I Feel so Attached: Influence of Attachment Orientations on Leader Perception, Transference and Prototypicality

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

In this dissertation, I define leadership from a follower-centric point of view. I take this view since the previous literature has argued that leadership is created by both leaders and followers (Shamir, 2007) alike; leaders and followers constantly and mutually influence each other's perceptions, emotions and behavior (Humphrey, 2002; Pirola-Merlo, Härtel, Mann, & Hirst, 2002). For example, it is common that during interactions certain individuals are viewed as more leader-like than others. Those leadership impressions depend on leaders' traits and abilities (Cavazotte, Moreno, & Hickmann, 2012; Rubin, Munz, & Bommer, 2005), but are also influenced by followers' perceptions and expectations of an ideal leader (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004; Lord, de Vader, & Alliger, 1986; Offermann, Kennedy, & Wirtz, 1994). Any theoretical model should take into account rater perceptions as well (Scullen, Mount, & Goff, 2000). Building on previous research (Dasborough & Ashkanasy, 2002; Epitropaki & Martin, 2005), I argue and examine leadership impressions through a follower-centric attachment theory perspective.

In the first chapter, I discuss attachment orientations as possible antecedents for leader preferences. All individuals share a mental prototype or representation of what a good leader should look and act like (Cavazotte, et al., 2012; Rubin, et al., 2005). These mental representations are important, as they help determine whether the leader-folloIr influence process is successful (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004; Lord, et al., 1986; Offermann, et al., 1994). To understand individual variations within cultures, I focus on relational individual characteristics as possible antecedents of leader preferences. I focus in particular on the degree of leader autonomy, i.e. to which degree individuals with different attachment orientations differ in preferring an autonomous and self-reliant leader as one of several attributes of the ideal leader prototype (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004). In Study 1 (n = 300) I find that highly avoidant attached individuals prefer an autonomous leadership style

(H1; (b = -.25, p < .05), while individuals who score high on anxious attachment prefer a non-autonomous leadership style (H2). Examining these findings further, I conduct an experimental study (Study 2; n = 401) using descriptions of highly autonomous versus non-autonomous leaders. I find that individuals with an anxious attachment orientation evaluate non-autonomous leaders higher on perceived leader competence than autonomous leaders. Individuals who score high on avoidance attachment are more likely to rate autonomous leaders as more competent than individuals who score low on avoidance attachment (b = .24, p < .01). The main contribution of this paper to the implicit and socio-cognitive leadership literature is that attachment orientations serve as important predictors of individuals' preference for certain leader attributes.

In the second chapter, I examine possible antecedents of leader transference, the transference of behavioural expectations from one leader to another, using an experimental design (Pre-test, n = 211; Study 1, n = 95). When activated by a high degree of perceived similarity, cognitive representations of pervious leaders can be triggered when encountering a new leader, thus influencing evaluations and behavioural expectations of those new leaders. The findings from our research suggest that attachment orientations are potent antecedents to socio-cognitive processes related to the transfer of expectations from a previous leader to a new one. Individuals scoring higher on anxious attachment are more likely to hold high just treatment expectations of new, similar leaders (b = .23, p < .05), i.e. leaders similar to their previous leaders. Conversely, avoidant persons held low just treatment expectations of new similar leaders and perceived new similar leaders as less effective (b = -.99, p < .05). In addition, more general and relationship-specific attachment working models played a role depending on whether it predicted broader cognitive concepts such as perceived leader effectiveness (global attachment) or more episodic-related constructs such as evaluations of just treatment (relationship specific avoidance attachment). Third, the cognitive transference

effects observed were moderated by culture (Study 2, n = 341): avoidant attached individuals in the similar leader condition in collectivist cultures show negative or low just treatment expectations of their new leader while still hung up on their previous relationship (Greek sample: b = -.82, p < .05; Indian sample: b = -.94, p < .05) and welcome a new leader with positive behavioural expectations of just treatment. These observations are in line with a dynamic view of adult attachment organization (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007) and with broader models of situated social cognition (e.g. Smith & Semin, 2007) applied to implicit leadership theories. Finally, I successfully replicate the results by Ritter and Lord (2007), using a modified methodology, enabling future computerized studies.

Thirdly, in the final chapter I examine leader prototypicality using relational individual characteristics, namely followers' attachment styles (n = 200) using a field setting experiment. If leadership is defined as a relationship between leaders and their followers, studies on this topic should also be examining relational follower characteristics and specifically relationship quality more closely. In a sample of informal student teams, I propose and find that individuals scoring high on anxious attachment are less likely to be seen as leaders by other team members, although these results were insignificant when covariates such as personality and self-esteem were introduced. Further, I find no support that securely attached individuals are likely to emerge as team leaders given the provided group exercise. Therefore, these findings do not confirm previous work on secure attachment and leader likeliness in teams (Berson, Dan, & Yammarino, 2006). However, notably, individuals who score high on avoidance attachment were likely to be perceived as most leader prototypical (b = .63, p = .02). I explain these findings with the nature of the work task, since context matters highly in real life individual interactions. In addition, this phenomenon is discussed as an evolutionary advantage for individuals with a dominantly avoidant attachment orientation. Attachment orientations have

important implications in practical high-stakes applications such as organizational teamwork, which are highlighted and discussed throughout this dissertation.

THESIS INTRODUCTION

"Leadership is a relationship."

In this dissertation, I define leadership from a follower-centric point of view. Leadership is created by both leaders and followers (Shamir, 2007), since leaders and followers constantly mutually influence each other's perceptions, emotions and behavior (Humphrey, 2002; Pirola-Merlo, et al., 2002). It is common that during interactions certain individuals are viewed as more leader-like than others. Leadership impressions depend on leaders' traits and abilities (Cavazotte, et al., 2012; Rubin, et al., 2005). However, leadership impressions are also influenced by followers' perceptions and expectations of an ideal leader (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004; Lord, et al., 1986; Offermann, et al., 1994). Any theoretical model should take into account rater perceptions as well (Scullen, et al., 2000). Building on previous research (Dasborough & Ashkanasy, 2002; Epitropaki & Martin, 2005), I argue and examine leadership through a relationship theory perspective.

One of the most pertinent theories to examine the perception of leadership from a followers' point of view is implicit leadership theory (ILT); and it has taught us much in regarding how the perception of leaders and oftentimes ideal leaders can matter beyond leaders' actual abilities or personalities. This dissertation in turn focuses more on the possible antecedents of leadership perception, namely attachment orientations or styles (Bowlby, 1969, 1973, 1980). Although attachment orientations have only recently entered the work and organizational context (Geller & Bamberger, 2009; Harms, 2011; Kafetsios, Athanasiadou, & Dimou, 2014; Richards & Schat, 2011; Wu & Parker, 2014), I took upon the task to drive this literature further by examining the overarching role that a relationship construct such as attachment can play in the leader-follower relationship context. By examining attachment theory in the context of leadership perception, I also answer calls for research on this topic

(Epitropaki, Sy, Martin, Tram-Quon, & Topakas, 2013; Junker & van Dick, 2014; Shondrick, Dinh, & Lord, 2010).

In order to understand the influence of attachment theory and orientations, it is important to understand the formation of self, and how individuals' view of self is connected to their view of others.

The Self and the Perception of Leaders Relative to Self

The way we view others is linked to how we view ourselves, i.e. individuals' self-view is likely also reflected in their image of an ideal leader (Epitropaki, et al., 2013; Felfe & Heinitz, 2010; Keller, 1999). Similarly, interpersonal attraction suggests that individuals tend to prefer to socialize and affiliate with similar like-minded others (Reis, Collins, & Berscheid, 2000). For example, women more likely prefer leaders who are understanding, sincere, honest and less domineering or manipulative, more so than men (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004). Likewise individuals prefer others who score similarly on personality dimensions, i.e. individuals who score high on openness to experience or agreeableness also likely favour leaders who exhibit a high degree of sensitivity and compassion (Keller, 1999; Shondrick, et al., 2010). But not just intrapersonal factors change our perceptions and likeness of others. Epitropaki and Martin (2004, 2005) found that managerial employees evaluate attributes such as dynamic, energetic and strong higher than non-managerial employees. Manufacturing employees evaluated leader attributes including domineering, pushy, and manipulative higher, sensitive, and helpful lower than did service employees, respectively. In short, several factors can shape how individuals perceive the world and others around them. Follower-centric leadership research largely has overlooked followers' self-perceptions. A notable exception is van Quaquebeke, van Knippenberg, and Brodbeck (2011) who found consistent evidence that followers' self-conceptions, i.e. mental representation of their understanding and evaluation of themselves, predict perceptions of their leaders against an ideal leader prototype. This phenomenon occurs

because asking participants to evaluate others activates self-perceptions of that particular domain (Dunning & Cohen, 1992; Dunning & Hayes, 1996). When this occurs, not only does subordinates' self-image impact their evaluation of leaders, but it makes followers view themselves as followers and possible leaders alike (van Quaquebeke, van Knippenberg, & Eckloff, 2011). Hence, how individuals view and evaluate themselves relative to others might be more important than self-perception alone.

Further, the self is partially shaped by previous social interactions, which affect individuals' view of self and in turn their view of others (Shondrick, et al., 2010). With respect to leadership, early social interactions provide individuals a foundation on which they build their ideal leader prototype (Lord, Foti, & De Vader, 1984; Lord, Foti, & Phillips, 1982; Lord & Maher, 1991). Certain leader characteristics and cognitions likely leave impression footprints on the follower, for good or for bad. From this early moment on each follower forms their own conceptualization of an ideal leader (Shondrick, et al., 2010). In encounters with new leaders, individuals then make use of their already constructed leader prototype, benchmarking their prototype of an ideal leader to the person in front of them. In the case of several encounters with a bad leader, followers are likely to increase their range of acceptance (Epitropaki, et al., 2013) of what constitutes an ideal leader, i.e. they are likely to adjust their leader prototype to allow for greater flexibility to what constitutes a good leader. Since individuals' ideal leader prototype is based on previous encounters with authoritarian figures (together with other sources such as e.g. the media, Ritter & Lord, 2007), an overlap between typical and ideal images of a leader is likely (van Quaquebeke, van Knippenberg, & Eckloff, 2011).

One example of previous relations with a lasting impact on an individual's view of self and others are parental interactions. Parents, after all, oftentimes serve as the first authoritarian figure in peoples' lives and leave a lasting impact on a child's development and individuals' view of self and others (Popper, Mayseless, & Castelnovo, 2000). Keller (1999) asked

participants to what degree they associate leader characteristics (Offermann, et al., 1994) to their image of an ideal leader and to evaluate both their parents on the same leader characteristics. Keller (1999) found participants' "ideal leader images to be mirrored descriptions of perceived parental traits" (p. 589). A positive association was found for most leader characteristics (except sensitivity), even for attributes such as tyranny. Indeed, the nature of characteristics seems to matter little. As long as characteristics are perceived to be representative in participants' role models, participants will endorse the same traits in their image of an ideal leader, be it tyranny, inspiration or honesty (Keller, 1999). This is due to the internalization process in which individuals learn to associate primary caregiver characteristics and qualities with their ideal leader prototype. According to Keller (2003), these results suggest that "parents play a role in shaping leadership expectations" (p. 143). Keller explained her results using the lens of attachment theory, as attachment theory provides a framework to understand the linkages between individuals' perceptions of others and themselves as well as findings on parental traits with regard to ILTs (Hansbrough, 2012; Keller, 1999, 2003).

Attachment Theory and Orientations

Attachment theory (Bowlby (1973, 1980) is built on our experiences with primary attachment figures in our lives. These interactions and observed reactions with others shape our mental representations i.e. working models of the self and others (see e.g. (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Collins, 1996; Collins & Feeney, 2004; Collins & Read, 1994; Fraley & Shaver, 2000). The availability and responsiveness of our attachment figures, particularly in times of need, creates a specific dominant attachment pattern, or working model, that in turn influences affect, cognition and behaviour with others in all our relationships throughout life (Collins, Guichard, Ford, & Feeney, 2004; Mikulincer, Shaver, & Pereg, 2003). Working models include specific memories of interactions, beliefs and attitudes about our attachment figures that remain stable over time (Delius, Bovenschen, & Spangler, 2008). They are

designed to shield us from unpleasant experiences with others, by influencing how we process social and emotional information (Dykas & Cassidy, 2011), subsequently influencing our cognitive capacity and behaviour in social relationships (Mikulincer, Gillath, & Shaver, 2002).

In order to cope with the reactions of others, attachment theory proposed two types of strategies that are activated in times of crises, namely deactivation and hyperactivation (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007). Deactivation leads individuals to turn away from conflict or a specific person and to try to avoid it altogether, hence shielding them from emotional conflict. A person with a deactivation working model either suppresses certain social information around them, or is not consciously aware of such information to begin with (Dykas & Cassidy, 2011). Limited social processing of emotional and environmental clues protects these individuals from increased psychological distress and pain. Further, as individuals try to avoid the true source of distress (Bowlby, 1980), they subconsciously turn their attention to the false cause of the situation, either someone else (avoidance attachment) or even themselves (anxious attachment). These working models, once developed, emerge as a dominant attachment orientation in all individuals and guide affect, behaviour and cognition in social situations. In the past, adult attachment has been measured as a four category model before (Bartholomew, & Horowitz, 1991). However, recent studies (Fraley, Hudson, Heffernan, & Segal, 2015; Richards & Schat, 2011) have consistently conceptualized and operationalized attachment on two insecure attachment dimensions, namely anxious and avoidance attachment. High scores on both attachment dimension corresponds to fearful attachment, while low scores on both dimensions correspond to secure attachment. Insecure attached individuals view their social environment more negatively and are more attentive to emotional and social cues in negative relationships than their secure counterparts (Collins & Feeney, 2004).

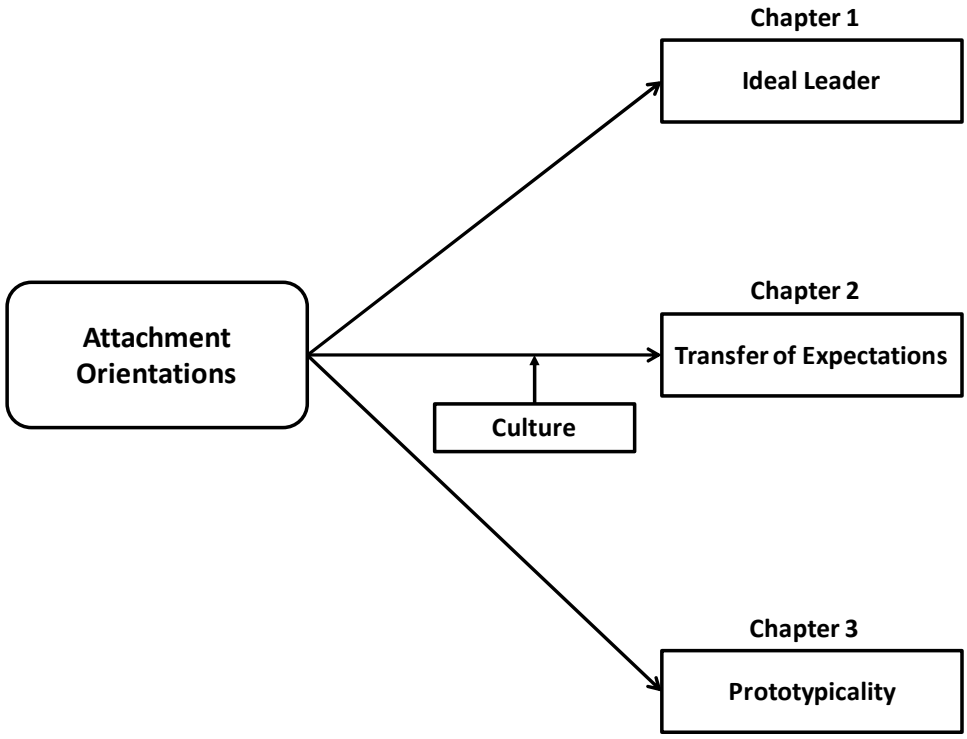
Although both avoidance and anxious attachment are considered insecure attachment, there are several important differences in the (re)action of individuals scoring high on either

dimension. Avoidant attached individuals prefer psychological autonomy, independence and sufficient emotional distance from others, limiting and controlling their care-giving behaviour, intimacy and interdependence (Geller & Bamberger, 2009). In contrast, individuals who score high on anxious attachment, desire psychological intimacy and sufficient care and support from their partners. These desires, in turn, instil a fear of abandonment that drives these individuals to remain close to attachment figure and constantly worry about maintaining emotional closeness to others.

