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EMPLOYEE PERCEPTIONS OF STRESSORS AT WORK: AN ATTACHMENT PERSPECTIVE

Emma Josephine Naudet

EMPLOYEE PERCEPTIONS OF STRESSORS AT WORK: AN ATTACHMENT

PERSPECTIVE

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A Thesis

Presented to the

Faculty of

California State University,

San Bernardino

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In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Master of Science

in

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by

Emma Josephine Naudet

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Approved by:

Dr. Mark Agars, Committee Chair, Psychology

Dr. Ismael Diaz, Committee Member

Dr. Janet Kottke, Committee Member

ABSTRACT

The current study applied an attachment perspective to elucidate how individuals appraise stressors at work. Attachment theory proposes that individuals' interactions with a caregiver shape their expectations and beliefs about the world, themselves, and others and predict how individuals behave. Attachment at work is a budding research topic because it informs the social aspect of work relationships, such as the leader-subordinate dyad. However, few studies have explored the potential of attachment security as a job resource. Our findings demonstrated strong support for our predictions about the relationship between transformational leadership, employee perceptions of demands and resources, and the potential explanatory role of attachment security. Moreover, findings were consistent with theoretical foundations in attachment research that identify leaders as attachment figures but also flesh out the relationship between transformational leadership and job characteristics by providing attachment security as an explanatory mechanism utilized by transformational leaders. This study contributes to the recently budding area of attachment research in the organizational literature and offers managers an attachment framework to provide resources for employees to mitigate work stress.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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CHAPTER ONE:

INTRODUCTION

A life without stress is as impossible as for the fish to ascend the tree.

Indeed, stress can be managed but never eliminated. Stress has become a

national mental crisis in the United States (Heckman, 2022). A plethora of

external factors can be attributed to the crisis. Due to turbulent international

tensions, inflation, supply chain issues, COVID-19, and a downturn in the

economy in 2022, overall stress levels in the US are rising significantly. Not only

have multiple sources of stressors in the US compounded significantly, but the

American Psychological Association (APA) fear that the consequences may yield

serious health and social issues that may persist for years to come (APA, 2021).

Stress can be observed across industries and job roles. In 2019 and 2020,

more than 6 in 10 (64%) employed adults reported work as a significant source of

stress - with more than half of employed adults (56%) directly reporting increased

stress related to job instability (APA, 2020). The experience of stress can alter

immune functions (Ishikawa, 2022), dampens life satisfaction (Milas et al., 2021),

increase depressive symptoms and psychological distress (Varker et al., 2022),

and increase the risk of experiencing mental health problems like anxiety

(Aneshensel, 1999). Not only is stress management critical for individuals but

understanding the impact of stress is also in management's best interest.

Employee stress is significantly related to impaired functioning at work,

absenteeism, and health care costs incurred by employers (Ganster, 2005; Ganster & Rosen, 2013).

 Research into attachment at the workplace is a recently budding topic. Nearly 50% of all peer-reviewed articles regarding attachment at work were published after 2010 (Yip et al., 2018). Indeed, an attachment perspective informs how individuals approach relationships at work. Attachment theory proposes that one's interactions with a caregiver fundamentally shape one's expectations and beliefs about the world, oneself, and others (Gillath et al., 2016). It predicts how one behaves in a relationship and how one feels about and perceives themselves and others. Applying attachment theory in the workplace may present a new strategy to tackle workplace stress. Indeed, attachment security is associated with adaptive forms of coping with stress (Cassidy & Shaver, 2008; Gillath et al., 2016; Obegi & Berant, 2010; Wallin, 2007). Although previous studies have examined attachment styles and their predictive ability for important organizational outcomes, few have examined attachment as an underlying mechanism for work relationships like the leader-subordinate dyad. Moreover, no studies were found examining attachment with a job demand and resources theory. Thus, the present study makes a unique contribution by examining attachment's role as a mediator in the leader-subordinate relationship and by investigating attachment security as a job resource.

Statement of Need and Purpose

This thesis proposes that attachment security is in and of itself a job resource that mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and employee perceptions of job demands and resources. It examined the social aspect of stress in a leader-subordinate dyad. Moreover, it explored how transformational leadership reduces job demands and improves job resources via an attachment framework. It reinforced the connection between transformational leadership and attachment security.

Attachment Behavioral System

Attachment theory, originally developed by John Bowlby (1969), describes the emotional, physical, and evolutionary mechanisms that contribute to the bond between parent-child dyads to increase the likelihood of survival of the young (Fletcher & Fletcher, 2016). At its core, Bowlby proposes that attachment theory is built on an evolutionary desire to feel safe, secure, and protected from threats (Gillath et al., 2016). From an attachment perspective, when individuals face a threat, they engage in behaviors as a coping mechanism to soothe their stress. For children, Bowlby identified three consistent stages of behaviors – protest, despair, and detachment – which he refers to as "attachment behavior." Attachment behaviors allow an individual to cope with their stress by reuniting them with their source of comfort, their attachment figure (Gillath et al., 2016). In this case, the children utilized attachment behaviors to be reunited with their

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parents. Protest was characterized as signs of distress, including crying and tantrums as efforts to bring the parents back. Despair was characterized as hopelessness, and Bowlby described his observations as though children were in a state of mourning. Detachment was characterized as acceptance. Bowlby observed that children would no longer reject the nurses and, in fact, would be sociable. However, as parents return, children would be completely uninterested in the parents. Bowlby viewed this behavior as a defensive strategy by which the child could self-soothe their source of pain and rejection (Gillath et al., 2016). Thus, Bowlby (1969) theorized that humans seek out proximity to caregivers – that humans desire to be reunited with someone they love (Gillath et al. 2016). Furthermore, to fulfill the desire to achieve reconnection with a loved one, individuals utilize attachment behaviors to fulfill attachment needs.

Attachment figures are caregivers that act as a safe haven, a secure base, and attend to the individual's propensity for proximity maintenance. Attachment figures act as a safe haven by being responsive and providing comfort when an individual feels threatened (Collins & Feeney, 2000; Gillath et al., 2016). They act as secure bases by being available for the individual's attachment needs, not unnecessarily interfering with exploration, and encouraging and accepting exploration (Feeney & Thrush, 2011). Finally, proximity maintenance refers to the desire to be near an attachment figure (Gillath et al., 2016).

Bowlby identified attachment behaviors as signifying an emotional bond between a child and their attachment figure and restoring proximity with the

attachment figure, or caregiver (Gillath et al., 2016). Attachment behaviors serve to restore a sense of security and relief as well as to attend to a child's needs. The attachment behavioral system is an innate psychobiological system consisting of attachment behaviors that drive an individual to seek proximity and support from an attachment figure when encountering with stress (Mikulincer, 2019). These behaviors in children may appear as crying when not being held by an attachment figure or eye contact with the attachment figure. In adults, attachment behaviors are observed to be slightly different though they serve the same purpose – to restore a sense of security and proximity with an attachment figure. At their core, attachment behaviors are meant to recapture the caregiver's attention and decrease the proximity between the care seeker and caregiver. These behaviors activate in response to a threat and deactivate when met with social support (Yip et al., 2018; Gillath et al., 2016). The subsequent reaction by the attachment figure towards the care seeker's attachment behaviors shapes the care seeker's understanding of themselves, others, and the world. Once an individual receives the necessary social support, the attachment systems deactivate (Yip et al. 2018).

Individuals engage in attachment behaviors according to their attachment orientation (Gillath et al., 2016). For example, some individuals are comfortable with opening up to others, while others fear the intimacy associated with close relationships may undermine their independence and autonomy. These individual differences in how one approaches close relationships represent one's

attachment orientation (Fraley et al., 2015). Furthermore, the behaviors which were taken that represent one's attachment orientation are known as attachment behaviors. Like children, adults partake in a predictable pattern of attachment behaviors depending on their attachment orientation, referred to as the attachment behavioral system. For instance, in romantic relationships, adults are observed to engage in emotional and behavioral similarities (i.e., eye contact, smiling, holding) as well as share similarities with the dynamics of the relationship (i.e., availability of attachment figure leads to security) (Gillath et al., 2016).

Attachment theory has traditionally been treated as relatively stable and trait-like (Gillath et al., 2016). Indeed, Bowlby adopted a lifespan approach to attachment theory. However, at the same time, Bowlby also understood that attachment styles are susceptible to change. Early childhood experiences do not determine adult attachment outcomes (Fraley & Roisman, 2019). Indeed, even if early childcare experiences leave traces in adult attachment, these instances are small in magnitude and have small effect sizes, r = 0.15 (Fraley & Roisman, 2019). Early attachment experiences help to shape development, but they do not determine the development of adult attachment experiences.

Erikson's theory of psychosocial development describes the social experience and social development of an individual over a lifetime. It consists of eight stages – Stage 1: Trust vs. Mistrust (Infancy from birth to 18 months), Stage 2: Autonomy vs. Shame and Doubt (Toddler years from 18 months to

three years), Stage 3: Initiative vs. Guilt (Preschool years from three to five),

Stage 4: Industry vs. Inferiority (Middle school years from six to 11), Stage 5:

Identity vs. Confusion (Teen years from 12 to 18), Stage 6: Intimacy vs. Isolation

(Young adult years from 18 to 40), Stage 7: Generativity vs. Stagnation (Middle

age from 40 to 65), and Stage 8: Integrity vs. Despair (Older adulthood from 65

to death).

Erikson's stage 6, intimacy versus isolation, is related to attachment

security because it is at this stage where young adults form intimate relationships

with others. Secure individuals are more likely to form healthy and supportive

relationships, while insecure individuals may struggle to form close connections

and experience feelings of isolation (Gillath et al., 2016). In Erikson's stage 6,

individuals who are securely attached are more likely to successfully navigate the

challenge of forming intimate relationships while those with an insecurely

attached may struggle and feel isolated (Collins & Read, 1990).

When there is a separation with an attachment figure, the attachment

behavioral system activates to regulate the disparity and maintain proximity with

an attachment figure. Further, the model of attachment indicates that when an

individual is exposed to a threat or stress, an individual's attachment behavioral

system is activated and the individual must fulfill attachment needs (Gillath, 2016;

Yip et al., 2018). The activation of the attachment behavioral system refers to a

subsequent behavioral reaction to distress (Gillath et al., 2016). When the

attachment behavioral system activates, there is an impulse to turn to an

attachment figure. If the attachment figure is perceived to be accessible, then attachment behavior is activated. If the attachment behavior successfully reduces anxiety after exposure to a threat, the individual builds confidence in the availability of an attachment figure – or Secure attachment. A securely attached adult will be comfortable in relationships and are able to seek support from an attachment figure (Gillath et al., 2016).

If the attachment behavior is unsuccessful in meeting attachment needs, attachment behavior may hyperactivate causing heightened anxiety or stress, or Insecure attachment - Anxious. An anxiously attached adult will possess a negative self-appraisal, fear rejection from an attachment figure, and have a strong desire to maintain closeness (Gillath et al., 2016). Alternatively, if an attachment figure is perceived to be inaccessible, then attachment behaviors may deactivate. If deactivation of attachment behaviors successfully reduces anxiety, then the individual may default to compulsive self-reliance, or Insecure attachment - Avoidant. In contrast, an avoidantly attached adult will possess a negative appraisal of others, have a greater sense of autonomy, and tend to cut themselves off from an attachment figure (Gillath et al., 2016). If it is unsuccessful in reducing anxiety, deactivation strategies may also result in heightened insecurity and distress. Furthermore, the avoidant attachment style may further be organized as two distinct attachment styles based on the reasoning behind their avoidant behaviors, - Fearful Avoidant and Dismissive Avoidant. While fearful avoidance is a form of avoidance rooted in feelings of

vulnerability and insecurity, dismissing avoidance, on the other hand, is a form of

avoidance rooted in a desire to be independent and self-reliant (Bartholomew,

1990; Gillath et al., 2016).

