2010), emotional stability, self-esteem, narcissism, anxiety, depression, locus of control, social consciousness, and self-indulgence (Twenge & Campbell, 2008), intergenerational tension (Urick, Hollensbee, & Masterson, 2012), authenticity, work-life balance (Sullivan et al., 2009) and leader values and behaviors (Sessa et al., 2007).

When discussing generations, Schuman and Scott (1989, p. 359) stated that each generation receives “a distinctive imprint from the social and political events of its youth.” Schuman and Scott’s research attempted to validate the hypothesis that memories of important political events and social change differ, depending upon the individual’s generational cohort (Schuman & Scott, 1989). If, as generational theorists posit, these events help to shape and influence an individual’s values, beliefs and attitudes (Eyerman & Turner, 1998; Mannheim, 1952), then individuals experiencing different events in early childhood and adolescent should demonstrate different values, attitudes and beliefs. Schuman and Scott’s (1989) research validated the proposition that individuals form perceptions at an early age based on these differing experiences. Specifically, the participants in this research identified a disproportionate number of similar events which occurred at time when the respondents were in their teens or early 20s. This, according to the researchers, created a generational imprint that endured throughout an individual’s lifetime. These experiences created the potential to influence future action as well (Schuman & Scott, 1989). Thus, with respect to this research, generational members may form perceptions about followership and leadership from early childhood and adolescent

experiences, and these perceptions may have a lifelong impact on individual's assessments of the behaviors and characteristics of both followers and leaders.

Arsenault (2004) found that generations do form distinct personas, or a generational identity, based on a generational cohort's ability to recall similar or differing social, national, world, cultural events and even political leaders. His research revealed that each generational cohort recalled similar historical events, movies, television programs, music and even leaders. This research also supported the 'cusp' effect, finding that almost 23% of the respondents identified as cuspers provided similar responses as individuals in the preceding or succeeding generation. This work, too, supported generational theory regarding the generational effect derived from shared, distinct, collective memories of a particular generation (Eyerman & Turner, 1998; Mannheim, 1952). Since these shared, distinct memories may influence generational values, attitudes, beliefs and perceptions, Arsenault (2004) concluded that differences in beliefs, values and attitudes do exist among the various generations. This work also supported the proposition that each generation develops its own unique values, beliefs and attitudes, which are influenced by the early childhood and adolescent social, national, world and cultural events.

Arsenault (2004) also found further evidence of generational effects as applied to follower and leader assessment as significant differences were found in the rankings of admired leadership traits. For example, the mean ranking scores for leader honesty was significantly higher for Veterans and Baby Boomers as compared to Gen X and Millennials. Other leader attributes demonstrated similar differences between the generations, as Veterans and Baby Boomers were more likely to believe that followers

were more than just employees, compared to Gen Xers and Millennials. Gen Xers and Millennials ranked a leader's determination and ambition as more highly admired characteristics. This finding was significantly different from Veterans and Baby Boomers. Based on these findings, Arsenault (2004) stated that these rankings provided insight into each generation's preferred leadership style. This is particularly important for this current research since these generational effects are hypothesized to influence the ratings of follower and leader characteristics.

Twenge and Campbell (2008) hypothesized that a generation was a meaningful psychological variable and that generational psychological differences have a huge influence on workplace behavior (Twenge & Campbell, 2008). For example, Twenge and Campbell (2008) noted an increase in individualism, particularly among Gen Xers and Millennials, which can be detrimental to collaborative, team-based work. They also found increased narcissism in younger generations, which may result in overly high expectations regarding meaningful work, as well as overly high expectations regarding rapid advancement among this younger generation of workers (Twenge & Campbell, 2008).

Further generational workplace research by Twenge, Campbell, Hoffman, and Lance (2010) proposed that the different experiences and events which each generation was exposed to would influence a particular generation's work expectations and preferences for intrinsic rewards, extrinsic rewards and social values (Twenge et al., 2010). Indeed, they found that distinct differences were exhibited among the various generations, such as Gen X and Millennials' desire for more leisure time. Gen Xers were also significantly more likely to value extrinsic work rewards, while Millennials

exhibited less of a desire for extrinsic rewards than Gen X. Millennials also valued the social rewards of work less highly than did Gen X and Boomers (Twenge et al., 2010). This work clearly demonstrated that there are generational differences which influenced work values among the various workforce generations.

Smola and Sutton (2002) also examined work values and beliefs among the various workplace generations, specifically investigating whether an individual's work values were influenced by his/her generation, and, whether these values change over time. As with other workplace generational research, their results demonstrated that there were significant differences between Baby Boomers and Gen Xers (Millennials were dropped from the analysis due to the low number of participants). The results validated the proposition that work values are influenced by the events of childhood and adolescence. For example, they found that Gen Xers were less likely to be loyal to an organization or to feel that work was an important part of life. They stated that this attitude is likely derived from this generation's experience, and, in particular, this generation's parent's experience, during the sluggish economy of their early childhood years in the 1980's. They also found that Gen Xers felt that working hard was an indication of one's worth (Smola & Sutton, 2002). However, these researchers also found that workers' values may change over time, as the older workers who participated in this research showed significant differences from participants from a similar 1974 survey. The 1974 participants exhibited a stronger belief that working hard makes an individual a better person; yet, the older participants from this 2002 research were less likely to exhibit the same belief. This suggested that over time, societal views may have a stronger influence on some values (Smola & Sutton, 2002). Thus, other influences, such as

changing or evolving societal views, may also influence an individual's perceptions, which may also influence the perceptions of followers and leaders.

Of particular interest is to this current research is the research conducted by Sessa, Kabacoff, Deal and Brown (2007). This work explored generational differences with respect to leader attributes and behaviors, hypothesizing that generational differences in attitudes, values, and beliefs influenced how each generational cohort perceived leadership attributes and behaviors. They also hypothesized that generational differences would be exhibited not only by a leader's subordinates, but also by a leader's superiors (Sessa et al., 2007). Indeed, the various generations were found to exhibit different perceptions of the leader attributes considered to be most important. For example, older workers valued an experienced leader who shared decision-making, had good listening skills and who provided encouragement (Sessa et al., 2007).

These researchers found that there are differences between and within the various generational cohorts, specifically the Boomers and Gen Xers. This research employed a more limited span of birth years for Baby Boomers and Gen Xers, splitting these two generational cohorts into Early and Late Boomers, and Early Gen Xers and Late Gen Xers, respectively. This split was done due to the large span of years each of these cohorts encompasses.

Early Boomers valued persuasiveness, diplomacy, experience, trustworthiness and shared decision-making in their leaders. Late Boomers valued trustworthiness also, but unlike the Early Boomers, they identified a leader with a clear focus as an important leader attribute. Early Gen Xers exhibited a desire for a leader who recognized their

talents and provided feedback. However, the same leader attributes were not valued as highly by Late Gen Xers (Sessa et al., 2007).

While managers from different generational cohorts displayed commonality in preferences for particular attributes and behaviors, perhaps the most important implication of the research by Sessa et al. (2007) is that manager behavior was found to differ based on generational cohort. These differences were described by the researchers as represented by a continuum, with behaviors ranging from individually focused to a more consensual style of leadership. Younger generation leaders exhibited a more energetic focus on short-term goals, while leaders from the older generations exhibited a calming, consideration approach toward their followers. Leaders from the older generations were also more likely to draw upon and utilize the skills and abilities of the workforce than were leaders from the younger generations (Sessa et al., 2007).

Thus, this research demonstrated that generational effects in the workplace included not only the perceptions of leader attributes, but also actual leader behaviors. The evidence of differing perceptions of leader behaviors, and leadership in general, among and between the various generations again provides validation of one of the tenets of generational theory that members of the same generational cohort develop similar behaviors, values and attitudes that are shaped by shared memories of distinct national, social and historical events occurring during childhood and adolescence (Mannheim, 1952). This research is also foundational to this proposed research, particularly as it pertains to perceptions of followers and leaders.

Table 2 summarizes the generational research by various workplace generational researchers. Each construct is ranked as high, medium or low based on the researcher's

findings. In instances where no comparison was able to be made between Boomers, Gen X and Millennials, a dash appears in the rankings.

Table 2

Workplace Generational Research

Construct	Boomer	Gen X	Millennial	Authors
Work Centrality	H	M	L	1, 2
Work Ethic	H	M	L	1, 2
Leisure Values	L	M	H	1, 2
Extrinsic Values	L	M	H	2
Individualism	L	M	H	2
Job Satisfaction	-	L	H	2
Self Esteem	L	-	H	2, 3
Assertiveness	L	-	H	2, 3
Narcissism	L	L	H	2, 3
Loyalty	H	M	L	2, 3
Work/Life Balance	L	H	H	2, 3
Authenticity	L	H	-	4
Balance	L	H	-	4
Affiliation/Social values	L	M	H	4
Status Values	L	H	H	5
Freedom	L	L	H	5
Perceived Organizational Extrinsic Values	H	L	L	5
Perceived Higher Level of Status/ Extrinsic Value and Intention to Leave	L	H	H	5

1 – Smola and Sutton (2002)

2 – Twenge, Campbell, Hoffman and Lance (2010)

3 – Twenge and Campbell (2008)

4 – Sullivan, Forret, Carraher and Mainiero (2009)

5- Cennamo and Gardner (2008)

Table 3 summarizes Arsenault's (2004) generational rankings of leadership characteristics.

Table 3

Generational Rankings Preferred Leadership Characteristics (Arsenault, 2004)

Rank	Boomers	Gen X	Millennials
1	Honesty	Honesty	Honesty
2	Competence	Competence	Determination
3	Loyalty	Determination	Loyalty
4	Caring	Loyalty	Competence
5	Determination	Ambitious	Ambitious
6	Inspiration	Inspiration	Inspiration
7	Forward-looking	Caring	Caring
8	Ambitious	Forward-looking	Self-confident
9	Imagination	Imagination	Imagination

Table 4 summarizes Sessa et al.'s (2007) workplace generational rankings of leadership characteristics. This work is presented separately since both Baby Boomers and Gen Xers were split into early/late generational cohorts, which demonstrated some differences within the split generational cohorts.

Table 4

Generational Rankings Preferred Leadership Characteristics- Sessa, Kabacoff and Deal (2007)

Rank	Early Baby Boomer	Late Baby Boomer	Early Gen X	Late Gen X	Millennials
1	Credible	Credible	Credible	Credible	Dedicated
2	Trusted	Farsighted	Trusted	Listens Well	Listens Well
3	Listens Well	Experienced	Farsighted	Dependable	Focused
4	Farsighted	Trusted	Listens Well	Trusting	Encouraging
5	Encouraging	Encouraging	Focused	Encouraging	Optimistic
6	Experienced	Listens Well	Experienced	Experienced	Dependable
7	Dependable	Dependable	Encouraging	Good Coach	Trusted
8	Persuasive	Focused	Optimistic	Numerically astute	Experienced
9	Dedicated	A Good Coach	Dependable	Perceptive	Supportive
10	Candid/Honest	Dedicated	Perceptive	Focused	Trusting
11	Diplomatic	Trusting	Persuasive	Trusted	Creative
12	Delegates	Global Leadership Image	A Good Coach	Optimistic	Candid and Honest

Overall, previous workplace generational research has demonstrated that generational differences do exist in values, beliefs and attitudes. In addition, this research has found that Boomers, Gen X and Millennials do exhibit different preferences for leadership attributes, thus an individual's generation may influence that individual's preferences for certain characteristics of leaders. Yet, similar studies have not yet been conducted to determine if an individual's generation influences the preferred attributes which followers possess. The next section reviews some of the pertinent literature regarding followership, which, as stated previously, is not as abundant as leadership research, yet still provides insight into our accumulated knowledge of followers and followership.

Followership

Despite a plethora of leadership research, followers and followership have been studied much less extensively than leadership (Burns, 1978; Meindl et al., 1985). Burns (1978) called the lack of inclusion of followers one of the most serious failures of leadership research. This prominent academic focus on leaders led Burns to refer to leadership research as elitist, particularly that leadership research which characterizes leaders as heroic figures who hold power over the powerless follower masses (Burns, 1978). This section reviews the literature on followership, which continues to be heavily conceptual in nature, as a lack of empirical examination of followers and followership exists even today.

With a few exceptions, academic interest in followers and followership did not develop until the publication of Kelley's (1992) *The Power of Followership* (Baker, 2007). One of the few exceptions to the interest in followers occurred during the 1930s when Mary Parker Follett spoke about the interdependence of leaders and followers, the active role of followers and the neglected focus on the follower. She stated:

And now let me speak to you for a moment of something which seems to me of the utmost importance, but which has been far too little considered, and that is the part of the followers in the leadership situation. Their part is not merely to follow, they have a very active part to play and that is to keep the leader in control of a situation. Let us not think that we are either leaders or – nothing of much importance (Follett, 1933, p. 172).

She continues:

As one of those led we have a part in leadership. In no aspect of our subject do we see a greater discrepancy between theory and practice than here... Leader and follower are both following the invisible leader – the common purpose (Follett, 1933, p. 172).

While the term, subordinate, is frequently used to describe a follower, both the negative and passive connotations of this term has led researchers to utilize a variety of other terminology, such as: followers, collaborators, participants, direct reports and constituents (Uhl-Bien & Pillai, 2007). Conceptually, followership has been described as a function of the follower, leader and situational variables (Bjugstad, Thach, Thompson, & Morris, 2006; Hersey, Blanchard, & Johnson, 2008). However, just as there is no one universally agreed upon definition of leaders, nor a succinct description of leadership, there is no universally agreed upon definition of followers, nor description of followership (Bass, 2008).

Kelley's (1988) conceptualization of leadership and followership utilized the skills and abilities unique to each role, distinguishing the roles of the follower and leader as:

... people who are effective in the leader role have the vision to set corporate goals and strategies, the interpersonal skills to achieve consensus, the verbal capacity to communicate enthusiasm to large and diverse groups of individuals, the organizational talent to coordinate disparate efforts and, above all, the desire to lead.

People who are effective in the follower role have the vision to see both the forest and the trees, the social capacity to work well with others, the strength of character to flourish

without heroic status, the moral and psychological balance to pursue personal and corporate goals at no cost to others, and, above all, the desire to participate in a team effort for the accomplishment of some greater common purpose (R. E. Kelley, 1988, pp. 146-147).

Kelley, too, agreed that despite a substantial volume of leadership research, leadership research had yet to produce a model that specified how to produce leaders, or even how to predict who would be an effective leader. Kelley's work reversed the lens to focus on followers, since, as he stated, "Without followers, leadership is meaningless and leaders don't exist" (1992, p. 46).

Kelley (1992) identified five different follower styles which are based upon two dimensions: an individual's active engagement in work, and an individual's independent critical thinking. He defined five distinct followership styles: Exemplary, Alienated, Conformist, Pragmatist, and Passive. Kelley described exemplary followers as possessing a variety of job skills, organizational skills and values. These attributes combine to add value to the organization, as exemplary followers possess higher independent critical thinking and are more actively engaged in their work. A contrasting style of follower, the alienated follower, feels exploited by both the organization and the leader. Typically alienation, according to Kelley (1992), results from followers' unmet expectations and broken trust with leaders. Conformist followers, while demonstrating some positive attributes, such as readily accepting work assignments, tend to score lower on the independent critical thinking dimension, thus letting their leaders think for them. This can lead to the conformist follower simply yielding to the leader's views and judgment. Pragmatists comprise approximately 25 to 35% of the workforce, according to Kelley

(1992). These individuals usually follow rules and regulations, yet have limited effectiveness, as they look to the leader not only to think for them, but to also guide them. Passive followers also typically require constant attention from the leader. Further, Kelley stated that many passive followers simply have not had the opportunity to develop their own follower skills (R. E. Kelley, 1992). Table 5 summarizes Kelley's followership styles and how these styles are determined based on the scores on the dimensions of active engagement and independent critical thinking.

Table 5

Kelley's Followership Styles

Followership Style	Independent Thinking Score	Active Engagement Score
Exemplary	High	High
Alienated	High	Low
Conformist	Low	High
Pragmatist	Medium	Medium
Passive	Low	Low

Adapted from *The Power of Followership*, Robert E. Kelley 1992.

Kelley's Followership Questionnaire (1992) is a self-assessment instrument which examines how an individual perceives his or her role as a follower, measuring the individual's dimensions of critical thinking and active engagement. Some representative statements from this instrument include: whether work contributes to the fulfillment of societal or personal goals; an assessment of an individual's level of commitment; whether an individual utilizes independent thinking; whether work fulfills some personal development need; an assessment of an individual's need for supervision and direction;

initiative taking; problem solving; risk assessment, as well as other dimensions of engagement and critical thinking (R. E. Kelley, 1992).

One issue with self-assessment instruments may be respondent bias. For example, individuals may respond to surveys by answering what they think that the researcher wants to hear. Memories or perceptions also may distort reality as an individual's responses may be influenced by recent events or the situational context (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). One prominent issue with Kelley's Followership Questionnaire (1992) is the lack of any statistical evidence with which to validate the instrument (Blanchard, Welbourne, Gilmore, & Bullock, 2009).

Even though Kelley's (1992) work is considered one of the seminal works on followership (Baker, 2007), his model and instrument have been utilized by very few academic researchers, perhaps due to the lack of substantial statistical validation of the Followership Questionnaire (Blanchard et al., 2009). Tanoff and Barlow (2002) did conduct an internal consistency evaluation of Kelley's Followership Questionnaire (1992) for a study which examined personality traits and followership. They found the internal consistency (α) of the Followership Questionnaire to be 0.84 for the independent critical thinking scale, and 0.68 for the active engagement scale, yet, they labeled both of these as "...minimally acceptable" (Tanoff & Barlow, 2002, p. 163). Their study also had limited generalizability as the participants were a particularly homogeneous sample consisting of undergraduate students at a military college (Tanoff & Barlow, 2002). Nonetheless, they called their research a significant beginning to the evaluation of Kelley's Followership Questionnaire (1992), and suggested that future research should

examine followership with respect to the increasingly diverse workforce (Tanoff & Barlow, 2002).

Another study which utilized Kelley's Followership Questionnaire (1992) examined followership styles and employee organizational attachment (Blanchard et al., 2009). However, rather than a two-factor model of followership, this research resulted in a three-factor model of followership. They found that a third factor, follower affect, existed. Follower affect was derived from the statements which categorized an individual as: being committed and energized; having personal goals aligned with organizational and societal goals; and having personal dreams and enthusiasm. The researchers described these factors as inappropriate measures of follower behavior since these attributes reflected follower attitudes and not follower behavior (Blanchard et al., 2009). Even with the third factor, follower affect, Blanchard et al. (2009) still concluded that the followership factors validated as Kelley (1992) had predicted, even though the items did not group exactly as predicted. However, they also urged caution when using the Followership Questionnaire, particularly if no factor validation is performed (Blanchard et al., 2009).

In summary, Kelley's (1992) work is credited with bringing a focus to the neglected study of followers. Kelley (1992) identified five follower styles, based upon the dimensions of active engagement in work and independent critical thinking. However, this instrument has been infrequently used in academic research, perhaps due to the lack of statistical validity of the instrument and the confusion regarding the constructs which it actually measures. Regardless of any issues with Kelley's Followership Questionnaire

(1992), his work spurred greater interest in the examination of followers and still remains an influential work on followers and followership (Baker, 2007).

Another model of followership, developed by Chaleff (2009), characterizes followers along the dimensions of follower support for the leader and challenge of the leader. Chaleff (2009) suggested that a courageous follower benefits not only them self, but the leader and the organization as well. This is derived from the contributions of the courageous follower to leadership development which occurs through a follower's courage to assume responsibility, as well as to both serve and challenge a leader. Courageous followers also know when to leave the leader, particularly if it becomes apparent that the follower is becoming, or has become, detrimental to the group's common purpose (Dvir & Shamir, 2003).

Similar to Kelley's (1992) work, Chaleff's (2009) model also has not been embraced by the academic community and also lacks empirical evidence supporting the validity of the instrument. Despite the lack of statistical validity and limited usage of these models and instruments, Baker states that the works of Kelley (1992) and Chaleff (2009) "...became the primary works on which subsequent discussions of followership were based" (Baker, 2007, p. 50).

Yet even after the publications of Kelley (1992) and Chaleff's works (2009), academic research still remained mostly focused on the leader and not the follower. If followers were included in this research, they were included solely to assist in understanding leadership, according to Meindl, Ehrlick, and Dukerich (1985). This highly critical view of leadership research, entitled *The Romance of Leadership*, criticizes

leadership research and its dominant focus on leaders, and the presumed sole importance of leadership factors (Meindl et al., 1985).

Rather than this sole focus on leadership, Meindl et al. (1985) called for the recognition of the importance of the followers' role and the situational context in defining leadership. According to Meindl et al. (1985, p. 330), the romance of leadership "... is about the thoughts of followers: how leaders are constructed and represented in their thought systems." This approach assumed that the relationship between leaders and followers was influenced not only by the leaders' behaviors, but also by follower factors and follower/leader relationships. Thus, the behavior of followers is not controlled and directed by the leader; rather, the behavior of followers is controlled by other influences, such as the social construction process of leadership (Meindl, 1995).

One view of this social constructionist perspective posits that an individual's interaction with the environment assists in the creation and interpretation of reality (Carsten, Uhl-Bien, West, Patera, & McGregor, 2010). This process of the creation and interpretation assists individuals to construct reality around institutionalized norms for thinking, feeling and behaving (Carsten et al., 2010). For example, some leaders may construct their role around decision making, being an agent of change, or around authority and control over others. Drawing upon this social constructionist perspective of roles, Carsten et al.'s (2010) social constructionist perspective of followership attempted to identify the roles around which followers construct followership. They sought to draw attention away from the leader and, instead, proposed a focus on follower behaviors. This research also defined leadership from the follower perspective in order to gain an

understanding of these social processes, influences, and situational context to provide implications for leader behavior (Meindl, 1995).

According to Carsten et al., followers constructed their roles along three dimension: passive, active or proactive. Passive followers tended to socially construct their roles with an emphasis on the importance of taking and following orders. These followers also tended to defer to the leader's knowledge and expertise. Passive social construction of the follower role also included loyalty and support of the leader. Carsten et al. (2010) attribute this to a socialized tendency to obey authority figures, as well as the attribution of power and status to those in authority positions.

Active social construction of the follower role was defined by a follower's willingness to offer opinions when provided the opportunity. While an active social construction of the follower role does not mean that these followers were always in agreement with the leader, they still demonstrated obedience and loyalty to the leader (Carsten et al., 2010).

Proactive social construction of the follower role was representative of a follower/leader partnership relationship, with proactive followers viewing themselves as active participants in the leadership process. These individuals are willing to challenge their leader in a constructive manner, similar to what Chaleff (2009) proposed in his model. Proactive social constructionists of the follower role also work to advance the mission of the department or organization through this active follower role (Carsten et al., 2010).

Yet their research also found a large disparity with respect to themes of obedience, expressing opinions and taking initiative. These disparities led them to

conclude that individual's social construction of the follower role is based upon an individual schema regarding how someone should act in relation to the leader (Carsten et al., 2010). Thus, Carsten et al.'s (2010) work clearly aligns with the works of both Kelley (1992) and Chaleff (2009) as similar perceived attributes of followers also contributed to the various social constructions of the follower role.