In my dissertation I discuss the predictive role that attachment orientations play in the preference for a specific leadership style (House, et al., 2004), the transfer of behavioural expectations from one leader to another (Ritter & Lord, 2007) and leader emergence (Berson, et al., 2006). Each chapter of my dissertation discusses each of the topics outlined above.

THESIS OVERVIEW

Firstly (Chapter 1), I focus and empirically examine the link between ILTs as well as leader preference and attachment orientations, i.e. the cognitive perception of leadership. Secondly (Chapter 2), I examine the transfer of behavioural expectations from one leader to another. Finally, (in Chapter 3), I examine the behavioural impact of attachment orientations on leader prototypicality in teams.



Chapter 1

Attachment Styles predict Preference for Autonomous Leaders

ILT is built on a model of limited-capacity or cognitive simplification. It is assumed that it is cognitively exhausting, if not impossible, for perceivers to process all incoming information at all times. This process also entails that observers consider not only actual traits but also "ideal" traits, which they project onto and subsequently observe in others. In the case of leadership, this leadership categorization process activates automatically and without effort.

Individuals do so in order to infer and make sense of future leader behavior (Medvedeff & Lord, 2007). This categorization of others is by no means optimal, but provides the perceiver with a rather simple, quick and satisfactory categorization of others (Rosch & Lloyd, 1978). ILTs are formed early on in life and influenced by previous interactions with leaders and other role models (Shondrick, et al., 2010). These expectations in turn are influenced by repeated social interactions with previous leaders (Ritter & Lord, 2007) and other known authority figures, such as parents (Keller, 2003).

In order for leaders to be impactful and truly able to lead their teams, it is important that there is a match between leaders' characteristics and their followers' leader prototype (Lord, Brown, Harvey, & Hall, 2001). The fit, or benchmark, between potential leaders and inert ideal leader prototypes, subsequently guides individuals in their evaluation and behavior with superiors. This means that the ideal leader prototype, together with associated memories, expectations, and embodied reactions (Shondrick, et al., 2010), will largely determine followers' behavior and awarded discretion toward their leader. A good match between leader attributes and leader prototype attributes will allow followers: a) to trust in a leader's leadership qualities and potential and b) be open to leaders' influence, i.e. they are willing to follow and respond favorably to a leader's behavior (Epitropaki & Martin, 2005; Lord & Maher, 1991; Medvedeff & Lord, 2007; Shamir, 2007). A mismatch between actual leaders' attributes and individuals' mental leader prototype likely will result in followers' dissatisfaction with their leader and even organizational turnover (Engle & Lord, 1997; Hunt, Boal, & Sorenson, 1990).

Since ILTs are processed holistically, followers likely project prototypical leadership traits onto their current leader, even if those traits are not actually demonstrated (Hansbrough, 2012; Lord, et al., 1984). Previous literature on ILTs acknowledges that leadership sense-making is guided by the self (Hall & Lord, 1995) and that leadership prototypes are formed quite early on (Antonakis & Dalgas, 2009) and are influenced by early childhood experiences

(Hall & Lord, 1995; Hunt, et al., 1990; Keller, 1999). However, if ILTs are based on early socialization experiences, it follows that mental schemas of self (Lord, et al., 2001) or self-perceptions (van Quaquebeke, van Knippenberg, & Eckloff, 2011), are heavily influenced by the very socialization experiences which have influenced individuals' ILTs. This is particularly the case for the most influential prototype individuals construct – the ideal leader prototype. The ideal leader prototype most directly influence subordinates' responses since the ideal leader not only exhibits certain leadership attributes that reassure present leadership qualities, but also attributes that may help make and solve future decisions and problems, respectively (van Quaquebeke, van Knippenberg, & Brodbeck, 2011). In short, individuals most likely prefer a leader who is not only supportive and reassuring, but also someone who can be trusted, capable and dependable in the future.

In short, to understand how individuals view others, a theoretical framework is needed which includes both views of self and views of others. Earlier research conducted by Hall and Lord (1995) already stated that the self as an interpretive structure is critical to guiding leadership sense-making. The interactional bases of attachment orientations between views of self and others make attachment theory well-suited as it combines views of self and views of others into one framework. Just like ILTs, designed to categorize and differentiate between leaders and non-leaders on the basis of actual interactions, attachment to others also is shaped through accurate accounts of experiences with others (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2010). Therefore, in the first part of this thesis, I argue that attachment styles can help management scholars in understanding the impact and formation of self-view and others-view on perception and preference of leadership.

Chapter 2

Attachment orientations guide the transfer of leader judgments:

Culture Matters

In encounters with new leaders, individuals oftentimes make use of already existing previous leader-follower relationships, comparing the image of a previous leader to the person in front of them. We know that the perception and evaluation of new interaction partners can heavily depend on interactions with previous interaction partners in general (e.g. Andersen & Baum, 1994; Andersen & Cole, 1990) as well as leaders (Ritter & Lord, 2007). Therefore, people carry forward relationship patterns and behavioural expectations from one relationship to the next, and often unintentionally so (Andersen & Baum, 1994). When activated by a high degree of perceived similarity, mental representations of previous others can unconsciously skew perceptions of new individuals significantly (Andersen, Glassman, Chen, & Cole, 1995; Andersen, Reznik, & Manzella, 1996; Brumbaugh & Fraley, 2006; Chen, Andersen, & Hinkley, 1999).

For example, if a certain previous leader image is triggered by the new leader, behavioural expectations of the new leader will depend heavily on followers' previous leader-follower relationship. If the previous relationship to their previous leader was positive, followers are likely to expect similar behaviour, such as fair treatment, from their new leader. Similarly, if followers perceived their previous leader as effective, they are likely to transfer these behaviour patterns to a similar, new leader. Likewise, if the previous leader-follower relationship was experienced as negative, individuals are likely to hold unfair treatment expectations of their next leader (Ritter & Lord, 2007).

Although all individuals are likely to engage in this transference process, as Ritter and Lord (2007) point out, we know very little about which factors precede this process.

Transference is the influence of past relationship patterns onto the "emotional, motivational and behavioural reactions to strangers" (Andersen & Glassman, 1996). We know that individuals develop multiple relationships over the course of their lives, with different partners with various personalities and social roles (Brumbaugh & Fraley, 2007), yet these relationships are experienced in similar ways (Robins, Caspi, & Moffitt, 2002). This means that working models, i.e. mental representations of previously encountered important others, are transferred over time and across relationships (Brumbaugh & Fraley, 2007). Individuals automatically engage in this process, as their mental representations of others are easily accessible, stable, and powerful enough to influence individuals' perceptions of future others (Andersen & Chen, 2002; Andersen, et al., 1995; Hinkley & Andersen, 1996).

What follows in the second part of this dissertation is an analysis of key relationship-related antecedents of this transfer process, for which relationship theories are pertinent (Thomas, Martin, Epitropaki, Guillaume, & Lee, 2013). Indeed, research on antecedents to the transfer of leadership expectation is very limited. One major example of an individual differences moderator can be found in previous relationships, i.e. a previous interaction partner acts as a reference point, explored by attachment theory.

Attachment theory also assumes that working models are transferred from one person to another (Collins, et al., 2004; Simpson, Rholes, & Winterheld, 2009). As a key relationship theory (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007), attachment theory maintains that individuals are continuously and coherently recreating past relationship patterns in new relationships, as long as mental representations of a past relationship are triggered by an ongoing relational event or even by their new relationship partners themselves (Collins & Read, 1994). Therefore, it seems that individuals' working models of others, i.e. their attachment orientations, can help explain why some individuals are more likely to transfer previous relationship patterns and expectations to relationships with new interaction partners (Brumbaugh & Fraley, 2006, 2007).

Research that has addressed possible antecedents, has found that relationship-specific attachment orientations are particularly good predictors of the transfer of behaviour between similarly perceived interaction partners (Brumbaugh & Fraley, 2006, 2007). I explore this phenomenon more closely in the second part of my dissertation. In short, this chapter provides the following main contributions:

Firstly, I hypothesize that attachment orientations predict the transference of treatment expectations from a current leader onto a similar, fictional leader, i.e., within a process of leader transference. Secondly, I explain and empirically test theoretical differences between global attachment and relationship-specific attachment orientations regarding leadership outcomes. These outcomes include expectations of leadership effectiveness, just treatment, and positive and negative affect. Thirdly, we observe the possible moderation effect of culture and therefore test our model in three distinct cultures that differ in central cultural dimensions of individualism-collectivism and hierarchy distance: Greece, India and the United States. Finally, I design and present a slightly modified experimental design based on the original transference research by Andersen and Baum (1994) and Ritter and Lord (2007).

Chapter 3

Influence of Attachment Orientations on Leader Prototypicality

In the third part of my dissertation as well as the additional paper (Chapter 4, Appendix B) I discuss the potential influence of attachment orientations on leader prototypicality. Essentially, this chapter examines to some extent what makes some individuals appear more leader-like, i.e. more leader prototypical than others. This chapter focuses more on the behavioural consequences of attachment orientations, rather than just the cognitive (Paper 1) or affective (Paper 2) processes.

If one were to more specifically define leadership and how best to analyse it, many would say leadership is a relationship between leader and follower (Day, Harrison, & Halpin, 2009). Hence, individuals are not an empty vessel, merely influenced by their leaders' behaviour and expressed emotions. Rather, during social interactions there is a mutual influence, on the perceptual, emotional and behavioural level between both interaction partners (Humphrey, 2002; Pirola-Merlo, et al., 2002), i.e. followers influence leaders as well. In line with spirit of this dissertation, and certainly with the other two chapters, follower characteristics ought to be considered as critical elements in the evaluation of leaders. The literature already has shown that e.g., followers' personality traits (Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002) influence leader perception as well as leader preference (Emery, Calvard, & Pierce, 2013).

However, one crucial element in previous attempts to define leadership as a leader-follower relationship is relationship quality. And here I argue that past efforts focusing purely on relationship quality, as is the case of LMX (Graen & Uhl-Biel, 1995; Uhl-Bien, Graen, & Scandura, 2000), simply do not suffice (see Appendix B). If leadership truly is defined as a relationship between leaders and their followers, studies on this topic should also be examining relational characteristics of followers. For example Harms (2011) has argued repeatedly

(Harms & Spain, 2014) that attachment orientations are established antecedents of "interpersonal relationship quality and psychological well-being" (p. 285). It is likely that just as outside of work individuals seek high quality relationship with others, relationships which foster and increases individuals' well-being, they likely do so regarding their leaders at work as well. We therefore take this research further by suggesting attachment orientations as possible predictors of leader prototypicality and preference.

The outlined hypotheses in Chapter 3 are based on the foundations of attachment theory, namely that from an early age individuals learn to react to others' dependability and approachability, i.e. whether others are available and responsive to one's needs, particular in times of distress (Thompson, 2006, 2008). Individual behaviour therefore is partially a result of others' behaviour toward one's needs and wants (Mikulincer, Shaver, Bar-On, & Ein-Dor, 2010). Reactions to relational stimuli hence shape whether individuals view themselves as valued and worthy of affection by others or unworthy of recognition and affection, i.e. a secure view of self or an insecure view of self, respectively (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2010). In this chapter, I hypothesize that regarding leader preference in teams, findings ought to differ based on individuals' orientations toward others.

Some previous results (De Sanctis & Karantzas, 2008) show that followers with securely attached leaders perceived their leaders as more effective than did followers of insecurely attached leaders. Finally, Berson, et al. (2006) found that securely attached individuals were more likely to be perceived and preferred as leaders. However, in this chapter we find that regarding avoidance attachment, findings are not as previously stipulated. In short, in the administered group exercise the avoidance attachment orientation related positively to leader prototypicality. This finding, although initially surprising, is in line with the theoretical underpinnings of attachment theory (Ein-Dor, 2014; Ein-Dor, Mikulincer, Doron, & Shaver, 2010). I discuss these findings and their implications within the attachment theory framework.

CHAPTER 1

Attachment Orientations predict Preference for Autonomous Leaders

Abstract

In this chapter, we argue and show that attachment orientations influence individuals' preferences for specific ideal leader attributes. We focus in particular on the degree of leader autonomy, i.e. to which degree individuals with different attachment orientations differ in preferring an autonomous and self-reliant leader. We hypothesize that highly avoidant attached individuals prefer a highly autonomous leadership style (H1), while individuals who score high on anxious attachment prefer a low-autonomous leadership style (H2). Across two studies. In Study 1 we find a negative relationship between anxious attachment and autonomous leadership, providing support for H1. Examining these findings further, we conduct an experimental study (Study 2) using descriptions of highly autonomous versus non-autonomous leaders. We find that anxious attachment negatively relates to autonomous leadership, whereas individuals with an anxious attachment orientation evaluate non-autonomous leaders higher on perceived leader competence than autonomous leaders. Therefore, individuals who score high on avoidance attachment are more likely to rate autonomous leaders as more competent than individuals who score low on avoidance attachment. In both studies, results remained unchanged after introducing control variables such as the Big 5 personality dimensions as well as age and gender. Attachment orientations therefore serve as important predictors of individuals' preference for certain leader attributes, even according for personality dimensions or demographics. We argue for an increased research focus on attachment styles as individual differences in the study and interpretation of leadership perception.

Keywords: leadership, attachment theory, personality, individual differences, ILT

Introduction

What does an ideal leader look like to you? All individuals share a mental prototype or representation of what a good leader should look and act like (Cavazotte, et al., 2012; Rubin, et al., 2005). These mental representations are important, as they help determine whether the leader-follower influence process is successful (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004; Lord, et al., 1986; Offermann, et al., 1994). Further, these leader prototypes can vary between contexts, such as cultures, industries or domains (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004). However, we know much less about within-culture variations of followers' leader preferences and possible antecedents within cultures. In order to understand these variations better, in this manuscript, we examine the influence of relational characteristics, namely attachment orientations (Davidovitz, Mikulincer, Shaver, Izsak, & Popper, 2007), as possible antecedents of followers' leader preferences. In particular, we discuss the preference for autonomous leaders as one of several attributes of the ideal leader prototype (House, et al., 2004)

The phenomenon of leadership attribution and perception has been addressed by implicit leadership theory (ILT; Lord, et al., 1984). ILTs are formed early on in life and influenced by previous interactions with leaders and other role models (Shondrick, et al., 2010). These expectations in turn are influenced by repeated social interactions and formed affective bonds with previous leaders and other known authority figures, e.g. parents (Keller, 2003; Popper, et al., 2000). These affective bonds in turn evoke underlying attachment dynamics, which can alter individuals' perceptions and evaluations of others, in particular leaders (Shondrick, et al., 2010). Attachment orientations are formed through a similar process and shaped by early socialization experience with authority figures, such as parents (Keller, 2003; Keller & Cacioppe, 2001). Hence, both these processes have to do with expectations.