<center>Internal Working Models of Attachment</center>

Specific attachment behaviors in response to stress result in distinct

attachment styles that are based on experiences with an attachment figure.

These experiences with an attachment figure form beliefs about the world and

how one perceives themselves and others, otherwise known as the internal

working model of attachment. According to Gillath and colleagues (2016),

attachment working models are "internalized mental representations (such as

ideas, thoughts, attitudes, expectations, and beliefs) that individuals hold about

the self and others." Internal working models (IWMS) are mental frameworks that

reflect how one relates to the self and others (Gillath, 2016). IWMs are critical to

examine for the broader picture of attachment theory since they are the

underlying mechanisms responsible for developing attachment behaviors and

attachment orientation as well as explaining changes attachment orientation

(Bowlby, 1969).

Based on repeated interaction with the caregiver, individuals develop

IWMs based on their experiences with an attachment figure (Gillath et al., 2016).

IWMs represents the beliefs that one possesses about how relationships work

and expectations about relationships. IWMs also informs beliefs about the Self,

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as to whether one is worthy of being loved, or about Others, and whether other

people can provide support in times of need (Gillath & Ting, 2021). IWMs evolve

and develop based on one's experiences with attachment figures. If a caregiver

is warm and affectionate, then a child will develop an understanding that they are

worthy of love and are able to count on their attachment figure to support them,

or secure attachment. Consequentially, this individual may feel safe exploring the

environment and engaging in social interactions (Gillath et al., 2016). On the

other hand, if a caregiver is cold, a child may feel unworthy of love and may

develop the belief that they are unable to count on others, or insecure attachment

(Gillath et al., 2016).

Recently, researchers have reconceptualized attachment styles

dimensionally; by assessing an individual's IWM via a level of attachment

avoidance and attachment anxiety (Zortea et al., 2019), thus attachment consists

of two dimensions – attachment avoidance and attachment anxiety (Fraley et al.,

2015). Attachment anxiety refers to the appraisal of attachment figures as either

available and accessible or unavailable and cold (Fraley et al., 2015). For

example, attachment anxiety materializes as fear of rejection and a strong desire

to maintain closeness. It is a hyperactivation of attachment behaviors, whereas

attachment avoidance is a deactivation of attachment behaviors (Gillath et al.,

2016). Attachment avoidance refers to how individuals disengage from

attachment behaviors and feelings (Fraley et al., 2015; Gillath et al., 2016). For

example, attachment avoidance refers to discomfort with closeness, greater

importance placed on autonomy, and emotionally cutting off others (Gillath et al., 2016). On the other hand, attachment security is characterized by low avoidance and low anxiety (Bartholomew, 1990). A securely attached adult is being comfortable being in relationships and can seek support from others (Gillath et al., 2016). See Figure 2 for a visualization of the two factor model of attachment avoidance and attachment anxiety.

IWMs form as a function of repeated interactions with an attachment figure and characterize how and which attachment style an individual forms. Once formed, IWM influence an individual's subsequent interactions and beliefs about the world. Thus, interpersonal relationships and subsequent interactions are important to understand when applying an attachment framework.
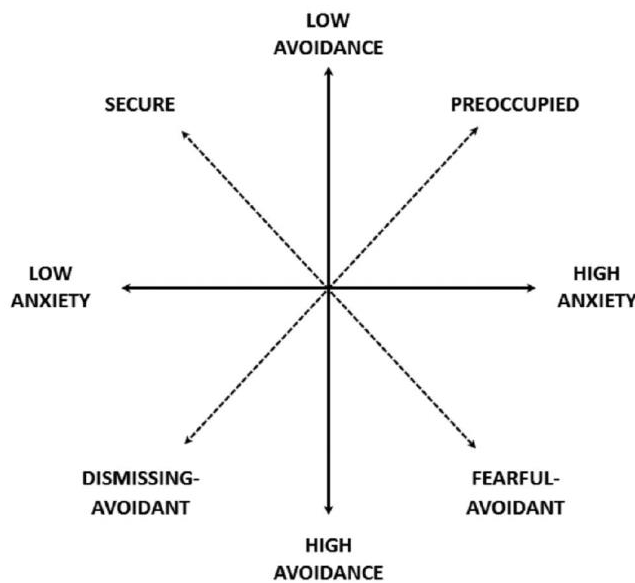
Figure 1. Two-Factor Model of Attachment Anxiety and Avoidance

Adult Attachment Framework

Hazan and Shaver (1978) applied the attachment framework to adult romantic relationships. They argued that the emotional bond exhibited in adult relationships is a function of the attachment behavioral system. To understand how attachment theory applies to adult relationships, a crucial aspect of attachment theory to consider is that the same dynamics which are observed in child-caregiver dyads impact also command how adults would function in their close relationships (Gillath et al., 2016). Attachment behaviors not only signify the presence of an emotional bond but also serve to maintain contact and proximity with an attachment figure. Moreover, these behaviors can become more cognitively sophisticated over time (Gillath, 2016). For example, children recognize that they can maintain proximity through physical proximity and symbolic or psychological proximity. These behaviors appear as crying, protesting, eye contact, or clinging. Importantly, a script similar to that of children's attachment behaviors was also identified in adult relationships – specifically, in romantic relationships and the workplace. In fact, the application of the attachment system to adult romantic relationships reestablished a new understanding of manifestation of attachment behaviors at work. Attachment behaviors in organizational relationships are like support-seeking attachment behaviors identified in Bowlby's attachment theory (Yip et al, 2018).

To examine adult attachment as continuity of child-caregiver attachment, behavioral elements, and underlying mechanisms are similar. Adults exhibit a

desire for proximity with an attachment figure when threatened and exhibit

increased comfort and less anxiety when an attachment figure is inaccessible

(Weiss, 1982; Gillath et al., 2016). For adult attachment relationships, attachment

figures need not be seen as protective figures (Weiss, 1982). Rather, adult

attachment figures aid their partners in overcoming hardships and mastering

challenges. Moreover, adult attachment relationships serve functions beyond

those observed between child-caregiver dyads. Besides providing a secure base

and acting as a safe haven, adult attachment relationships also function to

provide companionship and have a shared purpose (Ainsworth, 1985; Weiss,

1975). In organizations, adult attachment research found that patterns observed

in child attachment behavior were also observed in adult relationships, such as

leader-subordinate dyads (Kahn & Kram, 1994; Keller 2003; Troth & Miller,

2000). At work, employee attachment behaviors appear as distancing

themselves from leaders, hypersensitivity to feedback, overreliance on

affirmation from leaders, or a decrease in trust (Yip et al., 2018).

Bowlby's Attachment Theory is of considerable value in understanding the

interpersonal intricacies between leader and subordinate. An attachment theory

framework presents a theoretical background to predict leader and subordinate

behaviors and behaviors in response to stressful situations, such as the

perception of job demands (Hudson, 2013). Moreover, the extension of an

attachment framework into the workplace calls for a distinct operationalization of

leaders as caregivers.

Leaders as Security Providers

The relational aspect of the work environment is essential for organizations. Accordingly, relational leadership processes, particularly transformational leadership, have been comprehensively researched. People-oriented management practices via transformational leadership are optimal for employee job performance. Moreover, management via people-oriented procedures is salient in producing higher employee performance compared to task-oriented management (Lopez-Cabracos et al., 2022). Additionally, managers should attend to the exchange between leader and subordinate to the end of cultivating high-quality exchange relationships, which are optimal for improving organizational outcomes (Lopez-Cabracos et al., 2022; Ng, 2017).

At work, leaders act as caregivers or attachment figures. Molero and colleagues (2019) investigated employee perceptions of leaders as security providers. They examine how the leader-subordinate relationship can be conceptualized as an attachment relationship. Specifically, they supported their hypothesis that subordinates perceive their leaders as a safe haven and secure base (Molero et al., 2019). An attachment relationship must provide three criteria – proximity, a safe haven, and a secure base (Erick et al., 2020). A leader acts as an attachment figure and haven by providing reassurance and support, encouraging subordinates to work towards a challenging goal, and assisting them through obstacles. They act as a safe haven by offering reassurance and

support to the subordinates and as a secure base by encouraging subordinates to advance towards challenging goals (Hinojosa et al., 2020).

Popper and Mayselles' (2003) theorized that the leader-subordinate dyad is comparable to parent-child attachment dynamics. They suggested that, like good parents, a leader's role is to guide and direct subordinates and take care of subordinates who rely heavily and whose fates are dependent on their leaders. Thus, the role of leaders and parents mirrors one another – to support, guide, and provide safety for one who is less powerful than oneself. The qualities of those of an attachment figure parallel those of a transformational leader. Transformational leadership is a leadership process that focuses on values, purpose, and mission (Eagly et al., 2003). It is a leadership style that focuses on employee growth and development and inspires motivation by developing and focusing on idealized influences (Eagly et al., 2003). Like securely attached individuals, transformational leaders are sensitive, focus on responding to subordinates' needs, enhance aides felt self-worth, and are responsible when others seek help from them (Fein et al., 2020).

A transformational leader gives individualized attention, listens to subordinates, and is sensitive and accessible to personal needs and for development and growth (Bass, 1985, Howell, 1988). A secure parent is likewise sensitive, available, and responsive to the child's needs, understands the child's needs, and adapts his/her responses to those needs (Ainsworth et al., 1978, De-Wolff & Van IJzendoorn, 1997). Moreover, transformational leaders provide

opportunities for experience and reinforce success (Bass, 1985, Shamir et al., 1993). and provide intellectual stimulation, stimulate imagination, and thinking, and develop creativity (Bass, 1985, Howell, 1988). Similarly, a secure attachment figure provides the child with opportunities for new and challenging experiences, stimulates the child's interest, and promotes the child's skills and abilities in a cooperative and supportive manner (Baumrind, 1978; Bornstein, 1989; Matas et al., 1978).

Leaders who have frequent contact with subordinates pay individual attention to needs and use individualized coaching and mentoring to reduce job strain (Moriano et al., 2021). Having a transformational leader is related to reduced employee burnout (Bosak et al., 2021) and negatively associated with emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment (Liu et al., 2019). Liu and colleagues further suggest that transformational leadership may decrease the risk of burnout by the pathway of promoting the employee's psychological empowerment. Similarly, security-providing leaders provide safety by enhancing the psychological safety climate, preventing organizational dehumanization, and preventing job burnout (Moriano et al., 2021).

Molero and colleagues (2019) findings provide empirical support for Popper's and Mayselles' (2003) application of a parenting perspective to a transformational leader. The research found that the higher subordinates' perception of the leader as a security provider, the higher their perception of

them as transformational (Molero et al., 2019). According to Popper and Mayselles (2003), transformational leaders promote higher moral functioning and prosocial values and behavior. Transformational leaders, like parents, introduce expectations and demands for prosocial behaviors and conduct, maintain and encourage trusting, communicative relationships, and model empathy and prosocial behavior for the subordinate. Transformational leadership focuses on employee growth and development and inspires motivation by developing and focusing on idealized influences (Eagly et al., 2003). Similar to how transformational leaders focus on employee growth and development, parents are meant to protect, guide, and teach children to help them grow into functioning adults (Mayselles & Popper, 2003). Mayselles and Popper (2003) define parents who develop their children into autonomous adults as "good parents." In contrast, parents who neglect their child's growth into a functioning adult would be labeled as "bad parents." Like a good parent, a transformational leader is a source of empowerment and influences the development of self-confidence, autonomy, competence, self-efficacy, and self-esteem (Molero et al., 2019; Popper & Mayselles, 2003). Moreover, transformational leaders also provide corrective actions for insecurely attached subordinates, similar to good parents. Indeed, transformational leadership inspires employee development of positive attributes, such as self-esteem and self-efficacy, via a key attachment concept – by acting as an attachment figure to provide subordinates with a sense of security (Popper & Mayselles, 2003).