While Kelley (1992), Chaleff (2009) and Carsten et al. (2010) attempted to examine and define follower roles, Shamir, Pillai, Bligh and Uhl-Bien (2007) identified the roles followers have typically been assigned in leadership research. The most common and traditional role of the follower is as a recipient of the leaders' influence. In this role, the leader is the causal agent and the leader's traits and behaviors are the independent variables; the follower's perceptions, attitudes and behaviors represent the dependent variables. Followers have also been categorized in the role of a moderator of the leader's influence in leadership research. While followers are still passive recipients of the leader's influence, this follower role acknowledges that the leader's influence may be moderated by specific follower characteristics. Further, certain conditions, such as the appropriate training, experience, and job knowledge, may negate the need for leadership, and the leader's impact upon organizational success may be irrelevant under these conditions. Referred to as substitutes for leadership (Kerr & Jermier, 1978), the follower in this role possesses all of the behaviors required for organizational success. Shared leadership, another follower role categorization, is based on the doubt of the usefulness of distinguishing between the roles of the follower or leader, suggesting that leadership is not a role, but rather a function or activity that is shared among organizational members (Shamir et al., 2007). Thus, while followers have played an important role in the

examination of leadership, they have not been the specific focus in such examinations of leadership. Yet, the role of the follower remains a critical component, regardless of how leadership is defined.

Dvir and Shamir (2003) investigated followers roles, with a specific focus on follower's development level and its impact upon leadership behaviors. They hypothesized that a follower's initial development level would positively predict transformational leadership ratings over time. However, their results did not clearly demonstrate that actual leadership behaviors influenced or changed follower's perceptions of leadership. In fact, their results demonstrated that the relationship between leader and follower was much more complex than they had hypothesized (Dvir & Shamir, 2003). While they focused on followers to predict leadership behavior, Dvir and Shamir (2003) were not explicitly examining followers, but rather examining how followers roles and behaviors impacted leadership behaviors.

Citing a lack of studies which had examined personality characteristics as indicators of differences in leadership, Hetland, Sandal, and Johnsen (2008) examined the relationship of follower personality characteristics to leadership ratings. They proposed that personality characteristics were related to leadership ratings through two mechanisms: the follower relationship with the leader; and individual subjective evaluations of leadership (Hetland et al., 2008). This research specifically examined followers' ratings of leaders on transformational, transactional, and passive-avoidance leadership characteristics, along with the Big Five personality traits (Hetland et al., 2008). Their overall conclusion was that leadership research needed to emphasize and incorporate subordinate characteristics in future research (Hetland et al., 2008). This

research also demonstrated the feasibility of incorporating follower perceptions in leadership research in an enhanced model of leadership (Hetland et al., 2008).

The interaction between leadership and followership is demonstrated throughout much of the followership research and is frequently based upon a follower's perceptions of a leader (Bass, 2008). Much of the leadership research has been derived from follower ratings of leaders (Rush, Thomas, & Lord, 1977), with multiple researchers having explored, both conceptually and empirically, followership and its relationship to leadership, including the roles assigned to followers within leadership research. While researchers such as Kelley (1992) and Chaleff (2009) have developed several theoretical constructs and models of followership, these models have not been extensively empirically validated. The results of this followership research are varying models and typologies of followership. As with leadership, there is not one comprehensive framework which fully explains followers and followership.

Meindl et al.'s (1985) criticism of the lack of focus on the follower in leadership research is credited with inspiring and challenging the traditional thinking regarding leadership and followership, as well as forming the basis for the development of follower-centric perspectives of leadership (Shamir et al., 2007). Further, it also acted as the impetus for additional investigation of the cognitive processes involved in the follower-leader relationship, including the categorization of follower roles in leadership research. It is also credited with furthering the development of implicit theories of both leadership and followership (Shamir et al., 2007). Meindl et al.'s (1985) work remains an influential factor in driving different perspectives of both followership and leadership research.

Typically leadership research has included followers with a sole focus on the follower's perceptions of the attributes, characteristics and behaviors of leaders, as perceived by the followers (Rush et al., 1977). Since perception plays an important role in the assessment of leadership, the next section reviews research on perceptions, cognitions, and categorization, which are essential building blocks of implicit theories.

Perception, Cognition and Categorization

As generational theorists have posited, and generational research has confirmed, an individual's values, attitudes and beliefs are shaped by the events occurring during early childhood through adolescence (Arsenault, 2004; Mannheim, 1952; Twenge & Campbell, 2008). Understanding the cognitive processes involved in the formation of values, attitudes and beliefs provides pertinent background to implicit theories, which are central to this research. Therefore, this section reviews research on perception, cognition and categorization.

According to Rosch (1978), human beings are cognitive misers who seek to achieve as much information as possible about a particular stimulus, while expending the least amount of cognitive effort. Thus, cognitive economy is accomplished through the assignment of categories to various stimuli. This process of categorization reduces both the need to recall the infinite differences among various stimuli, as well as assists in the differentiation of stimuli. Further, Rosch (1978) proposed that there are two principles to this process of cognitive economy and category formation. First, a category must provide the maximum amount of information with the least amount of cognitive effort. Second, categories must be predictable and non-arbitrary. These principles of categorization have

implications for multiple areas of study in psychology, such as individual perceptions (Rosch, 1978). Therefore, applying these rules of cognitive economy, the same categorization principles should apply to perceptions of followers and leaders. Thus, the myriad of attributes that an individual may associate with a leader or a follower need not be recalled each time that an individual is confronted with these stimuli. Too, these stimuli (leader and follower) must be predictable and non-arbitrary. Cognitive economy also dictates that categories must be as separate and distinct from each other as possible. Therefore, they must also have clearly defined boundaries. Membership within a unique category provides a mechanism to achieve the sufficient, formal and necessary criteria required for cognitive economy.

Further, prototypes are defined as the clearest representation of category membership. Prototypes may also be defined by an individual's judgment and perception of the goodness of fit to a particular category (Rosch, 1978). Applying the principles of categorization to both followers and leaders, both followers and leaders should therefore fit a specific typology, or prototype. Perceptions of followers and leaders must match their respective categories, and must provide goodness of fit to their respective categories. Leaders and followers must therefore be perceived to be two distinct categories. However, contrary to Rosch's (1978) categorization principles, the distinction between a leader and a follower may not always conform to these clearly defined boundaries. For example, a leader may also be a follower, just as a follower may also be a leader, depending upon the situation and context.

Further, the principles of categorization contain both a horizontal and a vertical dimension. The vertical dimension of a category is hierarchically structured and defines

the highest degree of inclusiveness within a particular category. The broadest and most inclusive level of the vertical dimension is the superordinate level. This superordinate level contains the most abstract representations of the category prototype. Below this superordinate level is the basic level of categorization, and below the basic level is the subordinate level of categorization, which is the least inclusive level (Rosch, 1978). The most important and useful level, or representations for categorization, are, however; the prototypes at the basic categorization level. Basic level prototypes provide the greatest level of differentiation among stimuli (Antonakis, Cianciolo, & Sternberg, 2004). As an example, if furniture represents the superordinate level; a table may be representative of the basic level object, and a kitchen table may represent the subordinate level (Lord, Foti, & Phillips, 1982).

The horizontal dimension of categorization differentiates categories at the same level of inclusiveness and is the dimension along which the different superordinate, basic and subordinate levels vary. This horizontal dimension is where superordinate categories vary, such as the differences between categories of furniture. The basic category of furniture varies, for example, in the differences between a chair and a table. Further, the type of chair, such as a kitchen table chair or a living room chair, are representative of the subordinate category (Lord et al., 1982).

The distinctiveness of a particular category is enhanced when it is defined in terms of the most prototypical category attributes. Prototypicality is the abstract representation of the clearest example of category membership and is related to the degree of family resemblance structure among categories. Thus, highly prototypical attributes of a category tend to be similar across the horizontal dimension of that category

(Rosch, 1978). While category members may have several attributes in common with one or more other members within a category, few attributes should be common to all category members (Lord et al., 1982).

Utilizing these principles with leadership, Lord, Foti and Phillips (1982) defined leadership as a cognitive category which exists in memory. Therefore, according to Rosch's (1978) principles of categorization, like all other categories, leadership must be hierarchically organized. According to Lord et al. (1982), the cognitive categories within the leadership hierarchy consist of the distinction between leaders and non-leaders; the distinction between different types of leaders; and, actual leaders. Each of these categorizations may be comprised of multiple attributes, yet, according to Rosch's (1978) principles, human beings do not recall all of the infinite number of attributes of leaders. However, all attributes regarding leaders and followers is stored in memory and available for recall. So, when the leader stimulus is encountered, individuals do not recall of the myriad of leader attributes stored in memory; rather, individuals simply have a mental picture of what a leader is and the attributes which leadership encompasses (Lord et al., 1982).

Thus, based on these principles, a leader must fit an individual's predefined categorization and prototype, consisting of certain perceived attributes of the leader category. Extending and applying this to followers, an individual should also hold some predefined categorization and prototype of follower, consisting of the perceived attributes of followers and followership. As Hall and Lord (1995, p. 267) state, "Extensive research indicates that people do in fact have hierarchically structured *leadership categories*, which vary in their inclusiveness, and are based on a pattern of overlapping similarity."

Rephrasing this statement and substituting followership, research should therefore indicate that people do have, in fact, hierarchically structured *followership categories*, which vary in inclusiveness, and are based on a pattern of overlapping similarity (italics added for emphasis).

Kelley (1987), in reasoning similar to Rosch (1978), concluded that individuals are not only interested in understanding their world, but also in controlling it. This process of attributing traits and behaviors provides a means of affecting this control over their world (H. H. Kelley, 1987). Thus, individual perceptions play an important role in both identifying and categorizing an individual as either a follower or a leader through the process of attributing traits and behaviors associated with followers and leaders.

Rosch's (1978) work provided leadership researchers with the background to delve further into the role perceptions played in leadership research, specifically focusing on individual's perceptions of leadership and followership. Further, Rosch's (1978) work also provided the basis for the development of implicit theories of leadership and followership, which are discussed in the next section.

Implicit Leadership and Followership Theories

Typical leadership research has been conducted by soliciting input from individuals who report to the leader, with some research also soliciting input from a leader's leader (Rush et al., 1977). However, the results obtained from these assessments may reflect an individual's perceptions, or implicit theories about leaders and leadership, rather than any true underlying factor structure (Rush et al., 1977). This section discusses the influence of implicit theories in leadership research.

One of the most widely used leadership measurement instruments, The Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire Form XII (LBDQ-XII), measures the dimensions of leader consideration and initiating structure (Stogdill, 1963). Consideration refers to the extent to which a leader exhibits concern for the welfare of members of the workgroup. For example, a considerate leader may express appreciation for good work. This leadership dimension is also characterized by the maintenance of the self-esteem of followers, accomplished by treating followers equally. Leaders exhibiting consideration are approachable and typically encourage and utilize followers' suggestions. Initiation structure, on the other hand, is demonstrated by and through the extent to which a leader initiates and organizes activity within the group. Initiation structure can also be characterized by a leader who defines the manner in which the work is to be performed. Initiation leadership behaviors focus on work standards and stress the importance of meeting deadlines (Northouse, 2010).

A meta-analytic review of the LBDQ-XII's ratings of consideration and initiating structure revealed a moderately strong, non-zero correlation with leadership outcomes. These outcomes included follower job satisfaction, follower satisfaction with the leader and leader job effectiveness. Yet, researchers have recently raised questions regarding the validity of these measures (Judge, Piccolo, & Ilies, 2004). Fleishman (1951) argued that the validity of both consideration and initiating structure was curvilinear and that there were diminishing returns to the increased use of consideration and initiating structure (Dansereau & Yammarino, 2005). The LBDQ-XII has also been criticized due to the data sources used in validating the LBDQ-XII, the discriminant validity of the measures, as well as the inability to determine whether consideration was superior to initiating

structure, and vice versa (Judge et al., 2004). These methodological and conceptual arguments against the LBDQ-XII have been argued to limit the validity and utility of the LBDQ-XII, particularly in light of impact of implicit leadership theories (Judge et al., 2004). In fact, implicit leadership theory has consistently found that a rater's perceptions influence the ratings of leaders, not only when using the LBDQ-XII, but also when utilizing other leadership behavior measurement instruments (Phillips, 1984). Thus, any leadership research which has been conducted, utilizing many of the instruments intended to measure leadership, may have produced inaccurate results, due to the influence of an individual's implicit leadership theories.

What is implicit leadership theory? According to Eden and Leviatan (1975), implicit leadership theory (ILT) was born almost by accident, as their original intent was to examine implicit organizational theory (Eden & Leviatan, 1975). This hypothesized theory of implicit organizational theory was derived from implicit personality theory, and, developed from questions surrounding the relationships between constructs found in a set of data, and whether that data actually reflected an implicit organizational theory (Schyns & Meindl, 2005).

Utilizing common organizational research scales, Eden and Leviatan (1975) specifically examined whether the factor structure of leader traits was influenced by prior conceptions regarding the personality traits of leaders. The goal of this study was to replicate, under implicit conditions, the factor structure typically obtained under normal circumstances when individuals were asked to rate his or her own organization, particularly in the absence of complete information (Eden & Leviatan, 1975). The participants were provided only limited information within the research instrument. Yet,

without exception, Eden and Leviatan (1975) were able to replicate the four factors that the leadership items were designed to assess: support, work facilitation, interaction facilitation and goal emphasis. Thus, in the absence of complete information upon which to base the ratings, according to the researchers, the results provided evidence that the participants' implicit leadership theories determined the factor structure (Eden & Leviatan, 1975).

Although the 148 participants in this study were instructed not to use any information other than that presented in the study, upon further questioning, 81 respondents admitted that they had utilized either a current or prior workplace situation to assist them in rating the leader behaviors. When these 81 respondents were dropped from the factor analysis, the same four factors emerged, still accounting for 58% of the variance. As Eden and Leviatan stated:

If the respondents' self-reports about how they answered are valid (and there is reason to doubt their validity), the results for these 148 respondents indicate that the factor structure is not derived from empirical observation, thus making implicit leadership theory an even more plausible explanation... (Eden & Leviatan, 1975, p. 739).

Years later, when discussing this research, Eden and Leviatan stated:

We then did everything imaginable to try to prevent the confirmatory theoretical factor structure and pattern of interconstruct correlations from emerging. We analyzed the responses separately for respondents who had experience working in organizations and separately for those who had no work experience. We analyzed the data separately for those who had said they had a specific organization in

mind when answering the questions and for those who had not. Finally, we even analyzed the data separately only for those who said they had responded at random; it was clear that they had not responded randomly because the same relationship structures emerged from this analysis also (Schyns & Meindl, 2005, p. 8).

Thus, Eden and Leviatan were the first to posit that individual's perceptions and cognitions played an important role in leadership assessment. The implication for leadership research from these findings was substantial, as many leadership assessment instruments relied upon obtaining various leadership ratings from a leader's direct reports. If individuals held these naïve theories or conceptions of leadership, then these perceptions influenced the results obtained from these leadership assessments.

Implicit leadership theory has various definitions. Kenney, Schwartz-Kenney and Blascovich define implicit leadership theories as "cognitive structures containing the traits and behaviors of leaders ... stored in memory, and ... activated when individuals are confronted with leaders" (1996, p. 1128). Eden and Leviatan (1975, p. 738) define ILTs as "conceptual factors that respondents (bring) with them to the measurement situation." Respondents use these automatic perceptions to construct a meaning for leadership. These constructions of leadership also produce effects outside of the perceiver's conscious awareness (Eden & Leviatan, 1975). Implicit theories are also an inherent part of the sense-making process of individuals (Schyns & Meindl, 2005). Thus, when followers are asked to rate a leader, these implicit systems are activated and influence, unconsciously, the ratings of leaders.

Eden and Leviatan posited that “leadership factors are in the mind of the respondent” (1975, p. 741). They further stated that implicit leadership theories sparked a “cognitive revolution ... that shows no sign of abating” (Lord & Emrich, 2000, p. 574). Indeed, Eden and Leviatan’s (1975) work calls into question not only the internal validity of leader behavior questionnaires, but also the internal validity of any self-administered questionnaire, as the cognitive and perceptual processes involved may apply to many different types of questionnaires (Phillips, 1984).

A related stream of implicit leadership theories research, information processing, acknowledges that behavior does not just occur; rather it is determined by intermediary cognitive processes. These intermediary processes influence the attribution of particular behaviors, or schemas, to leaders (Antonakis et al., 2004). The research of Lord, Foti, and De Vader (1984) is identified as “the major impetus for the information processing perspective” of implicit leadership theories research (Antonakis et al., 2004). Information processing research attempts to gain an understanding of how followers’ perceptions legitimize leaders and leadership, specifically with respect to leader characteristics. Similar to ILTs, information processing research attempts to identify how cognition is related to various leadership behaviors. Also similar to Rosch’s (1978) research, an important component of information processing is the identification of prototypical leader behaviors rather than the identification of actual, observable leadership behaviors (Antonakis et al., 2004; Schyns & Meindl, 2005). A substantial portion of information processing research has also examined how performance cues, or the information provided to a participant, can shape the perceptions of leadership (Lord, de Vader, & Alliger, 1986).

While the information processing stream of implicit leadership theory research has focused on the prototypical leader and the effect of performance cues on leader ratings, other researchers have attempted to identify the specific leader behaviors, characteristics and attitudes which form implicit leadership theory. Implicit leadership theory has also examined followers' perceptions and the cognitive processes involved in categorization (Offermann, Kennedy, & Wirtz, 1994).

Exploring the effects of implicit theories, Rush, Thomas, and Lord (1977) conducted research to determine whether contextual cues and implicit leadership theories could be partially responsible for the factor structure of existing leadership measures, specifically the LBDQ-XII (Stogdill, 1963). Utilizing leader performance cues, the results of this study demonstrated that when raters were provided performance cues, those cues affected the ratings of both consideration and initiating structure (Rush et al., 1977).

Based on this research, Rush et al. (1977) suggested that the subscales of the LBDQ (Stogdill, 1963) "are susceptible to the influence of implicit leadership theories" (p. 104), as demonstrated by the results, since the means of each subscale were affected by the performance cues provided to the raters. According to Rush et al. (1977), rater perceptions combined with performance cues affected the rating of leaders, providing further evidence of the impact of implicit leadership theories. Rush et al. (1977) attributed this effect to the complex sequence of information processing that occurs when an individual is asked to rate leader behaviors. Rush et al. (1977) explained the results of their research by proposing that when exposed to a particular stimulus, the individual encodes and stores the information regarding that stimulus. Later, when responding to

questionnaires, the individual recalled that information in a process Rush et al. (1977) labeled as “behavior – attention – encoding – memory units” (p. 105).

Similar results were obtained by Phillips and Lord (1982), who found that individuals relied heavily on memory-based traits and behavioral judgments when completing leadership assessments. Their research demonstrated the importance of cognitive prototypes in understanding behavior and presented what they deemed “a potentially troublesome measurement problem for all situations that rely on human observation” (Phillips & Lord, 1982, p. 491). Thus, leadership measures which closely matched an observer’s cognitive schemata facilitated the use of a heuristic information process. While this may produce high internal consistency, it may also produce systematic distortions, such as performance contamination or halo error (Phillips & Lord, 1982).

Phillips (1984) also investigated cognitive categorization and the accuracy of leadership ratings to determine if performance cues significantly affected observer’s reports of both prototypical and antiprototypical leadership behaviors (Phillips, 1984). When raters were provided a leader performance cue aligned to prototypical leader behaviors, the performance cue significantly affected the rater’s assessment of observed prototypical leader behaviors. However, the reverse was found for antiprototypical leader behaviors. When participants were provided an antiprototypical leader performance cue, that cue had no effect on the participant’s ratings of leaders. According to Phillips (1984), this demonstrated that the participant’s responses were biased toward consistency with the prototypical performance cues rather than the antiprototypical performance cues (Phillips, 1984). Again, Phillips’ research provided support for the proposition that

implicit leadership theories influenced the ratings of leaders, particularly when performance cues were provided to raters.

These studies demonstrated that the factor structures of the LBDQ-XII (Stogdill, 1963) and other leadership rating instruments could be replicated, yet they also demonstrated that implicit leadership theories had the potential to significantly influence the ratings of leader behaviors. As Lord (1977) argued, the variance found in leadership measures might be due to evaluator stereotypes, or it may be due to implicit theories of leadership. These studies also validated Rosch's (1978) propositions regarding cognitive economy and categorization, particularly as it applies to leaders. Thus, when individuals are asked to rate leaders, various factors can influence the ratings, particularly the implicit, or lay theories that individuals have regarding leaders.

Implicit leadership theory research has examined not only the effects of implicit theories on leadership behavior ratings, but also the content of implicit leadership theories. Offermann, Kennedy and Wirtz (1994) sought to identify and assess the most common characteristics used to describe three types of leaders defined by performance cues. The performance cues used in this research classified leaders as either leaders, effective leaders, or supervisors in an attempt to manipulate and identify the content of implicit leadership theories (Offermann et al., 1994). Offermann et al.(1994) found eight primary dimensions of implicit leadership theories. The prototypical characteristics of leaders were dedication, charisma, intelligence and sensitivity. The antiprototypical characteristics of leaders were tyranny, strength, masculinity and attractiveness. Thus, they concluded that leaders are generally viewed in a positive fashion, since the prototypical characteristics all have positive connotations. While their results were

relatively stable across gender and stimuli, individuals categorized as either leaders or effective leaders tended to be viewed more positively than individuals categorized as supervisors (Offermann et al., 1994). The research also revealed that this 8 factor structure of implicit leadership theories was robust across all groups surveyed, which suggested that there was a culturally shared, multi-dimensional knowledge structure regarding what characteristics a leader possesses (Antonakis et al., 2004).

Offermann et al.'s (1994) research was the first to identify specific factors of ILT's. Building upon Offermann et al.'s (1994) work, Epitropaki and Martin (2004) conducted research to validate the prior work. They also sought to assess the generalizability of ILT's across different employee groups and gender. Further, they sought to evaluate whether ILT's changed over time with respect to an individual's age, organizational position or organizational tenure. Prior research had demonstrated support for the generalizability of ILT's in these areas, but had not explored the variability in leadership prototypes across different employee groups (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004). Epitropaki and Martin (2004) hypothesized that conceptions of the ideal leader in a male-dominated work environment would be more likely to characterize an ideal leader as someone who possessed more antiprototypical traits, such as dominance and pushiness (the tyranny factor). They also hypothesized that managers would have differing perceptions of an ideal leader, versus individuals who had no managerial or leadership experience (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004).

These researchers also expected age and job tenure to account for differences in leadership prototypes. They hypothesized that younger, less experienced employees would have different conceptions of leaders from older or longer tenured employees.

They posited that this was simply due to the younger employees having had less exposure to leaders. Further, Epitropaki and Martin (2004) sought to explore whether differences in work context or different exposure to leaders would create individual differences in implicit leadership theories (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004).

Epitropaki and Martin's (2004) work demonstrated that leader behaviors aligned along the prototypical and antiprototypical factors. While several factors had cross-loadings on both factors, this finding was consistent with Offermann et al.'s (1994) results. Ultimately, they found a six-factor structure for ILTs consisting of sensitivity, intelligence, dedication, dynamism, tyranny and masculinity. Further, second-order confirmation factor analysis confirmed a leadership prototype dimension, consisting of the attributes of sensitivity, intelligence, dedication and dynamism. The leadership antiprototype consisted of tyranny and masculinity. They excluded Offermann et al.'s (1994) attractiveness as a non-core prototypical dimension, similar to other leadership research which had found that similar traits such as attractiveness were neither prototypical or antiprototypical of leaders. They also collapsed the two dimensions of strength and charisma into a single dimension, labeling this dimension as dynamism. Again, this is in line with other research regarding charismatic leadership (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004).