We propose that certain individuals prefer leaders who exhibit a high degree of independence from superiors and a high degree of social distance from their subordinates,

depending on their dominant attachment orientations. By examining attachment theory in the context of leadership perception, this paper also answers calls for research on this particular topic (Epitropaki, et al., 2013; Junker & van Dick, 2014; Shondrick, et al., 2010). Across two studies, we argue that individual attachment orientations determine to what degree different leader characteristics are pertinent to an individual's ideal leader prototype.

In Study 1, we examine whether attachment orientations influence individuals' ideal leader, particularly we focus on the dimension autonomy. In Study 2, using an experimental design we examine whether attachment orientations serve as a predictor and guide preferences for an autonomous leadership style. In sum, this paper considers attachment theory as a theoretical framework to help explain how perceptions of others, a product of past experiences and dispositional factors captured in attachment styles and personality, relates to the perception and preference for leader attributes.

Implicit Leadership Theory and Traits

ILTs are cognitive schemas used by individuals to make inferences about leadership in others based on certain characteristics or traits (Dinh & Lord, 2012; Lord, et al., 1986; Shondrick, et al., 2010), i.e. perceived leader traits determine whether authority figures indeed are categorized and treated as leaders (Shondrick, et al., 2010). It is assumed that it is cognitively exhausting, if not impossible, for perceivers to process all incoming information at all times. Therefore, individuals engage in cognitive simplification, a so called cognitive categorization process. During this process, incoming information is matched with already established abstract cognitive structures also known as implicit leader theory prototypes (ILTs). Put differently, ILTs are mental constructions through which individuals subjectively observe reality and others around us (Epitropaki, et al., 2013). This categorization process carries major organizational consequences. Scullen, et al. (2000) observed that followers' ILTs help explain 62% of the variation in leaders' appraisals of employee performance.

Repeated exposure to past leaders or other important authority figures, such as parents, leads to the repeated activation of the same perception and behaviour over the course of time (Keller, 2003). Over time a perceived attribute is stored in memory and becomes part of an individual's constructed idea leader prototype (Foti & Lord, 1987; Kenney, Blascovich, & Shaver, 1994). For example, a leader who is consistently kind, compassionate and dependable most likely will be assigned the prototypical trait "sensitive" and automatically compared against followers' stored ideal leader prototype. Others, who seem to fit this attribute description, or remind followers of previous sensitive leaders, will be perceived as "sensitive", i.e., a match between followers' ideal leader prototype and the other person is established. The follower can now consider the other person a leader and is open to follow that leader. It is important to keep in mind that this can also apply to anti-prototypical traits, such as, e.g. dominance, which some followers might prefer.

In this way, individuals also infer and make sense of future leader behaviour (Medvedeff & Lord, 2007). In short, individuals most likely prefer a leader who is not only supportive and reassuring, but also someone who is capable and dependable in the future. This is because the ideal leader prototype, together with associated memories, expectations, and embodied reactions (Shondrick, et al., 2010) will largely determine followers' behaviour and awarded discretion toward their leader.

Dynamic Views on Leadership Categorization

Recent literature also has begun to recognize and address a more dynamic and connectionist approach to leader-follower perceptions and leadership categorization as a whole (Foti, Hansbrough, Epitropaki, Coyle, 2017; Hanges, Lord & Dickson, 2000; Lord & Shondrick, 2011). This approach allows for the existence of dynamically changing models of ILTs on multiple levels of analysis (Foti et al., 2017). ILTs strongly depend on not only leader characteristics, but also followers' characteristics, as well as context. These cognitive structures

or relational scripts "represent regularities in patterns of interpersonal relatedness and consist of expected contingences of how the (significant) other will react in a specific social situation" (Foti et al., 2017). Relational scripts are composed of a self-schema, a schema about the other person, as well as an interpersonal script in relation to others. Therefore, the self-schema is formed by interactions with others, and adapted over time, just as interpersonal scripts are strongly influenced by individuals' self-schema and also are determined over time. Considering the dynamic structure of these three elements further leads to some a much needed re-examination of leader prototypes (Foti et al., 2017; Tsai, Disone, Wang, Spain, Yammarino and Cheng, 2017). If ILTs can be activated and influenced by leader characteristics but also context, such as followers' characteristics (Hansborough, 2012) or even culture and context (Tsai, Disone, Wang, Spain, Yammarino and Cheng, 2017) a dynamic framework should be used. Relational changes should be taken into account when it comes to the impact of followers' dispositions regarding individuals' dispositional information processing of leaders' traits and cues (Lord, Hannah, & Jennings, 2011). In this chapter, we argue that attachment theory provides the necessary theoretical tools to understand these linkages, their development over time as well as findings on the origins of ILTs (Hansbrough, 2012; Keller, 1999, 2003).

Attachment and Leadership Perception

Attachment theory recognizes and is impacted by early socialization experiences (Cassidy & Shaver, 2008). Although individuals naturally have numerous relationships throughout life, and can exhibit different affective bonds with each relationship partner, attachment is indeed driven, in part, "by a stable, latent factor – sometimes referred to as a prototype" (Fraley, Vicary, Brumbaugh, & Roisman, 2011). Attachment orientations are constructed over time and are composed of the dimensions anxious and avoidance attachment.

With the aggregation of numerous relationships, memories of attachment to others across more and more relationships begin to form certain impressions and expectations of

others in particular roles, such as e.g. leaders (Collins & Read, 1990; Popper & Amit, 2009). This impression in turn becomes part of followers' personality and influences individuals' sense-making of future relationships and further influences relationship-related information processing in a systematic manner (Bowlby, 1980; Collins & Feeney, 2004). Therefore, new experiences are understood by automatically considering, or comparing them with similar, previous experiences stored in individuals' memory.

Although individuals' experiences across relationships can vary vastly, there are many values and attributes, which translate well across relationships. These include comfort, support, security and dependability. Leader-follower relationships are quite similar in this aspect, as leaders do bear some resemblance with security-promoting attachment figures (Game, 2011). Leaders oftentimes they are considered to be dependable, sensitive and responsive to followers' needs (Popper & Amit, 2009). Some expect leaders to guide, give advice and emotionally support followers, which can lead to improvements in followers' creativity, productivity and perceptions of self-worth as well as aid in skill acquisition. The inclusion of attachment theory can help explain this process further.

Attachment theory and orientations highlight an important type of individual difference in followers which has remained understudied so far (Antonakis, Day, & Schyns, 2012), with only a few studies examining the link between attachment and leadership (e.g. Davidovitz, et al., 2007; Popper & Amit, 2009). In this manuscript, we take this research further by focusing on a particular leadership dimension, namely leader autonomy.

Attachment and Leader Autonomy

Autonomous leadership is a "newly defined leadership dimension that refers to independent and individualistic leadership attributes" (p. 14; House, et al., 2004). An autonomous leader is defined by "a high degree of independence from superiors and a high degree of social distance from subordinates, a tendency to be aloof, and to work alone" (p. 7).

We choose to focus on the dimension of leader autonomy, due to the closely theoretical ties to interdependent and independent, or anxious and avoidance attachment needs, respectively. Hence, individuals with a high degree of anxious or avoidance attachment needs likely would prefer their ideal leaders to support and cater to their followers' attachment needs.

Avoidant Attachment

If previous attachment figures, e.g. parents or previous leaders, have been consistently unresponsive and not security enhancing, individuals develop a negative view of others and become more and more self-reliant (Fletcher, Simpson, & Thomas, 2000). They do so in order to suppress negative memories and shield themselves from further emotional harm. Others are also often devalued, in order to inflate one's own capabilities and self-worth. This behaviour and perception of others is called avoidance attachment. Previous research has shown that avoidant attached individuals view others as unsupportive and most of all undependable (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2010).

Avoidant attached individuals are not looking for emotional closeness, withdraw from social situations (Edelstein, 2006) and avoid affection and intimacy (Geller & Bamberger, 2009). Individuals with an avoidance attachment orientation tend to evaluate social attributes such as inspiring others, providing compassion and generally socializing with others (Berson, et al., 2006) as a sign of weakness or waste of time. They are much more likely to demote and belittle others' abilities and capabilities to shield themselves from emotional harm and raise their own self-worth (Rom & Mikulincer, 2003). As Richards and Hackett (2012) put it: "followers high in attachment avoidance will behave in ways aimed at verifying their self-concept of a socially distant 'lone wolf'" (p.689).

For example, Elliot and Reis (2003) found that avoidant attached individuals did not provide support to their peers, even if support was explicitly requested. It seems these attributes are simply not highly valued by avoidant attached individuals. This reference point again likely

has been shaped by previous experiences with consistently unresponsive authority figures. Individuals with an avoidance attachment orientation are most likely to categorize others who value autonomy highly as potential leaders, i.e. similar to themselves. Due to their negative view of others (Rom & Mikulincer, 2003), avoidant attached individuals are very self-reliant (Popper & Amit, 2009) and highly value their own autonomy. We argue that avoidant attached individuals should favour similar others, i.e. others who score low on emotional closeness and high on autonomy. Based on the assumption that highly avoidant attached individuals prefer others who are similar to themselves (homophily), we hypothesize the following:

H1*: Avoidance attachment will be positively related to a preference for autonomous leaders.*

Anxious Attachment

Alternatively, if previous attachment figures are remembered as inconsistently responsive, individuals likely desire closeness and emotional intimacy with others, yet are characterised by a constant worry of relationships, fear of loneliness and abandonment (Popper & Amit, 2009). They begin to resort to increased physical proximity to others, in order to overcome the elicited negative memory by support-seeking (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2010; Richards & Schat, 2011). These individuals score high on the other main attachment dimension, namely anxiety attachment.

Anxiously attached individuals increasingly look to others for help and oftentimes inflate others' abilities and capabilities since they do not see themselves as capable enough. Due to low self-esteem (Collins & Read, 1990) and a high degree of neuroticism (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Richards & Schat, 2011), anxiously attached individuals crave emotional closeness and are drawn to dependable leaders, in order to have their own attachment needs met (Hansbrough, 2012).

In terms of ideal attachment figures, or leaders, anxiously attached individuals likely envision and are drawn to leaders who strengthen them as followers and provide a possible safe

haven (Popper & Amit, 2009; Rom & Mikulincer, 2003). Individuals with an anxious attachment orientation therefore are more likely to construct an ideal leader prototype that meets these expectations. This bias perception (Dykas & Cassidy, 2011) allows anxiously attached individuals to continuously look out for dependable and other oriented leaders. It is likely that individuals who score high on anxiety attachment favour leaders who are oriented towards others and not mainly themselves. We hypothesize the following:

H2*: Anxious attachment will be negatively related to a preference for autonomous leaders.*

Study 1

This study was conducted across two time points. First, we collected a total of 481 responses using the Amazon's Mechanical Turk's (MTurk) worker pool. Participants were recruited and paid a comparable compensation for their time and effort (total compensation: 1.5 USD). Previous studies on MTurk found that the MTurk worker pool is diverse and can supplement or even replace traditional convenience samples (Paolacci & Chandler, 2014). In order to reduce cultural and language bias, we required participants of this survey to be located in the US.

Two weeks after measuring participants' individual differences, three hundred seventy-two (372) employees completed measures on autonomy ILT (77.3% response rate). After assessing attention checks, the final sample for participants of both surveys resulted in 300 unique participants. Several pre-selected and pre-check attention check questions (Meade & Craig, 2012) were put in place in order to ensure that participants did not just randomly click through the questions, and that participants took enough time to read through all of the leader attributes presented. Therefore, participants who failed attention check questions such as "I am paid biweekly by leprechauns" (Meade & Craig, 2012), clearly were not reading the question thoroughly. Furthermore, if participants spent less than 30 seconds to answer a block of over

60 GLOBE items, we excluded them from subsequent analysis, as spending 0.5 second on a single item is clearly not enough time to consider the item and rate it accordingly.

We asked participants to specify their job position, in order for us to identify whether participants lead others, in addition to being an employee. van Quaquebeke, van Knippenberg, and Eckloff (2011) found that when individuals are asked to evaluate others in terms of leadership, they automatically are instigated to think about and evaluate themselves as well (Dunning & Cohen, 1992; Dunning & Hayes, 1996). We thus control for leadership experience using job level position (M = 2.18, SD = 1.61). Participants can indicate whether their most recent job position was that of an employee (59 %), entry-level supervisor (5.67 %), lower middle management (10 %), middle management (15.33 %), upper management (4 %) or top-level management (6 %). We further enquired about participants' most recent occupation. Management, professional, services, sales and office workers accounted for 62 % of the sample, while 16.67% had jobs that did not fall in the abovementioned categories (category Other). Unemployed participants accounted for 8 % of our total sample. Female respondents accounted for 55% of the sample (134 males; 1 unanswered), while the average age ranged from 20 – 72 years (M = 39.65, SD = 12.08). Mean work experience was 17.59 years (SD = 11.96 years).

Measures

Dependent Measures

ILTs. In this study we make use of the ideal leadership prototype attribute list by House, et al. (2004). Comparing more recent papers with the original work by Offermann, et al. (1994) reveals that researchers have not been consistent in conceptualizing ILT constructs. In their original paper Offermann, et al. (1994) asked undergraduates to list attributes which would best describe a leader, effective leader or supervisor. Epitropaki and Martin (2004) similarly asked working participants to indicate which attributes would best represent a typical leader. This

suggests that Offermann, et al. (1994) and Epitropaki and Martin (2004) alike made use of a business leader prototype instead of a clear ideal or negative leader prototype like the one used in Den Hartog, House, Hanges, Ruiz-Quintanilla, and Dorfman (1999) within the GLOBE study.

In the GLOBE study, 160 researchers examined over 17,300 middle managers across 951 organizations in various industries, in order to understand the cultural variations in leadership in 62 societies worldwide. The GLOBE study serves to displace previous work by Hofstede (2001) with regard to societal cultural variations as it provides an updated examination of cultural influence across societal expectations, with a special focus on leadership visualization. In this large-scale study with over ten years in the making, researchers such as Den Hartog, et al. (1999) and House, et al. (2004) asked participants to indicate attributes that describe an outstanding leader, which comes closest to that of an ideal leader (Junker & van Dick, 2014). Similarly, Kenney, et al. (1994) asked participants to indicate characteristics that would entice or encourage followers to follow others, i.e. what makes someone worthy of deserving influence. There is some evidence in the literature that shows images of a typical leader to overlap to some degree with that of an ideal leader (van Quaquebeke, van Knippenberg, & Brodbeck, 2011). However, this overlap does not mean that a current or typical leader equals an ideal leader. As Junker and van Dick (2014) point out "a leader must not only be perceived as ideal but also needs to misfit the leader counter-ideal to be identified as the best possible leader" (p. 1162).

In this chapter, we are interested in examining the association between attachment styles and individuals' image of an ideal leader with regard to attributes describing independent leadership, similar to the one presented in the autonomy dimension in House, et al. (2004).

There is a strong theoretical association between the dimension of autonomy and individuals' attachment, as a high degree of interdependence or independence attachment needs

likely correspond to higher or lower preference for a highly autonomous leader. Therefore, we chose to use this scale[1]. This first-order factor autonomous leadership, comprises four items: "autonomous" (description: acts independently, does not rely on others), "independent" (description: does not rely on others; self-governing), "individualistic" (description: behaves in a different manner than peers), "unique" (description: an unusual person; has characteristics of behaviours that are different from most others). Items were rated on a scale ranging from 1 (substantially impedes) to 7 (substantially facilitates) ideal leadership.