Extending an attachment framework to the workplace may enhance the current understanding of transformational leadership processes in the workplace. Previous literature has established that transformational leaders are security-providing attachment figures in the workplace. However, transformational leadership style and subordinate's secure attachment styles has not been explicitly examined.

Transformational Leadership

Leaders possess a central role in setting and shaping organizational culture and are responsible for shaping much of the context in which organizational phenomena unfold. Leaders' influence occurs in specific and direct ways via the dyadic relationships between employees and their leaders, but it is far more comprehensive. Indeed, according to Attraction, Selection, and Attrition Theory (ASA), people are attracted to organizations that share similar values of themselves (Schneider, 1987). Employees continue to be in those organizations if their values are shared – employees leave if values are not shared. However, by utilizing leadership processes like transformational leadership, organizations can retain employees. Transformational leadership inspires belief and commitment to values, increasing homogenization with organizational values.

Transformational leaders are leaders who inspire efforts through motivating employees by satisfying employees' higher order needs to marry them with organizational goals (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978). Contrarily, transactional

leadership is a leadership style characterized by a behavioral approach to reinforcement. Transactional leaders lead by rewarding employees' good performance and penalizing them for poor performance (Bass, 1985; Jensen et al., 2019). Rather than satisfying higher-order employee needs such as job satisfaction and intrinsic motivation, transactional leadership utilizes incentive structures to engage an employee with organizational goals. Transactional leadership fundamentally leads to extrinsically motivated actions and are necessarily that way because they are reward-based.

Transformational leaders focus on values, purpose, and mission (Eagly et al., 2003). It consists of four subdimensions – idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Avolio et al., 1997; Bass, 1985; Bass & Riggio, 2006). It is a leadership style that focuses on employee growth and development and inspires motivation by developing and focusing on idealized influences (Eagly et al., 2003). Indeed, a distinctive facet of transformational leadership is the intent to activate an employee's higher order needs (Jensen et al., 2019). It increases intrinsic motivation, and job resources may be internalized so that subordinates adopt a leader's values and goals (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Fernet et al., 2015). Importantly, transformational leadership helps to shape perceptions of job demands and shape employees' subjective work experience to present fewer job demands and greater job resources by altering favorable perceptions of job characteristics (Fernet et al., 2015; Smircich & Morgan, 1982).

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Transformational leaders echo several themes seen in security-providing caregivers, including being attentive and supportive like a parent, attending to employee growth and development, and encouraging intrinsic motivation (Levine et al., 2021). Attachment theory provides a theoretical background to predict not only leader and subordinates' behavior in their relationships but also predict how leaders behave in dyadic relationships (Hudson, 2013). Thus, examining leader attachment orientations and subsequent employee outcomes is crucial.

Leader Attachment Styles and Outcomes

Attachment style is salient in leader styles and relationships at work. After all, not only is a secure attachment style significantly correlated with becoming a transformational leader (Popper et al., 2000), transformational leadership is positively correlated with a secure attachment to a leader as well as is negatively associated with an insecure attachment to a leader (Molero et al., 2013; Popper et al., 2000). A secure attachment style is significantly correlated with becoming a transformational leader (Popper et al., 2000). Securely attached individuals are more likely to become leaders as they correlate with three dimensions of transformational leadership – charisma, individualized consideration, and intellectual stimulation. According to Fein and colleagues (2020), securely attached leaders have been positively correlated with outcomes of effective leaders, including relational leadership, delegation effectiveness, workplace cohesion in groups, turnover intention, job satisfaction, and low levels of burnout

for followers. Secure leaders can perform the function of caregiver and care seeker by resolving distress felt and exhibited by followers as well as by achieving their goals and maintaining their values (Hudson, 2013). They exhibit many of the same qualities as those of transformational leaders. They are sensitive, focus on responding to subordinate's needs, enhance subordinates' self-worth, and respond when others seek help (Fein et al., 2020). Secure leaders display contextually correct responses by utilizing emotional regulation strategies that neither over-activate nor hyperactivate responses.

While avoidant leaders tend to lean on more transactional leadership, secure leaders lean more toward a transformational leadership style (Yip et al., 2018). Transformational leaders tend to focus on the development and mentoring of followers, while transactional leaders provide rewards to satisfactory performance (Eagly et al., 2003). Understandably since avoidant individuals' attachment behavior consists of putting distance between themselves and others, the preference for transactional leadership styles is logical. Moreover, since secure individuals are comfortable exploring and exhibit an openness to experience, it is consistent with theory that secure leaders lean towards transformational leadership styles.

Insecure leaders present with higher negative affect and a lower ability to regulate negative emotions which inadvertently impact subordinate's emotional responses and job performance (Davidovitz et al., 2007; Fein et al, 2020; Richards & Schat, 2011; Ronen & Mikulincer, 2012). Avoidant leaders

discourage reliance on others and are thus perceived as insensitive and uncaring. They can also be unresponsive to subordinate needs, resulting in a lack of trust (Crawshaw & Game, 2015; Fein et al, 2020). Unlike transformational leaders, they are unresponsive to subordinate needs and approach emotional regulation with a deactivating approach resulting in neglecting their own feelings as well as their subordinates' emotional needs. Avoidant leaders are associated with emotion suppression, lower job satisfaction, and higher negative affect at work (Fein et al., 2020). On the other hand, anxious leaders tend to be preoccupied with their own feelings to be noticed and appreciated but lack task-oriented attention and regulate emotions by hyperactivating them (Fein et al, 2020; Mayseless, 2010). Leaders with an anxious attachment style are also more likely to display self-serving leadership motives, poorer leadership qualities in task-oriented situations, and poorer instrumental functioning (Davoidovitz et al., 2007). Avoidantly attached leaders are negatively associated with prosocial motives to lead, failure to act as a security provider, and followers' poorer socioemotional functioning and long-range mental health (Davoidovitz et al., 2007). Avoidant and anxious attachment can decrease the ability to influence others due to negative behavior (Yang et al., 2020). Attachment style is a facet through which suitability to become a leader and leader behaviors are influenced. However, knowing that transformational leaders foster secure employee attachment styles (Molero et al., 2013), subsequent employee attachment styles are critical to examine.

Subordinate Attachment Styles and Outcomes

Attachment theory is typically conceptualized as three categories of attachment – secure, anxious (insecure), and avoidant (insecure). Based on an individual's working model of attachment, an individual differs in perceptions of relationships and behaviors in relationships (Schwartz et al., 2007; Gillath et al., 2016). Since IWMs characterize which attachment style forms, IWM influence interactions and beliefs about the world, oneself, and others. These differences persist at work too.

Keller and Cacioppe (2001) researched follower-leader secure, anxious, and avoidant attachment styles in organizations. A secure employee expects an attachment figure to be trustworthy and responsive and that leaders will be sensitive, supportive, and responsive. Secure subordinates tend to possess positive leader expectations and are attentive toward leaders. On the other hand, anxiously attached employees expect an attachment figure to be inconsistent in responsiveness, trustworthiness, sensitivity, and reliability. Anxious subordinates are uncertain whether they deserve support and attention from leaders and may cling to supervisors to maintain proximity desperately. Anxious individuals cling to others to cope with a lack of a secure base and safe haven (Schwartz et al., 2007). Finally, avoidantly attached employees expect leaders to be non-responsive, unsupportive, and non-responsive. Avoidant individuals cope with an insecure attachment by emotionally and cognitively distancing themselves from

others (Schwartz et al., 2007). They do not trust others. They tend to avoid turning to leaders for support. Accordingly, they will act out their negative beliefs to their leaders with inattentive behavior (Schwartz et al., 2007).

Attachment behaviors may exacerbate negative affect at work via self-fulfilling prophecies. Based on the attachment beliefs held by the individual, self-fulfilling prophecies may occur. Keller and Cacioppe (2001) found that leaders will fulfill secure employees' expectations by, in turn, providing greater attention and support. Contrarily, leaders may become overwhelmed by clingy behavior from anxiously attached individuals and pull away or withdraw support and attention from avoidantly attached subordinates. Yip et al. (2018) stated that attachment relationships in organizations result in several organizational outcomes such as follower proactivity, ethical decision-making, effective negotiation behavior, and creative problem solving (Chugh et al., 2014; Lee & Thompson, 2011; Mikulincer et al., 2011; Wu & Parker, 2017). Moreover, when attachment needs in the workplace are not met, adverse outcomes such as increased stress, higher reports of burnout, and increased turnover often follow (Schirmer & Lopez, 2001; Littman-Ovadia et al., 2013; Tziner et al., 2014; Yip et al., 2018). Thus, it is critical to examine how leaders are meeting employee's attachment needs. Moreover, securely attached individuals experience greater positive affect and self-esteem (Gillath et al., 2016). They are generally better leaders, utilize a transformational leadership process, and securely attached employees are observed to use healthier coping abilities in the face of stress

(Keller & Cacioppe, 2001; Fein et al., 2020; Schwartz et al., 2007; Molero et al., 2013; Yaakobi, 2021). Additionally, securely attached employees may improve the quality of work relationships (Maslyn et al., 2017). Finally, Hudson and Fraley (2018) found that, over the course of 4 months, repeated attachment security experiences reduced an individual's trait levels of attachment anxiety. Recognizing that subordinates form attachment styles as a function of their interactions with a leader and can result in lasting changes, it is critical to restate the importance of security-providing leaders at work.

Job Demands and Resources (JD-R)

There are many facets of workplace stress. According to a Conservation of Resources (COR) perspective, stress is a social and cultural phenomenon that commands an individual to protect circumstances that ensure well-being (resources) and avoid threats to said well-being (demands) (Hobfell, 2007). If employees lack resources to manage job demands, the employee may experience stress. On the other hand, if employees possess a wealth of resources to manage job demands, they can avoid stress due to excess job demands. Since stress is culturally determined, it demands that individual encounters are under a shared social context (Hobfell, 2007). Attachment styles predict how one copes with stressful situations (Gillath et al., 2016). Thus, a relational context, like attachment theory, is beneficial when understanding stress regarding the demands and resources model of stress.

Bakker and Demerouti's Job Demand and Resource (JD-R) Theory provides a comprehensive organizational perspective that expands on a COR perspective to tackle stress management. The JD-R model of stress indicates that the experience of stress is a function of the job demands one experiences and the job resources available to them to manage those demands (Demerouti et al., 2001) – meaning that job resources mitigate job demands. Bakker and Demerouti (2007) explain that job demands are physical or emotional stressors in a job role. Like COR theory, a job demand hinders or dampens one's well-being. Indeed, job demands are associated with impaired psychological health (Fernet et al., 2015; LePine et al. 2005). Job demands may include role ambiguity, a stressful working environment, or poor interpersonal relationships.

In contrast, job resources are physical, social, or organizational factors that help an individual achieve goals and reduce stress. Indeed, job demands and resources negatively correlate (Demerouti et al., 2001). Job resources contribute to goal achievement and are thus valued for success. These may include opportunities for advancement, employee development, or substantial work relationships. Job resources ameliorate the effect of job demands by acting as a buffer for job demand strain (Bao et al., 2022).

In Bakker and Demerouti's 2017 review of their JD-R model, they discuss transformational leadership as a job resource. Transformational leaders create abundant job resources and reduce job demands (Breevaart et al., 2014; Fernet et al., 2015). Indeed, transformational leaders increase job resources, increasing

work engagement and reducing job demands by altering favorable perceptions of job characteristics (Fernet et al., 2015). They shape perceptions of job demands and influence employees' subjective work experience to present fewer job demands and more significant job resources (Fernet et al., 2015; Smircich & Morgan, 1982). Moreover, considering the experience of stress as a social and cultural convention, the relational aspect of the transformational leader and subordinate is crucial to examine. Indeed, employees are the subject of significant hierarchical influence. Not only is a single employee contextualized by their job and role, but they are also shaped by interpersonal relationships with colleagues and leaders, group norms, and the larger organizational culture and structure (Johns, 2006; Johns, 2017).