In order to determine if ILTs changed over time, the researchers surveyed the same participants at two different time periods, one year apart. For participants where no manager change had occurred over the time period, ILTs remained consistent. Even those participants who were exposed to a manager change between time period 1 and time

period 2 demonstrated relatively stable ILTS, signifying that the participant's ILTs had been unaffected by the change in manager.

There are several major contributions of this research to ILTs. First, it identified a 21-item ILT scale. It also provided validation of the two factor structure of the leadership behaviors (prototypical/antiprototypical). In addition, this research also provided additional support for Lord et al.'s (1984) work, as ILT's were also found to be generalizable across different work groups and settings, and provided support for a similar factor structure regardless of age, organizational position, and tenure. Finally, Epitropaki and Martin's (2004) research suggested that employees shared similar perceptions of the ideal leader, regardless of work positions, or stage of work life, (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004).

This research also demonstrated that ILTs were remained stable over time, since no variance was exhibited in the leadership ratings by individuals with different organizational tenure. If ILTs were not stable and were changeable over time, employees with less tenure, and therefore, less exposure to leaders, would have demonstrated differences in their ILTs from those with longer organizational tenure (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004), yet this was not the case.

The research of Offermann et al. (1994) and Epitropaki and Martin (2004) demonstrated that implicit leadership theories could be defined and measured. The content and structure, or the perceptions of ideal leader attributes, could also be identified. It is important to recognize that much of the prior leadership research had relied upon the perceptions of followers to rate leader behaviors and characteristics (Rush et al., 1977). As such, the existence of ILT's called into question the findings of other

leadership research that was based upon participant's ratings of leaders (Judge et al., 2004).

Since Offermann et al. (1994) and Epitropaki and Martin's (2004) research demonstrated that followers have implicit theories regarding leadership, then perhaps leaders also have implicit theories of followers, which is a logical extension of ILT research. The prevailing leader-center approach to leadership research had previously emphasized the traits, perceptions and behaviors of leaders. This approach also assumed that the leader's characteristics and actions were solely responsible for organizational outcomes (Shamir et al., 2007). Meindl et al. (1985) argued that followers, not leaders, constructed both the phenomena and the images of leaders that followers utilized in their perceptions and attributions of leadership (Shamir et al., 2007).

According to Meindl and Ehrlich (1987):

...the romanticized conception of leadership denotes a strong belief – a faith – in the importance of leadership factors to the functioning and dysfunctioning of organized systems...(implying) that leadership is the premier force in the scheme of organizational events and occurrences...(which) can be construed as an assumption, preconception, or bias that interested observers and participants bring to bear when they must find an intellectually compelling and emotionally satisfying comprehension of the causes, nature, and consequences of organizational activities (p. 92).

As mentioned previously, the social constructionist approach to leadership suggested that organizations could be understood by the manner in which individuals constructed meaning to organizational roles. This occurs through implicit theories and

social interactions (Shamir et al., 2007). Through an individual's implicit theories, particularly the thoughts of followers, a linkage develops between followers and leaders, and this is heavily influenced by follower factors and follower/leaders relationships (Meindl, 1995). Therefore, while leaders typically receive credit, or blame, for organizational success or failure, the behavior of followers is a substantial contributing factor to organizational success or failure, but one which is all too frequently neglected. Yet, the behavior of followers is less under the control and influence of the leader, and more under the control of the forces governing the follower's social construction process (Shamir et al., 2007).

Carsten, Uhl-Bien, West, Patera, and McGregor (2010) qualitatively examined social constructionist theories of followership, attempting to identify how followers defined their roles in organizations by examining follower qualities and behaviors. Carsten et al. (2010) found that the social construction of the follower role consisted of three dimensions: active, passive, and proactive. These dimensions are similar to Kelley's (1992) five styles of followership which was discussed earlier. Passive social construction of the follower role emphasized the importance of taking and following orders. A passive follower also deferred to the leader's knowledge and expertise. These individuals were also loyal to and supportive of their leader. The social construction of the passive follower role may be due to a socialized tendency to obey authority figures as well as the attribution of power and status to individuals based on title and hierarchical organization position (Carsten et al., 2010).

Active social construction is defined by an individual's willingness to provide his or her opinions, if and when given the opportunity. These individuals are also loyal and

obedient, even if they disagreed with the leader. Proactive social construction of the follower role is representative of a partnership type relationship with the leader.

Individuals who proactively socially construct the role of the follower view themselves as active participants in the leadership process. They work to advance the goals of their department, as well as the organization. Unlike passive social constructionists, these individuals are willing to challenge their manager if necessary (Carsten et al., 2010). These results demonstrate remarkable similarity to the works of both Kelley (1992) and Chaleff (2009).

Carsten et al.'s (2010) results also point to ten prototypical qualities and behaviors of followers: team player, positive attitude, initiative/proactive behavior, expressing opinions, flexibility/openness, obedience/deference, communication skills, loyalty/support, responsibility/dependability, taking ownership, mission conscience and integrity. They also found several contextual themes surrounding the social constructionist perspective of the follower role, including: the hierarchical/bureaucratic work context, empowering work climate, authoritarian leadership, and empowering/supportive leadership. From this qualitative study, Carsten et al. (2010) concluded that the follower role is more complex and multifaceted than previously thought, with important linkages existing between followership schema, social construction, and role context.

This qualitative study also reinforced the existence of both prototypical and antiprototypical characteristics of followers. In addition, this study also aligned with the propositions of cognition and perception research, particularly the work of Rosch (1978). It also aligned with generational research since follower role perceptions were developed

through childhood and adolescence experiences, as well as interaction with the environment (Carsten et al., 2010). Thus, followers socially constructed their role through interactions with one another, and with leaders, through a cognitive inference process (Bligh, 2011).

Implicit leadership theories provided several important contributions to the field of leadership. With a foundation built upon the work of Rosch (1978), implicit leadership theories recognized the importance and the effects of perception and cognition in individual ratings of leaders, calling into question much of the previous leadership research. It also supplied an impetus that followers must be recognized in the leadership process. This renewed focus on followers led Sy (2010) to extend the investigation of implicit theories to followership, seeking to determine the fundamental perceptions that individuals have about followers. While implicit leadership theories demonstrated that individuals may hold preconceived ideas of the attributes of leaders, Sy reversed the lens to define and develop implicit followership theories (IFTs). He defines IFTs as "... an individual's personal assumptions about the traits and behaviors that characterize followers" (Sy, 2010, p. 74).

His research addressed three key questions: the structure and content of IFTs; how IFT are related to existing implicit theories, specifically implicit performance theories and implicit leadership theories; and, the consequences of IFTs for leader-follower performance outcomes (Sy, 2010). Further, he posited that IFTs may also be antecedents of both leader and follower affect, behavior and cognition. Sy (2010) theorized that IFTs may have relevance to leader-follower outcomes, potentially explaining how leaders use their implicit theories of followership to guide their actions toward followers, such as

punishing or rewarding followers. IFTs may also explain how followers utilize their own IFTs to guide their actions (Sy, 2010).

Through five related studies, Sy (2010) developed a six-factor model of followership consisting of industry, enthusiasm, good citizen, conformity, insubordination, and incompetence. The attributes of the industry dimension are comprised of: hardworking, productive and going above and beyond. The attributes of the enthusiasm dimension are comprised of excited, outgoing and happy. The good citizenship dimension is comprised of loyalty, reliability and team player. The conformity dimension includes ease of influence, trend follower and soft spoken. Further, these dimensions also factored into prototypical and antiprototypical dimensions, with the prototypical dimension including industry, enthusiasm, good citizenship and conformity. The antiprototypical dimension included insubordination and incompetence, derived from the factors of arrogance, rudeness, bad temperedness; and uneducated, slow, and inexperienced, respectively.

According to Sy (2010), individuals may internalize and endorse these representative IFT prototypes and/or antiprototypes over time. This, in turn, leads to a predisposition for individuals to judge, and respond to followers in certain ways, since IFTs operate spontaneously and automatically, as do all implicit theories (Sy, 2010). This work also demonstrated the theoretical relevance and consequences of IFTs, finding that IFTs may have consequences for both leader and follower interpersonal outcomes and performance outcomes as well. Further, Sy identified the examination of IFTs among followers as an extension to work which examined the congruence between leader and follower IFTs and ILTs. Thus, Sy's (2010) work answered the calls for more integrative

leadership research that included the effects of implicit theories held by both the follower and the leader. This work specifically applied IFTs to leaders' perceptions of followers, or leader implicit followership theories (LIFTs) (Sy, 2010).

Additional research utilizing LIFTs investigated the relationship between LIFTs and leaders' high performance expectations and the impact on improving follower performance. This Pygmalion effect is an example of a self-fulfilling prophecy which occurs when heightened leader expectations tend to increase and improve follower performance (Whiteley et al., 2012). Hypothesizing that positive LIFTs would: positively influence the performance expectations of followers, the leaders' like of their followers, improve leader-member exchange (LMX) quality, and that improved LMX quality would positively influence follower performance, Whiteley et al. (2012) found that positive LIFTs did, in fact, provide support for these hypotheses. Thus, positive LIFTs have been demonstrated to influence follower performance and LMX quality, providing further evidence of validity of the LIFTs construct.

In summary, generational theory proposes that the shared childhood and adolescent experiences of members of a particular generational cohort create a common generational consciousness. This generational consciousness influences the values, attitudes, behaviors, and perceptions of each member within the generational cohort. Generational research has provided validation that individuals from differing generations do have different attitudes, beliefs and values, which are derived in part from a multitude of early childhood experiences. Implicit leadership theories and implicit followership theories are the naïve, lay conceptions that individuals have regarding leaders and followers, which includes both the prototypical and antiprototypical attributes possessed

by a leader, or a follower. Implicit theories have been demonstrated to apply to both leaders and followers, indicating that an individual's role as a leader or a follower, as well as the perceptions of the leader or follower role may be influenced by implicit theories of leadership and followership. Therefore, it is expected that each generational cohort will rate the dimensions of followership and leadership, as measured by implicit theories of followership and leadership, similarly.

This research proposes that individuals from the different generations in the workforce will exhibit similar conceptions of implicit leadership and implicit followership. Simply stated, individuals will have naïve or lay theories of what characteristics are associated with leaders and followers. It further proposes that while members within a particular generation will exhibit similarities in the characteristics preferred in a leader or a follower, there will be differences between the generations in their preferred characteristics of leaders and followers. Therefore, this research proposes the following hypotheses:

H₁: The preferred characteristics of followers will differ across the generational cohorts.

H₂: The preferred characteristics of leaders will differ across the generational cohorts.

CHAPTER III – RESEARCH DESIGN

Organization of the Chapter

The previous chapters presented the relevant literature and defined the scope of this research, including the variables of the study and the hypotheses to be tested. This chapter details the research methodology which was employed in this study and how the hypotheses were tested.

Research Framework

The hypotheses of this proposed research involve the relationship between generational cohort and implicit theories of followership and leadership. An individual's preference for certain characteristics of followers and leaders were posited to be influenced by the generation to which the individual belongs. The methodology applied to these hypotheses sought to answer the research questions regarding the influence of generation and the preferences of follower and leader characteristics. Reiterating the hypotheses:

H₁: The preferred characteristics of followers will differ across the generational cohorts.

H₂: The preferred characteristics of leaders will differ across the generational cohorts.

Research Design

This cross-sectional research examined the relationship between generational cohort and the ratings of leaders and follower characteristics which involved the sampling of individuals from several different age groups. This section describes the population sampled, sampling method and sample size. The method of data collection, the survey instrument utilized, the measurement variables, and methods of analysis are also discussed.

Sample Population

The sample population included both non-exempt and exempt level employees at a large, regional integrated delivery and financing system, located in Pittsburgh, PA. Several other methods were also used to solicit participants due to initial slow progress in obtaining data from the target company. Individuals were solicited via social media sites (Facebook and LinkedIn), as well as personal contacts of the researcher.

The integrated health care delivery and financing system includes multiple hospitals, physicians and other health care delivery entities, as well as a health insurance plan. Integrated delivery and financing systems are characterized by this combination of health care delivery providers combined with a health insurer (Rosenberg, Peele, Keyser, McAnallen, & Holder, 2012). This participants from this sample were comprised of employees engaged in activities related to the health insurance side of the organization. This organization was selected since the researcher is also employed by this organization.

While the headquarters of this integrated delivery and financing organization are located in Pittsburgh, PA, the organization also has offices located throughout the United States.

In addition, a second group of individuals, not associated with this integrated delivery and financing system, were recruited via social media to participate in this research. This second group, or snowball sample, was solicited due to both the initial slow progress of the data collection, as well as to ensure adequate representation by all three generations under study within the present study. The invitations to participate in this research were posted on the researcher's personal Facebook page, as well as the researcher's LinkedIn profile and several groups that the researcher participates in on LinkedIn, such as Engagement Managers, Agile and Lean Software Development, BCBS Corporate Network, Innovation in Leadership Development and the Program and Project Management Group. Further, individuals were recruited from an MBA class taught by a colleague of the researcher.

Sampling Method and Sample Size

The unit of analysis was the individual, aggregated to a generational cohort for statistical analysis. Level of analysis is an important consideration as constructs may operate at multiple different levels and, according to Antonakis et al. (2004, p. 63), "good theory should specify the level of analysis at which its phenomena operate." Aggregating individual responses to the respective generational cohort level provided the means to test the research hypotheses.

Initial discussion regarding soliciting the organization's employees was conducted via email with the organization's Human Resources Vice President, who agreed to permit the solicitation of the organization's employees. The organization's Legal Department was also involved in reviewing the survey and provided approval to solicit the organization's employees. Working with the Manager of Diversity and Inclusion, individuals were solicited from the health insurance organization's Business Resource Groups (BRGs). The researcher also worked with the Vice Presidents of two specific divisions within the organization: Enterprise Informatics and Subsidiary Information Technology to solicit participants for the survey. Obtaining the endorsement of Human Resources, Legal and the two division Vice Presidents assured individuals that they were not violating any company policies by participating in this research.

The BRGs are comprised of both exempt and non-exempt employees, representing a wide variety of employee levels - Vice Presidents, Directors, Managers, Supervisors and rank-and-file employees. Approximately 400 employees voluntarily participate in one or more of the company's BRGs. The specific BRGs invited to participate in this research were: Generation NeXt, comprised mainly of Generation X and Millennials; SALUD, the Latino/Latina BRG; Women's BRG; the LGBTQA (Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Transgender and Allies) BRG; and, the BNet (African-American) BRG. The two organizational divisions invited to participate were: Enterprise Informatics and the Subsidiary Information Technology group. Enterprise Informatics employs approximately 200 exempt and non-exempt level employees engaged in data warehouse projects, statistical data analysis, client reporting and population health management reporting. Subsidiary Information Technology employs approximately 200 exempt and

non-exempt level employees engaged in all aspects of information technology support for the organization's dental insurance, government business and stop-loss/reinsurance subsidiaries. Prior to the beginning of any data collection, the proposed research was documented via the appropriate Institutional Review Board processes, submitted to the Institutional Review Board and ultimately approved to proceed with data collection.

Pilot Study

An initial pilot study that was designed to uncover questions or issues with the survey was initially conducted with 10 participants. The pilot participants completed the survey and were then immediately interviewed by the researcher to ensure that the pilot participants understood the survey instructions and questions. Upon questioning, none of the pilot respondents indicated that they identified any problems in either understanding the survey instructions or questions. The only suggestion provided by any of the pilot study participants was to include the range of years associated with the generations being studied in this research. However, the survey was not modified to provide this information as it might have influenced future respondent's answers to some of the survey questions. After completing the pilot study, data collection commenced with the other employees of the health care delivery and financing organization and later, the individuals recruited via social media.

Data Collection

Participants were solicited via an email, with separate emails being sent from the Manager of Diversity and Inclusion (to the BRG participants), the Vice President of

Enterprise Informatics (to Enterprise Informatics employees), and the Vice President of Subsidiary Information Technology (for the Subsidiary Information Technology employees). These emails introduced the researcher to the participants, explained the purpose of the research and included a link to the survey. Follow-up contact was made with the leadership team of each BRG after a period of three months, to solicit their assistance in obtaining participants from their respective BRG membership. Originally, the researcher anticipated soliciting approximately 800 individuals to participate in this research from among the BRGs, Enterprise Informatics and Dental Insurance and Subsidiary Information Technology. However, after a period of several months, including numerous follow-up emails, the number of participants from within the organization proved to be insufficient. Therefore, individuals were also solicited via the social media sites LinkedIn and Facebook, as well as the other personal contacts of the researcher, as described above.

Data was collected via a self-administered online survey tool, [surveymonkey.com](https://www.surveymonkey.com). Surveymonkey.com permits anonymity so that no IP addresses or personally identifiable information was collected, thus ensuring complete confidentiality for the participants.

Survey Instrument

The variables in this research include generational cohort and preferred characteristics of leaders and followers. Generation represents the independent variable, and the preferred characteristics of leaders and followers represent the dependent variables. The survey instrument also consisted of questions designed to validate generational membership via specific events associated with each of the three generations

under study, generational characteristics associated with each of the generations, Epitropaki and Martin's (2004) Implicit Leadership Survey, Sy's (2010) Implicit Followership Survey, as well as additional demographic questions.

Due to the different ranges of years of birth associated with the specific generational labels, the initial questions were designed to assist in the identification of an individual's particular generational cohort. Prior research conducted by Shuman and Scott (1989), and replicated in part by Arsenault (2004), had asked respondents to identify specific world events that were important to them. Question one of the survey instrument was designed around this prior research and identified 29 national, social, historical, or world-wide events that occurred from 1964 to 1999. Participants were asked to rate these events according to: whether the individual considered it to be an event associated with his/her particular generation; whether the event was not associated with his/her particular generation; or whether it was an event with which the individual was not familiar.

The second question listed 21 characteristics that have been used to describe Baby Boomers, Gen X, or Millennials in prior research or other publications (Lancaster & Stillman, 2005; Twenge, 2010; Twenge & Campbell, 2008; Twenge et al., 2010; Zemke et al., 2000). The participants were asked to identify whether each characteristic was one which: they associated with their perception of their generation; a characteristic that they did not associate with their perception of their generation; or a characteristic with which they were unfamiliar.

Implicit Leadership Theory was measured using Epitropaki and Martin's (2004) Leadership Survey. The means, standard deviations, reliabilities and intercorrelations for their research are shown in Table 6.

Table 6

Epitropaki and Martin's (2004) Implicit Leadership Scale

Factors	Prototype	Sensitivity	Intelligence	Dedication	Dynamism	Anti-Prototype	Tyranny	Masculinity
Prototype	(.87)							
Sensitivity	.72**	(.88)						
Intelligence	.81**	.41**	(.79)					
Dedication	.78**	.41**	.54**	(.77)				
Dynamism	.72**	.23**	.48**	.58**	(.70)			
Antiprototype	-.26**	-.60**	-.05	-.10*	.07	(.87)		
Tyranny	-.25**	-.60**	-.06**	-.08	.08	.95**	(.88)	
Masculinity	-.16**	-.34**	.005	-.12*	.03	.69**	.44**	(.83)
<i>M</i>	7.04	6.76	6.86	7.62	6.99	4.27	4.36	4.00
<i>SD</i>	.96	1.65	1.17	1.00	1.26	1.70	1.82	2.29

* $p < .01$ ** $p < .001$

Items in parentheses represent Cronbach's alphas as reported by the researchers (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004)

Convergent validity was demonstrated through all factor loadings being statistically significant. Latent factor loadings also demonstrated support for discriminant validity (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004).

Sy's (2010) Implicit Followership Survey was utilized to measure Implicit Followership Theories. This research reported the intercorrelations, reliabilities, means and standard deviations listed in Table 7.

Table 7

Sy's (2010) Implicit Followership Survey

Factors	Industry	Enthusiasm	Good Citizen	Conformity	Insubordination	Incompetence
Industry	(.88)					
Enthusiasm	.67***	(.87)				
Good citizen	.63***	.63***	(.78)			
Conformity	-.23***	-.17**	.01	(.75)		
Insubordination	-.09	-.01	-.23***	.02***	(.91)	
Incompetence	-.25***	-.22***	-.27***	.30***	.37***	(.85)
<i>M</i>	5.98	5.77	7.12	7.20	2.95	4.56
<i>SD</i>	2.29	2.13	1.86	1.99	1.84	2.11

** $p < .01$

*** $p < .001$

Items in parentheses represent Cronbach's alphas

(Sy, 2010)

Sy (2010) examined two aspects of convergent and discriminant validity. First, convergent validity was assessed by examining whether each item had a statistically significant factor loading on its specified factor as recommended by Anderson, Gerbing and Hunter (1987). Support for convergent validity was demonstrated by the significance of all factor loadings, with critical ratios ranging from 8.00 to 24.62. Convergent validity was also examined with respect to the association of Implicit Followership Theories (IFTs) with Implicit Leadership Theories (ILTs) and Implicit Personality Theories (IPTs). Sy found that there were only moderate associations between IFTs, ILTs and IPTs, demonstrating that these are three distinct constructs. Discriminant validity was examined by the results of the IFTs factor loading correlations. None of the correlations exceeded the recommended cut-off point of .85 (Kline, 1998). Discriminant validity was also assessed via the associations between IFTs, ILTs and IPTs (Sy, 2010).

The additional demographic questions from the survey included job title, gender and date of birth. Individuals were also asked to self-identify their generation. As stated previously, researchers and authors utilize differing begin and end dates for each of the three generations with which this research is concerned. As such, individuals might also have different perceptions of their generational cohort, identified as perceived generation in this research, versus their actual generational cohort.

Three demographic questions were utilized to categorize individuals as leaders, or those who held leadership positions. First, individuals were asked if their current job responsibilities required the supervision or management of other employees. Second, they were asked whether their current position involved creating and/or delivering performance appraisals for employees. Finally, they were asked whether their current position involved the hiring, promotion, termination, discipline or other personnel decisions. Individuals were also asked to supply their tenure in the workforce, tenure with employer and position tenure.

The sample population, as well as the occupations being sampled, created the likelihood that some individuals who participated in the research may not have been born in the US. Individuals were asked if they had been born in the US. If not, they were asked to identify how many years they have been living in the US. The rationale for question is that individuals not born in the US may not share the same early childhood and adolescent experiences, which is foundational to generational theory. As stated previously, these same shared experiences create a generational consciousness which influences and shapes the values, attitudes and beliefs that a generational members share

(Mannheim, 1952). Thus, this question was designed to identify and analyze these individual's responses since they potentially may have represented outliers in the data.

Methods of Analysis

Descriptive statistics were computed for age, gender, workforce tenure, employer tenure and position tenure. Actual generation was coded based on date of birth and assigned as specified in Table 1. Cross tabs were developed for actual generation versus the 29 generational events and the 21 generational characteristics. Cross tabs were also developed for perceived generation and the 29 generational events and the 21 generational characteristics. Additional cross tabs were computed for actual generation versus: perceived generation; gender; supervisor/management; performance appraisal; hiring/promotion/discipline/termination; and whether an individual was born in the US.