Attachment Styles. Individuals' attachment was assessed using Richards and Schat (2011) adaptation of Brennan, Clark, and Shaver (1998) Experience in Close Relationships scale (ECR). The ECR consists of 36 items on two subscales measuring anxious attachment and avoidance attachment. Participants rated on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) the extent to which each item described their feelings in close relationships. Anxiety attachment ($\alpha = .96$, $M = 2.09$, $SD = 1.36$) is comprised of 18 items, e.g. "I need a lot of reassurance that I am liked and appreciated by other people" and "My desire to be very close sometimes scares people away". Similarly, the subscale for Avoidance attachment ($\alpha = .96$; $M = -1.46$, $SD = 1.4$) also contains 18 items, e.g. "I turn to others for many things, including comfort and reassurance" and "I am very comfortable being close to others", both reverse-scored.

Stability over time. In order to assure the stability of the attachment measure, we recruited a separate sample of 174 (MTurk) participants and collected measures at three separate time points. Time points were approximately one month and nine months apart. We

[1] For the purposes of this study, we asked participants to complete the entire leader prototype, including all other prototype dimensions. We do so, in order to allow participants to social-cognitively contrast items against each other. For example, showing participants only items regarding autonomous might not activate their leader prototype as well as showing them other additional items, e.g. generous, honest, or manipulative. In order to allow for this contrast, we ask participants all items pertaining to the outstanding leader prototype.

ran a fixed effects regression model using the collected data. Results showed anxious (ρ = .78, t = 66.22, p < .001), avoidance attachment (ρ = .88, t = 23.02, p < .001) dimensions, as well as their interaction, i.e. fearful attachment (ρ = .80, t = 12.3, p < .001) were highly stable over time.

Control Variables

Personality. We controlled for personality traits as defined by the Five Factor Model (FFM) or so-called "Big 5" (McCrae & Costa, 1987), using the Mini IPIP scale (Goldberg, et al., 2006). The five factors are Openness to Experience (α = .81), Conscientiousness (α = .80), Extraversion (α = .88), Agreeableness (α = .85) and Neuroticism (α = .82) with 10 items each. Scores were reported on a 5-point scale ranging from (1) "very inaccurate" to (5) "very accurate" for all dimensions.

Work Experience. Participants indicated their work experience in years.

Level of Employment. Since our hypotheses are built on the influence of self-perception on ideal leadership attributes, we have to assume that participants might not only be employees, but also have had some leadership experience as well. Hence, we request participants to tell us whether they have no experience (1), some analyst/beginner experience (2), some supervisory function (3), are in a senior position and provide regular team supervision (4) oversee multiple teams or are in top management (5).

Gender. Gender likely can play a role when it comes to self-perceptions and ILTs. Previous research (Johnson, Murphy, Zewdie, & Reichard, 2008) has found that the term leadership is strongly related to attributes such as "powerful" or "dominant", i.e. attributes most often associated with men rather than women. Men fit the leadership role more easily than women did, since women in leader roles need to be perceived as both agentic and communal. Hence, we control for gender and other demographics such as age and education as well.

Results

Correlations among variables are listed in the table below.

Insert Table 1 about here

Method of Statistical Analysis. Although the ILTs scale of House, et al. (2004) was used on a societal or cultural level, it comes closest to expressions of outstanding or ideal leader behaviour. The hypothesized model was tested in comparison with competing models (Mulaik, et al., 1989). A one-factor model was computed with all leader autonomy items loading onto a single factor, as part of a larger multi-factor model, according to the findings of House, et al. (2004). Several statistics were used to assess model fit, including the chi-square (χ^2) statistic, the comparative fit index (CFI), the non-normed fit index (NNFI), and the root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA; Bentler, 1990; Bentler & Bonett, 1980). Lower χ^2 values indicate a better fit and normally should be non-significant. Comparative fit index (CFI) and non-normed fit index (NNFI) equal or exceeding .90 indicates a good model fit to the data. Root-mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) values below .05 indicate a close fit, whereas values between .05 and .08 indicate a fair fit (Browne & Cudeck, 1989).

The new first-factor model measuring autonomy and its four items only did not show a very good fit ($\chi2 = 10.06$, $p = .01$; CFI = .94; SRMR = .05; NNFI = .83; RMSEA = .12, DF = 2). We expect this to be the case, since the GLOBE scales primarily have been used on the societal or cultural level. Therefore, a poorer fit is to be expected. However, as addressed earlier, we make use of this scale since it comes closest to the theoretical link between ideal leader expectations of behaviour and attachment styles. In order to test the effects of attachment styles on the first-order factor "autonomy" as well as the dimension's individual items (i.e. unique, individualized, independent and autonomous), we ran multiple indicator multiple causes (MIMIC) models (Bollen, 1989; Jöreskog & Goldberger, 1975; Muthén, 1989). A

decent fit for the structure to the data was found with regard to leader autonomy and predictors ($\chi 2 = 13.86$, $p > .24$; CFI = .98; SRMR = .03; NNFI = .97; RMSEA = .03, DF = 11). We had to ensure that the items were rated in a similar way, i.e. that all items "tapped onto their a priori factor correctly" (Antonakis & House, 2014: 753). Further, since our attachment measure is continuous instead of categorical (C. Fraley, N. W. Hudson, M. E. Heffernan, & N. Segal, 2015) we identified MIMIC models as the right approach, as they allow for both categorical and continuous predictors of a latent variable (Woods, Oltmanns, & Turkheimer, 2009). Finally, by using this method we can also control for group mean differences across factors, as a function of an exogenous variable and identify item functioning (Woods, et al., 2009).

Insert Figure 1 about here

Using attachment orientations as a predictor of the preference for an autonomous leader we find insufficient support for a positive relationship between avoidance attachment and leader autonomy preference, although the relationship direction is as expected (b=.15, $p > .05$). H2 is not supported.

Secondly, we find a significant negative relationship between anxious attachment and leader autonomy preference (b= -.25, $p < .05$). With regard to item functioning, we observed a strong effect of anxious attachment, testing for indirect effects (independent: b = -.20; individualistic: b = -.10; autonomous: b = -.25; unique: b = -.06; all $p < .05$). Results are shown in Figure 1. These results did not change significantly after controlling for personality, work experience, job position, age and gender. Model fit was good to excellent ($\chi 2 = 13.86$, RSMEA = .03, SRMR = .03, CFI = .98, NNFI = .97). This provides support for H3.

Finally, the interaction between both attachment dimensions, identifying fearful attachment, was not significant (b = -.12, p > .05). Therefore, no support is found for H1.

Brief Discussion

In Study 1, we found that anxious attachment serves as a predictor of leader autonomy, i.e. participants' individual (trait) attachment towards others in general acts as a predictor for a preference of autonomy in individuals' outstanding leader schema. Individuals with a highly anxious attachment orientation seem not to prefer an autonomous leader [2]. We did not find a significant relationship with regard to avoidance attachment and a leader autonomy preference. In order to better understand these results, we therefore further examine our hypotheses regarding leader autonomy using an experimental design in Study 2.

Study 2

Based on the results of Study 1, we cannot state that individuals with different dominant attachment styles would indeed choose and more highly evaluate an autonomous leader over a leader exhibiting a non- or low-autonomous leadership style. Furthermore, it would be interesting to test these preferences on a more practical outcome. Hence, in Study 2 we conduct an experiment to test whether we can predict participants' leader preference using descriptions of a manager with a highly autonomous and independent leadership style versus one with a non-autonomous leadership style. We are particularly interested in leader competence evaluations. Competence is an interesting attribute with regard to anxious as well as avoidance attachment. Individuals who score high on anxious attachment routinely express doubts regarding their self-competence and adopt an 'I'm not good enough' mind-set. These followers

[2] Using the previously collected sample of 174 participants, we aimed to replicate our results regarding anxious attachment, while showing participants only items on autonomous leadership. However, an analysis of the data showed there to be no significant effect between anxious attachment and an autonomous leadership dimension. We discuss possible explanations for these results in the discussion section, after presenting Study 2.

tend rely more and more on their leader, thereby fulfilling their own anxious attachment needs and ensuring future closeness and dependency on their leader. This 'strategy' likely has shown success before (Feeney, Cassidy, & Ramos-Marcuse, 2008), but might lead anxious attached individuals to mainly attribute a high degree of competence to a leader who does indeed provide emotional closeness and proximity. Anxiously attached individuals are therefore likely to prefer leaders who are perceived to be exhibiting a non-autonomous leadership style; they likely evaluate non-autonomous leaders as competent. On the other hand, avoidant attached individuals should prefer a highly autonomous leader as this behaviour is similar to their own (s. similarity hypothesis theory in Study 1). Therefore, avoidant attached individuals should perceive and evaluate highly autonomous leaders as competent.

Sample and Procedure

To answer this question, we set up an online experiment using descriptive leader vignettes. We recruited 401 U.S. participants recruited via Amazon's Mechanical Turk to take part in our experiment. We again included several attention and manipulation checks (Mason & Suri, 2012). After conducting our analysis using both the full sample (i.e. 401) and the restricted successful attention check sample (i.e. 350) using an a priori rule (see below) we decided to retain all participants for more complete results. The a priori rule stated to drop participants who score above 1 (strongly disagree) regarding the corresponding attention check questions. This sample decision did not influence our findings. Our final sample included 193 female participants (206 males; 1 unanswered), ranging from 20-75 years of age (M = 36.76, SD = 10.80), with an average work experience of 15.59 years. Participants who had completed our pre-test vignettes were excluded from participating in the full experimental study.

Firstly, participants were given an inform consent form and were told that first they would be asked to complete measures on individual characteristics. These measures consisted of the same measures as in Study 1, namely attachment (Richards & Schat, 2011) and

personality (Goldberg, et al., 2006). Secondly, participants were randomly shown either a description of a highly autonomous and independent leader, or a description of a highly non-autonomous and consultative leader. We used these descriptions, or vignettes, as our experimental manipulation. Thirdly, participants evaluated the presented leader description on competence and indicated whether they would keep or replace the described person as their leader. Finally, a manipulation check was conducted and participants completed demographic measures such as age, gender, and work experience and job position. After completion, participants were fully debriefed and thanked for their help.

Vignettes. Our goal was primarily to create two vignettes, identical in sentence design and word count, examining the variance due to individual attachment styles differences. We wrote two leader vignettes of equal length and sentence structure. Both vignettes counted 147 words and 8 sentences. Sentences in both conditions mirrored each other in terms of structure and word count. In both vignettes, we used the same introductory section to describe the leader's back-story (Appendix A):

"Mark Smith is Director of Sales for a major appliance firm. Mark assumed his position two years ago following his attainment of an MBA degree with a specialization in marketing. In this position, he has gained the respect of both his subordinates and his superiors. His superiors evaluate him as a capable worker, and his subordinates have indicated that they enjoy working for him. Mark is currently in charge of 12 subordinates."

The section above was followed by a different story for each leader style condition. For example, in the autonomous leader condition we used sentences such as:

"*Mark achieves what he sets out, and does not rely on others' help*" and "*He is oftentimes described as independent and self-governing, someone who is not guided by the same assumptions and norms as his peers*". The non-autonomous leader condition included

sentences such as "*Mark achieves what he sets out, and relies strongly on other's input*" and "*He is oftentimes described as team focused, someone who values and shares the same assumptions and norms as his peers*".

Pre-Test

Both vignettes were pre-tested to ensure participants correctly identified both vignettes as either highly autonomous or not autonomous. To ensure that participants perceived each vignette correctly, participants were asked to rate each vignette on the four items of leader autonomy (i.e. independent, individualistic, autonomous and unique, as well as each item's descriptions; House, et al., 2004), equivalent to the ones predicted by attachment styles in Study 1. We then regressed each attribute on the respective manipulated factor (note, all F-tests below are heteroscedastic robust). Results showed that for all four items (attributes), the mean of the autonomous leader was higher than that of the non-autonomous one (mean = 4.37, SD = .06 vs mean =2.14, SD = .08, model F (1, 399) = 482.71, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .55$). We found similar results for the items independent (mean = 4.31, SD = .07 vs mean = 2.37, SD = .08, model F(1, 399) = 345.02, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .46$), individualistic (mean = 4.08, SD = .07 vs mean = 2.24, SD = .08, model F(1, 399) = 290.32, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .42$) and unique (mean = 3.73, SD = .07 vs mean = 2.78, SD = .08, model F(1, 399) = 81.02, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .17$). These results suggest that the manipulations had their intended effects.

In our pre-tests, we asked participants to rate both vignettes on several other characteristics, which might be interfering with our manipulation. We did so, in order to ensure that we did not manipulate any other variables other than the ones comprising leader autonomy. Such variables included characteristics constituting the first-order factor "self-centred" by House, et al. (2004), e.g. asocial, egocentric, loner. The highly autonomous leader vignette was not to describe an egocentric or asocial leader, since it is likely that individuals with either dominant attachment style would evaluate such a leader negatively.

Measures

We included the same measures as in Study 1, namely attachment, personality and our new dependent variable "perceived leader competence". We expected that gender might play a larger role with regard to leader evaluation in this study, since our vignette describes a male leader. Hence, we control for gender and other demographics such as age and job position as well. Correlations and reliability alphas are reported in the correlation table below.

Insert Table 2 about here

Results

Using ordinary least squares (OLS) regressions with a heteroscedastic-robust estimate of the variance, we regressed the continuous variable – reflecting the degree of competence attributed to the described leader – on the manipulated variable leader condition, as well as the individual differences predictors anxious attachment and avoidance attachment and their interaction. The regression model predicted attributed leader competence. Refer to Table 2 for the results.

Insert Table 3 about here

Firstly, the effects of an autonomous leadership (AL) are not significant in the full model (i.e., model 4; F (12, 388) = 4.91, $p < .001$). Secondly, we observe that avoidance attachment significantly decreased the attribution of leader competence (b = -.20, $p < .001$) as a main effect. Conversely, in the autonomous leader condition avoidance attachment significantly increased the attribution of competence (b = .24, $p < .01$). In order to gain a better understanding of this interaction, we probed the interaction by generating predicted values (Figure 2).

Insert Figure 2 about here

Individuals who score high on avoidance attachment significantly attribute a higher degree of competence to the described autonomous leader than low avoidant individuals do. The marginal difference in predicted probabilities between high avoidant (HA; 4.31) and low avoidant (LA; 3.91) was significant. Furthermore, we also found that individuals who score low on avoidance attribute higher competence ratings to the non-autonomous leader compared to the autonomous leader. The marginal difference in predicted probabilities between the two leader conditions was significant. These results support Hypothesis 1.

Thirdly, no significant effect was found with regard to anxious attachment as a predictor of general leader competence attributions. However, in the autonomous leader condition anxious attachment did significantly predict leader competence attributions (b = -.17, p < .05). Further, marginal analysis showed that the margins difference in predicted probabilities between the two leader conditions with regard to high anxious attachment was significant (Figure 3).

Insert Figure 3 about here

Put differently, highly anxiously attached individuals perceive the low-autonomous leaders to be more competent than the autonomous leader. Furthermore, participants who score high on anxious attachment (HA; 3.87) evaluated the leader lower than participants who score low on anxious attachment (LA; 4.35) in the autonomous leader condition. The marginal difference in predicted probabilities was significant. This suggests that anxious attachment relates negatively to competence evaluations of autonomous leaders, providing support for H2.