JD-R theory and leadership examines the hierarchical context of the leader-subordinate dyad. In Bakker and Demerouti's 2017 review of the development of their JD-R model into a theory and subsequent research, they discuss transformational leadership as a job resource. Secure attachment at work is positively related to self-esteem, trait emotional intelligence, extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, and job performance (Neustadt et al., 2011). The present study suggests investigating how employees perceive job demands and job resources as a function of attachment security. That is, attachment security rendered by transformational leaders mediates the relationships between transformational leadership and positive outcomes, like the reduction of job demands.

Present Study

Inherent in the experience of stress is the extent to which stress exists as a social and cultural convention. Stress is a manufactured social facet that influences how one perceives the world (Pollock, 1988). Moreover, stress at work is a pressing issue. Nearly 1 in 5 employees stress at work (Yahaya et al., 2011), and work stress is a major challenge for mental and physical health (Park, 2007). According to JD-R, the experience of stress is a function of job demands and resources. Transformational leadership is correlated with an increase in job resources and a decrease in job demands (Fernet et al., 2015). Fernet and colleagues explain the relationship between transformational leadership and job demands and resources by altering perceptions of job characteristics as being more favorable. However, the social aspect of the leader-subordinate dyad is neglected as a potential vehicle through which the evaluation of job demands can be mitigated.

An application of Bowlby's attachment framework offers a viable avenue through which the social aspect of this relationship may be investigated (Yip et al., 2018). Indeed, secure attachment is considered a positive psychological strength for working adults; and is positively related to hope, trust, and supervisor-rated performance (Simmons et al., 2009). Additionally, securely attached employees are observed to use healthier coping abilities in the face of stress (Keller & Cacioppe, 2001). Thus, fostering attachment security for

employees in the workplace offers a method of addressing the national stress crisis. At work, leaders have already been identified as attachment figures. Like attentive and supportive parents, transformational leaders act as security-proving leaders in the workplace (Molero et al., 2019). Therefore, transformational leadership cultivates employee secure attachment via repeated positive and supportive interactions with the leader. Since transformational leaders cultivate secure attachment (Popper & Mayselles, 2003), attachment security may explain part of the variance related to the evaluation of job demands and job resources. Fernet and colleagues (2015) explain that transformational leaders reduce job demands by altering the perception of the job itself. However, the present study adopts a new perspective where we will examine how the relationship itself affects how employees perceive job demands and resources.

As a result, the current study intends to examine the social aspect of stress more closely by investigating employees with transformational leaders and their perception of stress as it relates to job demands and resources. Furthermore, the current research model intends to examine whether attachment security mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and perceived job demands and resources within the work context. Please refer to Figure 1 for an overview of the proposed research model. We expect to support the following hypotheses:

H1: Transformational Leadership will be positively related to the Subordinate's Attachment Security.

H2: Subordinate Attachment Security will be positively related to the Subordinate's Perception of Supervisor Support.

H3: Subordinate Attachment Security will be positively related to the Subordinate's Perception of Decision Authority.

H4: Subordinate Attachment Security will be negatively related to the Subordinate's Perception of Job Demands.

H5: Subordinate Attachment Security will partially mediate the relationship between the Leader's Transformational Leadership style and the Subordinate's Perception of Supervisor Support.

H6: Subordinate Attachment Security will partially mediate the relationship between the Leader's Transformational Leadership style and the Subordinate's Perception of Decision Authority.

H7: Subordinate Attachment Security will partially mediate the relationship between the Leader's Transformational Leadership Style and the Subordinate's Perception of Job Demands.
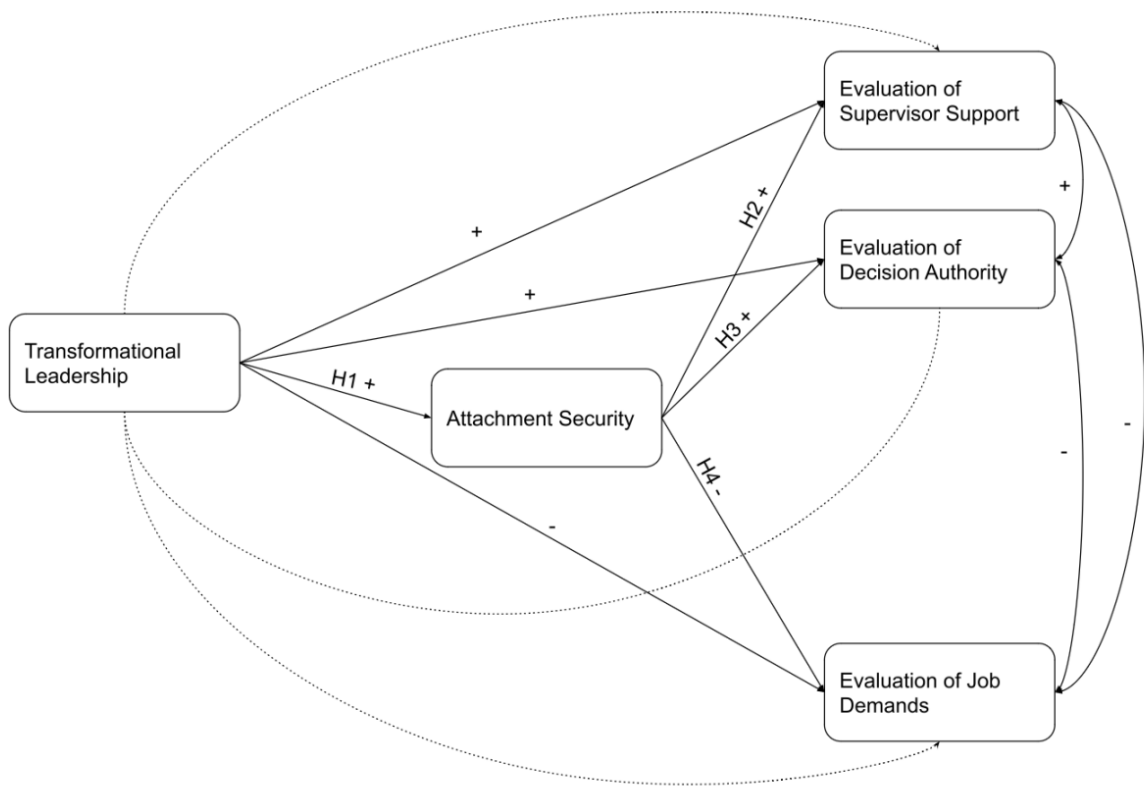
Figure 2. Proposed Model

CHAPTER TWO:

METHOD

Participants

The current study collected data from employed individuals across job industries who worked at least 30 hours a week, had at least one direct supervisor, and had at least six months of work in their current job role. A GPower analysis indicated that approximately 200 participants were necessary to attain a minimum power level of 0.80 (Fritz & MacKinnon, 2007). A total of 372 surveys were returned; however, 18 failed the attention checks, and 84 completed only small portions of the survey and were excluded from the final sample ($N = 269$).

The sample consisted of 41.1% females (N=111), 57.8% Males (N=156), and 1.1% Non-Binary (N=3) with an average age of 37.44 (Age range: 19 – 74). The ethnic breakdown of participants was as follows: 7.8% Asian (N=21), 6.3% Black or African American (N=17), 69.3% Caucasian/White (N=187), 8.5% Hispanic or Latino/Latina (N=23), 0.7% Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander (N=2), 6.3% Multiracial/ethnic (N=17), and 1.1% Other (N=3). Education level included 10.0% completing high school (N=27), 14.8% completing some college (N=40), 7.4% earning an associate degree (N=20), 43.3% earning a bachelor's degree (N=117), 21.1% earning a Professional Degree (i.e., MBA, MA) (N=57), and 3.3% earning a Doctorate (i.e., PhD, EdD) (N=9). Marital status included

37% being married (N=100), 1.5% having been widowed (N=4), 5.9% being divorced (N=16), 0.7% being separated (N=2), 35.2% being single (N=95), and 19.6% being in a long-term relationship, but not married (N=53).

The respondent's organizational tenure ranged from 6 months to 20 years, and years of experience ranging from 1 year to 30 years. Additionally, respondents typically worked as little as 30 hours a week and as much as 70 hours a week. Lastly, 95.9% of respondents work full-time (N=259), while 2.2% work part-time (N=6) and 1.5% work as a contractor (N=4). For a complete overview of the study demographics, please refer to Table 1.

Procedures

Participants were recruited on the Prolific surveying platform and via convenience sampling through social media and networking. The survey was administered via an online survey platform, Qualtrics. Upon accessing the survey, participants were directed to a study description and informed consent. There were 67 items measuring all aspects of the research model and demographics. All responses were anonymous, and the survey took approximately 15 minutes. Participants were compensated via Prolific $8.00 USD for their time. There was no risk associated with participating beyond those experienced in daily activities. Upon completing the survey, participants were debriefed and thanked for their time.

Measures

The survey consisted of 5 self-report survey measures. In addition, demographic information was collected. All measures are attached in Appendices C, D, E, F, and G.

Transformational Leadership

Jensen and colleagues (2019) Transformational (Employee Version) Scale consisting of 7 items was used to measure respondents' perceptions of their leader as transformational. The scale is scored on a 5-point Likert scale where 1 is "Strongly disagree," and 5 is "Strongly agree." It asked respondents to rate their level of agreement with each statement contained within the measure. Some examples of transformational leadership include, "My leader concretizes a clear vision for the organization's future" and "My leader strives to get the organization to work together in the direction of the vision." The employee version of the measure is worded to ascertain whether employees perceive their leaders as transformational (Jensen et al., 2019) (Cronbach's α= 0.90).

Experiences in Close Relationships-Relationship Structure Questionnaire

Fraley and colleagues (2000) Experiences in Close Relationships Questionnaire (Relationship Structure) (ECR-RS) was used to measure respondents' attachment styles in a variety of relationships, including parental relationships, friend relationships, romantic relationships, and global attachment

(Fraley et al., 2011). The ECR-RS scale is a continuous measure of attachment on a continuum of attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance. It consists of two subscales – Attachment Avoidance (i.e., being uncomfortable with closeness with others) and Attachment Anxiety (i.e., fear of rejection). See Figure 2 for Bartholomew and Horowitz's (1991) model of individual differences in adult attachment based on two dimensions, avoidance, and anxiety. Based on the extent that individual scores on the spectrum of anxiety/avoidance, attachment styles are assigned as one of the following: secure, preoccupied, dismissing-avoidant, and fearful-avoidant. The combined scores for each attachment dimension are calculated to represent that higher scores reflect greater levels of insecure attachment (i.e., avoidance, anxiety) (Fraley et al., 2015). The 9-item version measuring global attachment shall be used (Fraley et al., 2011). The scale is scored on a 7-point Likert scale where 1 is "Strongly Disagree," and 7 is "Strongly Agree." Respondents are asked to read each of the following statements and rate the extent to which they believe each statement best describes their feelings about close relationships in general. Some examples of items include, "It helps to turn to people in times of need," and "I often worry that other people do not really care for me." (Cronbach's α= 0.92).

Job Demands

     Karasek and Theorell's (1990) Job Content Questionnaire (JCQ) will be used to capture job resources. Two subscales of the JCQ were utilized to capture

job demands: Psychological Demands and Physical Demands. Psychological demands consist of 9 items asking respondents about the intensity of work-related psychological demands such as the quantity of work, intellectual requirements, and time constraints. The scale is scored on a 4-point Likert scale where 1 is "Strongly Disagree," and 4 is "Strongly Agree." Some example items include "My job requires working very fast," and "My job requires working very hard," (Cronbach's α=0.83). Physical Demands consists of 5 items asking respondents about the individual's physical exertion at work. The scale is scored on a 4-point Likert scale where 1 is "Strongly Disagree," and 4 is "Strongly Agree." Some example items include "My job requires too much physical effort," and "My job requires fast and continuous physical activity," (Cronbach's α=0.86).