Both the IFT and ILT scales utilized have demonstrated reliability and validity. A measurement instrument is considered to be reliable if it demonstrates freedom from measurement or random error. Measurement instruments also demonstrate validity if the instrument accurately measures what it is supposed to measure (Vogt, 2005). The most common method of measuring reliability is the evaluation of the internal consistency of a scale to ensure that the items that are assumed to represent the same variable are intercorrelated (Hair, Black, Bain, & Anderson, 2010).

Reliability was measured via Cronbach's alpha. A Cronbach's alpha greater than 0.70 is usually indicative of the consistency of a scale (Hair et al., 2010). The Cronbach's alpha for the Implicit Leadership Scale was 0.762. Cronbach's alpha for the Implicit Followership Survey was 0.668. Although this Cronbach's alpha is below the threshold

identified by Hair (2010), rounding this value does result in a Cronbach's alpha that meets the 0.70 guideline. In addition, Sy (2010) reported a Cronbach's alpha for IFTs of 0.97 in his research.

Validity is the degree to which a measure accurately represents some variable and is free from any systematic or nonrandom error. Therefore, validity represents the extent to which a measurement scale represents the concept being examined (Hair et al., 2010). Content validity was assured by using the scales previously developed by Epitropaki and Martin (2004), and Sy (2010). Convergent and discriminant validity was also assessed using the latent variable correlations and the average variance extracted (AVE) for both the Implicit Leadership and Implicit Followership scales.

Factor analysis was performed on both the Implicit Leadership Survey and Implicit Followership Survey. The primary purpose of factor analysis is to condense and summarize the information contained in the original 21 variables of the Implicit Leadership Survey, and the 18 variables in the Implicit Followership Survey, to define the underlying structure among the variables (Hair et al., 2010). Specifically, principal component analysis was performed to summarize the information contained in the variables to produce the appropriate and minimum number of factors. A priori, previous research had demonstrated that a six-factor structure existed for both the Implicit Leadership Survey and the Implicit Followership Survey.

Latent root analysis was conducted on the unrotated factor analysis, examining factors with Eigenvalues greater than 1 as a guideline to determine the appropriate number of factors to extract. The percentage of variance explained was also examined. The factor loadings were assessed according to the guidelines provided by

Hair et al. (2010), who state that, while factor loadings of .30 are minimally acceptable, in order to achieve practical significance, factor loadings greater than .50 are typically required. Ultimately, both scales resulted in different factor structures from what previous researchers had identified. A five-factor structure was found for the Implicit Leadership Survey; not the six-factor structure found by Epitropaki and Martin (2004). A four-factor structure was found for The Implicit Followership Survey, versus the six-factor structure found by Sy (2010).

After determining the final factor structure, the factor scores for the dimensions of both leadership and followership were analyzed to test the hypotheses. The means for the five-factor leadership solution were computed, as were the means for the four-factor followership solution. These were then utilized to conduct One-Way ANOVA tests across the three generations in this study, using both actual generation and perceived generation.

Finally, cluster analysis was also performed using actual generation and perceived generation. Since the assignment of the range of birth years to a generation is arbitrary, cluster analysis was utilized to determine if the individuals surveyed in this research are similar enough to be grouped into clusters, and whether these clusters conform to the years assigned to each of the generational cohorts. Specifically, K-means clustering algorithms was performed. K-means clustering algorithms partition the data into a specified number of clusters and progressively and iteratively assign and reassign observations to the specified number of clusters until cluster distinctiveness is obtained (Hair et al., 2010). This analysis was expected to provide additional insight into generational cohort membership as well as to further identify any potential differences

between actual and perceived generational cohort and preferred characteristics of both leaders and followers.

Summary

The Implicit Leadership Survey and Implicit Followership Survey utilized in this study have been used previously to measure implicit theories of leadership and followership. Both instruments have demonstrated reliability and validity in prior studies. Through principal components analysis the factors and dimensions of both the leadership and followership questionnaire were examined to determine if the results were the same as predicted by Epitropaki and Martin (2004), and Sy (2010).

Demographic questions were utilized to determine the actual generation to which an individual belonged. Respondents also selected their perceived generation, or the generation to which they perceived themselves to belong. Generational events and characteristics associated with the three generations with which this study is concerned were also used to assist in categorizing an individual's specific generation. Additional demographic questions sought to determine whether an individual had leadership/management/supervisory responsibilities. Workforce tenure, employer tenure and position tenure were also assessed.

Finally, cluster analysis was performed to determine if the generational cohorts were distinct and separate with respect to the preferred characteristics of leaders and followers. The results of these statistical tests and the hypotheses tests are presented in the next chapter.

CHAPTER IV – ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS

Introduction

The statistical analyses presented in this chapter begins with a presentation of the descriptive statistics of the study. This is followed by the factor analyses obtained via principal components analysis (PCA) performed for the implicit leadership and implicit followership scales. After the factor solutions for both scales were determined, a one-way ANOVA was performed to test the hypotheses that the preferred styles of leadership and followership would vary by generation. Cluster analysis was also performed to determine if the respondents clustered, or grouped, in a fashion similar to their actual generation.

Descriptive Statistics

The survey resulted in 326 responses, of which 249 were usable, representing 76.38% usable responses. The completed surveys that were discarded contained missing data in one or more of the survey questions. Of the total usable responses, 167 were collected from the target organization (67.07%) and 82 (32.93%) were obtained from the solicitation from various social media sites and researcher personal contacts. BRG participants ($N = 70$) represented 43.21% of the respondents from the target organization.

An overall response rate was unable to be determined due to several factors. First, respondents were obtained from two different sampling methods. Second, to protect the anonymity of the respondents from the target organization surveyed, personally identifiable information was not collected. Also, although participants were asked to

identify whether they participated in a company-sponsored BRG, a precise number of BRG participants was not available from the company. Table 8 summarizes the number of respondents, categorized by actual generation and gender. While both the Baby Boomer and Gen X respondents were predominantly female (Boomers – 68.4% female; Gen X – 67.9% female), the reverse is true for the Millennials as males represented 54.8% of the Millennial respondents and females represented 45.2%. While approximately 2/3 of the Baby Boomer and Gen X respondents were female, the split between male and female is very different for Millennials, with males representing 54.8% of the Millennial respondents, compared to females, who represented 45.2% of the Millennial respondents.

Table 8

Responses by Generation/Gender

Gender	Actual Generation			Total
	Boomers	Gen X	Millennial	
Male	30	36	23	89
% Male	31.6%	32.1%	54.8%	35.7%
Female	65	76	19	160
% Female	68.4%	67.9%	45.2%	64.3%
Total	95	112	42	249
% Total Responses	38.2%	44.9%	16.9%	100.0%

Table 9 aggregates the results via the source from which the data was collected and actual generation.

Table 9

Data Source by Actual Generation

Source	Boomers	Gen X	Millennial	Total
Facebook	32	23	2	57
<i>% of Total</i>	33.7%	20.5%	4.7%	22.9%
LinkedIn	6	6	0	12
<i>% of Total</i>	6.3%	5.4%	-	4.8%
Personal Contacts	3	5	5	13
<i>% of Total</i>	3.2%	4.5%	11.9%	5.2%
Target Organization	54	78	35	167
<i>% of Total</i>	56.8%	69.6%	83.3%	67.1%
Total	95	112	42	249

Table 10 show the actual generational breakdown of respondents by Business Resource Group from the individuals solicited from the target organization. Several respondents participated in more than one BRG. These are labeled as multiple in the following table.

Table 10

BRG Participants by Actual Generation

BRG	Boomers	% Boomers	Gen X	% Gen X	Millennial	% Millennial	Total	% Total
BNET	5	26.3%	12	37.5%	3	15.8%	20	28.6%
GenNEXT	0	-	1	3.1%	4	21.1%	5	7.1%
LGBT	3	15.8%	4	12.5%	4	21.1%	11	15.7%
SALUD	3	15.8%	5	15.6%	5	26.3%	13	18.6%
Women's	5	26.3%	7	21.2%	3	15.8%	15	21.4%
Multiple	3	15.8%	3	9.4%	0	-	6	8.6%
Total	19	27.1%	32	45.7%	19	27.1%	70	100.0%

According to the US Department of Labor Workforce Statistics, females comprise 47% of the US workforce. Thus the sample population, with females representing 64.3%, contains a higher percentage of females than the overall US female workforce population. The number of Baby Boomers in the sample is similar to the overall US Workforce Baby Boomer population (38.2% in the sample population, versus 38% in the US Workforce), but not the US Workforce Gen X (44.9% in the sample versus 32% in the US Workforce), nor the US Workforce Millennial populations (16.9% in the sample versus 25% in the US Workforce)(*Household Data, Not Seasonally Adjusted: Table A-13: Employment Status of the Civilian Noninstitutional Population by Age, Sex, and Race, 2012*).

Two items should be noted regarding the Bureau of Labor Statistics data. First, The Bureau of Labor Statistics data includes all individuals in the workforce, including the Veteran generation, which is not included in this study. Second, the Bureau of Labor Statistics does not differentiate the US Workforce population using the same age ranges employed in this study. Therefore, several calculations had to be performed to approximate the percentages for the three generations included in this study.

The mean age for all respondents was 44.82 years ($\mu=44.82$) and the participants ranged in age from 23 to 68 years old. Table 11 provides a summary of the minimum/maximum ages and mean ages of the participants overall, while Table 12 summarizes that information from the target organization respondents.

Table 11

Age – Min/Max and Mean - Overall Sample

Generation	Min/Max	Mean	Standard Deviation
Overall	23-68	44.82	11.29
Boomer	49-68	56.54	4.88
Gen X	32-49	41.23	4.82
Millennial	23-32	27.88	2.53

Table 12

Age, Min/Max and Means - Target Organization Sample

Generation	Min/Max	Mean	Standard Deviation
Overall	23-68	43.11	11.06
Boomer	49-68	56.02	4.48
Gen X	32-49	40.90	4.86
Millennial	23-32	28.14	2.53

Tenure in the workforce, employer tenure and position tenure were measured based on respondent's answers to three questions which provided a range of years from which to select (1 = 0 to 5 years, 2 = 6 to 10 years, 3 = 11 to 15 years, 4 = 16-20 years, 5 = 21-25 years and 6 = greater than 25 years). Tables 13, 14 and 15 provide a frequency distribution of tenure in the workforce, employer tenure and position tenure for the overall sample.

Table 13

Tenure in the Workforce – Overall Sample

Tenure	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
0 – 5 years	22	8.8%	8.8%
6 – 10 years	20	8.0%	16.9%
11 – 15 years	27	10.8%	27.7%
16 -20 years	35	14.1%	41.8%
21 – 25 years	96	38.6%	80.3%
> 25 years	49	19.7%	100.0%

Table 14

Employer Tenure – Overall Sample

Tenure	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
0 – 5 years	14	5.6%	5.6%
6 – 10 years	76	30.5%	36.1%
11 – 15 years	50	20.1%	56.2%
16 -20 years	35	14.1%	70.3%
21 – 25 years	25	10.0%	80.3%
> 25 years	49	19.7%	100.0%

Table 15

Position Tenure – Overall Sample

Tenure	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
0 – 5 years	44	17.7%	17.7%
6 – 10 years	124	49.8%	67.5%
11 – 15 years	46	18.5%	85.9%
16 -20 years	20	8.0%	94.0%
21 – 25 years	8	2.4%	96.4%
> 25 years	9	3.6%	100.0%

Tables 16, 17 and 18 provide the tenure in the workforce, employer tenure and position tenure information for the target organization.

Table 16

Tenure in the Workforce – Target Organization

Tenure	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
0 – 5 years	16	9.6%	9.6%
6 – 10 years	16	9.6%	19.2%
11 – 15 years	24	14.4%	33.5%
16 -20 years	23	13.8%	47.3%
21 – 25 years	55	32.9%	80.2%
> 25 years	33	19.8%	100.0%

Table 17

Employer Tenure – Target Organization

Tenure	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
0 – 5 years	8	4.8%	4.8%
6 – 10 years	50	29.9%	34.7%
11 – 15 years	31	18.6%	53.3%
16 -20 years	26	15.6%	68.9%
21 – 25 years	19	11.4%	80.2%
> 25 years	33	19.8%	100.0%

Table 18

Position Tenure – Target Organization

Tenure	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
0 – 5 years	29	17.4%	17.4%
6 – 10 years	89	53.3%	70.7%
11 – 15 years	28	16.8%	87.4%
16 -20 years	14	8.4%	95.8%
21 – 25 years	3	1.8%	97.6%
> 25 years	4	2.4%	100.0%

Participant age was calculated based on the year of birth (2014 minus the participant's year of birth). Although this calculation resulted in an overlap between age and generation, as demonstrated in Tables 11 and 12, each respondent was categorized

into one and only one generational cohort based on the ranges of birth years provided in Table 1.

Participants were also asked to select the generation to which they belonged. This is labeled as *Perceived Generation* and is presented in Table 19. Table 19 compares *Actual Generation*, coded according to range of years set forth in Table 1, and *Perceived Generation*, as identified by each individual participant. Overall congruence between actual and perceived generation was 86.3% for the sample; Baby Boomer congruence between actual and perceived generation was 85.3%; for Gen X the congruence was 94.2%, and for Millennials, this value was 72.0%. Thus, fewer Millennials associated themselves with their actual generation – the Millennial generation, than did either the Baby Boomers or Gen Xers. Gen Xers exhibited the highest congruence with their actual generation. A lack of awareness of an individual’s particular generation, or even the generational labels, may be a likely explanation for these results.

Table 19

Actual vs. Perceived Generation

Actual Generation	Perceived Generation			Total
	Boomer	Gen X	Millennial	
Baby Boomer	81	14	0	95
Gen X	4	98	2	104
Millennial	1	13	36	50
Total	86	125	38	249
Actual Generation	95	112	42	
Difference	-9	+13	-4	

Participants were not provided with the range of birth years associated with each of the generations in this study. As stated previously, there are no universally accepted range of birth years associated with each generation. As also previously stated, individuals born on the cusp of each generation (either at the beginning or the end of the range of birth years assigned to a particular generation) may self-identify with either the preceding or succeeding generation. Therefore, it should not be expected that all participants would identify their perceived generation exactly as it is defined in this research. For example, the Baby Boomer participants in this research, as coded according to the range of birth years set forth in Table 1, who identified themselves as Gen X, were all born between 1960 and 1964 (N = 15). Thus, these individuals were born towards the end of the Baby Boom generation and can be considered cuspers. Therefore, these individuals may perceive their specific generational cohort to be Gen X rather than Baby Boomer. However, for this purposes of this research, these individuals are coded as Baby Boomers. The one Millennial who self-identified as a Baby Boomer (year of birth, 1988) is an obvious outlier and is possibly the result of the respondent making an incorrect selection on the survey. Therefore, the differences between actual generation and perceived generation can be attributed to: the lack of a standardly defined range of years associated with each generation, a cusp effect, or simply an incorrect selection on the survey. Implications of perceived versus actual generation are discussed further in Chapter 5.

Participants were asked to rate 29 historical, national, social or cultural events with respect to whether they considered that particular event to be associated with their particular generation. By selecting a rating of “1”, the respondent was indicating that

he/she was not familiar with the event; a rating of “2” indicated that the event was one that the respondent did not associate with his/her generation; a rating of “3” indicated that the event was one that the respondent did associate with his/her generation. The results of this question are displayed in Appendix F. Only those events with observable differences are listed in Appendix F. The results of this question are discussed further in Chapter 5.

Participants were also asked to rate 21 characteristics used by previous generational researchers (Twenge, 2010; Twenge & Campbell, 2008; Twenge et al., 2010) and authors (Lancaster & Stillman, 2005; Zemke et al., 2000) to describe and characterize the three generations in this study. Specifically, the participants were asked to identify whether the characteristic was: a characteristic that they associated with their generation; a characteristic that they did not associate with their generation; or, a characteristic with which they were unfamiliar. The results of this question are presented in Appendix G. Only the characteristics which demonstrated differences between the respondent’s actual generation and the generation with which the characteristic is typically associated are displayed. The results of this question are also discussed further in Chapter 5.

Three survey questions were utilized to identify those individuals with management responsibilities. First, individuals were asked if their job responsibilities included the supervision or management of other employees. Second, they were asked if their job responsibilities included employee performance appraisal. Finally, they were asked if their job responsibilities included hiring decisions, employee promotion decisions, and/or employee discipline. The results of the responses by actual generation are displayed in Table 20.

Table 20

Management Responsibilities by Generation

Questions	Yes/ No	Boomer	% Boomer	Gen X	% Gen X	Millen- nial	% Millen- nial	Total	% Total
Supervisory/ Manage	Yes	47	49.5%	51	45.5%	11	26.2%	109	43.8%
	No	48	50.5%	61	54.5%	31	73.8%	140	56.2%
Performance Appraisal	Yes	38	40.0%	41	36.6%	13	31.0%	92	36.9%
	No	57	60.0%	71	63.4%	29	69.0%	157	63.1%
Hiring Decisions	Yes	29	30.5%	37	33.0%	7	16.7%	73	29.3%
	No	66	69.5%	75	67.0%	35	83.3%	176	70.7%
	Total	95		112		42		249	

Job Titles were also collected as part of the demographic data. This data is presented in Appendix H.

Individuals were also asked if they had been born in the US. Table 21 presents the results of that question, again by actual generation.

Table 21

US Born

US Born	Boomers	%	Gen X	%	Millennial	%
Yes	92	96.8%	100	89.3%	37	88.1%
No	3	3.2%	12	10.7%	5	11.9%
Total	95	100.0%	112	100.0%	42	100.0%

Individuals not born in the US were asked to identify how many years they had lived in the US. Table 22 shows how long these individuals have lived in the US.

Table 22

Non US Born/Length of Time Living in the US

Range of Years	Boomers	Gen X	Millennials
0 to 5	-	-	1
6 to 10	-	-	1
11 to 15	-	-	-
>16	2	10	2
No Response	1	2	1
Total	3	12	5

Based on an analysis of the responses from the participants who were not born in the US, a decision was made to retain this data. This decision was based primarily on the fact that a majority of the non-US born individuals indicated that they had been living in the US for 16 or more years.

Factor Analysis – Implicit Leadership Survey

The 21 items comprising the variables from the Implicit Leadership Scale (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004) were subjected to principal components analysis (PCA). Prior to conducting PCA, the reliability of the instrument was assessed using Cronbach's alpha ($\alpha = .762$). The means, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis of the 21 variables from the Implicit Leadership Scale are listed in Appendix I. The suitability of the data for factor analysis was assessed via the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy, which had a value of .798. This is at the upper-end of the range which Hair et al. described as "middling" (2010, p. 104). Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was also significant.

Preliminary determination of the number of factors to extract was assessed using the latent root criterion by examining the Total Variance Explained (Table 23) for those factors which had Eigenvalues greater than 1. Five variables were found to have Eigenvalues greater than 1.

Table 23

Total Variance Explained Unrotated Factor Solution Leadership

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sum of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	5.330	25.380	25.380	5.330	25.380	25.380
2	3.883	15.492	43.871	3.883	18.492	43.871
3	1.764	8.401	52.272	1.764	8.401	52.272
4	1.271	6.050	58.323	1.271	6.050	58.323
5	1.082	5.154	63.476	1.082	5.154	63.476
6	.903	4.300	67.776			
7	.868	4.134	71.910			
8	.770	3.668	75.578			
9	.682	3.250	78.828			
10	.605	2.883	81.711			
11	.578	2.755	84.465			
12	.537	2.558	87.023			
13	.462	2.198	89.221			
14	.437	2.080	91.301			
15	.395	1.883	93.184			
16	.372	1.770	94.954			
17	.314	1.497	96.452			
18	.262	1.249	97.700			
19	.203	.968	98.669			
20	.145	.690	99.359			
21	.135	.641	100.000			

Another method to determine how many factors to extract is by visual examination of the Scree Plot. The Scree Plot also suggested a five-factor solution was most appropriate. The unrotated solution had an average variance extracted (AVE) for the five-factor solution as shown in Table 24. AVE is a summary measure of convergence among a set of items representing a latent construct. As such, AVE measures the amount of variance captured by the construct in relation to the amount of variance due to measurement error. If the $AVE < 0.50$, then the variance due to measurement error is greater than the variance due to the construct. All of factors exhibited an AVE that was less than 0.50 for the unrotated factor solution, indicating that the amount of variance was due to measurement error rather than variance due to construct.

Table 24

Average Variance Extracted (AVE) Unrotated Factor Solution - Leadership

	Factor				
	1	2	3	4	5
AVE	0.321	0.266	0.489	0.243	0.262

The communalities for the unrotated factor solution were also examined, as the communalities represent the proportion of the total variance that is common factor variance, or shared by two or more factors. The communalities of the unrotated factor solution are shown in Table 25.

Table 25

Communalities Unrotated Factor Solution - Leadership

Factor	Initial	Extraction
1	1.000	.507
2	1.000	.699
3	1.000	.693
4	1.000	.671
5	1.000	.575
6	1.000	.492
7	1.000	.552
8	1.000	.618
9	1.000	.703
10	1.000	.427
11	1.000	.573
12	1.000	.613
13	1.000	.419
14	1.000	.603
15	1.000	.745
16	1.000	.690
17	1.000	.690
18	1.000	.637
19	1.000	.647
20	1.000	.877
21	1.000	.898

Next, the factor analysis was run with Varimax rotation in an attempt to improve the solution. Again, the Eigenvalues were analyzed for values greater than 1. The Varimax rotated solution also suggested a five-factor solution, based on Eigenvalues greater than 1 (Table 26). The Varimax rotated factor solution also more clearly demonstrated a five-factor solution as demonstrated in Rotated Component Matrix, Table 27.

Table 27

Rotated Component Matrix - Leadership

Variable	Dimensions				
	Tyranny	Dedication	Knowledge	Sensitivity	Masculinity
1				.631	
2				.748	
3				.785	
4			.718		
5			.734		
6			.647		
7			.672		
8		.642			
9		.787			
10		.548			
11		.612			
12		.774			
13		.607			
14	.750				
15	.809				
16	.813				
17	.756				
18	.777				
19	.780				
20					.900
21					.935
AVE	0.610	0.446	0.481	0.525	0.842

Note: Factor loadings < .40 are suppressed

The resulting five-factor structure differs from the findings of Epitropaki and Martin (2004). Rather than finding two distinct dimensions comprised of Dedication and Dynamism, the variables which comprised Dedication (dedicated, motivated and hard-working) and Dynamism (energetic, strong and dynamic) combined to form one single dimension in the present research. However, the factor label, Dedication, was retained.

The other variables, however, did factor into the dimensions as suggested by prior research. A six-factor solution was forced, but the variables which comprised the

dedication and dynamism factors still combined to form one single factor. The six-factor solution also demonstrated several cross-loadings and did not improve upon the final solution; therefore, the five-factor solution was retained. The final five-factor solution was comprised of Tyranny, Dedication (a combination of the factors prior research had established as the two separate dimensions of Dedication and Dynamism), Knowledge, Sensitivity and Masculinity.

Factor Analysis – Implicit Followership Survey

The 18 items from the Implicit Followership Survey (Sy, 2010) were subjected to principal components analysis (PCA) as well. Prior to conducting PCA, the reliability of the instrument was assessed using Cronbach's alpha ($\alpha = 0.668$). The means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis of the 18 items are listed in Appendix J. The suitability of the data for factor analysis was assessed via the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy which had a value of 0.833. This is in the range which Hair et al. described as "meritorious" (2010, p. 104).