In addition, the observed interaction of anxious and avoidance attachment, i.e. fearful or secure attachment (Anxious Attachment*Avoidance Attachment) showed a significant effect with regard to general attributions of leader competence (b = .08, p < .001). No

significant results were found for secure and fearful attachment with respect to the autonomous leader condition. We hence do not plot these results.

Brief Discussion

Using coded leader vignettes our experimental study provided further evidence that attachment styles can predict individual leader preferences with regard to leader autonomy, as suggested in Study 1. We find that avoidant attached individuals are more likely to attribute leader competence to leaders who exhibit a highly autonomous and independent leadership style than individuals who score low on avoidance attachment. Avoidant attached individuals perceive non-autonomous leaders to exhibit a low degree of competence. In addition, we find that individuals who score high on anxious attachment are more likely to attribute leader competence to leaders who exhibit a highly supportive and others oriented leadership style, compared to leaders with an autonomous and self-reliant leadership style. Finally, we find that the interaction between avoidant and anxious attachment, i.e. fearful attachment is positively related to attributions of leader competence in general. However, no significant results are found with respect to autonomous leaders. Our findings suggest that attachment styles indeed do play a role in the evaluation and attribution of leader competence.

Discussion

Attachment styles are a result of previous interactions with others, some of which become more important over time. These include parents, coaches or previous leaders. In this chapter, we include and measure attachment styles as an individual difference to understand the formation and implications of leader prototypes. In the two studies presented, we find a relationship between attachment styles and preference for leader attributes. In Study 1, we find that individuals with an anxious attachment orientation seem to prefer a low autonomous leadership style. Due to anxiously attached individuals' negative view of self and positive

regard for their attachment figures, it is likely that these individuals seem to expect their leader to be dissimilar to themselves. They likely prefer a leader who is consultative, collaborative and team-oriented. It seems that anxiously attached individuals indeed respond better to a leader who is consultative, collaborative and others oriented. Therefore, these participants would likely attribute higher levels of competence to someone who seems to exhibit positive approach-related behaviour.

Building on these results, we concluded another study was needed to further tease out the relationship between attachment and leader attribute preference. Again, we find that anxiously attached individuals evaluate non-autonomous leaders higher than self-governing, autonomous leaders. This finding therefore confirms that anxious attachment not only influences ideal leader attributes (ILTs) but also that individuals attribute a higher degree of competence to a (fictional) leader. By perceiving others as more capable, they effectively fulfil their own attachment needs and therefore increase proximity and dependence on others (Fraley, Niedenthal, Marks, Brumbaugh, & Vicary, 2006).

Furthermore, avoidant attached participants responded better to an autonomous leadership style. In Study 2 we found that highly avoidant attached individuals evaluate leaders higher on competence than individuals who score low on this dimension. Individuals with an avoidant attachment orientation therefore do prefer and choose autonomous leaders over non-autonomous leaders. This lends support to the similarity hypothesis (Hansbrough, 2012; Keller, 1999). Avoidant attached individuals are self-reliant and autonomous themselves and generally view others negatively, due to previous consistently unfulfilled socialization experiences with other attachment figures (Collins & Feeney, 2004). Hence, it follows that they would prefer leaders who are similar to themselves, i.e. who are self-governing and independent. Similarly, this should be the case with regard to their ideal leader prototype. Contrary to our hypothesis, we could not confirm that avoidant attached individuals prefer

autonomous leader attributes, although the direction was positive. Theoretically, due to these individuals' previous consistently negative interactions with others, they should expect their ideal leaders to rely on themselves instead of others. However, we find confirming results for our hypothesis (H1) only in Study 2 and not in Study 1. This might be due to the failed activation of avoidance attachment (Ein-Dor, 2015; Fraley, Garner, & Shaver, 2000) using the two different tasks in each study. Avoidance attachment needs to be activated in individuals, in contrast to anxious attachment which is always active (Fraley, et al., 2006). In the second study, we told participants to imagine they directly report and work for the described leader as well as to take their time to read and evaluate the subsequently presented leader description. If participants are shown the non-autonomous leadership style, avoidance attachment could be activated as a defence mechanism, in order to protect individuals from experiencing too much emotional closeness or proximity to the described leader. By viewing the leader negatively, individuals with an avoidance attachment orientation would be able to distance themselves from the described person (Ein-Dor, 2015; Fraley, et al., 2000). They would therefore evaluate the described leader less positive on competence than if they had been presented the autonomous leader description.

Furthermore, our results hold in both studies, while controlling for other individual differences such as the Big 5 personality dimensions. Since attachment styles are based on actual experiences (Shondrick, et al., 2010), they seem to be a strong predictor of leader prototypes and leader preferences over and above personality measures. This is a vital point that should be expanded upon in future research, as considering attachment styles in future individual level research would likely allow scholars to better predict future leadership outcomes as well (Murphy & Johnson, 2011; Popper & Amit, 2009; Popper, et al., 2000).

Limitations and Future Research

One aspect, which should be addressed in future research, is the possible influence of culture. For example, Kafetsios, et al. (2014) found that in more masculine cultures (e.g. Greece) there seems to be a preference for avoidant leaders, i.e. masculine and dominating leaders. Culture, the values and norms individuals of a particular region share, can influence the prevalence of attachment styles. With regard to leader preference, this culture might prefer a more autonomous leader overall, leading to a change in measured effect size as well. In order to limit the influence of culture on our results we therefore restricted participants to be located in the US, accessing one region with shared and common values. Nonetheless, our results should be replicated in other cultures, particularly collectivistic ones.

Additionally, it would be ideal to test the influence of attachment orientations on leader preference using real interactions between individuals. Examining real interactions or real behaviour is likely to yield the strongest results with regard to effect size, since interactions with attachment figures, such as leaders and followers, are most likely to elicit individuals' attachment scripts.

Conclusion

Since relationship prototypes are based on individual experiences with others such as previous leaders or parents, attachment styles likely represent underlying factors influencing social information processing and leader categorization (Antonakis, et al., 2012; Junker & van Dick, 2014). We examine, test and find support for attachment styles as possible predictors of leader preference in the two studies presented in this manuscript. We hope that our findings encourage additional research in this domain and lead to more research on linking attachment to leadership perception.

Table 1 Correlations of studied variables (Study 1)

		M	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1	Autonomous	4.16	1.82													
2	Independent	4.65	1.62	53***												
3	Individualistic	3.96	1.56	.26***	.19***											
4	Unique	4.81	1.32	.16**	.17**	.24***										
	Attachment															
5	Anxious	2.01	1.36	-.11t	-.12*	-.07	-.00	(.96)								
6	Avoidance	-1.46	1.40	-.01	.02	.04	.00	.33***	(.96)							
7	Fearful (Anxious*Avoidance)	-2.41	3.12	.02	.06	.08	.03	-.36***	.57***							
	Big 5 Personality															
8	Openness	-.46	.88	-.00	-.01	-.05	-.03	-.02	-.18**	-.11t	(.81)					
9	Conscientiousness	.77	.91	-.00	-.04	.01	.08	-.39***	-.19***	.06	-.07	(.81)				
10	Extraversion	-.48	1.10	.08	.07	-.07	-.00	-.28***	-.57***	-.22***	.30***	.07	(.88)			
11	Agree	.85	.88	-.02	-.04	.00	.01	-.10	-.60***	-.34***	.31***	.09	.34***	(.85)		
12	Neuroticism	-.50	1.02	-.07	-.05	-.01	.08	.63***	.34***	-.09	-.03	-.41***	-.31***	-.14*	(.82)	
13	Age	39.65	12.08	.07	-.01	.07	.03	-.26***	-..05	.11t	-.08	.17**	-.01	.09	-.20***	
14	Gender	1.44	.50	-.03	-.00	-.04	-.02	-.03	.13*	.04	.03	.02	-.08	-.30***	-.09	-.09

***$p < .001$, **$p < .01$, *$p < .05$; n = 401; reliability alphas in parentheses, where appropriate, $n = 401$.

Table 2 Correlations of studied variables (Study 2)

		M	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1	(Low/High) Autonomous Leader Condition	.50	.50												
2	Competence	4.25	.82	-.12*											
	Attachment														
3	Anxious	2.14	1.38	-.01	-.10*	(.96)									
4	Avoidance	-1.53	1.39	-.04	-.02	.51***	(.96)								
5	Fearful (Anxious*Avoidance)	-2.3	2.85	.01	.15***	-.14**	.58***								
	Big 5 Personality														
6	Openness	-.59	.86	-.03	.13**	-.22***	-.20***	.01	(.78)						
7	Conscientiousness	.69	.94	-.06	.06	-.51***	-.31***	.03	.15***	(.83)					
8	Extraversion	-.38	1.08	.03	-.11*	-.33***	-.55***	-.30***	.21***	.12*	(.88)				
9	Agree	.76	.91	.02	.16***	-.18***	-.49***	-.23***	.37***	.21***	.26***	(.85)			
10	Neuroticism	-.56	1.01	-.04	-.04	.70***	.43***	.00	-.26***	-.45***	-.39***	-.14***	(.83)		
11	Age	36.76	10.80	.04	.05	-.25***	-.09	.12*	.03	.19***	.01	.19***	-.17***		
12	Gender	1.51	.51	-.03	-.03	-.06	.01	-.01	.06	-.05	.05	-.23***	-.18***	-.09	1.00

Low Autonomous leader = 0, High Autonomous leader = 1; $^{***}p < .001$, $^{**}p < .01$, $^{*}p < .05$; n = 401; reliability alphas in parentheses, where appropriate, $n = 401$.

Table 3 Regression Estimates (Study 2): Predicting Leader Competence

Variables	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Autonomous Leader Condition	-.19*	-.19*	.33	.45
	(-2.33)	(-2.36)	(1.1)	(1.68)
Anxious Attachment			.09†	0.07
			(1.65)	(1.09)
Avoidance Attachment			-.20***	-.20***
			(-3.59)	(-3.17)
Fearful Attachment (Anxious*Avoidance)			.09***	.08***
			(3.75)	(3.47)
Condition*Anxious Attachment			-.14	-.17*
			(1.58)	(-2.05)
Condition*Avoidance Attachment			.19†	.24**
			(1.80)	(2.62)
Condition*Fearful Attachment			-.03	-.03
			(-.53)	(-.87)
Open		.08		.06
		(1.69)		(1.18)
Conscientiousness		.00		-.04
		(-.09)		(-.88)
Extraversion		-.15***		-.15**
		(-3.52)		(-3.01)
Agreeableness		.16**		.17***
		(3.11)		(3.33)
Neuroticism		-.06		-.01
		(-1.27)		(-.30)
Constant	4.35*	4.18***	4.06***	3.96***
	(87.03)	(51.59)	(22.30)	(18.57)
R-squared	.01*	.08**	.07**	.13***

*** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$; $n = 401$; robust t-statistics in parentheses; **unstandardized coefficients**.

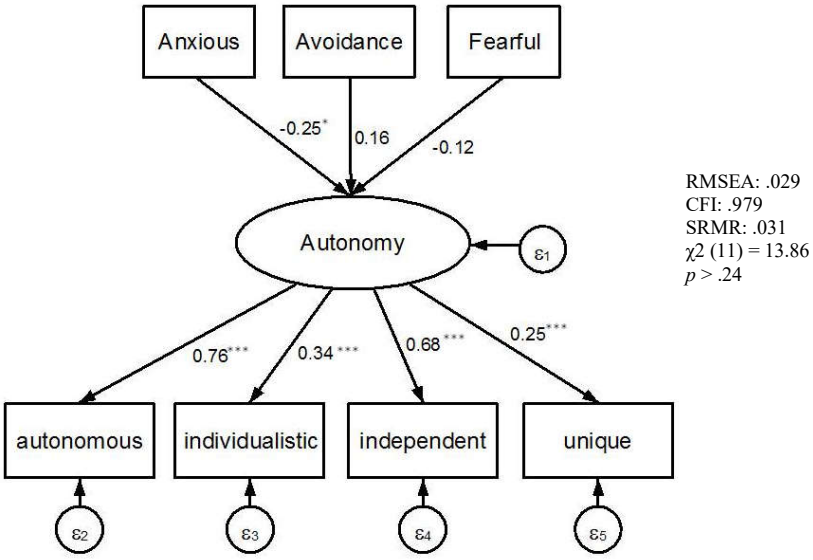


Figure 1 – Maximum-likelihood parameter estimates for the hypothesized model

*** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$; n = 300; standardized coefficients.

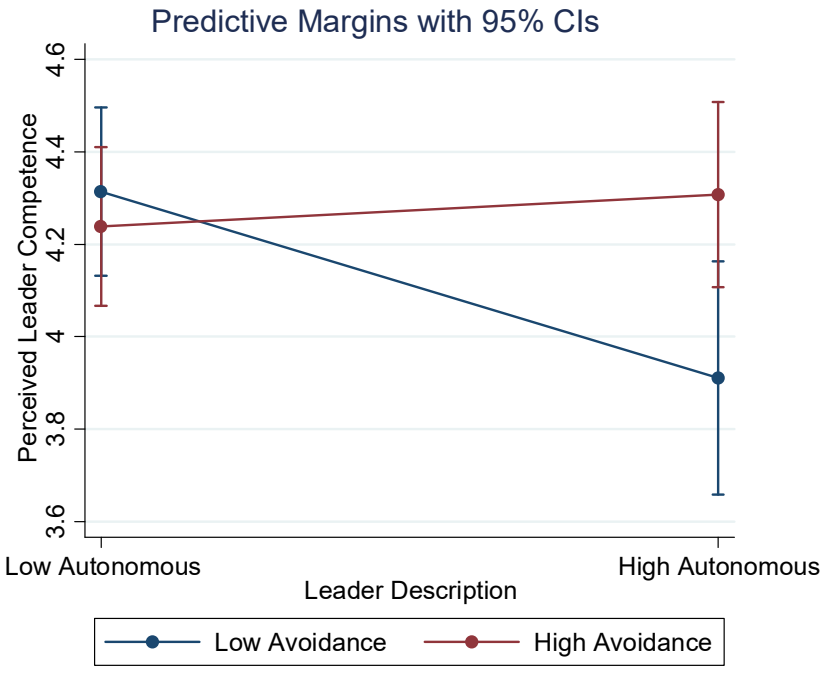


Figure 2 – Interaction of Leader Conditions and Avoidance Attachment (Study 2)

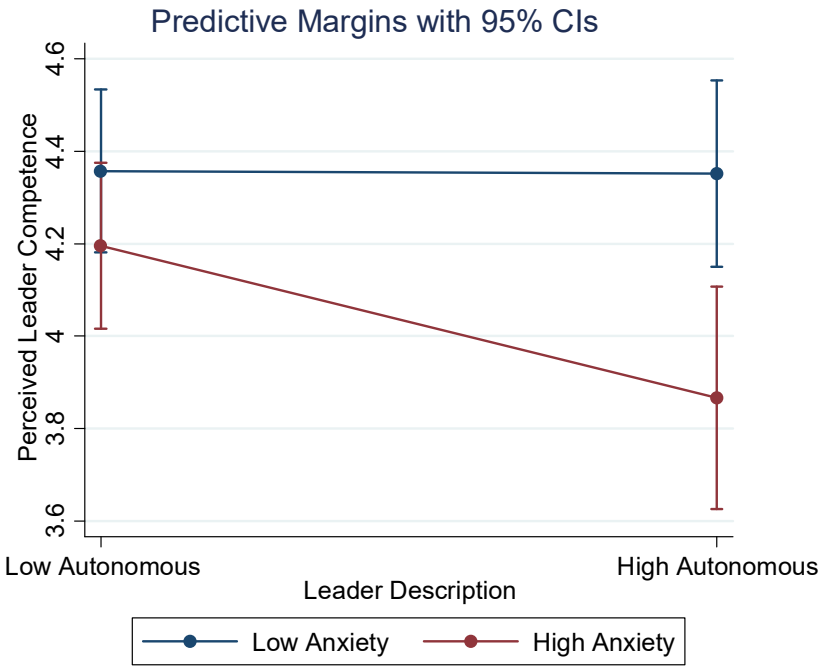


Figure 3 – Interaction of Leadership Conditions and Anxious Attachment (Study 2)

CHAPTER 2

Attachment orientations guide the transfer of leadership judgments: Culture matters

Abstract

In two studies we examined the role global and relationship specific attachment orientations play in the transfer of past leader-follower relationships onto new, similar leaders. We focused on two leadership characteristics, just treatment expectations and perceived leader effectiveness. Individuals scoring higher on anxious attachment were more likely to hold high just treatment expectations of new, similar leaders, i.e. leaders similar to their previous leaders. Conversely, avoidant persons held low just treatment expectations of new similar leaders and perceived new similar leaders as less effective. Secondly, relationship-specific attachment orientations predicted transfer of behavioural judgments while global attachment orientations predicted transfer of perceived leader effectiveness. Study 2 documented the moderating effect of culture. In Greece and India, two collectivistic cultures with high power distance, avoidant individuals demonstrated negative or low just treatment expectations of their new similar leader, as expected. In the US, an individualistic culture, however, avoidant participants were still "hung up" on their previous leader-follower relationship and this past relationship led such individuals to maintain high behavioural expectations of their new, similar, leader. The results inform emerging views on the importance of relational and social cognitive processes to leader-follower interaction highlighting the role of cultural differences in these associations.