Job Resources

Karasek and Theorell's (1990) Job Content Questionnaire (JCQ) will be used in the present study to capture job resources. Two subscales of the JCQ were utilized to capture job resources: Decision Authority and Social Support. Decision Authority consists of 10 items asking respondents about the individual's autonomy over duties in the workplace such as level of autonomy, decision-making authority, and skill utilization. The scale is scored on a 4-point Likert scale where 1 is "Strongly Disagree," and 4 is "Strongly Agree." Some example items include "My job allows me to make a lot of decisions on my own," and "I have a lot of say about what happens on my job," (Cronbach's α=0.78). Social

Support is a combined scale that measures Social Support. Supervisor Support

consists of 4 items asking respondents about the extent one perceives support

from coworkers. The scale is scored on a 4-point Likert scale where 1 is

"Strongly Disagree," and 4 is "Strongly Agree." One example item includes "My

supervisor is helpful in getting the job done," (Cronbach's $\alpha=0.86$).

Demographics

Respondents' demographic information was collected to examine

individual differences. The demographic information that was collected includes

age, gender, income, ethnicity, and marital status. Work Demographics

Information that was collected includes full-time or part-time work status, number

of direct supervisors, number of hours typically worked per week, job tenure, job

industry, and employee level.

CHAPTER THREE:

RESULTS

Data Screening

Data were retrieved from the Qualtrics platform and then imported to IBM

SPSS version 28 and SPSS AMOS version 28. The current study collected data

from employed individuals across job industries who worked at least 30 hours a

week, had at least one direct supervisor, and had at least six months of work in

their current job role. A total of 372 surveys were returned; however, 18 failed the

attention checks, and 84 completed only small portions of the survey and were

excluded from the final sample. In the final sample, 200 data points were

collected via Prolific and 69 usable data points were collected via convenience

sampling using social media. All participants included in the final sample were

employed individuals across job industries who worked at least 30 hours a week,

had at least one direct supervisor, and had at least six months of work in their

current job role, completed all survey items, and answered all attention check

correctly were included in the subsequent analyses (N=269).

Data were then screened to identify univariate outliers, multivariate

outliers, and violations of normality. Firstly, variables were converted to z-scores,

and a cutoff of z = ±3.3, p =.001 was used as a criterion to identify univariate

outliers. Results indicated that there were no univariate outliers among all

variables. To identify multivariate outliers, Mahalonobis distance was used

$[X^2(3,266) = 20.52, p <0.001)$. One multivariate outlier was identified and was subsequently removed from the data set. Evaluation of Supervisor Support [M=4.02, SD = 0.93, N=269] was negatively skewed, skewed right, and leptokurtic. Respondents tended to perceive their immediate supervisors as supportive, skewness = -1.31, kurtosis = 1.30. Attachment Security [M=8.13, SD = 2.67, N=269], Evaluation of Job Demands [M=7.74, SD = 0.71, N=269], Decision Authority [M=3.41, SD = 0.86, N=269], and Transformational leadership [M=3.39, SD = 0.79, N=269] were symmetrical and did not present any evidence for either kurtosis or skewness. Finally, violations of normality were identified using the Shapiro-Wilk test of normality. While Job Demands were normally distributed (p > 0.001), Attachment Security, Supervisor Support, Decision Authority, and Transformational Leadership were not normally distributed (p < 0.001).

Analysis

Means, standard deviations, Cronbach's alpha, and bivariate correlations for all study variables are presented in Table 2. Hypotheses were examined through path analysis utilizing SPSS AMOS version 28.

<u>Model Estimation</u>

The model estimation demonstrates strong fit with the data, chi-square X^2 (1, 19) = 21.34, p < 0.001, standardized root mean square (SRMR) = 0.06,

normed fit index (NFI) = 0.96, comparative fit index (CFI) = 0.96, the goodness of

fit index (GFI) = 0.97, and adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI) = 0.56. SRMR

was chosen for the current model because of the few degrees of freedom.

RMSEA often underestimates fit for properly specified models with small degrees

of freedom (Kenny et al., 2015). Thus, the present study determined model fit

using the standardized root mean.

Direct Effects

      For a complete overview of model estimate parameters of direct and

indirect effects, refer to Figure 3. For Hypothesis 1, it was predicted that

Transformational Leadership would positively relate to Attachment Security.

Hypothesis 1 was supported (β = 0.41, p < 0.001). When Transformational

Leadership increases, Attachment Security also increases. Support for

Hypothesis 2 was found (β = 0.60, p < 0.001), where we predicted that

Attachment Security would be positively related to the Evaluation of Supervisor

Support. As Attachment Security increases, perceptions of Supervisor Support

also increase. Hypothesis 3 was also supported (β = 0.18, p = 0.05), where it

was predicted that Attachment Security would be positively related to the

Evaluation of Decision Authority. As Attachment Security increases, perceptions

of Decision Authority also increase. Hypothesis 4 was supported (β = -0.36, p <

0.001), which predicted that Attachment Security would be negatively related to

Job Demands. As Attachment Security increases, perceptions of Job Demands decrease.

<u>Indirect Effects</u>

Hypothesis 5 was supported (β = 0.25, p < 0.05), where it was predicted that Subordinate Attachment Security would partially mediate the relationship between the Leader's Transformational Leadership style and the Subordinate's Perception of Supervisor Support. Hypothesis 6 was also supported (β = 0.08, p. < 0.05). Subordinate Attachment Security would mediate the relationship between the Leader's Transformational Leadership style and the Subordinate's Perception of Decision Authority. For Hypothesis 7, it was predicted that Subordinate Attachment Security would mediate the relationship between the Leader's Transformational Leadership Style and the Subordinate's Perception of Job Demands. Hypothesis 7 was supported (β = -0.15, p < 0.05). However, contrary to expectations, where we predicted a partial mediation, evidence of full mediation was found for both Hypothesis 6 and Hypothesis 7.

Overall, the model did exceptionally well in supporting study hypotheses - with full support for all hypotheses. Moreover, variance explained by the model was observed through Attachment Security explaining 16.6%, Decision Authority explaining 3.2%, Job Demands explaining 12.2%, and Supervisor Support explaining 62.1%.
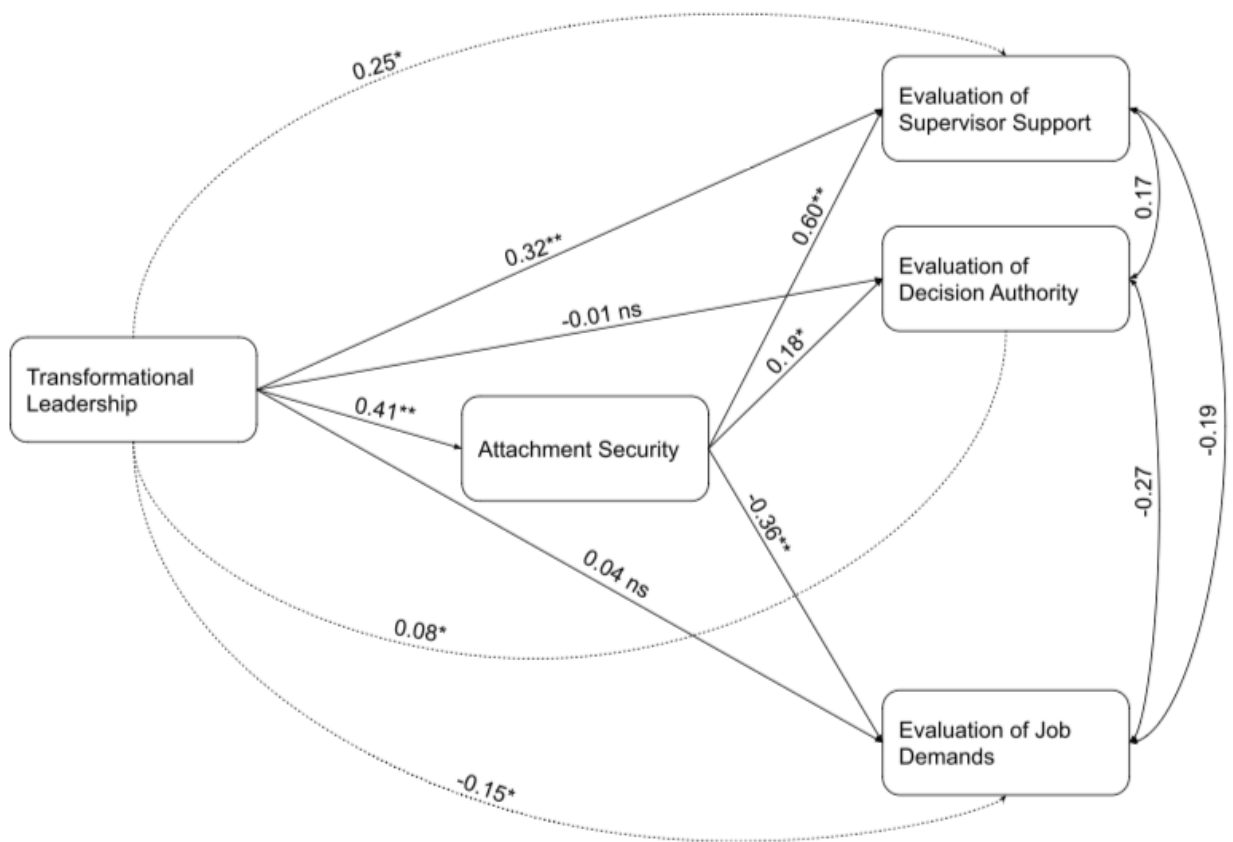
Figure 3. Completed Model with Standardized Path Coefficients. *Note* **
indicates p < 0.001, and * indicates p < 0.05.

Characteristics		N	%
Gender			
	Female	111	41.1
	Male	156	57.8
	Non-Binary	3	1.1
Tenure(years)			
	0 to 5	188	69.6
	6 to 10	44	16.3
	11 to 15	15	5.6
	16 to 20	7	2.6
	20+	15	5.6
Work Hours			

	Less than 30 hours	2	0.80
	30 to 39	30	11.10
	40 to 49	200	74.10
	50 to 59	32	11.90
	60 to 69	5	1.90
	70+	1	0.40
Work Experience (Years)			
	0 to 5	46	17.00
	6 to 10	60	22.20
	11 to 15	51	18.80
	16 to 20	33	12.20
	21 to 25	21	7.80
	26 to 29	10	3.80
	30+	49	18.10
Race/Ethnicity			
	Asian American	21	7.8
	African American	17	6.3
	Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander	2	0.7
	Hispanic / Latino	23	8.5
	White / Caucasian	187	69.3
	Multiracial/ethnic	17	6.3
	Other	3	1.1
Level of education			
	Highschool	27	10.0
	Some College	40	14.8
	Associates or Vocational Degree	20	7.4
	Bachelor's Degree	117	43.3
	Professional Degree (MBA, MA / MS)	57	21.1
	Doctoral Level (Ph.D., Ed.D., MD, JD)	9	3.3
Marital Status			
	Single	95	35.2
	Committed relationship, but not married	53	19.6
	Separated	2	0.7
	Married	100	37.0
	Divorced	16	5.9
	Widower	4	1.5

Job Type

	Full-time	259	95.9
	Part-time	6	2.2
	Contractor	4	1.5

Table 1. Demographic variables

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5
Attachment Security	8.13	2.67	(0.92)				
Supervisor Support	4.03	0.92	.789**	(0.86)			
Decision Authority	3.41	0.85	.194**	.243**	(0.78)		
Job Demands	7.74	0.72	-.372**	-.385**	-.320**	(0.86)	
Transformational Leadership	3.60	0.99	.601**	.661**	0.109	-.197**	(0.90)

Note: *p <0.01 **P<0.001, N = 269; Cronbach's Alpha included

Table 2. Correlation Matrix of Predictor, Mediator, and Outcomes with Means and Standard Deviations

CHAPTER FOUR:

DISCUSSION

In the US, stress is a national mental crisis. It is observed across industries and job roles, with work being a significant source of stress for 64% of employed adults in 2019 and 2020 (APA, 2021; Heckman, 2022). The present study investigated stress as a function of job demands and job resources, where stress occurs when job demands outweigh job resources (Bakker & Demeourti, 2007). We used an attachment framework to investigate the relationship between leaders and employees to determine if attachment security mediated the relationship between transformational leaders and employees' evaluation of job demands and job resources. Results demonstrated that attachment security mediated the paths between transformational leadership and employee perceptions of job demands, decision authority, and supervisor support. Results supported that attachment security is not only related to supervisor support, decision authority, and job demands but also functions as the mechanism through which transformational leadership relates to perceptions of job demands and job resources.