A preliminary determination of the number of factors to extract was assessed using the latent root criterion by examining factors which had Eigenvalues greater than 1. Five factors had Eigenvalues greater than 1 (Table 28). The Scree Plot was also examined to determine the appropriate number of factors to retain and suggested a five-factor solution was most appropriate.

Table 28

Total Variance Explained Unrotated Factor Solution - Followership

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sum of Squares		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	6.564	36.466	36.466	6.564	36.466	36.466
2	2.832	15.732	52.197	2.832	15.732	52.197
3	1.639	9.108	61.305	1.639	9.108	61.305
4	1.270	7.056	68.361	1.270	7.056	68.361
5	1.101	6.117	74.479	1.101	6.117	74.479
6	0.820	4.558	79.037			
7	0.749	4.161	83.198			
8	0.500	2.776	85.974			
9	0.421	2.341	88.315			
10	0.387	2.149	90.464			
11	0.341	1.897	92.360			
12	0.318	1.768	94.128			
13	0.290	1.613	95.741			
14	0.249	1.384	97.125			
15	0.220	1.221	98.346			
16	0.183	1.016	99.362			
17	0.065	0.359	99.721			
18	0.050	0.279	100.000			

Principal components analysis was performed on the 21 leadership characteristics. The unrotated solution had an average variance extracted (AVE) for the five-factor solution as shown in Table 29. AVE is a summary measure of convergence among a set of items representing a latent construct. As such, AVE measures the amount of variance captured by the construct in relation to the amount of variance due to measurement error. If the $AVE < 0.50$, then the variance due to measurement error is greater than the variance due to the construct. All of factors exhibited an AVE that was less than 0.50 for the unrotated factor solution, indicating that the amount of variance was due to measurement error rather than variance due to construct.

Table 29

Average Variance Extracted (AVE) – Unrotated Factor Solution - Followership

	Factor				
	1	2	3	4	5
AVE	0.321	0.266	0.489	0.243	0.262

The communalities for the unrotated factor solution were also examined, as the communalities represent the proportion of the total variance that is common factor variance, or shared by two or more factors. The communalities of the unrotated factor solution are shown in table 30.

The factor analysis was run again in an attempt to improve upon the solution, this time with Varimax rotation. While the Varimax rotated factor solution still suggested a five-factor solution was appropriate, one variable, soft spoken, exhibited several cross-loadings, which suggested that it should be removed from the analysis. Given this cross loading, this variable was removed from the analysis and the factor analysis was performed again. Success iterations of the factor analysis were performed to remove additional variables which demonstrated cross-loadings, or which did not load onto any factor. The additional variables which were eliminated included: follows trends, uneducated and inexperienced. This ultimately resulted in a four-factor solution.

The number of factors to extract was again verified by latent root analysis by examining the Eigenvalues which were greater than 1. This confirmed a four-factor solution, accounting for 77.13% of the variance. The scree plot was also examined and confirmed a four-factor solution. A six-factor solution was forced with the remaining

variables, but it did not improve upon the four-factor solution. Therefore, the most appropriate factor solution was determined to be the four-factor solution identified in Table 31, and comprised of: Industry, Insubordination, Enthusiasm and Conformity

Table 30

Communalities - Unrotated Factor Solution - Followership

Factor	Initial	Extraction
1	1.000	.507
2	1.000	.699
3	1.000	.693
4	1.000	.671
5	1.000	.575
6	1.000	.492
7	1.000	.552
8	1.000	.618
9	1.000	.703
10	1.000	.427
11	1.000	.573
12	1.000	.613
13	1.000	.419
14	1.000	.603
15	1.000	.745
16	1.000	.690
17	1.000	.690
18	1.000	.637
19	1.000	.647
20	1.000	.877
21	1.000	.898

Table 31

Rotated Component Matrix - Followership

Variable	Dimension			
	Industry	Insubordination	Enthusiasm	Conformity
1	.882			
2	.882			
3	.761			
4	.580			
5	.706			
6	.688			
7				.828
8				.870
9			.843	
10			.851	
11			.787	
12		.866		
13		.928		
14		.895		
AVE	0.574	0.804	0.685	0.721

Note: Factor loadings < .40 are suppressed

The resulting four-factor solution differed from Sy's (2010) research in that the variables which comprised Industry and Good Citizen in the present study combined to form one factor, labeled Industry. In addition, the variables which comprised Sy's (2010) Incompetence factor were eliminated since these variables all exhibited either low factor loadings or cross-loadings. Also, the Conformity factor, comprised of the variables easily influenced, follows trends and soft spoken in Sy's (2010) research, was found to be

comprised solely of the variables easily influenced and follows trends in the present research. This four-factor solution was ultimately confirmed and the analysis proceeded to test the hypotheses.

Hypothesis One – Preferred Characteristics - Followers

Recall that H₁ stated that the preferred characteristics of followers will vary across the generational cohorts. To test this hypothesis, a one-way ANOVA was conducted with the factor scores obtained from the principal components analysis conducted on the Implicit Followership Scale.

The factor scores for the 4 dimensions of followership were visually analyzed using Q-Q Plots to determine if the data violated the assumption of normality. Visual inspection of the Q-Q Plot is a method for comparing the sample distribution where a normal distribution of the variables should approximate a straight line (Vogt, 2005). The visual inspection of the Q-Q Plots for Industry, Enthusiasm, Insubordination and Conformity revealed no deviations from normality. Therefore, the analysis continued with a one-way ANOVA with planned Post Hoc Scheffe and Bonferroni tests.

Scheffe's test is a test of statistical significance used for post hoc multiple comparisons of the means in ANOVA (Vogt, 2005). The Scheffe test is a cautious statistical test that is useful for reducing the risk of a Type I error, however; this test is less likely to detect differences between the groups (Pallant, 2007). The Bonferroni test is especially appropriate when testing for statistical significance of multiple comparisons. The Bonferroni test establishes a more stringent alpha level for each planned comparison (Pallant, 2007; Vogt, 2005).

Table 32 presents the descriptive statistics for the one-way ANOVA for the followership factors by actual generation. Boomers had the highest means for Industry ($\mu = .234, \sigma = .818$), followed by Gen X ($\mu = -.138, \sigma = 1.124$) and Millennials ($\mu = -.160, \sigma = .944$). The means for Insubordination were highest for Millennials ($\mu = .081, \sigma = 1.25$), followed by Gen X ($\mu = .028, \sigma = .963$) and Baby Boomers ($\mu = -.069, \sigma = .922$). Millennials also exhibited the largest mean for Enthusiasm ($\mu = .104, \sigma = 1.094$), followed by Gen X ($\mu = .087, \sigma = .947$) and Baby Boomers ($\mu = -.149, \sigma = 1.010$). The third factor for which Millennials had the highest mean was Conformity ($\mu = .127, \sigma = 1.111$), followed by Baby Boomers ($\mu = -.018, \sigma = 1.034$) and Gen X ($\mu = -.032, \sigma = .932$).

Table 32

Descriptive Statistics – Followership Factor Scores

Followership Factor Scores	Actual Generation	N	Mean	Std Deviation	Std Error	95% CI			
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Minimum	Maximum
Industry	Boomer	95	0.234	0.818	0.084	0.067	0.400	-2.396	2.321
	Gen X	112	-0.138	1.124	0.106	-0.349	0.072	-4.671	1.501
	Millennial	42	-0.160	0.944	0.146	-0.455	0.134	-2.937	1.872
	Total	249	0.000	1.000	0.063	-0.125	0.125	-4.671	2.321
Insubordination	Boomer	95	-0.069	0.922	0.095	-0.257	0.118	-1.191	2.723
	Gen X	112	0.028	0.963	0.091	-0.152	0.209	-1.620	4.403
	Millennial	42	0.081	1.254	0.193	-0.309	0.472	-1.436	5.571
	Total	249	0.000	1.000	0.063	-0.125	0.125	-1.620	5.571
Enthusiasm	Boomer	95	-0.149	1.010	0.104	-0.354	0.057	-3.403	2.178
	Gen X	112	0.087	0.947	0.089	-0.090	0.265	-2.489	2.262
	Millennial	42	0.104	1.094	0.169	-0.237	0.445	-2.063	1.745
	Total	249	0.000	1.000	0.063	-0.125	0.125	-3.403	2.262
Conformity	Boomer	95	-0.018	1.034	0.106	-0.229	0.193	-2.288	2.607
	Gen X	112	-0.032	0.932	0.088	-0.207	0.142	-1.818	2.670
	Millennial	42	0.127	1.106	0.171	-0.218	0.471	-2.279	2.058
	Total	249	0.000	1.000	0.063	-0.125	0.125	-2.288	2.670

The ANOVA table (Table 33) tests whether there are differences in the means between the generations on the followership factor scores. The ANOVA table identified only one difference for the four factor scores, Industry $F(2,246) = 4.315, p = 0.014$, indicating that a significant effect existed due to generation for this factor.

Table 33

ANOVA Table Followership

Followership Factor Scores		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Industry	Between Groups	8.405	2	4.202	4.315	0.014
	Within Groups	239.595	246	0.974		
	Total	248.000	248			
Insubordination	Between Groups	0.825	2	0.412	0.410	0.664
	Within Groups	247.175	246	1.005		
	Total	248.000	248			
Enthusiasm	Between Groups	3.400	2	1.700	1.710	0.183
	Within Groups	244.600	246	0.994		
	Total	248.000	248			
Conformity	Between Groups	0.822	2	0.411	0.409	0.665
	Within Groups	247.178	246	1.005		
	Total	248.000	248			

Levene's Test of Homogeneity of Variances was assessed and the assumption of homogeneity was not violated for the Industry factor ($p = .021$).

To determine exactly which means were different between the three generations, Scheffe's test was examined and revealed a significant difference between the Baby Boomers and Gen Xers on the Industry factor, $p = .027$. Bonferroni's test also revealed a significant difference between Baby Boomers and Gen Xers on Industry, $p = .022$.

Therefore, a statistically significant difference was found for the Industry factor between Baby Boomers and Gen Xers, $F(2,246) = 4.315, p = 0.014$.

In summary, a one-way ANOVA was conducted to determine if the means for the Followership scale differed between Baby Boomers, Gen Xers and Millennials. The data was assessed and found to be normal by examining the Q-Q box plots. Levene's test of homogeneity of variances ($p = .021$) indicated that the variances in mean scores were the same for each of the three generations.

The one-way ANOVA results found one dimension, Industry, that was statistically significantly different between the Baby Boomer and Gen X generations, $F(2,246) = 4.315, p = 0.014$. Both Scheffe's test and Bonferroni's test revealed that there was a statistically significant difference in Industry between Baby Boomers and Gen X. Therefore, Hypothesis 1 is only partially supported as the only statistically significant difference in means was found for the followership factor, Industry, which exhibited a statistically significant difference between Baby Boomers and Gen Xers.

Hypothesis Two – Preferred Characteristics - Leaders

The second hypothesis stated that the preferred characteristics of leaders will vary across the generational cohorts. To test this hypothesis, a one-way ANOVA was conducted on the factor scores obtained from the principal components analysis conducted on the Leadership Questionnaire.

The factor scores for the 5 dimensions of leadership were visually analyzed using Q-Q Plots to determine if the data violated the assumption of normality. This visual

inspection of the Q-Q Plots for Tyranny, Dedication, Knowledge, Sensitivity and Masculinity revealed no deviations from normality and a one-way ANOVA with planned Post Hoc Scheffe and Bonferroni and Duncan's tests was conducted.

Table 34 presents the descriptive statistics for the one-way ANOVA for the Leadership factors. The means for Tyranny were highest for Millennials ($\mu = .401$, $\sigma = 1.314$) followed by Gen X ($\mu = -.0124$, $\sigma = .876$) and Baby Boomers ($\mu = -.163$, $\sigma = .938$). Millennials exhibited the largest mean for Masculinity ($\mu = .347$, $\sigma = 1.445$) followed by Baby Boomers ($\mu = -.061$, $\sigma = .909$) and Gen X ($\mu = -.078$, $\sigma = .841$). Gen X exhibited the largest mean for Knowledge ($\mu = .137$, $\sigma = .916$), followed by Millennials ($\mu = .020$, $\sigma = 1.061$) and Baby Boomers ($\mu = -.171$, $\sigma = 1.05$). Boomers had the highest means for two factors, first, Dedication ($\mu = .124$, $\sigma = .836$), which was followed by Gen X ($\mu = -.054$, $\sigma = 1.051$) and Millennials ($\mu = -.136$, $\sigma = 1.181$). The second factor for which Boomers had the highest mean was Sensitivity ($\mu = .228$, $\sigma = .770$) followed by Gen X ($\mu = -.119$, $\sigma = 1.167$) and then Millennials ($\mu = -.199$, $\sigma = .901$).

Table 34

Descriptive Statistics – Leadership Factor Scores

Leadership Factor Scores	Actual Generation	N	Mean	Std Deviation	Std Error	95% CI				Minimum	Maximum
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Tyranny	Boomer	95	-0.163	0.938	0.096	-0.354	0.029	-1.220	3.538		
	Gen X	112	-0.012	0.088	0.083	-0.177	0.152	-1.180	3.086		
	Millennial	42	0.401	1.314	0.203	-0.008	0.810	-1.382	3.101		
	Total	249	0.000	1.000	0.063	-0.125	0.125	-1.382	3.538		
Dedication	Boomer	95	0.124	0.836	0.857	-0.047	0.294	-2.153	1.882		
	Gen X	112	-0.537	1.051	0.099	-0.251	0.143	-4.140	1.553		
	Millennial	42	-0.136	1.181	0.182	-0.504	0.232	-2.602	1.625		
	Total	249	0.000	1.000	0.063	-0.125	0.125	-4.140	1.882		
Knowledge	Boomer	95	-0.171	1.051	0.108	-0.385	0.043	-3.655	2.051		
	Gen X	112	0.137	0.916	0.087	-0.034	0.309	-3.717	1.448		
	Millennial	42	0.020	1.061	0.168	-0.311	0.350	-4.136	1.229		
	Total	249	0.000	1.000	0.063	-0.125	0.125	-4.136	2.051		
Sensitivity	Boomer	95	0.228	0.797	0.079	0.072	0.385	-2.307	2.168		
	Gen X	112	-0.119	1.166	0.110	-0.338	0.099	-4.773	1.655		
	Millennial	42	-0.199	0.901	0.139	-0.479	0.082	-1.865	1.994		
	Total	249	0.000	1.000	0.063	-0.125	0.125	-4.773	2.168		
Masculinity	Boomer	95	-0.061	0.909	0.093	-0.246	0.124	-1.125	3.133		
	Gen X	112	-0.079	0.812	0.080	-0.236	0.079	-1.417	3.219		
	Millennial	42	0.347	1.445	0.223	-0.103	0.798	-1.199	5.475		
	Total	249	0.000	1.000	0.063	-0.125	0.125	-1.417	5.475		

The ANOVA table (Table 35) tests whether there are differences in the means between the generations on the leadership factor scores. Differences were found for the means for two factors: Tyranny, $F(2,246) = 9.276, p < .05$, and Sensitivity $F(2,246) = 8.205, p < .05$, indicating that there was a significant effect due to generation for these two dimensions.

Table 35

ANOVA Table Leadership

Leadership Factor		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Tyranny	Between Groups	9.276	2	4.638	4.779	.009
	Within Groups	238.724	.970			
	Total	248.000	248			
Dedication	Between Groups	2.552	2	1.276	1.279	.280
	Within Groups	245.448	246	.998		
	Total	248.00	248			
Knowledge	Between Groups	4.890	2	2.445	2.474	.086
	Within Groups	243.110	246	.988		
	Total	248.000	248			
Sensitivity	Between Groups	8.205	2	4.102	4.208	.016
	Within Groups	239.795	246	.975		
	Total	248.000	248			
Masculinity	Between Groups	6.112	2	3.056	3.108	.046
	Within Groups	246.885	246	1.004		
	Total	248.000	248			

Levene's Test of Homogeneity of Variances was assessed and the assumption of homogeneity was not violated for Tyranny ($p = .001$), Dedication ($p = .020$), Sensitivity ($p = .024$) and Masculinity ($p < .005$). Only Knowledge violated Levene's Test of Homogeneity of Variances, $p = .590$.

Scheffe's test revealed a significant difference between the Baby Boomers and Millennials on the Tyranny, $p = .009$. Bonferroni's test also revealed a significant difference between Baby Boomers and Millennials with respect to Tyranny, $p = .007$. Therefore, a statistically significant difference was found for the Tyranny factor between Baby Boomers and Millennials, $F(2,246) = 4.779$, $p = .009$. No differences in means were found for Dedication, nor for Masculinity. However, a statistically significant difference was found for Sensitivity between Baby Boomers and Gen Xers according to both the Scheffe and Bonferroni tests, $F(2,246) = 4.208$, $p = .016$.

A Welch's ANOVA was conducted on Knowledge, due to the heterogeneity of variances. However, no statistically significant differences were found in the means, so generation did not have an effect on this factor.

In summary, a one-way ANOVA was conducted to determine if the means for the leadership factors were different between Baby Boomers, Gen Xers and Millennials. The data was assessed and found to be normal by examining the Q-Q box plots. Levene's test of homogeneity was violated for one factor, Knowledge, so this factor was analyzed using a Welch ANOVA; Tyranny ($p = .001$), Dedication ($p = .020$), Sensitivity ($p = .024$) and Masculinity ($p < .005$) all were found to have homogeneous variances. This analysis found statistically significant differences between Baby Boomers and Millennials for the Tyranny factor, $F(2,246) = 4.315$, $p < .05$. Both Scheffe's test and Bonferroni's test

revealed that there was a statistically significant difference in the Tyranny factor between Baby Boomers. The analysis also found a statistically significant differences between Baby Boomers and Gen Xers on the Sensitivity factor, $F(2,246) = 4.208, p = .016$. This was confirmed by both Scheffe's test and Bonferroni's test. Therefore, Hypothesis 2 is only partially supported as only two of the five factors of leadership demonstrated any statistical significant difference between the generations.

Cluster Analysis

The final statistical test conducted was a cluster analysis, which is a statistical technique designed to determine whether units of analysis are similar enough to be grouped into a cluster, with the groupings displaying similarity on some variable(s). Thus, each unique cluster should represent some dissimilarity from any other cluster (Vogt, 2005). For the purposes of this research, the cluster analysis was conducted to determine if the followership or leadership factor scores would cause the respondents to group, or cluster, according to their respective generational cohorts.

Cluster analysis was performed using K-means clustering algorithm which is a group of nonhierarchical clustering algorithms that function by partitioning the data into a specified number of clusters. These algorithms then successively and iteratively reassign the observations until a specific numeric goal related to cluster distinctiveness is achieved (Hair et al., 2010).

A three cluster solution was forced to determine if the clusters corresponded to the generations, utilizing the leadership factor scores to determine if these scores would

cluster into three distinct groupings by generation – one grouping each for Baby Boomers, Gen Xers and Millennials.

The final cluster centers were analyzed to find the greatest Euclidian distances between them as the greater distances represented the greatest dissimilarities between the clusters. Next, the ANOVA table was examined to determine which variables contributed the most to the cluster solution, based on the largest mean square errors. Tyranny, dedication and knowledge had the largest mean square errors, which indicated that these three variables were not as helpful in differentiating the three clusters.

The resulting cluster membership was examined to compare generational cohort to cluster membership (Appendix J); however, visual inspection of the cluster analysis results revealed no discernable relationship. To confirm this a chi-square test was performed on the resulting cluster membership compared to actual generation. The chi-square test demonstrated an association between actual generation and the cluster assigned generation ($\chi^2[df=4] = 10.978, p = 0.027$). However, Cramer's V at 0.148 indicated a weak relationship between actual generation and cluster assigned.

Table 36 presents the cross tabulation between actual generation and the cluster analysis assigned generation for the leadership variables. The results of this analysis failed to demonstrate any significant relationship between generational cohort and cluster membership.

Table 36

Actual Generation Assigned Cluster - Leadership

Actual Generation	Assigned Cluster			Total
	1	2	3	
Baby Boomer	11	64	20	95
Gen X	11	72	29	112
Millennial	10	17	15	42
Total	32	153	64	249

A cluster analysis was also performed on the followership variables, again forcing a three cluster solution. Table 37 presents the cross tabulation between actual generation and the cluster analysis assigned generation for the leadership variables. The largest mean square errors from the ANOVA table demonstrated that the followership factors industry and conformity provided the least help in determining the clusters. The cluster membership was analyzed to determine if there was a relationship between actual generation and cluster assignment comparing generational cohort to cluster membership (Appendix K); however, visual inspection of the cluster analysis results revealed no discernable relationship. To confirm this, a chi-square test was performed on the resulting cluster membership compared to actual generation. The chi-square test confirmed that there was no association between actual generation and the cluster assigned generation ($\chi^2[df=4] = 3.217, p = 0.522$). Cramer's V (0.080) also demonstrated that there was no significant relationship between generational cohort and cluster membership for the followership factors. Thus the results of this analysis failed to demonstrate any significant

relationship between generational cohort and cluster membership based on the followership factors.

Table 37

Actual Generation Assigned Cluster - Followership

Actual Generation	Assigned Cluster			Total
	1	2	3	
Baby Boomer	44	37	14	95
Gen X	41	48	23	112
Millennial	15	17	10	42
Total	100	102	47	249

Summary

This chapter presented the results of the statistical analysis of the data collected. The descriptive statistics provided an overview of the population sampled. Principal components analysis was performed on both the followership and leadership questionnaires from the survey. The results of the present study did not correspond to the results of other researchers who have utilized The Leadership Questionnaire (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004), nor The Implicit Followership Survey (Sy, 2010). Instead, the present research found a five-factor solution rather than a six-factor solution for leadership, and, a four-factor solution rather than a six-factor solution for followership. The factor score means for both surveys were analyzed via a One-Way ANOVA to determine if there were differences between the generations surveyed. Since only one followership factor, Industry, demonstrated a statistically significant difference between Baby Boomers and

Gen X, Hypothesis one was only partially supported. Two factors from the leadership survey, Tyranny and Sensitivity, demonstrated a statistically significant difference between the generations, so Hypothesis 2 was also only partially supported. Cluster analysis using k-means clustering algorithms was also performed; however, the results of the cluster analysis demonstrated no relationship between generation and the factors of followership or leadership.

CHAPTER V – SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Introduction

The previous chapter presented the results of the data analysis. This chapter provides further discussion regarding these results of the Implicit Followership Survey and the leadership questionnaire. The results of the one-way ANOVA conducted to test the hypotheses are also further discussed further. Theoretical implications of this research are presented, as well as practical/managerial implications. This section also contains a discussion of the limitations of this research, as well as suggestions for future research.

Generational Events

Several of the events from the first survey question were identified by participants as associated not only with the generation with which the event should be associated, based on the year in which the event occurred, but also across all generations, see Appendix F. These events included: the preparations for Y2K, the Oklahoma City bombing, PCs becoming commonplace, and teens carrying cell phones. The start-up of CNN and MTV, both events which occurred towards the end of Gen X generation, are events which Baby Boomers associated as part of their generation. The space shuttle Challenger explosion is also a Gen X event, yet Baby Boomers consider this to be a part of their generation as well. Another national US event, the bombing of the Federal Building in Oklahoma City, OK was identified by all three generations to be associated with their specific generation. The Atari game system, first introduced in 1972, was considered to be both a Baby Boomer and Gen X event. Latch-kids, the term used to

describe children of the 1980's, was also considered by both Baby Boomers and Gen Xers to be part of their respective generations.