Introduction

The perception and evaluation of new interaction partners can heavily depend on interactions with previous interaction partners (e.g. Andersen & Baum, 1994; Andersen & Cole, 1990). People carry forward relationship patterns and behavioural expectations from one relationship to the next, and often unintentionally so (Andersen & Baum, 1994). When activated by a high degree of perceived similarity, mental representations of previous others are able to unconsciously skew perceptions of new individuals significantly (Andersen, et al., 1995; Andersen, et al., 1996; Brumbaugh & Fraley, 2006; Chen, et al., 1999). The same transfer process is also applicable to vertical, leadership, relational processes (Ritter & Lord, 2007): cognitive representations of pervious leaders can be automatically triggered when encountering a new leader, thus influencing evaluations and behavioural expectations of those new leaders. What follows is an analysis of key relationship-related antecedents of this transfer process, for which relationship theories are pertinent (Thomas, et al., 2013).

Indeed, research on antecedents to the transfer of leadership expectation is very limited. One example of an individual differences moderator can be found in previous relationships, i.e. a previous interaction partner acts as a reference point. Hence, some individuals may be more prone to engage in the transference process, or may be more likely to have their past mental representations activated, due to the perceived relation to their previous interaction partner acting as a reference point (Ritter & Lord, 2007). Research that has addressed possible antecedents, has found that relationship-specific attachment orientations are particularly good predictors of the transfer of behaviour between similarly perceived interaction partners (Brumbaugh & Fraley, 2006, 2007). Attachment theory dictates that previous relationship patterns re-emerge in new relationships, since individuals' mental representations of previous relationships are easily triggered and used as guidelines in interactions with new relationship partners (Bowlby, 1973; Hazan & Shaver, 1990, 1994). Engaging in this anchoring effect of

previous relationships and subsequent transference process of relationship expectations from one relationship to another, leads to the stability of attachment orientations over time and across relationships (Brumbaugh & Fraley, 2007; Collins, 1996; Fraley & Brumbaugh, 2004).

This manuscript is thus placed in between the literature of leader transference and attachment theory through a leader-follower lens, as we examine attachment orientations as possible antecedents to the transference of leadership expectations. Hereby, our contribution is fourfold. Firstly, we hypothesize and test whether attachment orientations constitute a valid predictor of the transference of treatment expectations from a current leader onto a similarly described, fictional leader, i.e., within a process of leader transference. Secondly, although the leader transference process has been demonstrated (Ritter & Lord, 2007), to the best of our knowledge no study has examined whether and how global and relationship specific attachment orientations, key relationship constructs, can function as possible antecedents to the transference process. Therefore, we explain and empirically test theoretical differences between global attachment and relationship-specific attachment orientations with regard to leadership outcomes. These outcomes include expectations of leadership effectiveness, just treatment, and positive and negative affect. Thirdly, we account for a possible moderation effect of culture and therefore test our model in three distinct cultures that differ in central cultural dimensions of individualism-collectivism and hierarchy distance: Greece, India and the United States. Finally, we do all this by utilising a slightly modified experimental design based on the original transference research by Andersen and Baum (1994) and its more recent application within the leadership context by Ritter and Lord (2007). We test our hypotheses in two studies using both working professionals as well as two samples of online participants.

Transference Processes and Attachment Orientations

Transference is the influence of past relationship patterns onto the "emotional, motivational and behavioural reactions to strangers" (Andersen & Glassman, 1996).

Individuals develop multiple relationships over the course of their lives, with different partners with various personalities and social roles (Brumbaugh & Fraley, 2007), yet these relationships are experienced in similar ways (Robins, et al., 2002). This means that working models, i.e. mental representations of previously encountered significant others, are transferred over time and across relationships (Brumbaugh & Fraley, 2007). Individuals automatically engage in this process, as their mental representations of others are easily accessible, stable, and powerful enough to influence individuals' perceptions of future others (Andersen & Chen, 2002; Andersen, et al., 1995; Hinkley & Andersen, 1996).

Similarly, attachment theory assumes that working models are transferred from one person to another (Collins, et al., 2004; Simpson, et al., 2009). Over time, and as a result of socialization interactions with previous others (Brumbaugh & Fraley, 2007), individuals develop a dominant attachment orientation, that differentiates and explains individuals' reactive behaviour to encounters with new interaction partners (Brumbaugh & Fraley, 2006; Collins & Read, 1994). As a key relationship theory (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007), attachment theory maintains that individuals are continuously and coherently recreating past relationship patterns in new relationships, as long as mental representations of a past relationship are triggered by an ongoing relational event or even by their new relationship partners themselves (Collins & Read, 1994). Therefore, it seems that individuals' working models of others, i.e. their attachment orientations, can help explain why some individuals are more likely to transfer previous relationship patterns and expectations to relationships with new interaction partners (Brumbaugh & Fraley, 2006, 2007). Taking a step further, the present paper examines a possible influence of attachment orientations in an organizational context, i.e. the transfer of leader expectations from one leader to another.

In terms of leadership (Ritter & Lord, 2007) followers constantly perceive and observe not just the leader's behaviour, but they also learn how the leader reacts in a variety of

situations. Further, employees learn from their own reactions to their leader as well; they base these predictions of future leader behaviour subconsciously on previous encounters with their leader. Assuming that the mental representations of a previous leader are strong enough to categorize this person as a significant other, a mental representation of a previous leader could indeed activate followers' self-concept (Lord & Brown, 2003); the relationship between self and leader is then likely to be transferred to new encounters (Andersen & Glassman, 1996; Andersen, Glassman, & Gold, 1998; Hinkley & Andersen, 1996).

Although Brumbaugh and Fraley (2006, 2007) examined attachment orientations as a predictor of the transference of relationship patterns between partners, no previous work has tested the influence of attachment orientations on leader transference, that is, when the follower engages in the transference of behavioural and affective leader expectations from one leader to another.

Attachment Orientations and Leader Judgments

We built our hypotheses on previous empirical research and on the assumption that individuals' working models of a current or existing attachment figure are activated given a certain degree of similarity between the mental representation of the specific interaction partner in mind and a new interaction partner. Individuals therefore likely transfer relational expectations and patterns to the new relationship target. We expect this transfer to occur whenever there is a large enough overlap between the existing mental representation of a current or previous interaction partner, in this study description of previous leaders, and the description of the new relationship target (Brumbaugh & Fraley, 2007). Transfer of behavioural expectations between leaders is more likely to occur when the new leader is similar to an individual's cognitively stored mental representation of a previous leader (Ritter & Lord, 2007). These hypotheses also have important managerial consequences and implications. Ritter and Lord (2007) have shown that perceptions of leaders, either influenced by the self-concept

(self to others) or previous significant others (previous leader-new leader) can affect new leader expectations. In the present study, we aimed to replicate the findings by Ritter and Lord (2007) with regard to positive and negative affect and just treatment. We also examined the degree of leader effectiveness. Therefore, we predict the following:

H1: Individuals presented with a leader similar to their current leader, transfer their expectations to the new leader. These include, just treatment (H1a) and perceived leader effectiveness (H1b).

Given that Ritter and Lord (2007) did not find a transference of PA and NA in the evaluation of new leaders who exhibited certain degree of similarity to previous leaders, we did not form specific hypotheses regarding the transference of affect, but our test was exploratory.

However, due to differences in the projective coping mechanisms of anxious and avoidant individuals, we hypothesized that the different projective mechanisms associated with anxious and avoidant attachment orientation are likely to influence the perceived similarity between previous and new leader description as well. Avoidant and anxious attachment orientations constitute secondary strategies for affect regulation. A series of studies have documented that in close relationships anxious and avoidant persons tend to utilize perceptual processes in the services of their affect regulatory system. Avoidant persons tend to perceive other persons as different from themselves as a result of defensive regulation that favours distance self from others and focus on the self (Mikulincer, 1998; Mikulincer, Orbach, & Iavnieli, 1998). These perceptual strategies function so as to maintain a unrealistically positive self-view (Mikulincer & Horesh, 1999). Conversely, persons higher on anxious attachment tend to perceive others as similar to themselves in line with defensive strategies that connect others with the self (Mikulincer & Horesh, 1999). Efforts to exaggerate personal weaknesses and bring out other persons' attention and concern for self are in keeping with overarching goals

of maintaining connectedness with others and a heightened similarity with others. To the extent that similarity of the current with previous leaders would activate attachment representations, we expected that what is observed in close relationships would also apply to hierarchical relationships at work. We therefore predicted the following:

H2a: Individuals higher on anxious attachment orientation are more likely to evaluate the new leader high on just treatment expectations and leader effectiveness, in so far as the new leader is similar to the previous leader.

H2b: Individuals higher on avoidant attachment orientation are more likely to evaluate a new leader low on just treatment expectations and leader effectiveness, in so far as the new leader is similar to the previous leader.

Global and Relationship-Specific Attachment

We expect differences with regard to the capacity of global and relationship-specific attachment orientations to affect the leadership transference process. This is because relationship-specific models sometimes are preferred and are more easily accessible than global attachment working models (Collins & Read, 1994). Instead of examining attachment, global and relationship-specific subsequently, we focused on the different impact on two different dependent variables, namely "perceived leader effectiveness" and "just treatment", in line with Ritter and Lord (2007).

Global attachment orientations involve chronically accessible working models, with both cognitive as well as affective properties, which are an average of experiences across previous relationships (Brumbaugh & Fraley, 2007). Global attachment working models are applied similarly to new relationships in general. Indeed, in most previous research it is global attachment models which are measured, i.e. the way individuals typically perceive close others and feel towards close relationships (Collins, et al., 2004; Collins & Read, 1994). Over time,

individuals develop numerous relationships with significant others, therefore creating and forming person and relationship-specific working models. These more person-specific working models are also known as relationship-specific working models, or relationship-specific attachment. Previous studies have shown that, for example "relationship-specific avoidance is more influential than global avoidance on the difference in participants' feelings" (Brumbaugh & Fraley, 2006: 557). Furthermore, Brumbaugh and Fraley (2006) found that relationship-specific anxious attachment led individuals to a similar degree with regard to evaluations of others. This also means that even when there is very limited overlap between the focal person (i.e., the previous interaction partner) and the target (i.e., new interaction partner), mental representations or working models of attachment of previous interaction partners guide individuals in their relational behaviour. However, in this case feelings toward the target person were the measured outcome.

In the research presented in this paper, we expected the influence of the activated attachment working models to largely depend on the measured outcome variable. We were interested in empirically testing the influence of attachment orientations on two outcome variables that vary in degrees of close emotional distance. More emotional judgments such as emotion toward someone or expectations of just treatment toward someone are more likely to be better predicted by the recollection and activation of relationship-specific attachment since, more relationship-specific working models are associated with more episodic memories of events (Collins, 1996), and hence emotion events. On the other hand, we expected less emotional judgments, i.e. judgments that do not evoke an intimate or close response by participants such as judgments of someone's competence or effectiveness to be better predicted by the activation of global attachment working models. Therefore, we hypothesize the following:

H3a: Relationship-specific attachment orientations are more likely to be activated when participants are asked to indicate ratings of a largely emotional measure, such as just treatment expectations. Consequently, individuals' relationship-specific anxious or avoidant attachment orientation likely influence just treatment evaluations of the new leader in line with H2, in so far as the new leader is similar to the previous leader.

H3b: Global attachment orientations are more likely to be activated when participants are asked to indicate ratings of a largely cognitive measure, such as perceived leader effectiveness. Consequently, individuals' global anxious or avoidant attachment orientation likely influence perceived leader effectiveness evaluations of the new leader in line with H2, in so far as the new leader is similar to the previous leader.

The presented studies allowed us to address three key questions regarding the transfer of attachment representations. The first was whether working models of attachment are activated and applied to new relational contexts in general or in selective ways. This is an important question in contemporary attachment research due to existing debates regarding whether working models are trait-like in the way they function (i.e., applied to a broad array of interpersonal situations) or are sensitive to context (i.e., activated and applied selectively in certain circumstances (see Baldwin, Keelan, Fehr, Enns, & Koh-Rangarajoo, 1996; Baldwin & Meunier, 1999; Pierce & Lydon, 2001; Rowe & Carnelley, 2003).

Culture as a moderator

Cultural differences in terms of autonomy and relatedness intersect with differences in avoidance and anxious attachment (Friedman, et al., 2010). These differences might in turn affect whether individuals are more or less likely to be reminded of a previous leader. This is in line with recent evidence that culture can modulate follower implicit leadership perceptions (Kafetsios, et al., 2014).

Due to the potential moderating influence of culture, we have chosen to analyse one particular cultural dimension, namely individualism-collectivism (I/C), since there is some evidence suggesting that I/C and attachment-related processes overlap strongly (Agishtein & Brumbaugh, 2013). Higher prevalence of anxious attachment in more collectivistic cultures (Schmitt, et al., 2004) is likely due to the characteristically large psychological dependence on others in such cultures (Sorensen & Oyserman, 2009). Further, avoidant individuals are more likely to be prevalent in individualistic cultures, given more individualist norms in relating. Further, avoidant individuals in collectivist cultures experience more relationship problems than avoidant persons in individualistic cultures (Friedman, et al., 2010; Simpson, Rholes, Oriña, & Grich, 2002), since they have to engage in a higher degree of self-disclosure (Mikulincer & Nachshon, 1991) and care-taking behaviours (Simpson, et al., 2002) with which they are uncomfortable with.

Although there are too few established empirical findings to form specific hypotheses, we no less investigate the moderating effects of culture, as culture could serve as a moderator. By testing our proposed model in different countries and cultures, we also hope to avoid ethnocentric biases and refine the degree of results generalization. Therefore, in Study 2 we compare findings from a sample of Greek, Indian and US population.