Strong support was found for our predictions about the relationship between transformational leadership, employee perceptions of demands and resources, and the potential explanatory role of attachment security. Attachment security was a robust mediator in this current study's model. It partially mediated

the relationship between leader's transformational leadership style and the

subordinate's perception of supervisor support and fully mediated the relationship

between the leader's transformational leadership style and the subordinate's

perception of decision authority and between the leader's transformational

leadership style and the subordinate's perception of job demands. Contrary to

expectations, where we predicted a partial mediation, evidence of full mediation

was found for the relationship between transformational leadership and job

demands and transformational leadership and decision authority.

The results of this study supported the premise that employee attachment

security helps to explain the relationship between transformational leadership

and perceptions of job demands and resources. This work expanded on previous

findings that transformational leadership is related to favorable perceptions of job

characteristics by decreasing perceptions of job demands and increasing

perceptions of job resources (Fernet et al., 2015). Specifically, the present

study's result supported that transformational leadership is associated with

reduced employee perceptions of job demands and resources and is mediated

by attachment security. Additionally, this study's results were consistent with prior

research that found a correlation between transformational leadership and the

secure attachment style (Popper et al., 2000). The basis for this relationship is

built on strong theoretical foundations proposing that leaders function similarly to

parents (Popper & Mayselles, 2003). Specifically, it was suggested that the

leader-subordinate dyad is comparable to the parent-child dyad – in that,

employees' fates heavily depend on leaders' ability to provide support, guidance, and safety for those less powerful than themselves. The current model demonstrated evidence for the assertion that transformational leadership is strongly related to the evaluation of supervisor support, decision authority, and job demands. Moreover, since this relationship was mediated through attachment security, the extent to which transformational leaders can provide attachment security for their employees is crucial to the extent that employees are able to mitigate the work stress transpired by a lack of job resources and overwhelming job demands. Furthermore, the present study supported the idea that transformational leaders act as security providers via the mediation pathway.

The results of this study demonstrate relationships between attachment security and supervisor support, decision authority, and job demands. Attachment security was positively related to supervisors' support, indicating that as attachment security increases, perceptions of supervisor support also increase. Research has established that individuals are predisposed to appraise support in ways that are consistent with their IWM (Collins & Feeney, 2004). Attachment security is characterized by a tendency to seek out and receive social support when necessary and being able to utilize that support to cope with stress (Ognibene & Collins, 1998; Florian et al., 1995). Insecurely attached individuals tend to perceive social support as less helpful and less well-intended than securely attached individuals, especially when the support is ambiguous and open to subjective construal (Collins & Feeney, 2004). Additionally,

attachment security was positively related to decision authority but negatively related to job demands. Employees high in attachment security seek autonomy and are able to cope with demands. They can cope with stress since they can open themselves up to new information, develop a strategy based on new information, and have the confidence to fall back on their attachment figure (Mikulincer & Florian, 2003).

Supervisor Support and Attachment Security were highly correlated. Indeed, supervisor support and attachment security are theoretically related. Research demonstrates that attachment security is related to the experience and perception of social support. Florian and colleagues (1995) found that securely attached individuals tend to perceive higher levels of supervisor support and are more likely to seek and receive support from their supervisors. Moreover, Collins and Feeney (2004) found that securely attached individuals perceived support in a genuine and positive light compared to insecurely attached individuals, who tended to perceive it negatively. Importantly, securely attached individuals may be more comfortable seeking and receiving support from others compared to insecurely attached individuals. Attachment security influences one's trust in their supervisor (Frazier et al., 2015). Securely attached individuals are more likely to trust and feel comfortable with their supervisors and receive greater support as a result.

Furthermore, supervisor support may also play a role in shaping employees' attachment security. Subordinates view their leaders as a source of

safety and a foundation for security (Molero et al., 2019). Research has found that supportive supervisors can create a sense of psychological safety and security in the workplace (Goh et al., 2015). Leaders fulfill the role of an attachment figure by encouraging and supporting subordinates, helping them overcome obstacles and achieving challenging goals (Erick et al., 2020; Hinojosa et al., 2020). Moreover, a key characteristic of attachment security is the ability to communicate opinions and feelings (Gillath et al., 2016). Leaders who foster psychological safety and security in the workplace make employees feel more secure in their close relationships, including their attachment relationships with the leaders themselves.

Research has shown that transformational leaders tend to provide high levels of support to their subordinates, including emotional and instrumental support (Stinglhamber et al., 2015). Thus, employees tend to perceive higher levels of supervisor support when working under transformational leaders. Results from the present study support this assertion, as a strong direct relationship was demonstrated between transformational leadership and supervisor support.

Although attachment has been studied in depth, attachment at work is yet a budding area of research. Attachment not only offers an important individual difference that may change outcomes between related variables, but it may also explain the underpinnings of existing relationships in organizational research yet to be explored. The results of the present study expanded on previous research

and found that attachment security acted as an underlying mechanism between transformational leadership and job demands and resources. Moreover, it explained part of the reason that transformational leaders are so effective – they foster attachment security.

Practical Implications

Attachment orientation is an important individual difference for managers to consider. Recognizing that attachment security is negatively related to job demands and positively related to job resources, leaders must be mindful. Individuals, like transformational leaders, can promote greater attachment security in relationships via transformational leadership training (Arriaga et al., 2014). Importantly, a change in attachment security may be achieved via repeated interactions between leaders and employees (Gillath et al., 2016). Fostering attachment security in the workplace offers a viable option to develop training modules for leaders to become secure attachment figures or interventions as reappraisal training for employees. Furthermore, existing forms of workplace concepts and processes, like transformational leadership, offer a vessel by which attachment security priming is already at play in organizations. Thus, by acting as secure attachment figures, transformational leaders can mitigate stress from an imbalance between job demands and resources.

Managers should consider transformational leadership training for supervisors to promote support and security for their subordinates actively.

Future Directions

The present study adds value to existing attachment literature and the budding body of literature regarding attachment at work in organizational literature. Attachment security explains the relationship between transformational leadership and job demands and resources. However, attachment security only partially mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and supervisor support. Additional research should examine other variables that could help further to explain additional variance in the relationship between transformational leadership and supervisor support. Individual differences besides attachment style may also play a role. Yoon and Thye (2000) found that, in a sample of 1,882 hospital employees, employees with positive dispositions receive more supervisor support because they are more likable. Like an attachment framework, leaders tend to provide greater support to securely attached subordinates and unintentionally withdraw from insecurely attached employees due to being overwhelmed (Kelly & Caccioppe, 2001). Thus, employee behaviors, like self-fulfilling behaviors, and a leader's implicit bias could be investigated as moderators in the context of the overall model.

Attachment research in an organizational setting concludes that attachment orientation is stable and consistent over time and in relationships (Yip et al., 2018). However, attachment research has supported the idea that attachment orientation is susceptible to change and depends on relationship status and context (Frederick, 2021; Gillath et al., 2016). Although attachment style has a trait component, a secure attachment state can be temporarily activated (Gillath & Karantzas, 2019; Yip et al., 2018). By activating mental representations of secure attachment (like a transformational leader), situations where an individual experienced secure attachment become more readily available and easily accessible.

Attachment security priming offers significant implications for the application at work because it can change relationship behavioral tendencies (Gillath et al., 2006). At work, attachment security priming offers a realistic method through which an intervention to enhance attachment security may be developed. However, there are few studies examining attachment security priming in organizational research. Thus, it is an avenue of research that offers ample opportunities to improve employee well-being. Future research on attachment in organizations should incorporate state attachment methodologies to diversify their measurement and limit bias to create better models of attachment in organizational literature. To this end, a reliable workplace attachment measure should be established as a reliable and easy-to-access workplace attachment measure for researchers new to attachment literature.

A specific measure of attachment anxiety and avoidance should be developed to investigate attachment security priming at work better. Although Fraley and colleagues' (2015) Experience of Close Relationships – Relationship Structure scale measures global attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance scores and may be altered to any relationship (Fraley et al., 2015), research on attachment at work is a fairly recent topic of research. Although there are numerous scales of attachment, few scales have been developed specifically for the context of workplace relationships, including managers, other coworkers, and even the organization itself. Measures of attachment have been noted to have a greater prediction of outcomes when relationship-specific rather than when measuring an individual's general, dispositional attachment style (Klohnen et al., 2005).

Due to the absence of supervisor-specific instrumentation for attachment security, the present study slightly reworded Fraley's ECR-RS scale to tap into respondents' attachment experience with supervisor relationships. Since we adopted the scale to tap specifically into relationships with 'direct supervisors,' comparing our results across other studies may cause concerns. The Fraley ECR-RS scale is reliable, valid, and versatile – allowing the instrument to tap into multiple, specific relationships. However, researchers may use different names for leaders across studies. There is not necessarily a common name for a leader across organizations, job roles, or industries (i.e., immediate supervisors, direct supervisor, project manager, shift supervisor, supervisor, manager, etc).. In the

present study, we used 'direct supervisor.' If there were already an established

measure for the study of attachment in the organizational literature, comparisons

of results across studies would be more feasible. Although transformational

leaders act as attachment figures, work relationships fundamentally differ from

intimate relationships with loved ones.

Additionally, respondents in this study often indicated that they had more

than 1 direct supervisor. For attachment research in general, individuals

generally have limited and specific relationships like romantic partners or parents

that are studied. On the other hand, employees may often have multiple

supervisors, several coworkers, and even multiple jobs. In the present study for

the adapted scale, we did not differentiate between multiple supervisors or

supervisors across different jobs, which may have impeded participants from

being able to conceptualize specific attachment experiences. Future studies

should consider the frequency of contact, number of jobs, and temporal variables

that can tap more specifically into supervisor-supervisee relationships. Future

research should examine the nuances between work and non-work attachment

figures to expand on the functionality of leaders as attachment figures.

Work attachment scales, such as the Brazilian Short Work Attachment

Measure (SWAM; Andrade et al., 2020), the Workplace Attachment Scale

(WATS; Andrade, 2017), and the Relationships at Work Questionnaire (RWQ;

Veech, 2020), are relatively new and should be tested further across

organizational contexts. Additionally, while the SWAM measures attachment

continuously, the WATS and RWQ are categorical attachment measures. The present study utilized a continuous measure of attachment in accordance with recent findings by Fraley and colleagues (2015). Indeed, continuous attachment measures allow researchers to capture nuances between secure and insecure attachment styles. The present study focuses specifically on the explanatory potential of attachment security; however, it only partially mediated transformational leadership and supervisor support. Attachment insecurity may also mediate the relationship between transformational leadership and supervisor support. Future research into attachment at work should continue to research attachment continuously to capture potentially critical nuances between securely attached and insecurely attached employees. Moreover, the misuse of existing scales from broader attachment literature may prime respondents for negative feelings like workplace harassment. Thus, future organizational research into attachment style should focus on developing and validating a core workplace relationship-specific and continuous measure of attachment.