Four international events: the fall of the Berlin Wall, the protests at Tiananmen Square in China, the end of the Cold War, and the banning of Communism in Russia, are also events that both Baby Boomers and Gen Xers considered to be part of their respective generations. These four events took place from 1989 to 1991. While these events might be associated with Millennials, all these events would have occurred when the Millennials were still very young children. Finally, Baby Boomers considered the 1980 murder of John Lennon to be an event associated with their generation, yet it occurred during the range of years typically associated with Gen Xers. However, given that the oldest Gen Xers were 15 years old in 1980 and that the youngest members of this generation were not yet born, it is not surprising to find that Baby Boomers identify this as one of their generational events and not Gen Xers.

Similar research on generational differences, conducted by Schuman and Scott (1989), utilized an individual's ability to identify similar, yet specific national, historical, cultural or worldwide events. Their research validated the propositions that shared experiences were a determinant of generational differences. Arsenault (2004, p. 135), in research based in part on the research of Schuman and Scott, found that, "...there was clearly a shared field of responses or persons for each generation ... by recalling different events or changes that come especially from adolescence and early childhood ...". Yet, the responses to this current research demonstrated many similarities, rather than differences, across Baby Boomers, Gen Xers and Millennials, with respect to several events. These results also demonstrated that different generations may all associate

particular historical, national, social or cultural events as being uniquely associated with their specific generations.

While shared experiences are one component of generational theory, the distinction between generations regarding particular historical, social, national or cultural event pertains appears to have faded. With the proliferation of multiple sources of news - 24-hour news channels, the internet and other media – all generations are exposed to sometimes overwhelming news and information. Thus, being able to distinguish one event as solely pertaining to one generation, and thus, determining generational identity based on these differing events should be used with caution in any future research. In addition, there were many more events which could have been chosen for the survey. However, as the main purpose of the research was not to validate how various events are viewed by each generation, the number of events included was limited. However, the factors which help shape generational identity continues to be an area worthy of continued research.

Generational Characteristics

As Appendix G demonstrates, respondents from each of the generations did correctly identify with several, but not all, of the characteristics typically attributed to their particular generation. However, there are several characteristics that were either associated with the incorrect generation, or that displayed an association across all three generations.

For example, Millennials did identify several characteristics typically associated with their generation, including: self-absorbed, narcissism and self-centeredness. This corresponds with the findings of prior generational research (Twenge & Campbell, 2008; Twenge et al., 2010). Millennials also identified impatience and a desire for immediate feedback as generational characteristics. Interestingly, all three generations identified technology literacy as a generational characteristic, although many authors identify both Gen Xers and Millennials as more technologically savvy as compared to Boomers (Howe & Strauss, 2000; Strauss & Howe, 1991; Zemke et al., 2000).

Cynicism, impatience and a desire for immediate feedback were identified by Gen Xers as characteristic of their generation. Boomers, on the other hand, rated immediate feedback as a characteristic that they do not associate with their generation. Finally, Boomers, who are credited with being workaholic, generally rated that characteristic as one that they did not associate with their generation, with 82.1% of Boomers rating it as a 3 (this is a characteristic which I do not associate with my generation). In addition, Gen Xers also rated being a workaholic as not characteristic of their generation, with 59.8% rating it as a 3 (this is a characteristic which I do not associate with my generation).

As stated previously, the characterizations and defining attributes of the current workforce generations have been heavily influenced by the mass media, without substantial empirical validation. As such, individuals may internalize the characteristics which they hear as being associated with their particular generation, even though that particular characteristic has not been empirically validated. Yet, when asked to rate whether these characteristics apply to their particular generation, the participants in this research did not necessarily identify those attributes as pertaining to their generation.

As with the generational events questions, not all of the characteristics attributed to the various generations were included in this survey. Continued research on generational characteristics may contribute to our overall knowledge of how each generation views itself, especially among the various generations in the workforce. Gaining an understanding of how a particular generation views itself, as well as the other generation's perceptions of a particular generation, may be especially helpful in dispelling the stereotypes associated with today's workforce generations. This more accurate understanding of the workplace generations, which is based on appropriate research and not the false stereotypes popularized by popular media, provides organizations with the ability to capitalize upon those characteristics which contribute to organizational success.

In addition, certain generational characteristics may not positively contribute to an effective workplace. Understanding and acknowledging that these potentially negative characteristics may exist within a particular generation can provide organizations with opportunities designed to mitigate potential negative impacts of these characteristics.

Sample Generational Characteristics

Several pieces of demographic data collected in the present provides additional insight into the sample population, as well as the generations involved in this study. This section reviews the demographic data collected in further detail.

Table 8 presented the responses by gender and generation. Female Baby Boomers represented over 2/3 of the Baby Boomer participants. Further, the overall survey was

again, almost 2/3 female. Additionally, more Gen Xers participated in this research than either Baby Boomers or Millennials.

Tables 11 and 12 presented the minimum and maximum ages as well as the mean age for the participants. Tables 13 through 18 presented the frequency distributions for tenure in the workforce, position tenure and employer tenure for the overall sample and the target organization sample, respectively. The overall sample had 96 (38.6%) individuals who had a tenure in the workforce ranging from 21 to 25 years. Indeed, 58.2% of the entire sample population had over 20 years in the workforce. The workforce tenure of the target organization was also weighted heavily towards longer tenured employees as 32.9% of the target organization sample participants had a tenure in the workforce from 21 to 25 years. Overall, 52.9% the target organization sample had been in the workforce for more than 20 years.

With respect to the target organization, 53.3% of the individuals had been employed at the target organization from 0 to 15 years. A high percentage (87.4%) of the individuals from the target organization participants had also been in their current positions from 0 to 15 years.

Since Baby Boomers are identified in this research ranging in age from 50 to 68, the overall sample mean age implies that the sample had more participants who were age 57 or less. These individuals can be classified as cuspers since they were born towards the end of the Baby Boom years. Indeed, over 50% of the individuals identified as Baby Boomers were age 50 to 57, based on their years of birth (born between 1957 and 1964), which is at the end of the Baby Boom generation. Thirty-three Gen Xers may be considered cuspers, as they were born within five years of the range of birth years

associated with Millennials. As cuspers, these individuals may exhibit characteristics attributable to either the preceding or succeeding generation. Therefore, it is not unusual to find that Boomers in the sample do not consider being a workaholic as part of their generation as this can be explained by the fact that the majority of the Baby Boom participants can be considered cuspers.

As discussed in Chapters 1 and further developed in Chapter 2, several researchers have split both the Baby Boomer and Gen X generations into two distinct cohorts, in addition to the proposed cusper effect. The perceived generation question (Table 13) was designed to identify an individual's own generational identity solely using generational labels – Baby Boomer, Gen X or Millennial. Eighty-one Baby Boomers identified their perceived generation as the Baby Boom generation. Fourteen Baby Boomers identified their perceived generation as Gen X. Four Gen Xers identified their generational label as Baby Boomers, but 98 identified themselves as Gen Xers, while 2 identified themselves as Millennials. Thirteen Millennials identified themselves as Gen Xers, while 36 identified themselves as Millennials. The results demonstrate that the while generational labels are helpful in identifying individuals born around a certain range of years, individuals do not necessarily ascribe to the same generational label as their birth year may indicate.

Dimensions of Followership

Unlike Sy's (2010) research, this research found only a five-factor solution comprised of 15, rather than the 18 variables used in his research to represent the dimensions of followership. While Sy defined six factors – Industry, Enthusiasm, Good

Citizen, Conformity, Insubordination and Incompetence – this research only found Industry, Enthusiasm, Conformity and Insubordination. The variables which demonstrated cross-loadings, or very low loadings – soft-spoken, uneducated, slow and inexperienced were removed from the analysis. In particular, uneducated, slow and inexperienced, comprising the Incompetence factor in Sy's (2010) research, was eliminated from the final factor solution in the present research. The variables that comprised Good Citizen in Sy's (2010) research did not exhibit a separate factor of followership. Rather the variables loyal, reliable, and team player combined with the other variables of Industry (hardworking, productive, goes above and beyond) to form a single factor. However, the label, Industry, was retained for this factor.

The variables which were eliminated also comprise a portion, but not the entire range, of variables which comprised Sy's (2010) followership antiprototype, which he defined as negatively valenced attributes. This indicates that the sample population does not perceive these negatively valenced attributes that they utilize to identify or categorize the preferred characteristics of followers.

Sy's (2010) Implicit Followership Scale was initially developed by soliciting input from 149 workplace leaders from a variety of industries. These individuals were provided with stimulus cues – follower, effective follower and ineffective follower – and asked to list 20 traits for each stimulus. The resulting items were then utilized in an exploratory factor analysis using 429 workplace leaders representing a variety of industries, recruited via a community networking site

Thus, Sy's (2010) research utilized only individuals with leadership experience to identify the characteristics of followers. The present research assessed both individuals

who can be categorized as leaders as well as individuals who can be categorized as followers. While Sy's research sample was comprised of individuals representing a variety of industries, the present research focused on one target organization, although the final sample was supplemented with individuals recruited from outside the target organization. Thus, the differences could also be attributed to the two sampling methods utilized within this research.

Few researchers have utilized Sy's (2010) relatively new instrument. Thus, there is insufficient basis with which to compare results of other research utilizing this instrument with the current research. Therefore, the newness of this instrument could account for the differences found with respect to the differing factors and variables of followership. The participants utilized in Sy's research and the present study also differed, as Sy specifically sought participants with leadership experience and the present research specifically sought to gain insight from individuals who could be categorized as both followers and leaders.

Dimensions of Leadership

The five-factor solution achieved through PCA differs from the six-factor solution of Epitropaki and Martin (2004). Specifically, the present study found that the variables which comprised Dedication and Dynamism combined to form one single factor. The label assigned to this factor, Dedication, was however retained in the present study. As Epitropaki and Martin (2004) stated, there was at that time, no single widely used measure of ILTs. It should also be noted that they utilized a 9-point Likert scale in their

research. Sy (2010) utilized a 10-point Likert scale in developing the Implicit Followership Survey. This research utilized a 10-point Likert scale to maintain consistency between both the leadership and followership scales.

In Epitropaki and Martin's (2004) study, Dynamism had a Cronbach's alpha of 0.655, which was the lowest Cronbach's alpha of any of the factors of leadership. Hair et al. (2010) categorize Cronbach's alpha's in the range of 0.60 to 0.70 as the lower limit of acceptability. When combined into one factor, as the present research found that these variables did, these variables had a Cronbach's alpha of 0.778. Thus, the sample population may not have been able to distinguish these two factors as being comprised of the six variables. The present study's results also suggest that when confronted with the leader stimuli, the cognitive processes activated within the participants do not enact a distinction between Dynamism and Dedication as representative of two distinct factors of leadership.

While Epitropaki and Martin (2004) found six dimensions of leadership; this research found five which could be attributed to several important differences between this research and that of Epitropaki and Martin (2004). Epitropaki and Martin's sample population was drawn from British citizens at a large British airport. Their sample was 49% male, had an average age of 39, and a mean workforce tenure of 18.24 years. Their second sample, also conducted with British citizens, was drawn from one service and six manufacturing organizations.

The present study was comprised of US employees, with most of the individuals working in one service organization ($N = 167$). Females accounted for 64.3% of the sample in the present research. The mean age in this research from the target organization

was 43.11 years and the mean workforce tenure was 11 to 15 years. The overall sample mean age (both the target organization and those recruited via social media) was 44.82 and had a workforce tenure of 16 to 20 years. Thus the present study's sample was more heavily represented by females and displayed a lower mean workforce tenure than Epitropaki and Martin's (2004) sample.

While the generational labels utilized in Great Britain, as well as the range of birth years associated with each generation, may be similar between the US and Great Britain, one of the components of generational theory is the influence shared experiences of individuals within a generational cohort. Thus, it is unlikely that Baby Boomers, Gen Xers or Millennials in Great Britain would have experienced the exact same shared experiences during childhood and early adolescence - experiences which help to shape the values, attitudes and beliefs of a generation – as Baby Boomers, Gen Xers and Millennials in the US. While many historical events may be shared across cultures, not all historical events will have the same cross-cultural impact.

Epitropaki and Martin (2004) also explicitly sought to validate the leadership antiprototypical attributes by utilizing six manufacturing organizations in their research. Manufacturing organizations were more likely to be male dominated, rely upon 'command and control' type management and thus, they would be more likely to find individuals who identified leadership with dominance, masculinity and pushiness. The present study was conducted in a service organization which employs more females than males. Thus, the results may reflect differences between not only the culture examined, but also the type of organization and gender examined as well.

A search of Google Scholar showed that while Epitropaki and Martin's article has been cited 271 times by other authors, very few of those citations involved research which actually utilized the Implicit Leadership Scale. Further, the research that did utilize the Implicit Leadership Scale did not perform PCA first on the scale. Thus, while the Implicit Leadership Scale was the first to identify the factors of implicit leadership, it has not been widely used, nor substantially validated over time. Thus, this instrument's ability to accurately determine the perceived characteristics of leaders may not be entirely accurate. It would be appropriate for any future research utilizing this scale to perform PCA first, rather than simply relying upon the factors as established by Epitropaki and Martin (2004).

Hypotheses Discussion

While it was hypothesized that an individual's generation would influence his/her preferred style of leader or follower, the present study found that only one followership factor, Industry, had a statistically significant difference, and, that statistically significant difference was found only between Baby Boomers and Gen Xers. Recall that this factor was comprised of variables that, in prior research, was comprised of two separate factors, Industry and Good Citizen.

The results of the one-way ANOVA for the leadership survey found two factors, Tyranny and Sensitivity, which exhibited a statistically significant differences in means between the generations. In particular, Millennials exhibited a stronger preference for the Tyrannical characteristics as compared to the Baby Boomers. The other difference found,

Sensitivity, demonstrated a statistically significant difference between Baby Boomers and Gen Xers.

The difference for the Industry factor is in line with empirical generational research. Baby Boomers are generally associated with being workaholics. Despite early years of rebellion against the establishment, Baby Boomers have been credited with the growth and success of many organizations. However, recall that many of the Gen X generation saw their parents suffer through the economic malaise and resulting job losses, retrenchment and downsizing of the 1980s. This affected not only Gen X parents, but also Gen Xers as well. Thus, finding a difference between Boomer and Gen Xers with respect to Industry should not be surprising given that generational theory states that individuals form attitudes, beliefs and values based on the significant events which occur in early childhood and adolescence.

With respect to the difference found on the Sensitivity factor between Baby Boomers and Gen Xers, Baby Boomers demonstrated a stronger preference for leaders who exhibited the variables which comprise Sensitivity - helpfulness, understanding and sincerity - versus the Gen Xers. This again is in line with the propositions of generational theory as Gen Xers have had to establish themselves in a Baby Boomer dominated US workforce. They have had to develop their own self-reliance and work harder for opportunities, as educational, employment and other opportunities which were more plentiful throughout much of the Baby Boomers lives, but were and are less existent for Gen Xers. As such, they may not value leaders who exhibit sincerity, helpfulness or understanding, but rather perceive that they have to fight to achieve opportunities for themselves rather than with the assistance of helpful, sincere or understanding leaders.

Gen Xers, often referred to in their early childhood and adolescent as latch-key children, were raised in households where both parents had to work outside the home. Dual-income families became the norm during the 1980's, so Gen Xers, as children, were accustomed to coming home from school and taking care of themselves until their parents arrived home from work. This contributed to their sense of independence and self-reliance. This independence and self-reliance also manifests itself in the workplace, as demonstrated through the present research.

It appears counterintuitive, however, that Millennials would prefer Tyrannical leaders. This preference could be due to several factors. First, Millennials have less overall work experience than the other generational cohorts. Therefore, they may not have been exposed to Tyrannical leaders. Second, it could be that Millennials want to be led, and therefore, the variables that comprise Tyranny – dominance, pushiness, manipulation, loud, conceitedness and selfishness – could be characteristics that they view as indicative of the type of leader that they need, desire or expect to encounter during their careers. Finally, the Millennial sample had a higher percentage of males versus females and this could account for the preference for these characteristics as the Millennial males may view these as indicative of leader characteristics.

Zemke et al. (2000) identify one of the potential liabilities of the Millennials in the workplace is their need for supervision and structure, which could possibly explain the results in this study. Yet, these individuals also have a distinct view of work which encompasses seeking more attention and structure from authority figures (Strauss & Howe, 1997). However, Millennials are often accustomed to getting their way. So this need for structure, combined with a distinct view of how work should fit into their lives,

presents a leadership conundrum between the Millennial's view of work and the style of leadership that they prefer.

In addition, few Millennials in the present study hold leadership positions. Only 11 Millennials indicated that they held a position which involved the management or supervision of other employees (26.19%). Less than half of the Millennials participating in this study are involved providing input, creating and/or delivery performance appraisals ($N = 13$, 30.95%). Even fewer Millennials indicated that they were involved in hiring decisions ($N = 7$, 16.67%). The small sample of Millennials included in this study ($N = 42$) and the fact that few of them hold leadership positions possibly contributes to these counterintuitive results as well.

While the hypotheses of the present study were only partially confirmed, the results do not demonstrate that generational membership plays an important role in an individual's preferred characteristics of leaders and/or followers. Differences were demonstrated in the ultimate factor structure associated with implicit theories of leadership and implicit theories of followership, but these differences cannot be attributed to membership in a particular generational cohort.

Theoretical Implications

The major theoretical implication of this research is the finding that generation does not influence an individual's preferred characteristics of either leaders or followers. This research also provides some theoretical implications for generational research. These theoretical implications are further discussed in the following section.

Rather than finding generational differences in the preferred characteristics of leaders and followers, the present study found that there are more similarities than differences in individual's preferences for the styles of followers and leaders. There was no statistically significant difference between Baby Boomers, Gen Xers and Millennials on the leadership factors of Dedication, Knowledge and Masculinity. Nor was there any statistically significant difference between the Baby Boomers, Gen Xers and Millennials on the followership factors of Insubordination, Enthusiasm and Conformity.

The generational differences found in the preferred characteristics of leaders involved Tyranny and Sensitivity, both of which were discussed in the previous section. The generational difference found in the preferred characteristics of followers, Industry, Thus, while generational theory proposes that individuals develop certain values, beliefs and attitudes, based on exposure to similar national, historical, social or cultural events, the influence of this generational identity does not apply to the all of the preferred characteristics of followers and leaders as measured by implicit theories in the present study. Therefore, the preferences for the characteristics followers and leaders are outside the influence of the factors which create a generational identity.

Two generational research studies cited in the present research validate the generational identity construct by utilizing a participant's ability to recall certain national, historical, social or cultural events. Although the main purpose of this research was not the validation of the generational identity construct, it is important to note that several of the events utilized in the present study's survey instrument were identified by multiple generations as pertaining to their specific generations. As mentioned previously, the proliferation of news sources - 24-hour news television channels, the internet and a wide

variety of other sources of information - appears to have blurred the distinction between the actual date(s) of the event(s) and the specific generation associated with the event. As Mannheim (1952) stated, it is important to distinguish between appropriated memories and personally acquired memories. It is evident from some of the responses that the generations in the present study have appropriated memories rather than personally acquiring certain memories. Thus, the utilization of historical, national, social or cultural events within future generational research should be used with caution. While differing generations may experience similar events, it is the generational response that may be more important than the event itself. For example, younger generational members are accustomed to the increased security screening associated with various modes of mass transit. Older generations may nostalgically long for the bygone days when mass transit was less hassle prone.

The widely held beliefs about the various characteristics of today's multigenerational workforce should also be viewed with caution. Generational researchers have empirically validated some, but not all, of the characteristics ascribed to the various generations. Yet, the stereotypes promulgated by the media, even those which do not withstand empirical investigation, continue to be the commonly held stereotypes associated with the various US workforce generations. There *are* differences between Baby Boomers, Gen Xers and Millennials, but these differences appear to be evolving over time and may not be as significant as previously thought. For example, today's workplace requires almost everyone to have some technological savvy, thus, while Gen Xers and Millennials grew up accustomed to utilizing technology and may be more adept at utilizing it, Baby Boomers have had to adapt and learn to utilize technology as well. It

should not be surprising, then, that all three generations participating in this research considered technology literacy as characteristic of their particular generation. While the generations may utilize technology differently, all three generations may still be considered technologically savvy. Thus, the Gen X or Millennial stereotype of being more technologically savvy has evolved over time such that even Baby Boomers consider themselves to be technologically savvy.

Baby Boomers have been characterized as workaholics. Yet, the Boomers in the present study did not associate this attribute as being characteristic of their generation. Yet, Baby Boomers are generally considered to be workaholics in the popular media and the drive and desire for achievement continues to be a Boomer stereotype. In addition, Boomers in this survey expressed a desire for immediate feedback. However, the non-academic literature states that Baby Boomers are overly sensitive to feedback (Zemke et al., 2000). This presents a conflict which demonstrates that the characterizations of the generations from the popular media and non-empirical literature may not match reality. Therefore, it is extremely important that generational research carefully chooses which characteristics are selected to validate generational identity, as the stereotypes, and personal biases, may unintentionally influence the research design. In addition, these characteristics may be relative to shifting norms and expectations. Thus, as norms changes, the expectations about various work related characteristics may also change relative to those norms. See Appendix G for a complete list of generational characteristics and results from this research.

Eyerman and Turner (1998, pp. 95-96) identify one of the distinguishing cultural factors that signals the end of one generation and the beginning of another as a traumatic

event. This traumatic event could be a civil war, a natural catastrophe, the assassination of a political leader or some other event. Therefore, there are a myriad of events which could signal the beginning and end of generation, particularly given large range of years encompassing both the Baby Boom generation and Generation X. The arbitrary assignment of individuals to a particular generational cohort may also contribute to the stereotypical and incorrectly held perceptions of various generational characteristics.

While generational theory does provide the framework with which to conduct generational research, the lack of clearly defined age ranges for the various generations tends to provide sometimes contradictory results. Therefore, another theoretical implication of the present study is the selection of generational boundaries, as defined by year of birth. As proposed by some researchers, it may be appropriate to split both the Baby Boomer and Gen X cohorts into two generational cohorts to more accurately define and measure the characteristics of those particular generational cohorts.

In summary, membership in a particular generational cohort does not influence the preferred characteristics of either followers or leaders. While generational research has enabled a clearer understanding of some of the specific characteristics of the various US workforce generations, this understanding is still incomplete. Various characteristics may be correctly attributed to specific generations, but these characteristics appear to be evolving over time. While the non-empirical literature has assisted in our understanding of today's generations, it does not provide a complete representation of the values, attitudes and beliefs of the generations in the workforce. The empirical investigations into the workplace generations, the interactions among the generations, and the values,

attitudes and beliefs of these generations provides fertile ground for continued empirical research.

Managerial Implications

Organizations are continuing to seek ways to deal with the conflicts which arise in the multigenerational US workforce. The present study attempted to enhance our understanding of this multigenerational workforce by examining the naïve or lay theories of both leadership and followership held by the Baby Boomers, Gen Xers and Millennials. However, the results demonstrated that, at least with respect to implicit theories of leadership and implicit theories of followership, there are more similarities than differences among these generations, in terms of their style preferences. While the factor structures of implicit leadership and implicit followership differed from prior research, the differences between the generations were minimal. Thus, regardless of generation, leaders are perceived to have similar characteristics, whether the individual holding that preference is a Baby Boomer, a Gen Xer, or a Millennial. The same is true for followers; an individual's generation does not significantly his or her preference of those attributes which characteristically define a follower.