Overview of Studies

Since we present participants with a list of traits rather than having them describe their leader in their own words, our experiment differs slightly from the original (Ritter & Lord, 2007). Therefore, we first tested the slightly modified experimental design in a pre-test without predictors. Here we were interested in observing whether we can replicate the results by Ritter and Lord (2007) using just treatment as well as leader effectiveness expectations. In the subsequent two studies, we test whether attachment orientations can predict leader transfer using a sample of working professionals (Study 1). In Study 2 we account for the potential

influence of cultural differences, and therefore compare our findings from Study 1 with additional data from the US as well as India.

Pre-Test Methodology

Sample and Procedure

To test our experimental design, we recruited 258 participants using Amazon MTurk. However, not all participants completed both parts of our experiment. Therefore, we were left with 211 usable responses, which we deem adequate to test our methodology. Our participant pool included 93 women (118 men), who on average are 37.5 years old (*SD* = 11.14), ranging from 21 to 74 years of age. Participants had an average work experience of 16.88 years (*SD* = 11.18) and most (58.29 %) are in an employee position without supervisory responsibilities. All have completed at least a high school degree or GED.

Pretest — Time 1. First, we measured global attachment (Richards & Schat, 2011; adapted from Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991), Big-5 personality (Goldberg, 1990; Goldberg, et al., 2006) and trait anxiety (Spielberger, 1983). Scales were presented in random order. Individual items were also randomized.

Following questions on individual differences, participants were then asked to select and rank attributes, which describe their current supervisor. In case of unemployed participants, we asked for the most recent supervisor. The experimental method utilised was almost identical to Andersen's original methodology as well as its execution in the studies conducted by Ritter and Lord (2007). Since this is the first online experimental study testing leader transference, we made some slight modifications to the approach of Ritter and Lord (2007). Instead of being asked to write down 20 attributes describing and distinguishing their leader from other leaders, in this study participants were shown 16 items from a list of roughly 200 attributes, previously scored on importance of supervisors by a separate, large participant sample (Jarymowicz, 1992). These items were shown at random, but evenly, i.e. positive, negative and neutral words

were shown evenly. Out of these 16 items, participants were asked to select and rank 10 attributes, which were most definitional in describing their leader. In case participants could not choose from the presented list, they were free to drop out of the survey. This occurred only once. Directly following the ranking task, we asked participants to fill out scales pertaining to the relationship between the participant and their described leader. Scales included measures on relationships specific attachment (Fraley, Heffernan, Vicary, & Brumbaugh, 2011), positive and negative affect (Watson & Clark, 1991) as well as interactional justice (Colquitt, 2001), referred to as just treatment. Participants also completed standard demographics such as work experience, job level, gender and age. Participants were thanked for their participation and informed about a follow-up study a week later.

Pre-Test — Time 2. We randomly assigned participants to a similar (n = 103) or non-similar (n = 108) new leader condition. Both conditions were preceded with a short vignette, asking participants to imagine having been assigned a new head of department, who is also their direct supervisor. Further, participants were told that they do not know this new supervisor, but that one of their colleagues has previously worked with that person. The vignette concluded by describing the participant heading to their colleague's office to ask about the new supervisor. On the next page, participants were presented with the following vignette: "Your colleague tells you that the new head of the department and your new direct supervisor is best described with the following attributes". This descriptive text was then followed by a list of 7 attributes describing their new leader. Participants were told to take a moment to go through these attributes and let them sink in.

Similarly to Ritter and Lord (2007), we composed an individualized new leader "profile" based on each participant's previous responses and the condition they were randomly assigned to. At T1, we had asked participants to select and rank 10 definitional leader

attributes[3]. We presented participants in the similar condition with 4 idiographic leader attributes (those listed and ranked 2-5 in Phase 1). For this study, we made use of a large list of previously tested and ranked personality attributes (Jarymowicz, 1992). We chose this list of personality items in particular, since the same list has been used in previous research on attachment and the perception of attributes (Mikulincer & Horesh, 1999). The highest rank equals the highest amounts of points attributed to that attribute by a separate sample of 100 previous participants (Anderson, 1968). Having taken the median of all ranked attributes, we selected the 6 most neutral attributes as our neutral descriptor items. We then randomly assigned 3 out of these 6 neutral, or filler attributes, to each participant's similar new leader profile. In summary, participants in the similar leader condition were presented with 4 idiographic attributes, as well as 3 neutral attributes. All attributes were presented at random.

Participants then filled out scales about their current leader and their relation to their leader, i.e. relationship-specific attachment, just treatment expectations, leader effectiveness as well as positive and negative affect.

In the non-similar condition, participants were presented with 4 leader attributes from another randomly chosen participant (those listed and ranked 2-5). We ensured that none of each participant's actual selected attributes overlapped with the attributes of the other randomly selected participant. Further, as before, the non-similar leader condition also included 3 neutral items selected from the same list of 6 neutral leader attributes, based on Jarymowicz (1992). We again ensured that neither of the neutral items was part of the new leader profile. If this was the case, we replaced the corresponding duplicate neutral item with another neutral item. In summary, participants in the non-similar condition were presented with 4 non-idiographic attributes, as well as 3 neutral attributes. All attributes were shuffled and presented at random.

[3] The Ritter and Lord (2007) study had included 20 descriptors at T1 and eight idiographic leader descriptors (those listed and ranked 4-11 in Phase 1).

Participants then filled out the same scales as before pertaining to the expectations of the new leader.

Manipulation Check

Finally, we conducted a manipulation check, asking participants to indicate how similar the leader described in Phase 2 seemed to be in comparison to the leader they described in Phase 1. Independent t-tests showed a significant difference (p = .001) between scores of participants who had been shown the similar leader condition (M = 2.41, SD = 1.02) versus those shown the dissimilar leader condition (M = 1.96, SD = .91). This means that participants could recall and were aware that the described leader was either similar or dissimilar from the leader they described at Time 1.

Measures

Just Treatment. Just treatment expectations were assessed using the interactional justice scale by Colquitt and Rodell (2011). The used scale includes the following items: "Has your supervisor treated you in a polite manner?", "Has your supervisor treated you with dignity?", "Has your supervisor treated you with respect?" and "Has your supervisor refrained from improper remarks or comments?".

Leadership Effectiveness. Leader effectiveness was measured using a simple one-item question, asking participants to rate the statement: "This supervisor is very effective as a leader". The question was deliberately worded in this way since we are much more interested in the perceived leader effectiveness, and not actual leader performance.

Positive/Negative Affect (PA/NA). As in Ritter and Lord (2007), PA and NA are measured using the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (Watson & Clark, 1991). It includes a positive affect scale as well as measures on fear, hostility, guilt, sadness, shyness, fatigue and surprise, indicated on a 5-point scale (1 = not at all; 5 = extremely). Only the broad scales were used for analysis. All statistical analyses were performed using STATA 12 (StataCorp., 2011).

Results

Correlations between study variables are reported in the table below.

Insert Table 4 about here

In order to be more efficient we run a structural equations model (see Figure 1) in which we modelled all dependent variables as outcomes simultaneously and correlated their disturbances for efficiency gains in estimation to obtain smaller standard errors, mimicking the one presented in Ritter and Lord (2007). The model lacks the latent factor of justice presented in Ritter and Lord (2007), and instead accounts for interactional justice (Colquitt, 2001). Our results mirror those of Ritter and Lord (2007), where just treatment expectations were more likely to be transferred to a new leader if the new leader was highly similar to participants' current leader. Results are reported in Table 2. We found that parameter estimates for just treatment expectations do significantly differ across the non-similar and similar leader groups, χ^2 (1) = 7.033, $p < .01$.

Insert Figure 4 - Pre-test transference model presented separately for the non-similar (A; n = 108) and similar (B; n = 103) about here

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Likewise, we found that leader effectiveness expectations were more likely to be transferred to a new leader if the new leader were highly similar to participants' current leader than if they were not. Parameter estimates did significantly differ across groups, χ^2 (1) = 16.001, $p < .001$.

Concerning positive and negative affect, parameter estimates were significant in both the similar leader and the non-similar leader condition. We found that parameter estimates for negative and positive affect did not significantly differ across groups, χ^2 (1) = 0.033, ns, and

$\chi^2(1) = 3.562$, ns, respectively. This means that positive and negative affect relate positively to both a current and new leader, regardless of the new leader's similarity to the current leader. Put differently, positive and negative affect are transferred to any leader, regardless of similarity to the previous leader. These findings reflect those by Ritter and Lord (2007).

Brief Discussion

In this pre-test, we were primarily concerned with testing our experimental design, modified for a computerized study. In short, we successfully replicated results reported by Ritter and Lord (2007) with regard to just treatment expectations, positive and negative affect, as well as our newly examined variable on leader effectiveness expectations.

For subsequent analyses, and in line with the stated aims, "To examine group differences further ... we examined each path separately" (Ritter and Lord (2007). Therefore, we run separate models for just treatment and leader effectiveness ratings outcomes. Moreover, since parameter estimates for positive and negative affect do not differ significantly between the two manipulation conditions, we no longer include positive and negative affect in the next two studies. Finally, in the study presented in the next section we test our main hypotheses using a sample of working professionals.

Study 1

In the pre-test we utilized an online participant pool from Amazon MTurk, successfully replicating previous findings by Ritter and Lord (2007) and confirming our hypotheses with regard to the transfer of expectations for leadership effectiveness and just treatment (H1). In particular, by using this experimental setup, we can examine whether working models of attachment are applied universally across relationships in general, i.e. in a trait like fashion, or in a person-specific manner, i.e. only in certain relationships and circumstances (Brumbaugh & Fraley, 2006; Pierce & Lydon, 2001; Rowe & Carnelley, 2003). In the study presented

below, we conducted the experiment using a traditional participant pool of working professionals in Greece.

Sample and Procedure

In total 130 Greek working professionals completed the two-part experiment. Participants were contacted through executive seminars, lifelong learning classes as well as previous email lists offered by a large university in Greece. All questionnaire text was translated from English into Greek using back-translation techniques (Brislin, 1970). Previously used and translated versions of scales were used whenever available. Having passed mandatory attention checks (Mason & Suri, 2012), our final sample of 95 participants comprised 71.58% females and 28.42% males, ranging from 19-78 years of age (M = 33.93, SD = 12.39), with an average work experience of 10.79 years (SD = 9.82).

Participants were also asked to specify their job level or position (M = 1.65, SD = 1.37), in order to identify whether participants also held leadership positions in addition to being an employee to their supervisor. Participants indicated whether their most recent job position was that of an (1) employee (77.89%), (2) entry level supervisor (4.21 %), (3) lower middle management (3.16 %), (4) middle management (6.32 %), (5) upper management (6.32 %) or (6) top-level management (2.11 %). We further enquired about participants' most recent occupation. Management, professional, services, sales and office workers accounted for 53.68 % of the sample, while 34.74 % had jobs that did not fall in the abovementioned categories (category Other). Unemployed participants accounted for 1.05 % of our total sample.

Study 1 — Time 1. Participants were asked to complete an informed consent form and were told that first they would be asked to complete measures on individual characteristics. These measures consisted of global (and relationship-specific) attachment (Richards & Schat, 2011), personality (Goldberg, et al., 2006) and trait anxiety (Spielberger, 1983). Echoing

results of Ritter and Lord (2007) and our own pre-test (p. 16) we excluded positive and negative affect from subsequent analyses in this study.

After measuring individual differences, participants were again shown a randomly but evenly selected sample of 16 traits based on a list of previously tested descriptive traits (Jarymowicz, 1992). However, unlike a list of 200 descriptive traits as in the pre-test, the trait list in this study included 180 items. This was due to some overlap of several traits once translated into Greek (back-to-back translation).

Further, just like in the pre-test, participants had to select and rank 10 attributes which were most definitional in describing their leader. In case participants could not choose from the presented list, they were free to drop out of the survey. However, this did not occur. Participants then completed scales pertaining to the relationship between the participant and their described leader. These scales included measures on relationship-specific attachment (R Chris Fraley, et al., 2011) as well as just treatment and leader effectiveness. Participants completed demographic information such as work experience, job level, gender, and age. Participants were thanked for their participation and were informed about a follow-up study a week later.

Study 1 — Time 2. As in the pre-test, participants were randomly assigned to a similar (n = 44) or non-similar (n = 51) leader description. Both conditions were preceded with the same short vignette presented in Study 1, asking participants to imagine having been assigned a new head of department, followed by a list of 7 attributes describing their new leader. All attributes were shuffled and presented at random. Participants were told to take a moment to go through these attributes and let them sink in. We then presented participants to evaluate the following question measuring leader effectiveness (1 = Not at all, 5 = Very much): “My new supervisor seems very effective as a leader”. Participants then filled out scales with regard to the just presented leader and their relational expectations to this new leader, that is, relationship

specific attachment and just treatment expectations. After completing the survey, participants were fully debriefed and thanked for their help.

Measures

The measures regarding just treatment (Colquitt, 2001) and perceived leader effectiveness were identical to those listed in the pre-test. Further, we now examined several individual characteristics as well:

Attachment orientations. Individuals' attachment was assessed using Richards and Schat (2011) adaptation of Brennan, et al. (1998) Experience in Close Relationships scale (ECR). The ECR consists of 36 items on two subscales – attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance. Participants rated on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) the extent to which each item described their feelings in close relationships. Anxious attachment ($\alpha = .94$, $M = 2.46$, $SD = 1.21$) comprises 18 items, e.g. "I need a lot of reassurance that I am liked and appreciated by other people" and "My desire to be very close sometimes scares people away". Similarly, the subscale for Avoidance attachment ($\alpha = .90$; $M = -1.83$, $SD = .93$) also contains 18 items, e.g. "I turn to others for many things, including comfort and reassurance" and "I am very comfortable being close to others", both reverse-scored.

Trait Anxiety. The trait anxiety scale included 10 items from the Spielberger (1983) inventory, with an equal amount of reverse-coded items as normal coded ones. Reliability alpha was good ($\alpha = .87$).

Personality. In order to ensure appropriate discriminant validity analyses, we tested the effects of avoidance and anxious attachment against other personality traits, i.e., the Five Factor Model (FFM) or so-called "Big 5" (McCrae & Costa, 1987), using the Mini IPIP scale (Goldberg, et al., 2006). We controlled for personality traits as defined by the five factors are Openness to Experience ($\alpha = .68$), Conscientiousness ($\alpha = .60$), Extraversion ($\alpha = .74$),

Agreeableness (α = .74) and Neuroticism (α = .66) with 4 items each. Scores were reported on a 5-point scale ranging from (1) "very inaccurate" to (5) "very accurate" for all dimensions.

Work Experience. Participants indicated their work experience in years.

Level of Employment. We have to assume that participants might not only be employees, but may also have had some leadership experience as well. Hence, we requested participants to inform whether they have no experience (1), some analyst/beginner experience (2), some supervisory function (3), are in a senior position and provide regular team supervision (4) oversee multiple teams or are in top management (5). Further, we controlled for gender and other demographics such as age.

It is important to keep in mind that not all others are automatically categorized as a significant other (Cozzarelli, Hoekstra, & Bylsma, 2000; Crawshaw & Game, 2014). We hence, also asked participants to evaluate their current leader on relationship-specific elements.

Relationship-Specific Attachment. Relationship-specific attachment was measured using the scale proposed in R. C. Fraley, N. W. Hudson, M. E. Heffernan, and N. Segal (2015). It includes 9 items, which are asked with regard to a specific person; hence the term relationship-specific attachment. In this study, we asked participants to complete this scale after they had read the description of their new leader (at T2). Six items measured relationship-specific avoidance attachment (α = .93) and three items measured relationship-specific anxious attachment (α = .80). Items include questions such as "It helps to turn to this person in times of need" or "I talk things over with this person". Items are scored on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

Furthermore, a relationship between a significant other and the individual implies regular interactions with the other person, over a certain period of time. Brumbaugh and Fraley (2007) suggest controlling for the amount of contact one has with the current interaction

partner. Likewise, relationship importance could also influence the transfer of working models. Therefore, we controlled for both relationship importance as well as daily contact with participants' current leaders.