Limitations

There were a few limitations associated with the present study. In the present study, supervisor support was negatively skewed as respondents tended to perceive their immediate supervisors as supportive. Negative skewness, in this case, may have resulted in our inflated and statistically significant chi-square

statistic. However, to address this issue, multiple indices of fit were used to estimate model fit for the present study. Furthermore, other factors, including self-report measures and the use of Prolific, may have also contributed to the skewness observed for supervisor support. All study variables were measured with self-report measures, and we also utilized an online survey platform, Prolific, to recruit and engage with participants. Online survey samples are self-selected – meaning respondents elect to participate in studies rather than being randomly selected (Keiding & Louis, 2018; Khazaal et al., 2014). Employees who had a supportive leader may have gravitated to the survey. Additionally, online survey participants may provide socially desirable responses rather than honest responses, even for less sensitive topics (Miller, 2012). Participants may have provided the socially desirable response that their bosses are supportive rather than honest answers, resulting in the skewed variable. The use of deception for replication studies may address systematic issues related to skewed supervisor support.

The ability of respondents to discriminate between study phenomena was also a potential limitation of this study. In the present study, Attachment Security and Supervisor Support were highly correlated ($r = 0.78$). Although a correlation between these variables was expected since these concepts are theoretically related (Gillath et al., 2016), the extent to which these variables were related was unexpected and may have influenced our results. Further research on this topic must carefully measure attachment security and supervisor support.

Conclusion

Work stress will not disappear; however, it can be managed. The present study found that attachment security is an underlying mechanism between transformational leaders and job demands and resources. Specifically, those higher in attachment security fostered by transformational leaders experienced fewer physical and psychological demands and improved supervisor support and decision authority. Future research should continue incorporating attachment theory into the workplace, including security attachment priming and measuring attachment security at work.

APPENDIX A:

INFORMED CONSENT

INFORMED CONSENT

Consent to participate in a research study at California State University, San Bernardino (CSUSB)

PURPOSE: The following study is designed to understand stressors at work. You will be asked to answer a short series of questions about how you perceive stress at work, your relationships with your supervisor at work, and demographic questions.

DURATION: This survey will take around 10 – 15 minutes to complete.

COMPENSATION: Participants redirected from Prolific shall receive 8$ as compensation for completing this survey. Participants redirected from SONA shall receive extra credit for completing this survey.

CONFIDENTIALITY: All responses will remain confidential, and no IP addresses or other identifying information will be made available to anyone outside the primary researchers and faculty members. Data will be stored on a password-protected computer. Data shall only be presented in aggregate and analyzed for Emma Naudet's thesis requirement and for presentation at professional conferences. The Institutional Review Board has approved this study at CSUSB.

PARTICIPATION: Your participation in this study is entirely voluntary, and you are free to withdraw your participation at any time. Additionally, you may choose not to answer a question at any time.

RISK AND BENEFITS: This study does not provide any direct benefits or risks to individual participants beyond those typically encountered in your daily life while using a computer.

CONTACT: If you have questions about this study, your rights as a participant, or need to contact someone in the event of a research-related injury, you may contact the Principal Investigator on this study, Dr. Mark Agars (mark.agars@csusb.edu), or the Co-Principal Investigator, Emma Naudet (007720759@csusb.edu). If you have questions or concerns about your rights as a participant in this study, please contact Michael Gillespie: mgillesp@csusb.edu.

CONFIRMATION STATEMENT: I acknowledge that I have been informed of, and understand the nature and purpose of this study, and I freely consent to participate. I acknowledge that I am at least 18 years of age.

SIGNATURE: ONLINE AGREEMENT BY SELECTING THE 'I AGREE' OPTION ON THE
WEBPAGE INDICATES CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN THE STUDY.

APPENDIX B:

DEBRIEFING FORM

DEBRIEFING FORM

Employee Perceptions of Stressors at Work: An Attachment Perspective Debriefing Statement

This study you have just completed was designed to investigate if transformational leaders' improvement in employee perceptions of work stress is mediated by attachment security.

We spend a third of our life at work or 90,000 hours. Importantly, 64% of employed adults reported work as a significant source of stress. Considering the enormous time that individuals spend at work, it is crucial that a discerning eye is taken to more deeply understand how one perceives stress, why stress occurs, and how it can be mitigated using strategies backed by empirical evidence.

Transformational leaders listen to employees and provide individualized support based on their unique concerns and needs. They fulfill the same role of a caregiver – to guide their employees to grow and learn in a safe environment.

The extent to which a leader is able to act as a secure base, a safe haven, and accessible refers to attachment security.

Transformational leaders may directly influence the level of employee attachment security. They instill purpose in their employees, foster an environment where employees can ask questions and share opinions and ideas, encourage greater employee autonomy, and spur employee growth and development by working with employees through obstacles and by challenging employees.

Attachment experiences refer to the differences in how one's experience with others shape's one belief about others and themselves. It is salient in relationships one will experience across one's lifetime, including work relationships.

The information you shared will allow us to understand how supportive leaders mitigate stressors at work. In short, the present study examines whether the attachment security fostered by transformational leaders improves work conditions by reducing stress at work.

Thank you for your participation. If you have any questions about the study, please get in touch with Emma Naudet at 007720759@coyote.csusb.edu. If you would like to obtain a copy of this study's group results, please get in touch with Emma Naudet at 007720759@coyote.csusb.edu.

APPENDIX C:

TRANSFORMATIONAL AND TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP SCALE

TRANSFORMATIONAL AND TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP SCALE

This questionnaire describes your experience of your supervisor's leadership style as you experience it. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement on a scale from "1 = Strongly Disagree" to "5 = Strongly Agree."

1. My leader concretizes a clear vision for the organization's future.
2. My leader communicates a clear vision of the organization's future.
3. My leader makes a continuous effort to generate enthusiasm for the organization's vision.
4. My leader has a clear sense of where he or she believes our organization should be in 5 years.
5. My leader seeks to make employees accept common goals for the organization.
6. My leader strives to get the organization to work together in the direction of the vision.
7. My leader strives to clarify how they can contribute to achieving the organization's goals.

Jensen, U. T., Andersen, L. B., Bro, L. L., Bøllingtoft, A., Eriksen, T. L. M., Holten, A.-L., Jacobsen, C. B., Ladenburg, J., Nielsen, P. A., Salomonsen, H. H., Westergård-Nielsen, N., & Würtz, A. (2019). Conceptualizing and measuring transformational and transactional leadership. Administration & Society, 51(1), 3–33. https://doi-org.libproxy.lib.csusb.edu/10.1177/0095399716667157

APPENDIX D:

RELATIONSHIP STRUCTURES (ECR-RS) QUESTIONNAIRE

RELATIONSHIP STRUCTURES (ECR-RS) QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire is designed to assess the way in which you mentally represent important people in your life. Please read each of the following statements and rate the extent to which you believe each statement best describes your feelings about relationship with your direct supervisor at work.

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement on a scale from "1 = Strongly Disagree" to "7 = Strongly Agree."

1. It helps to turn to my direct supervisor in times of need.
2. I usually discuss my problems and concerns with my direct supervisor.
3. I talk things over with my direct supervisor.
4. I find it easy to depend on my direct supervisor.
5. I don't feel comfortable opening up to my direct supervisor.
6. I prefer not to show my direct supervisor how I feel deep down.
7. I often worry that my direct supervisor does not really care for me.
8. I'm afraid that my direct supervisor may abandon me.
9. I worry that my direct supervisor won't care about me as much as I care about them.

Fraley, R. C., Niedenthal, P. M., Marks, M. J., Brumbaugh, C. C., & Vicary, A. (2006). Adult attachment and the perception of emotional expressions: Probing the hyperactivating strategies underlying anxious attachment. *Journal of Personality, 74*, 1163-1190.

APPENDIX E:

JOB CONTENT QUESTIONNAIRE

JOB CONTENT QUESTIONNAIRE

The following section of questions is a questionnaire designed to collect all types of information about the kind of work you do. It is NOT intended to measure how well you perform your job.

Keeping in mind your current employment, please mark your agreement with the statements below on a scale from 1 = Strongly Disagree to 4 = Strongly Agree.

Decision Authority:
1. My job allows me to make my own decisions.
2. I have a lot of say on what happens on the job.
3. I have the freedom to decide how to perform work.
4. I can determine when to work.
5. I can interrupt my work as I wish.
6. I set break times myself.
7. I can easily leave work for short periods.
8. I determine days off myself.
9. I can determine my own work pace.
10. I can set the time when I start and finish my work.

Psychological demands:
1. My job requires me to work very hard.
2. My job requires me to work very quickly.
3. I'm required to do excessive work.
4. I don't have enough time to finish my work.
5. I'm exposed to conflicting demands from others.
6. My job requires long periods of intense concentration.
7. My job requires working very fast.
8. I'm always in a hurry in my work.
9. My tasks are often interrupted before completion, which requires me to resume them later

Physical demands:
1. My job involves too much physical effort.
2. My job involves moving or lifting heavy loads.
3. My job involves fast and continuous physical activity.
4. My job involves awkward body positions.
5. My job involves awkward head and arm positions.

Supervisors' Support:
1. My immediate supervisor takes my ideas into account sufficiently.
2. My immediate supervisor has a clear picture of how I work.

3. My immediate supervisor gives me enough support in my work.
4. I have a good relationship with my immediate supervisor.
5. My immediate supervisor is helpful in getting the job done.

Karasek R and Theorell T (1990) Healthy work: stress, productivity, and the reconstruction of working life, New York: Basic Books.

APPENDIX F:

DEMOGRAPHICS

DEMOGRAPHICS

1. What is your gender?
2. What is your age in years?
3. What is your race/ethnicity? (Mark all that apply)
4. What is your current relationship status?
5. What is your current education level? (Please check the highest level completed)

APPENDIX G:

WORK DEMOGRAPHICS

WORK DEMOGRAPHICS

1. How many hours do you typically work per week?
2. What's your employment status? (full-time, part-time)
3. How many direct supervisors do you have?
4. What is your work industry?
5. What is your job level? (Senior, Junior, Associate)
6. How long have you been in your current position?