Generational theory proposes that individuals born around the same range of years tend to develop similar values, attitudes and beliefs. These values, attitudes and beliefs are shaped by the shared experience of similar national, social, historical or cultural events occurring during childhood and early adolescence. Thus, it is important for organizations need to be cognizant of these influences and the impact that they may have on individuals. For example, the events of September 11, 2001 will undoubtedly

influence future generations, as individual safety and security have been threatened like never before in US history. How this event will influence the values, attitudes and beliefs of future generations has yet to be determined. However, the influence of this event can be seen in the current US workforce generations. For example, business and leisure air travel is significantly different now than it was in the period before 9/11. Just as the JFK assassination influenced a generation, 9/11 will have a similar influence upon future generations as well as current generations. Some of these influences include a greater awareness of terrorism, enhanced security procedures at domestic and international airports, new federal, state and local bureaucracies and a heightened awareness of personal safety and security. Organizations must be cognizant of how these events influence not only those currently employed, but future employees as well. In particular, an individual's age at the time a particular traumatic event occurs may also shape his/her perceptions as well, as stated previously.

While individuals belonging to the same generational cohort develop similar values, attitudes and beliefs, these do not extend to their preferred characteristics or styles of follower or leaders. Followership is an important component of the leadership process, as such, managers need to be aware that followers hold naïve, or lay beliefs regarding what it means to be a follower. Not every employee desires to 'climb the corporate ladder;' some employees are content in their role as a follower. Understanding the follower role, the preferences for certain followership traits, and the beliefs surrounding the meaning of followership is important for managers, as it provides a means for understanding the employee and providing opportunities that may act as motivation tools. Just as it is important for organizations to provide leaders with the theories, tools and

training in leadership, it is equally important that followers be considered an integral part of the organization and be able to develop their followership skills and abilities.

Leadership, as prior research has demonstrated, is a complex process. Followers play an important role in the leadership process. While generational cohort does not influence an individual's preferred characteristics or styles of leaders/leadership, nor followers/followership, the role of the follower is one which should be considered by every organization, since, without followers, there are no leaders. Leaders, too, must also be cognizant of the role of the follower, to be able to develop, retain, and attract employees.

Contributions of the Study

This study presents multiple contributions to the study of the multigenerational US workforce, followership, leadership and implicit theories. This study presents a combined examination of followership and leadership by incorporating both leader and follower preferred characteristics of leaders and followers, as has been called for by other researchers (Meindl & Ehrlich, 1987). In addition to incorporating the perspectives of both leaders and followers, the present study is a multigenerational study of both leadership and followership. Both the existing leadership and followership literature is lacking in multigenerational studies of these constructs. Additionally, the multigenerational US workforce is a highly important topic for organizations today, and this study contributes to the knowledge concerning the multigenerational workforce. The present study also furthers the study of followership which, while having received more attention in recent years, still lags behind our knowledge of leadership. As followers are a

vital component in the leadership process, it is important that research recognizes and understands the important role of the follower in leadership process.

The present study also builds upon and extends existing research utilizing implicit theories of both leadership and followership. Since differences were found in the factor structure of both implicit leadership and implicit followership, future studies conducted with these scales should also conduct principal components analysis to determine the resulting dimensions of leadership and followership. The dimensions of leadership and followership in the present study were different from that of prior research, therefore, it will be important for any future research to determine if these different dimensions continue to emerge, or whether these scales continue to produce differing dimensions of these constructs.

Finally, this research compiled a comprehensive listing of both non-empirical and empirical workplace generational research. This compilation of US workforce generational studies provides a resource for future generational research. It also provides a summary of the validity of some of the stereotypical characteristics of the various US workforce generations.

Limitations of the Study

No research is without limitations and the present study is no exception. The first limitation of the study is that a majority of the participants were employees of one company, so the results cannot be considered generalizable to the entire US workforce. While the demographics of the sample are somewhat representative of the US workforce population, the subject organization is a solely a service organization. Extant research

utilizing the implicit leadership scale was conducted utilizing both service and manufacturing organizations. Therefore, the results cannot be considered generalizable in all types of industries. The use of a second sample to supplement the target organization sample also contributes to this non-generalizability.

Second, despite the use of instruments which have demonstrated reliability and validity, the actual meaning associated with the characteristics of leaders and followers is still subject to each individual participant's own interpretation. Participants may have well-established conceptions of what certain variables, such as helpful, represent. However, they may not have universal conceptions of what other variables, such as hardworking, represents. A co-worker who assists another when the workload is unusually heavy may be considered helpful. However, if that co-worker only assists in times when the workload is heavy, that individual may not be considered helpful. An individual who works an abundant amount overtime may be considered hardworking, yet, another individual may not interpret working long hours as representative of a hard worker. Thus, any study that utilizes terminology to describe the traits or characteristics of leaders or followers is subject contextual meanings which participant's may assign to those attributes.

The potential also exists that the participants may also have rated the characteristics of leaders and followers based on what they thought the research was about and not based on their own preferred characteristics of leaders and followers. Although care was taken not to influence the participant's responses, particularly in the survey instructions, individuals still may have been able to ascertain the purpose of the

study. Thus, they may have responded based on what they perceived to be the goals of the study.

This study is further limited by the lack of a standardly defined range of years associated with each of the three generations. As noted, there is no universally defined range of years associated with each of the generations and different authors and researchers utilize differing ranges. This lack of a clear delineation between the generations inhibits the ability to accurately categorize an individual's actual generational cohort.

The present study was also conducted at one point in time. Thus, it is impossible to determine if the preferred characteristics of followers and leaders are stable over time. A longitudinal examination of generational cohorts, at multiple periods in time, could determine whether the preferred styles of both leadership and followership change over time or remain stable. For example, the Millennials in this research ranged in age from 23 to 32. Therefore, these individuals have been participating in the workforce for fewer years than either the Baby Boomers or Gen Xers. This limited workforce tenure means that they most likely have not been exposed to a differing variety of both leaders and followers. A longitudinal study could examine these individuals as they gain workforce tenure to determine if the preferred styles of leaders and followers change over time.

Any research study has limitations, however, these limitations may also provide opportunities for future research. The next section discusses several opportunities for future research on leadership, followership and the multigenerational workforce.

Future Research Recommendations

Several additional research opportunities may be explored in the future as a result of the findings of this study. First, additional research may be explored using both the implicit leadership and the implicit followership scales, as both instruments did not demonstrate the same number of factors as was found in the prior research of Epitropaki and Martin (2004) and Sy (2010), respectively. Both scales have been infrequently utilized in prior leadership and followership research, so it is plausible that the scales may need to be refined. Further research using these scales could result in a refinement to both scales that might more accurately reflect the constructs behind implicit theories of leadership and followership.

In addition, each generation (Boomers, Gen X and Millennials) could be analyzed separately to determine if the variables factor into the same dimensions that were found for the combined sample. This type of analysis could identify differences in implicit theories of leadership and followership pertinent to each specific generation.

Individuals holding leadership positions, as identified via some combination of variable or variables, could be examined versus individuals not holding a leadership position (followers). Again, this analysis could be performed to determine if the same underlying constructs exist with respect to implicit theories of leadership and followership, as well as identifying difference between leader implicit theories of leadership and leader implicit theories of followership, and vice versa.

One of the limitations of this study is that it is non-longitudinal. Therefore, another recommendation for future research includes a longitudinal examination of

implicit theories of both leadership and followership and how these implicit theories may change over time. Though longitudinal studies are difficult to conduct, these types of studies are an appropriate method for determining changes in implicit theories over time. Further, implicit theories could be examined with respect to how they are learned and developed, as well as how these theories operate in differing contexts. Similar to the current study's utilization of specific events to identify a generational consciousness, further research could examine how specific events may influence the learning and development of implicit theories. Understanding the how individuals of a particular generation view the impact of particular events, or respond to particular events may also provide additional insight, rather than focusing on when a particular event occurred and to which generational cohort it should pertain. Finally, implicit theories may be examined with respect to how these theories are used by leaders and/or followers to guide their actions as either a leader or a follower.

With respect to generational research, multiple future research opportunities exist. As Millennials gain workforce tenure, a re-examination of their characteristics could be conducted to determine if these attributes change over time, particularly with additional exposure and experience in the workforce. Similar research could examine how Gen Xers change as they move into leadership positions. Although many Baby Boomers have postponed retirement, the huge number of Baby Boomers retiring daily presents new opportunities for Millennials to move into leadership positions. As successive generations enter the US workforce, the opportunity also exists for research examining each of those generations – their characteristics, beliefs, values and attitudes.

This research is based on the workforce generations as defined in the US. Since one of the foundations of generational theory is the shared experiences of each generation and these shared experiences vary by nationality, a global perspective of generations could examine how national culture may affect the characteristics associated with similarly situated generations. Other research could more narrowly define the generational cohorts, utilizing the early/late delineations for both Boomers and Gen Xers, resulting in five generations for comparison rather than the three utilized in this research.

A major contribution of this work is the finding that leaders can be effective across all generations; there really are no preferred leader characteristics that differ among the various US workforce generations. Leaders still need to be cognizant of the myriad of other factors and models of leadership, but generational membership is not one of these items. In summary, there are multiple future research opportunities which exist within generational research, leadership and followership. Further, many opportunities exist for further study of implicit theories of leadership and followership. Even with a growing body of followership research, opportunities continue to exist to expand our knowledge of followership as well. With respect to both followership and leadership, however, generational membership plays an insignificant role in the preferences for preferred characteristics of leaders and followers.

APPENDIX A**RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE**

My name is Ronald Johnson and I am a doctoral student conducting research on the characteristics associated with followers and leaders. I am also a Highmark Health Services employee. I have obtained permission from Highmark to conduct this survey. Your participation is voluntary and you may quit this survey at any time.

Please remember to must abide by Highmark Corporate Policies as this survey should not be completed during your work hours.

All information is strictly confidential and there is no tracking of computer addresses which will permit me to associate any responses to a particular individual.

Thank you in advance for participating in this research.

Ronald Johnson

Consent Form for Participation in the Research Study Entitled
Follow Me! Followership, Leadership and the Multigenerational Workforce

Funding Source: None

IRB Protocol #

Principal Investigator
Ronald Johnson
2830 Sussex Avenue
Pittsburgh, PA 15226

For questions/concerns about your research rights, contact:
Human Research Oversight Board (Institutional Review Board or IRB)
Nova Southeastern University
(954) 262-5369/Toll Free: 866-499-0790
IRB@nsu.nova.edu

Site Information
Nova Southeastern University
H. Wayne Huizenga School of Business and Entrepreneurship
3301 College Avenue
Fort Lauderdale, FL 33314

What is the study about?

You are invited to participate in a research study. The goal of this study is to understand the preferred characteristics of leaders and followers among the various workforce generations.

Why are you asking me?

We are inviting you to participate because you are an employee of [REDACTED] and the researcher has obtained permission to solicit participants from among [REDACTED] employees.

(version 2)

Why are you asking me?

We are inviting you to participate because you have been solicited via social media to participate.

What will I be doing if I agree to be in the study?

You will answer an 18 question survey. The survey should take you no more than 20 to 30 minutes to complete.

Is there any audio or video recording?

This research will not include audio or video recording.

What are the dangers to me?

Risks to you are minimal, meaning they are not thought to be greater than other risks you experience every day. Sharing your preferred characteristics of followers and leaders may make you anxious. If you have any questions about the research, your research rights, or if you experience an injury because of the research please contact Mr. Johnson at (412) 544-0603. You may also contact the IRB at the numbers indicated above with questions about your research rights.

Are there any benefits to me for taking part in this research study?

There are no benefits to you for participating.

Will I get paid for being in the study? Will it cost me anything?

There are no costs to you nor payments made to you for participating in this study.

How will you keep my information private?

The questionnaire will not ask you for any information that could be linked to you. All information obtained in this study is strictly confidential unless disclosure is required by law. The IRB, regulatory agencies, or Ronald Johnson may review research records.

What if I do not want to participate or I want to leave the study?

You have the right to leave this study at any time or refuse to participate. If you do decide to leave or you decide not to participate, you will not experience any penalty. If you choose to withdraw, any information collected from this survey before you quit the survey will be kept in the research records for 36 months from the conclusion of this study and may be used as a part of the research.

Other considerations:

If the researchers learn anything which might change your mind about being involved, you will be told of this information.

Voluntary Consent by Participant:

By proceeding to participate in this survey, you indicate that

*this study has been explained to you

*you have read this document or it has been read to you

*your questions about this research study have been answered

*you have been told that you may ask the researchers any study related question in the future or contact them in the event of a research-related injury

*you have been told that you may ask Institutional Review Board (IRB) personnel about your study rights

*you are entitled to a copy of this form after you have read it. Should you wish a copy of this form, please contact the researcher at ronald.johnson@highmark.com

*you voluntarily agree to participate in the study entitled Follow Me! Followership, Leadership and the Multigenerational Workforce.

NOTE: A similar Consent Form without references to the target organization was utilized for those individuals solicited via Facebook and LinkedIn. The survey was also slightly modified to eliminate the company-specific references, as well as to identify from which source the individual was directed to the survey.

On the following pages, you will find questions that will assist in a general categorization of the respondents to this survey.

The first section lists a series of events and asks you to identify if the event is one which you associate with your generation.

The next sections contain characteristics of leaders and followers. You will be asked to rate how well the particular characteristics is representative of a leader or a follower, using a scale of 1 – 10.

Finally, there is a section of demographic questions. These questions, such as age, gender, how long you have worked at [REDACTED], how long you have been in the workforce, etc., also assist in categorizing the respondents to this survey.

All questions must be answer; the survey will not permit you to leave any question blank or unanswered.

Once again, thank you for volunteering to participate in this survey.

1. This section lists certain historical, national or social events which may or may not have occurred during your childhood or teenage years. Baby Boomers, Gen X, and Millennials are the labels assigned for the various generations in the workforce. The range of years associated with each generation varies among authors. This section will help categorize you with the appropriate generation.

For each event please identify if you associate the event with your particular generation.

If you are unfamiliar with the event, indicate that by rating the event with a 1.

If the event is something which you DO NOT associate with your generation, indicate that by rating the event with a 2.

If the event is something which you DO associate with your generation, indicate that by rating the event with a 3.

There are no right or wrong answers to this section, but this question must be answered before you proceed to the next question

	I am Not Familiar with this event	This is an event which I DO NOT associate with my generation	This is an event which I DO associate with my generation
	1	2	3
The Vietnam war	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
President Nixon resigns	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Patricia Hearst kidnapped	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Woodstock	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Preparations for Y2K	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The Columbine shootings	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
President Clinton is impeached	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
HIV becomes a world-wide crisis	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
President Kennedy is assassinated	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The Reverend Dr. Martin Luther King is assassinated	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Student protests across at Kent State	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
CNN becomes the first 24 hour news channel	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
MTV begins broadcasting	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The Equal Rights Amendment to the US Constitution	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

	I am Not Familiar with this event	This is an event which I DO NOT associate with my generation	This is an event which I DO associate with my generation
The Challenger Space Shuttle explodes	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The Civil Rights Movement	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Video captures LA Police beating Rodney King	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The Oklahoma City bombing	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Personal computers commonplace in homes	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Cell phones common among high school students	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The Atari game system was introduced	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Latch-key kids	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tiananmen Square	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The fall of the Berlin Wall	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The Summer of Love	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The end of the Cold War	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Communism banned in Russia	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
John Lennon is shot and killed	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

2. The next section identifies characteristics which may be associated with various generations: Baby Boomers, Generation X or Millennials. Please indicate how well the characteristic identifies you, using the following scale:

1 – I am not familiar with this characteristic

2 – This characteristic DOES NOT match my perception of me or my generation

3 – This characteristic DOES match my perception of me or my generation

CHARACTERISTIC	1	2	3
Idealistic	0	0	0
Self-absorbed	0	0	0
Narcissistic	0	0	0
Pragmatic	0	0	0
Optimistic	0	0	0
Team oriented	0	0	0
Personal gratification	0	0	0
Concerned with health and wellness	0	0	0
Seeking personal growth	0	0	0
Workaholic	0	0	0
Community involved	0	0	0
Driven	0	0	0
Uncomfortable with conflict	0	0	0
Sensitive to feedback	0	0	0
Self-centered	0	0	0
Global mindset	0	0	0
Technologically literate	0	0	0
Adaptable	0	0	0
Creative	0	0	0
Impatient	0	0	0
Cynical	0	0	0
Confident	0	0	0
Sociable	0	0	0
Tenacious	0	0	0
Multi-tasker	0	0	0
Disdain for structure/supervision	0	0	0
Want immediate feedback	0	0	0

The next series of demographic questions will assist in categorizing individuals participating in this research. Please make sure to answer each question.

5. What is your job title? Please choose one of the options listed below. If your specific job title is not listed, please use “Other” and fill in your specific job title in the space provided.

- Vice President
- Director
- Manager
- Supervisor
- Technical Analyst/Business Analyst
- Programmer/Developer
- Customer Service Representative/Technical Assistant
- Claims Processor
- Administrative Assistant
- Decision Support Consultant/Technical Consultant
- Other

6. Date of Birth

Please enter your Date of Birth in the format

MM	DD	YYYY
<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>

7. Gender

- Male
- Female

8. Which generation do you consider yourself part of?

- Baby Boomers
- Gen X
- Millennials

9. Do you participate in any of Highmark's Business Resource Groups?

NOTE: This question was eliminated for users solicited via social media

- Yes
- No

10. If you participate in any BRG, which one(s) do you participate in?

NOTE: This question was eliminated for users solicited via social media

11. Does your position job description include, or do your normal and routine daily duties involve the supervision or management of other employees?

- Yes
- No

12. Does your position description, or do your normal and routine daily duties require you to create and deliver performance appraisals?

- Yes
- No

13. Does your position involve the hiring, discipline, or termination of other employees whom you will directly manage or supervise?

- Yes
- No

14. Were you born in the United States?

- Yes
- No

15. If you were not born in the United States, how long have you lived in the United States? Please select N/A if you answered "Yes" to question 7.

- 0 – 5 years

- 6 – 10 years
- 11 – 15 years
- 16 - 20 years
- 21 – 25 years
- > 25 years
- N/A

16. How long have you been in the workforce? Note, not how long have you worked at Highmark, but how long you have been working full time, e.g., not attending school, working at a full time job (30+ hours per week), etc. If you are unsure, please select the most appropriate response.

- 0 – 5 years
- 6 – 10 years
- 11 – 15 years
- 16 - 20 years
- 21 – 25 years
- > 25 years

16. **(Social media version)** How long have you been in the workforce? Note, not how long have you worked at your current employer, but how long you have been working full time, e.g., not attending school, working at a full time job (30+ hours per week), etc. If you are unsure, please select the most appropriate response.

- 0 – 5 years
- 6 – 10 years
- 11 – 15 years
- 16 - 20 years
- 21 – 25 years
- > 25 years

17. How long have you been employed by your current employer?

- 0 – 5 years
- 6 – 10 years
- 11 – 15 years
- 16 - 20 years
- 21 – 25 years
- > 25 years

18. How long have you been in current position?

- 0 – 5 years
- 6 – 10 years
- 11 – 15 years
- 16 - 20 years

- 21 – 25 years
- > 25 years

This is the end of the survey. Thank you for your time and participation!

APPENDIX B

SAMPLE EMAIL SOLICITING BRG PARTICIPANTS

BRG Participants:

A Highmark employee is conducting research into generational perceptions of leaders and followers and the BRG participants have been identified as potential subjects for this research. This research proposal has been reviewed by the Office of Diversity and Inclusion as well as [REDACTED] Legal area.

Ronald Johnson is a manager in Enterprise Informatics and is working on his doctoral degree. His research may also ultimately benefit [REDACTED].

As a participant in the BRG this is your opportunity to assist in this research. The internet link below will take you to the survey. Your participation is completely voluntary and you may exit the survey at any time.

Please consider assisting in this valuable research by completing the survey via the attached link. If you have any questions about this survey, you may contact Ronald Johnson at 412-544-0603, or by email at ronald.johnson@highmark.com

Thank You,

Manager, Diversity and Inclusion

<https://www.surveymonkey.com/s/FollowersLeaders>

APPENDIX C**SAMPLE EMAIL SOLICITING ENTERPRISE INFORMATICS PARTICIPANTS**

Enterprise Informatics Employees:

Ronald Johnson is completing his doctoral degree and has asked for and received my permission to solicit Enterprise Informatics employees to participate in his research regarding generational perceptions of followers and leaders.

Both Diversity and Inclusion and [REDACTED] Legal have consented to Ron's solicitation of [REDACTED] employees to participate in this survey. Your participation is voluntary and you may quit the survey at any time.

Please consider assisting Ron in this research by clicking on the link below and completing the survey. If you have any questions about this survey, you may contact Ronald Johnson at 412-544-0603, or by email at ronald.johnson@highmark.com

Vice President, Enterprise Informatics

<https://www.surveymonkey.com/s/FollowersLeaders>

APPENDIX D**SAMPLE EMAIL SOLICITING SUBSIDIARY INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY PARTICIPANTS**

DIGIT Employees:

Ronald Johnson is completing his doctoral degree and has asked for and received my permission to solicit DIGIT employees to participate in his research regarding generational perceptions of followers and leaders.

Both Diversity and Inclusion and [REDACTED] Legal have consented to Ron's solicitation of [REDACTED] employees to participate in this survey. Your participation is voluntary and you may quit the survey at any time.

Please consider assisting Ron in this research by clicking on the link below and completing the survey. If you have any questions about this survey, you may contact Ron at 412-544-0603, or by email at ronald.johnson@highmark.com

Vice President, Dental and Government Information Technology

<https://www.surveymonkey.com/s/FollowersLeaders>

APPENDIX E

COPY OF EMAIL APPROVAL TO USE ENTERPRISE INFORMATICS FOR SURVEY

Johnson, Ronald M

From: [REDACTED]
Sent: Monday, October 29, 2012 2:14 PM
To: Johnson, Ronald M
Cc: [REDACTED]

Subject: RE: Dissertation Assistance

Ron-

I am fine with this. Just let us know what you need from Highmark as you move forward.

[REDACTED]
412.544. [REDACTED]

From: Johnson, Ronald M
Sent: Friday, October 26, 2012 8:36AM
To: [REDACTED]
Cc: [REDACTED]
Subject: Dissertation Assistance

Don:

I would like to include Enterprise Informatics personnel as part of the data collection for my dissertation. It will be voluntary so individuals may choose to answer the surveys or not.

My dissertation is an examination of followership perceptions and leadership perceptions among the various generations in today's workforce. I will be using Dr. Thomas Sy's Implicit Followership instrument, which contains about 18 statements and asks individuals how indicative the statement is of followers; and, another instrument that has about 18 statement regarding leaders, and how indicative the statement is about leaders. Demographic data - BUT NOT NAMES - will also be collected. This includes date of birth, sex, country of birth (can have an impact on the results), tenure in position, tenure with [REDACTED], as well as job titles. Job Titles will be used to categorize an individual respondent as either a follower or a leader, even though individuals may be both a follower and a leader.