APPENDIX H:

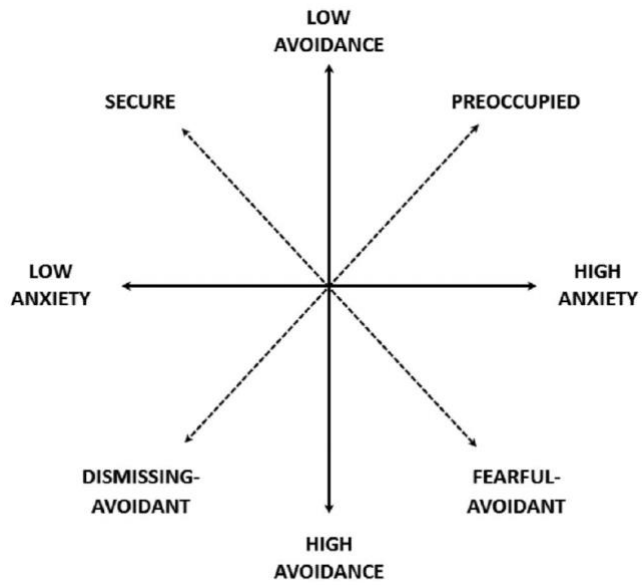2-FACTOR MODEL OF ATTACHMENT

Figure 1. Two-Factor Model of Attachment Anxiety and Avoidance

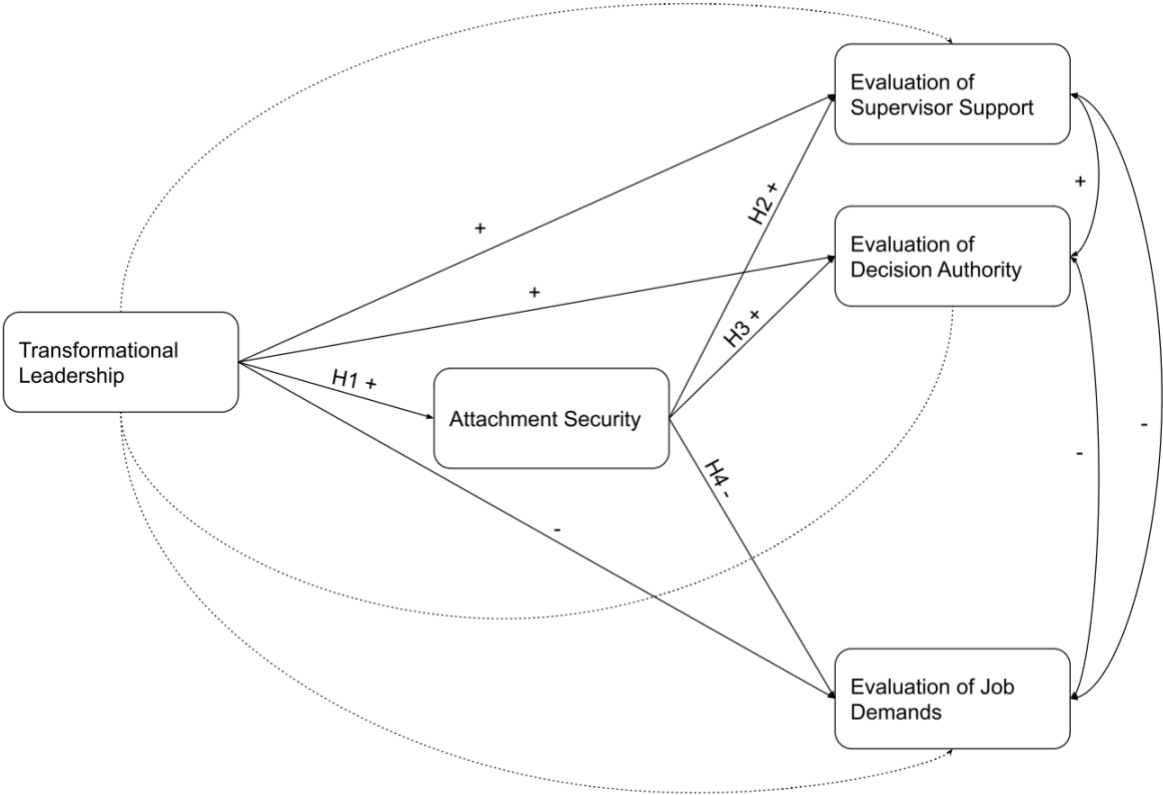APPENDIX I:

PROPOSED MODEL

PROPOSED MODEL

Figure 2. Proposed Model
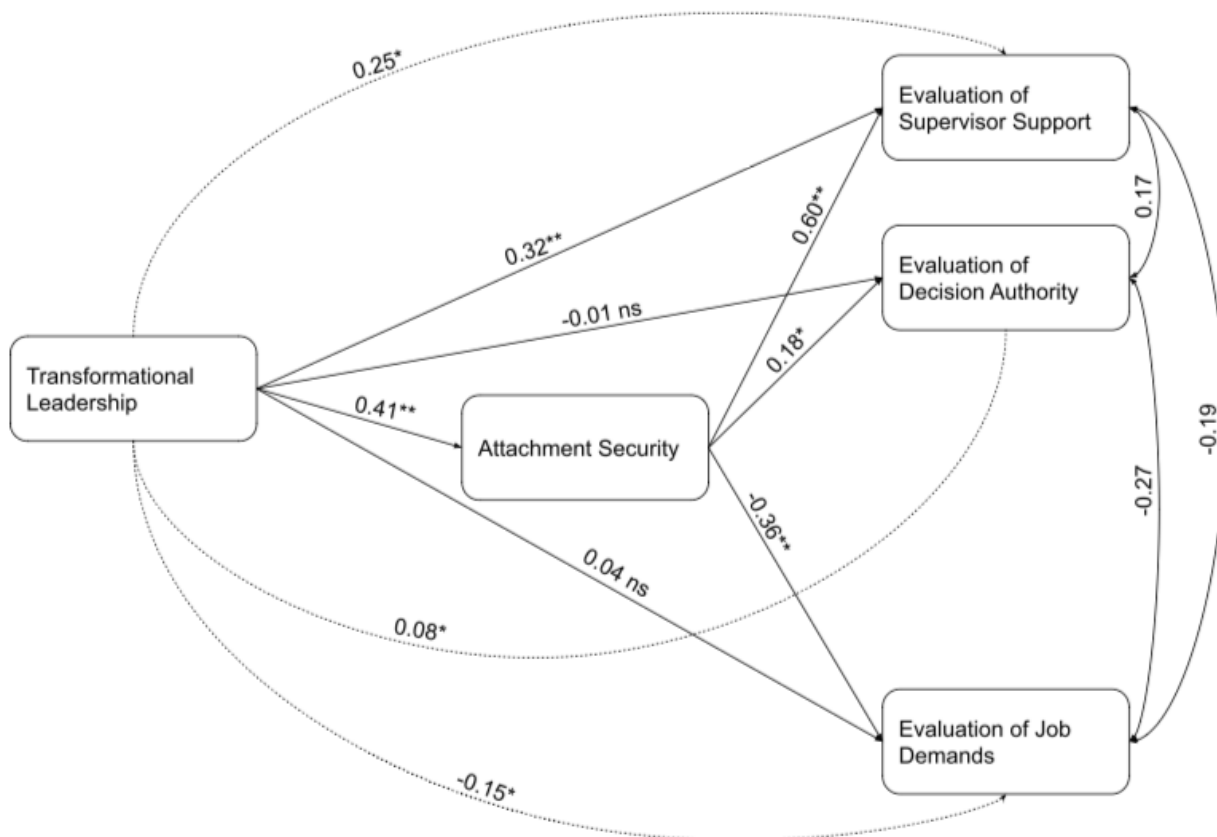
APPENDIX J:

COMPLETED MODEL

COMPLETED MODEL

Figure 3. Completed Model with Standardized Betas. *Note* ** indicates p < 0.001, and * indicates p < 0.05.

APPENDIX K:

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL

January 12, 2023

CSUSB INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD
Administrative/Exempt Review Determination
Status: Exempt
IRB-FY2023-171

Mark Agars
CSBS - Psychology
California State University, San Bernardino
5500 University Parkway
San Bernardino, California 92407

Dear Mark Agars :

Your application to use human subjects, titled "Employee Perceptions of
Stressors at Work: An Attachment Perspective" has been reviewed and
determined exempt by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) of California State
University, San Bernardino under the federal regulations at 45 CFR 46. As the
researcher under the exempt category, you do not have to follow the
requirements under 45 CFR 46 which requires annual renewal and
documentation of written informed consent which are not required for the exempt
category. However, exempt status still requires you to attain consent from
participants before conducting your research as needed.

Your IRB proposal is approved. This approval is valid from January 12, 2023.

This approval notice does not replace any departmental or additional campus
approvals which may be required including access to CSUSB campus facilities
and affiliate campuses. Investigators should consider the changing COVID-19
circumstances based on current CDC, California Department of Public Health,
and campus guidance and submit appropriate protocol modifications to the IRB
as needed. CSUSB campus and affiliate health screenings should be completed
for all campus human research related activities. Human research activities
conducted at off-campus sites should follow CDC, California Department of
Public Health, and campus guidance. See CSUSB's COVID-19 Prevention
Plan for more information regarding campus requirements.

Your responsibilities as the investigator include reporting to the IRB Committee
the following three requirements highlighted below. Please note, failure of the
investigator to notify the IRB of the below requirements may result in disciplinary

action.

- **Submit a protocol modification (change) form if any changes (no matter how minor) are proposed in your study for review and approval by the IRB before being implemented in your study to ensure the risk level to participants has not increased,**
- **Submit an unanticipated/adverse events form if harm is experienced by subjects during your research, and**
- **Submit a study closure through the Cayuse IRB submission system when your study has ended.**
- **Ensure your CITI human subjects training is kept up-to-date and current throughout the study for all investigators.**

The protocol modification, adverse/unanticipated event, and closure forms are located in the Cayuse Human Ethics (IRB) System. If you have any questions regarding the IRB decision, please contact Michael Gillespie, the Research Compliance Officer. Mr. Michael Gillespie can be reached by phone at (909) 537-7588, by fax at (909) 537-7028, or by email at mgillesp@csusb.edu. Please include your application approval identification number (listed at the top) in all correspondence.

If you have any questions regarding the IRB decision, please contact Dr. Jacob Jones, Assistant Professor of Psychology. Dr. Jones can be reached by email at Jacob.Jones@csusb.edu. Please include your application approval identification number (listed at the top) in all correspondence.

Best of luck with your research.

Sincerely,

King-To Yeung

King-To Yeung, Ph.D., IRB Chair
CSUSB Institutional Review Board

KY/MG

APPENDIX L:

TABLE 1. DEMOGRAPHIC TABLE

TABLE 1. DEMOGRAPHIC TABLE

Characteristics	N	%
Gender		
Female	111	41.1
Male	156	57.8
Non-Binary	3	1.1
Tenure(years)		
0 to 5	188	69.6
6 to 10	44	16.3
11 to 15	15	5.6
16 to 20	7	2.6
20+	15	5.6
Work Hours		
Less than 30 hours	2	0.80
30 to 39	30	11.10
40 to 49	200	74.10
50 to 59	32	11.90
60 to 69	5	1.90
70+	1	0.40
Work Experience (Years)		
0 to 5	46	17.00
6 to 10	60	22.20
11 to 15	51	18.80
16 to 20	33	12.20
21 to 25	21	7.80
26 to 29	10	3.80
30+	49	18.10
Race/Ethnicity		
Asian American	21	7.8
African American	17	6.3
Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander	2	0.7
Hispanic / Latino	23	8.5
White / Caucasian	187	69.3
Multiracial/ethnic	17	6.3
Other	3	1.1

Level of education

Highschool	27	10.0
Some College	40	14.8
Associates or Vocational Degree	20	7.4
Bachelor's Degree	117	43.3
Professional Degree (MBA, MA / MS)	57	21.1
Doctoral Level (Ph.D., Ed.D., MD, JD)	9	3.3

Marital Status

Single	95	35.2
Committed relationship, but not married	53	19.6
Separated	2	0.7
Married	100	37.0
Divorced	16	5.9
Widower	4	1.5

Job Type

Full-time	259	95.9
Part-time	6	2.2
Contractor	4	1.5

Table 1. Demographic Table

APPENDIX M:

TABLE 2. PARTIAL CORRELATION MATRIX OF STUDY VARIABLES

TABLE 2. PARTIAL CORRELATION MATRIX OF STUDY VARIABLES

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5
Attachment Security	8.13	2.67	(0.92)				
Supervisor Support	4.03	0.92	.789**	(0.86)			
Descision Authority	3.41	0.85	.194**	.243**	(0.78)		
Job Demands	7.74	0.72	-.372**	-.385**	-.320**	(0.86)	
Transformational Leadership	3.60	0.99	.601**	.661**	0.109	-.197**	(0.90)

Note: *p <0.01 **P<0.001, N = 269; Cronbach's Alpha included

Table 2. Partial Correlation Matrix of Study Variables

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