I have also reached out to HR regarding using [REDACTED] employees and have preliminary approval from them. I will also be able to use [REDACTED] Business Resource Groups, and one other division (DIGIT) to include in my survey.

Prior to any data being collected, I must obtain Internal Review Board (IRB) approval from Nova Southeastern's IRB, which ensures that any testing with human subjects does not cause any type of harm to the subjects involved. I anticipate obtaining IRB approval sometime early next year. IRB approval will also require written permission from [REDACTED] indicating that I am authorized to use [REDACTED] employee's for my data collection.

I can share my approved Concept Paper with you, if you wish to see a copy of the instruments. Note, however, that as I work with my dissertation committee, we may change instruments to measure the variables in this study. Any change AFTER IRB approval would also result in the need to resubmit to IRB, so changes are unlikely after the end of this year, just prior to my planned submission to the IRB.

APPENDIX F

GENERATIONAL EVENTS BY ACTUAL GENERATION

Event (Year)	Boomers	Gen X	Millennial
Y2K preparations (1997-1999)	81 85.3%	109 97.3%	38 90.5%
CNN (1980)	66 69.5%	71 63.4%	-
MTV (1981)	70 73.7%	97 86.6%	-
Challenger explosion (1986)	82 86.3%	100 89.3%	-
Rodney King beating (1991)	76 80%	107 107%	-
Oklahoma City bombing (1995)	72 75.8%	108 96.4%	26 61.9%
PCs become common (1995)	72 75.8%	109 97.3%	39 92.9%
Cell phones – teens (late 90's)	50 52.6%	70 62.5%	40 95.2%
Atari (1972)	79 83.2%	101 90.2%	-
Latch-key kids (1980s)	64 67.4%	90 80.4%	-
Tiananmen Square (1989)	69 72.6%	71 63.4%	-
Berlin Wall falls (1989)	81 85.3%	94 83.9%	-
End of the Cold War (1991)	69 72.6%	62 55.4%	-
Communism banned in Russia (1991)	60 63.2%	69 61.6%	-
John Lennon murdered (1980)	78 82.1%	-	-

APPENDIX G
GENERATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS

Characteristic	Rating	Actual Generation		
		Boomers	Gen X	Millennials
Self-Absorbed	3	25	43	30
<i>% within Actual Generation</i>		26.3%	38.4%	71.4%
Narcissistic	3	17	28	28
<i>% within Actual Generation</i>		17.9%	25.0%	66.7%
Pragmatic	3	71	66	14
<i>% within Actual Generation</i>		74.7%	58.9%	33.3%
Workaholic	3	84	104	40
<i>% within Actual Generation</i>		82.1%	59.8%	38.1%
Self-centered	3	21	42	32
<i>% within Actual Generation</i>		22.1%	37.5%	76.2%
Technologically literate	3	67	98	40
<i>% within Actual Generation</i>		70.5%	87.5%	95.2%
Impatient	2	52	32	6
<i>% within Actual Generation</i>		54.7%	28.6%	14.3%
	3	42	80	36
<i>% within Actual Generation</i>		44.2%	71.4%	85.7%
Cynical	2	45	37	20
<i>% within Actual Generation</i>		47.4%	33.0%	47.6%
	3	49	75	20
<i>% within Actual Generation</i>		51.5%	67.0%	47.6%
Disdain for supervision	2	66	58	16
<i>% within Actual Generation</i>		69.5%	51.8%	38.1%
	3	27	53	25
<i>% within Actual Generation</i>		28.4%	47.3%	59.5%
Desire immediate feedback	2	60	43	7
<i>% within Actual Generation</i>		63.2%	38.4%	16.7%
	3	34	69	35
<i>% within Actual Generation</i>		35.8%	61.6%	83.3%

Rating 2 – This is a characteristic which I DO NOT associate with my generation

3 – This is a characteristic which I DO associate with my generation

APPENDIX H

JOB TITLES BY ACTUAL GENERATION

Job Title	Boomer	Gen X	Millennial	Total
Account Representative	1	0	0	1
Admin Assistant	3	3	0	6
Assistant Principal	0	1	0	1
Business Analyst	8	13	12	33
Business Consultant	5	6	0	11
Campaign Manager	0	0	1	1
Claims Processor	5	6	2	13
College Professor	1	0	0	1
Customer Service Representative	3	3	3	9
Decision Support Consultant	5	10	1	16
Director	7	9	0	16
Educator	0	1	0	1
Journalist	0	0	1	1
Lawyer	1	0	0	1
Manager	22	15	3	40
Nurse	1	0	0	1
Paralegal	0	1	0	1
Partner	1	0	0	1
President	0	2	0	2
Professor	2	0	0	2
Programmer/Developer	5	8	8	21
Restaurant Owner	0	1	0	1
Government Employee	1	0	0	1
Marketing Specialist	1	0	0	1
Sales	0	2	0	2
Self-employed	0	1	0	1
Supervisor	4	1	1	6
Teacher	1	0	0	1
Team Leader	5	13	4	22
Technical Analyst	7	7	6	20
Technical Consultant	1	4	5	10
Vice President	4	4	0	8
Writer	0	1	0	1
Total	95	112	42	249

APPENDIX I

**DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS – FACTOR ANALYSIS IMPLICIT LEADERSHIP
SCALE**

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Helpful	8.65	1.490	-1.088	1.332
Understanding	8.68	1.564	-1.605	3.437
Sincere	8.92	1.566	-2.227	6.506
Intelligent	9.02	1.181	-1.217	1.238
Educated	8.16	1.706	-0.857	0.280
Clever	8.05	1.844	-1.028	0.910
Knowledgeable	8.98	1.321	-2.141	7.829
Dedicated	9.14	1.131	-1.282	1.221
Motivated	9.22	1.036	-1.278	1.183
Hardworking	9.14	1.149	-1.862	5.875
Energetic	8.55	1.494	-0.837	-0.117
Strong	8.30	1.622	-0.983	0.710
Dynamic	8.12	1.835	-1.073	0.968
Domineering	3.23	2.575	1.080	0.156
Pushy	2.29	2.063	1.817	2.558
Manipulative	2.33	2.269	1.739	1.936
Loud	2.55	2.094	1.393	1.018
Conceited	2.18	2.010	2.019	3.650
Selfish	2.16	1.994	2.028	3.565
Masculine	1.71	1.399	2.372	5.805
Male	1.69	1.507	2.875	9.242

APPENDIX J

**DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS – FACTOR ANALYSIS IMPLICIT
FOLLOWERSHIP SCALE**

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Hardworking	8.52	1.746	-1.297	1.517
Productive	8.59	1.721	-1.337	1.640
Goes above and beyond	7.94	2.153	-1.088	0.659
Uneducated	3.10	2.254	0.972	0.250
Slow	2.56	2.155	1.664	2.310
Inexperienced	3.61	2.339	0.653	-0.253
Loyal	8.05	1.900	-0.916	0.243
Reliable	8.57	1.766	-1.360	1.292
Team Player	8.57	1.647	-1.262	1.107
Easily Influenced	4.94	2.705	0.227	-0.985
Follows Trends	5.46	2.556	-0.006	-0.975
Soft Spoken	4.51	2.411	0.282	-0.612
Excited	6.41	2.242	-0.159	-0.499
Outgoing	6.17	2.282	0.053	-0.733
Happy	6.88	2.234	-0.402	-0.419
Arrogant	2.10	1.651	1.667	2.680
Rude	1.87	1.551	2.145	5.013
Bad Tempered	1.89	1.594	2.094	4.555

APPENDIX K

CLUSTER MEMBERSHIP – LEADERSHIP FACTORS

Case Number	ActGen	Cluster	Distance
1	Boomer	2	11.436
2	Gen X	2	5.305
3	Gen X	3	7.867
4	Gen X	2	7.979
5	Gen X	1	3.358
6	Millennial	1	6.627
7	Millennial	2	9.750
8	Millennial	1	3.157
9	Millennial	2	4.846
10	Millennial	1	12.327
11	Gen X	1	4.521
12	Millennial	3	10.602
13	Boomer	2	7.284
14	Gen X	1	3.358
15	Millennial	1	5.755
16	Gen X	1	8.311
17	Millennial	2	10.702
18	Boomer	2	3.580
19	Boomer	2	10.703
20	Gen X	2	8.579
21	Millennial	1	6.759
22	Gen X	1	6.746
23	Gen X	1	8.154
24	Gen X	2	6.320
25	Gen X	2	8.819
26	Boomer	1	8.590
27	Millennial	2	5.898
28	Gen X	1	7.560
29	Boomer	1	3.495
30	Boomer	1	3.037
31	Millennial	3	6.547
32	Millennial	3	6.690
33	Millennial	2	6.862
34	Gen X	1	4.401
35	Gen X	1	7.097
36	Boomer	2	8.111

37	Gen X	1	4.863
38	Millennial	3	8.111
39	Boomer	2	7.323
40	Gen X	2	4.724
41	Gen X	2	7.508
42	Boomer	3	5.902
43	Gen X	1	5.489
44	Gen X	2	9.436
45	Gen X	2	12.315
46	Gen X	1	6.479
47	Gen X	3	7.225
48	Boomer	2	6.364
49	Millennial	1	3.678
50	Gen X	1	4.424
51	Millennial	3	8.558
52	Gen X	2	5.244
53	Gen X	1	3.271
54	Gen X	2	8.742
55	Gen X	1	4.199
56	Millennial	2	6.060
57	Boomer	2	7.287
58	Gen X	1	2.799
59	Gen X	1	3.263
60	Millennial	3	8.398
61	Gen X	3	10.729
62	Gen X	2	7.280
63	Gen X	3	5.728
64	Boomer	2	10.435
65	Boomer	2	4.470
66	Boomer	3	9.141
67	Boomer	3	13.407
68	Gen X	3	3.845
69	Gen X	2	4.571
70	Gen X	2	7.168
71	Boomer	1	7.564
72	Boomer	3	5.093
73	Boomer	1	11.743
74	Gen X	3	6.966
75	Gen X	2	4.181
76	Boomer	2	5.621
77	Boomer	2	3.271
78	Boomer	1	7.147
79	Gen X	1	3.358

80	Gen X	2	5.469
81	Gen X	1	3.358
82	Gen X	1	3.497
83	Boomer	2	5.002
84	Boomer	2	9.556
85	Gen X	1	5.383
86	Boomer	2	6.190
87	Gen X	3	10.382
88	Millennial	2	6.915
89	Boomer	1	4.046
90	Boomer	1	4.506
91	Boomer	2	7.545
92	Millennial	1	3.306
93	Boomer	2	6.911
94	Gen X	2	6.294
95	Boomer	2	3.956
96	Boomer	2	4.267
97	Gen X	3	7.400
98	Gen X	2	9.864
99	Millennial	2	4.412
100	Gen X	3	6.768
101	Boomer	1	2.899
102	Gen X	1	4.047
103	Millennial	2	6.045
104	Boomer	1	3.757
105	Gen X	2	3.728
106	Boomer	1	4.117
107	Gen X	2	6.866
108	Gen X	1	3.166
109	Boomer	2	3.827
110	Boomer	1	5.082
111	Gen X	1	6.304
112	Gen X	2	6.577
113	Boomer	2	5.898
114	Gen X	1	4.395
115	Millennial	3	5.148
116	Boomer	2	8.542
117	Boomer	2	3.449
118	Gen X	1	6.188
119	Gen X	1	5.665
120	Millennial	2	6.082
121	Boomer	2	5.025
122	Millennial	2	5.426

123	Gen X	3	8.860
124	Gen X	1	4.776
125	Millennial	2	10.050
126	Gen X	1	3.598
127	Millennial	3	7.377
128	Millennial	1	3.917
129	Millennial	2	7.641
130	Boomer	1	5.618
131	Gen X	2	10.067
132	Boomer	2	3.969
133	Millennial	1	6.914
134	Boomer	1	4.896
135	Boomer	1	4.204
136	Gen X	2	3.846
137	Gen X	2	7.088
138	Boomer	1	2.931
139	Gen X	2	6.268
140	Gen X	2	10.206
141	Millennial	3	7.146
142	Gen X	3	9.945
143	Millennial	3	9.397
144	Millennial	2	7.782
145	Gen X	1	3.557
146	Gen X	1	3.483
147	Boomer	1	5.955
148	Gen X	1	2.521
149	Gen X	1	6.588
150	Gen X	2	5.490
151	Gen X	2	4.090
152	Gen X	2	4.708
153	Boomer	1	6.821
154	Gen X	2	7.844
155	Gen X	1	4.453
156	Boomer	1	3.745
157	Gen X	1	5.290
158	Boomer	1	4.019
159	Gen X	1	4.764
160	Millennial	3	8.512
161	Gen X	2	4.877
162	Millennial	1	3.330
163	Boomer	2	4.865
164	Millennial	2	7.195
165	Millennial	3	9.324

166	Millennial	3	8.735
167	Boomer	2	6.365
168	Boomer	1	6.831
169	Gen X	1	3.370
170	Boomer	1	4.770
171	Boomer	1	6.963
172	Boomer	1	4.806
173	Gen X	1	3.559
174	Boomer	1	4.851
175	Gen X	1	7.063
176	Gen X	2	3.366
177	Boomer	1	3.440
178	Boomer	1	4.413
179	Boomer	2	4.385
180	Boomer	3	8.277
181	Boomer	3	9.401
182	Boomer	2	8.255
183	Gen X	1	4.893
184	Boomer	1	3.761
185	Boomer	2	8.614
186	Boomer	1	3.310
187	Boomer	1	5.096
188	Boomer	2	9.056
189	Boomer	1	10.254
190	Gen X	2	5.670
191	Boomer	1	4.487
192	Gen X	1	4.856
193	Boomer	1	4.069
194	Boomer	1	3.635
195	Gen X	1	6.968
196	Gen X	1	6.062
197	Gen X	1	5.879
198	Gen X	1	3.770
199	Boomer	1	3.358
200	Gen X	3	7.670
201	Gen X	1	3.922
202	Boomer	2	5.117
203	Gen X	2	5.188
204	Boomer	2	3.381
205	Boomer	1	3.169
206	Boomer	2	4.736
207	Gen X	2	3.717
208	Gen X	2	4.345

209	Gen X	2	5.643
210	Gen X	3	9.620
211	Gen X	2	6.208
212	Boomer	2	5.452
213	Boomer	2	8.105
214	Gen X	2	5.764
215	Gen X	1	4.546
216	Gen X	1	3.440
217	Millennial	2	5.537
218	Boomer	1	3.556
219	Gen X	2	6.009
220	Gen X	1	4.718
221	Millennial	3	6.776
222	Boomer	1	3.358
223	Gen X	3	6.732
224	Gen X	1	8.280
225	Boomer	3	5.351
226	Boomer	1	2.610
227	Boomer	3	9.465
228	Boomer	1	3.010
229	Boomer	1	2.933
230	Boomer	2	4.614
231	Gen X	2	4.160
232	Boomer	1	3.437
233	Gen X	1	5.563
234	Boomer	1	6.936
235	Boomer	1	3.256
236	Boomer	1	6.472
237	Gen X	1	5.574
238	Millennial	3	11.421
239	Boomer	2	4.903
240	Gen X	1	4.011
241	Boomer	2	5.850
242	Gen X	3	9.762
243	Gen X	2	6.631
244	Gen X	2	8.415
245	Boomer	3	7.019
246	Millennial	1	6.698
247	Boomer	1	3.547
248	Gen X	1	8.087
249	Boomer	1	6.621

APPENDIX L

CLUSTER MEMBERSHIP FOLLOWERSHIP FACTORS

Case Number	ActGen	Cluster	Distance
1	Boomer	1	8.079
2	Gen X	1	6.257
3	Gen X	1	13.156
4	Gen X	2	11.29
5	Gen X	1	7.181
6	Millennial	1	6.29
7	Millennial	2	6.449
8	Millennial	1	5.772
9	Millennial	2	6.701
10	Millennial	1	5.029
11	Gen X	1	5.222
12	Millennial	2	5.295
13	Boomer	1	3.595
14	Gen X	2	11.841
15	Millennial	1	11.593
16	Gen X	1	6.185
17	Millennial	1	6.149
18	Boomer	2	3.739
19	Boomer	1	5.93
20	Gen X	1	6.523
21	Millennial	3	12.243
22	Gen X	1	10.303
23	Gen X	1	6.989
24	Gen X	1	5.644
25	Gen X	2	7.067
26	Boomer	1	7.42
27	Millennial	1	7.716
28	Gen X	2	8.225
29	Boomer	1	8.432
30	Boomer	1	4.84
31	Millennial	3	4.126
32	Millennial	3	16.693
33	Millennial	1	6.277
34	Gen X	1	4.959
35	Gen X	2	9.741

36	Boomer	3	11.447
37	Gen X	2	7.503
38	Millennial	3	8.413
39	Boomer	1	7.336
40	Gen X	2	5.649
41	Gen X	2	5.214
42	Boomer	3	8.465
43	Gen X	2	9.009
44	Gen X	1	7.779
45	Gen X	1	8.728
46	Gen X	1	3.035
47	Gen X	2	7.327
48	Boomer	1	6.133
49	Millennial	1	4.121
50	Gen X	1	6.325
51	Millennial	1	6.781
52	Gen X	1	7.349
53	Gen X	1	3.39
54	Gen X	2	6.202
55	Gen X	2	7.723
56	Millennial	3	9.894
57	Boomer	1	6.433
58	Gen X	1	6.987
59	Gen X	1	8.097
60	Millennial	1	8.183
61	Gen X	2	14.3
62	Gen X	2	7.146
63	Gen X	3	5.881
64	Boomer	1	8.241
65	Boomer	2	9.216
66	Boomer	1	11.611
67	Boomer	2	10.889
68	Gen X	3	7.239
69	Gen X	1	5.807
70	Gen X	1	6.584
71	Boomer	2	6.733
72	Boomer	2	5.865
73	Boomer	1	7.204
74	Gen X	2	5.804
75	Gen X	2	5.217
76	Boomer	1	6.413
77	Boomer	2	6.388
78	Boomer	1	3.812

79	Gen X	1	6.629
80	Gen X	3	7.226
81	Gen X	2	8.416
82	Gen X	1	7.863
83	Boomer	1	8.463
84	Boomer	3	7.658
85	Gen X	1	7.766
86	Boomer	1	7.36
87	Gen X	2	11.948
88	Millennial	1	4.537
89	Boomer	1	7.41
90	Boomer	2	7.765
91	Boomer	1	7.756
92	Millennial	1	7.53
93	Boomer	1	7.142
94	Gen X	2	7.01
95	Boomer	1	7.061
96	Boomer	1	7.721
97	Gen X	1	6.365
98	Gen X	2	10.15
99	Millennial	2	6.678
100	Gen X	1	7.29
101	Boomer	1	5.564
102	Gen X	1	3.755
103	Millennial	2	11.358
104	Boomer	1	3.406
105	Gen X	3	5.986
106	Boomer	1	6.678
107	Gen X	1	8.702
108	Gen X	1	5.989
109	Boomer	2	5.338
110	Boomer	1	5.886
111	Gen X	2	9.131
112	Gen X	1	6.066
113	Boomer	1	5.93
114	Gen X	1	8.429
115	Millennial	2	3.164
116	Boomer	2	13.42
117	Boomer	1	5.436
118	Gen X	1	7.145
119	Gen X	1	7.669
120	Millennial	2	6.305
121	Boomer	2	10.403

122	Millennial	3	3.786
123	Gen X	3	4.26
124	Gen X	1	6.639
125	Millennial	1	6.291
126	Gen X	1	7.78
127	Millennial	1	7.852
128	Millennial	1	4.506
129	Millennial	1	6.172
130	Boomer	1	3.929
131	Gen X	1	5.401
132	Boomer	2	6.923
133	Millennial	2	10.371
134	Boomer	1	5.798
135	Boomer	1	11.012
136	Gen X	2	4.464
137	Gen X	1	2.813
138	Boomer	1	8.943
139	Gen X	1	4.464
140	Gen X	3	11.865
141	Millennial	3	6.894
142	Gen X	1	7.999
143	Millennial	1	5.807
144	Millennial	2	4.844
145	Gen X	1	8.064
146	Gen X	1	7.708
147	Boomer	1	3.737
148	Gen X	1	2.506
149	Gen X	1	8.357
150	Gen X	2	8.359
151	Gen X	3	7.654
152	Gen X	1	7.458
153	Boomer	3	9.514
154	Gen X	1	5.716
155	Gen X	2	6.529
156	Boomer	2	8.309
157	Gen X	1	5.97
158	Boomer	1	5.743
159	Gen X	1	5.485
160	Millennial	1	6.225
161	Gen X	1	7.352
162	Millennial	1	8.167
163	Boomer	1	5.281
164	Millennial	1	5.212

165	Millennial	1	7.035
166	Millennial	2	7.059
167	Boomer	2	5.505
168	Boomer	3	7.687
169	Gen X	1	7.716
170	Boomer	1	8.022
171	Boomer	3	8.346
172	Boomer	1	10.776
173	Gen X	1	6.295
174	Boomer	1	7.497
175	Gen X	2	8.257
176	Gen X	2	5.465
177	Boomer	1	6.359
178	Boomer	2	5.493
179	Boomer	2	7.905
180	Boomer	3	7.978
181	Boomer	3	8.04
182	Boomer	2	6.556
183	Gen X	2	4.87
184	Boomer	3	6.232
185	Boomer	1	8.777
186	Boomer	1	7.836
187	Boomer	1	7.104
188	Boomer	2	10.592
189	Boomer	2	9.262
190	Gen X	3	8.798
191	Boomer	2	8.866
192	Gen X	1	5.421
193	Boomer	1	5.105
194	Boomer	2	7.502
195	Gen X	1	7.641
196	Gen X	1	6.255
197	Gen X	3	10.625
198	Gen X	1	4.907
199	Boomer	3	13.461
200	Gen X	3	6.361
201	Gen X	1	5.867
202	Boomer	1	5.478
203	Gen X	1	6.88
204	Boomer	2	9.7
205	Boomer	1	5.299
206	Boomer	1	4.237
207	Gen X	2	6.289

208	Gen X	1	4.882
209	Gen X	2	6.11
210	Gen X	1	6.831
211	Gen X	2	9.685
212	Boomer	1	3.625
213	Boomer	3	6.535
214	Gen X	1	3.777
215	Gen X	1	6.781
216	Gen X	1	5.964
217	Millennial	2	8.391
218	Boomer	1	4.28
219	Gen X	3	6.621
220	Gen X	1	4.452
221	Millennial	2	5.265
222	Boomer	1	7.144
223	Gen X	2	4.678
224	Gen X	3	11.265
225	Boomer	1	5.65
226	Boomer	3	5.626
227	Boomer	3	8.033
228	Boomer	1	5.418
229	Boomer	3	8.633
230	Boomer	2	7.642
231	Gen X	1	6.062
232	Boomer	1	7.101
233	Gen X	2	9.39
234	Boomer	1	3.616
235	Boomer	1	5.73
236	Boomer	1	7.849
237	Gen X	1	5.353
238	Millennial	3	4.383
239	Boomer	2	5.454
240	Gen X	1	8.076
241	Boomer	1	3.858
242	Gen X	2	7.752
243	Gen X	1	8.83
244	Gen X	2	7.567
245	Boomer	2	6.843
246	Millennial	2	8.553
247	Boomer	1	3.96
248	Gen X	1	8.754
249	Boomer	1	6.8

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