Correlations between variables are reported in Table 2 below.

Insert Table 5 about here

Results

To test our hypotheses, we regressed Time 2 Just treatment expectations and Leader effectiveness evaluations with the following linear regression model using robust estimates:

$$y_j = \beta_0 + \beta_1 (MSC)_j + \beta_2 (JT\ T1)_j + \beta_3 (MSC * JT\ T1)_j + \beta_4 (RS\ Anx)_j + \beta_5 (MSC * RS\ Anx)_j + \beta_6 (RS\ Avoid)_j + \beta_7 (MSC * RS\ Avoid)_j + \beta_8 (RS\ Anx * RS\ Avoid)_j + \beta_9 (MSC * RS\ Anx * RS\ Avoid)_j + \varepsilon_j$$

Where MSC = Manipulated Similarity Condition 0 = Dissimilar Leader, 1 = Similar Leader, JT T1 = Just Treatment at Time 1, RS Anx = Relationship Specific Anxious Attachment, RS Avoid = Relationship Specific Avoidant attachment. In the case of Leader effectiveness evaluations, the Relationship specific version of the scale was replaced by the global attachment orientation ratings.

Just Treatment Expectations. Using ordinary least squares (OLS) regressions with a heteroscedastic-robust estimate of the variance, we regressed the continuous variable – reflecting the degree of just treatment expectations attributed to the described leader – on the manipulated variable leader condition, as well as the individual differences predictors relationship-specific (RS) anxious attachment and relationship-specific (RS) avoidance

attachment and their interaction. The regression model predicts attributed just treatment expectations using these two predictors, as well as their interaction, i.e. fearful attachment. Results differed only slightly once personality dimensions were introduced. We found that just treatment expectations were successfully predicted as expected using only relationship-specific attachment, which confirms H3a. Refer to Table 3 below for results.

Insert Table 6 about here

The interaction between relationship-specific anxious attachment and manipulated similarity condition was also a significant predictor of just treatment expectations (Table 3, M3; $b = .23$; $SE = .12$, $p < .05$). The interaction is depicted in Figure 2. A simple slopes test of anxious attachment (of -1/ +1 SD) in the high similarity condition was significant ($t = 4.149$; $p < .000$). Therefore, individuals who scored high on relationship-specific anxious attachment attributed higher just treatment expectations to a new, similar leader.

Insert Figure 5 about here

We also found a significant interaction between RS avoidance and manipulated similarity condition in predicting just treatment expectations. In this case the interaction was negative (Table 3, M3, $b = -.57$; $SE = .26$, $p < .05$). A plot of the interaction is presented in Figure 3. A simple slopes test of RS avoidant attachment (of -1/ +1 SD) in the high similarity condition was significant ($t = -2.672$; $p < .000$). Therefore, higher avoidance resulted in lower just treatment expectations in the similar leader condition, but in higher just treatment expectations in the low similarity leader condition.

Insert Figure 6 about here

Finally, we also found a significant interaction between RS fearful attachment and Manipulated Similarity Conditions (Table 3, M3; $b = .18$; $SE = .08$, $p < .05$). Closer marginal comparison showed that individuals with high (relationship-specific) avoidant attachment orientations attributed the lowest just treatment expectations to new, similar leaders ($M = 2.83$, $SE = .19$; $t = 14.85$) compared to anxious ($M = 3.09$, $SE = .25$, $t = 12.34$), fearful ($M = 3.47$, $SE = .14$, $t = 24.26$) and securely attached participants ($M = 3.18$, $SE = .22$, $t = 14.45$).

Leader Effectiveness Expectations. We found that leader effectiveness expectations were only successfully predicted using global attachment as a predictor (Table 4). This confirms H3b.

Insert Table 7 about here

The relationship between anxious attachment and leader effectiveness expectations (T2) in the similar leader condition was significant ($b = .72$; $SE = .36$, $p = .052$). A simple slope analysis revealed that participants higher in global anxious attachment had higher leader effectiveness expectations in the high similarity leader condition compared to those with lower anxious attachment orientations ($t = 2.48$; $p = .014$).

With regard to global attachment avoidance, our regression model depicts a negative relationship to leader effectiveness at T2 as a function of manipulated similarity condition (Table 4, M3; $b = -.99$; $SE = .49$, $p < .05$). The interaction is depicted in Figure 4. Higher global avoidance was associated with lower leader effectiveness evaluation in the high similarity condition. A simple slope analysis showed the slope was not significant ($t = -1.46$, $p = .145$).

Insert Figure 7 about here

Finally, global fearful attachment also showed a significant link to the dependent variable, as a function of the leader similarity manipulation (Table 4, M3; $b = .44$; $SE = .17$, $p = .01$). Closer observation showed that individuals with high (global) avoidant attachment orientations attributed the lowest leader effectiveness expectations to new, similar leaders ($M = 2.68$, $SE = .37$, $t = 7.73$) compared to anxious ($M = 3.05$, $SE = .30$, $t = 10.16$), fearful ($M = 3.97$, $SE = .26$, $t = 15.27$) and securely attached participants ($M = 3.20$, $SE = .26$, $t = 12.25$).

Brief Discussion

Study 1 provides support for part of our outlined hypotheses H2 and H3. Overall, global attachment measures can predict the transfer of perceived expectations of leadership effectiveness. Relationship-specific attachment measures seem to be suited as a predictor of more emotional factors such as expectations of just treatment. This is in line with the theoretical understanding and previous studies' results on the predictive abilities of attachment orientations and the transfer process.

In particular, manipulating leader similarity was a consistent moderator of insecure attachment orientations relationships with just treatment expectations and perceived leader effectiveness. When similar leader traits were primed, higher relationship-specific anxious attachment led to higher just treatment expectations in line with part of H2a. Conversely, in line with H2b, higher relationship-specific avoidant attachment was associated with lower just treatment expectations when similar leader traits were primed compared to the non-similar condition. The part of the results to do with avoidance and leader effectiveness were replicated also concerning global avoidant attachment evaluation.

These findings point to differences in the transfer of leadership perceptions between anxious and avoidant attachment orientations. The findings also reiterate expectations

regarding the regulatory and the perceptual parts of different forms of adult attachment organization (Mikulincer & Horesh, 1999) and extend those previous findings to the leadership field.

Study 1 provided good insights in the underlying mechanics of transference using attachment orientations as predictors. This is particularly the case for RS-attachment and just treatment expectations. However, since results were only based on one relatively small sample, we further tested these findings further in Study 2, using additional samples and a cross-cultural comparison.

Study 2

In Study 2 we aimed to replicate results from Study 1 and further examine the possible moderating role of culture. As stated earlier, it could be that degree of individualism versus collectivism strengthens or reduces individuals' focus on previous leaders. In order to gain a better understanding of whether culture could be a factor to consider in the transfer of behavioural expectations, we decided to replicate the results of Study 1 in two additional cultures. Hence, in Study 2 we compare the presented Greek participant pool to a comparative sample in the United States (US) and one in India. These countries were chosen due to their variance on the I/C scale by Hofstede (2001). They rank as follows: US (91), India (48) and Greece (35).

The US was chosen as a comparison point, due to the culture's high degree of individualism. In fact, the US population exhibits the highest degree of individualism of all observed cultures (Hofstede, 2001). India as another comparison country was chosen for several reasons. Firstly, most papers examining attachment distributions across countries have focused on collectivistic countries based on East Asian Confucianism (e.g. Cheng & Kwan, 2008), whereas attachment data in India is still lacking (Van Ijzendoorn & Sagi-Schwartz, 2008). Further, with the exception of one study by Agishtein and Brumbaugh (2013), research

examining attachment in Southeast Asia has not reported data on insecure attachment and focused on secure attachment instead (Gerdvilyte & Abhyankar, 2010). Indians usually score lower on anxious attachment than other collectivistic countries (Agishtein & Brumbaugh, 2013), such as for example Greece. In addition, in the Indian population the model of other is negatively correlated with self-esteem, whereas other collectivistic countries (e.g. Greece, Turkey, Japan) both models of self and other correlate positively with self-esteem (Schmitt, et al., 2004). Therefore, India was chosen as a viable comparison point for our study.

Sample and Procedure

Since Study 2 was a replication study the procedure remained the same as described in Study 1. The total sample (n = 341) consisted of Greek working professionals (n = 95) as well as recruited Amazon MTurk workers in both the United States (n = 137) and India (n = 109).

The US sample consisted of 137 participants (51.80% females) who completed both parts of the experiment, as well as all had passed required attention checks. They were on average 37.37 years of age (SD = 11.74) with 16.15 years of work experience (SD = 10.77). All had completed high school. Approximately half of our recruited US participants were employees with no supervisory role (55.40 %).

With the Indian sample we had to be more stringent with regard to manipulation checks, as we had to control for comprehension in addition to ensuring participants did not answer questions randomly. In total, 144 workers completed both parts of our experimental study, yielding a final sample of 109 useful responses. Participants were on average 34.04 years old (SD = 9.81) with around 9.15 years of work experience (SD = 7.57). All participants had at least a high school degree or higher. However, compared to the other two samples, only 12.84% of our recruited Indian workers were employees with no supervisory role. The vast majority were in a current job with some supervisory roles and duties.

Firstly, we assessed each culture separately with regard to the predictive abilities of attachment orientations on just treatment expectations. This was done to outline the effect of our predictors using the non-similar leader condition as the baseline. Although the findings in the Greek sample are shown in Study 1, we included them in the reported table, in order to provide an easier side-by-side comparison. Secondly, we included all three groups in the same model. Here, we decided to set the US sample as the baseline, as it is the country scoring highest between the three on individualism and lowest on power distance.

Measures

In order to ensure that the method was identical across all three samples, displayed traits were again chosen from the same list (180 traits) as described in Study 1. Measures were the same as outlined in Study 1.

Results

Consistent with past research (Friedman, et al., 2010), the present study found that mean levels of attachment anxiety were higher in India and Greece, two collectivistic cultures, than in the United States, an individualistic culture. Avoidance was also higher in the United States. An overview of primary variables by culture is provided below.

Insert Table 8 about here

As in the previous study, we successfully replicated the results found by Ritter and Lord (2007) with regard to just treatment at T1 predict just treatment expectations at T2 in the similar leader condition (M4; $b = .37$, $SE = .13$; $p < .01$). Likewise, leadership effectiveness at T1 also significantly predicted leadership effectiveness expectations at T2 in the similar leader condition (M4; $b = .62$, $SE = .09$; $p < .001$).

Correlation tables by culture are provided in the tables below.

Insert Table 9 & 10 about here

In terms of just treatment expectations, we again compared the Greek and Indian sample against the American sample. **As in Study 1,** to test our hypotheses we regressed Time 2 Just treatment expectations and Leader effectiveness evaluations with the following linear regression model using robust estimates:

$$y_j = \beta_0 + \beta_1 (MSC)_j + \beta_2 (JT\ T1)_j + \beta_3 (MSC * JT\ T1)_j + \beta_4 (Greece) + \beta_5 (India) + \beta_6 (MSC * Greece) + \beta_7 (MSC * India) + \beta_8 (RS\ Anx)_j + \beta_9 (Greece * RS\ Anx)_j + \beta_{10} (India * RS\ Anx) + \beta_{11} (MSC * RS\ Anx)_j + \beta_{12} (MSC * Greece * RS\ Anx)_j + \beta_{13} (MSC * India * RS\ Anx)_j + \beta_{14} (RS\ Avoid)_j + + \beta_{15} (Greece * RS\ Avoid)_j + \beta_{16} (India * RS\ Avoid) + \beta_{17} (MSC * RS\ Avoid)_j + \beta_{18} (MSC * Greece * RS\ Avoid)_j + \beta_{19} (MSC * India * RS\ Avoid)_j + \beta_{20} (RS\ Anx * RS\ Avoid)_j + \beta_{21} (Greece * RS\ Anx * RS\ Avoid)_j + \beta_{22} (India * RS\ Anx * RS\ Avoid)_j + \beta_{23} (MSC * RS\ Anx * RS\ Avoid)_j + \beta_{24} (MSC * Greece * RS\ Anx * RS\ Avoid)_j + \beta_{24} (MSC * India * RS\ Anx * RS\ Avoid)_j + \varepsilon_j$$

Where MSC = Manipulated Similarity Condition 0 = Dissimilar Leader, 1 = Similar Leader, JT T1 = Just Treatment at Time 1, RS Anx = Relationship Specific Anxious Attachment, RS Avoid = Relationship Specific Avoidant attachment, Greece = 1 Greek participants, 0 = Non-Greek participants, India = 1 Indian participants, 0 = Non-Indian participants. In the case of Leader effectiveness evaluations, the relationship-specific version of the scale was replaced by the global attachment orientation ratings.

Here we did find significant differences between the three samples, using the US sample as a baseline. Results are depicted in Table 8.

Insert Table 11 about here

Using the US sample as a baseline, we found that in the Greek sample in the similar leader condition, RS-avoidance attachment related negatively to just treatment expectations at T2 (b = -.82, SE = .33, p < .05). This result also replicated in the Indian sample as well (b = -.94, SE = .43, p < .05). Given these results, we examined whether the partial coefficients of the fit measures differed across the groups; using Stata's SUEST command, we simultaneously tested the difference in the interaction between regression coefficients relationship-specific avoidance attachment and the similar leader condition (manipulation condition = 1), respectively, across the three groups. The coefficients were significantly different (see Table 10). We then made similar comparisons among the regression estimates of the following pairs, respectively: Between the low-collectivistic group (US) and high-collectivistic groups (Greece and India, respectively), as well as between the two highly collectivistic groups (Greece and India).

Insert Table 12 about here

The test showed that there was no significant difference between the sets of regression estimates of the two high-collectivistic groups. However, the coefficients of the low-collectivistic group (US) were significantly different to both the high-collectivistic groups (Greece and India, respectively). The results suggested that the data of individuals from high- and low-collectivistic cultures did not demonstrate the same fit patterns; also, the results from the two high-collectivistic groups were essentially very similar. Thus, culture does serve as a moderator between relationship-specific avoidance attachment and just treatment expectations, as long as the new leader is similar to the previous one.

Therefore, individuals in the US, an individualistic culture, who have a highly avoidant attachment relationship to their current leader, are more likely to be influenced by their

previous leader, that is, they are more likely to transfer previous just treatment evaluations to a new similar leader.

Further, we also found a positive relationship between fearful attachment and just treatment expectations at T2 in both the Greek (b = .29, SE = .12, p = .02) and the Indian samples (b = .28, SE = .15, p < .059). We again examined whether the partial coefficients of the fit measures differed across the groups by simultaneously testing the difference in the interaction between regression coefficients in relationship-specific avoidance attachment, anxious attachment and the similar leader condition (manipulation condition = 1), respectively, across the three groups. The coefficients were significantly different (see Table 11).

Insert Table 13 about here

The test on the equality of structural coefficients across groups again showed that there was no significant difference between the sets of regression estimates of the two high-collectivistic groups, i.e. between Greece and Indian cultures. Again, the coefficients of the low-collectivistic group (US) were significantly different to both the high-collectivistic groups (Greece and India, respectively).

This indicates that compared to the American sample, fearful attached Greek or Indian individuals are more likely to expect highly just treatment behaviour from the newly described leader as long as there are presented with someone who is similar to their current leader.

Perceived Leader Effectiveness. We compared the US sample, as a highly individualistic culture, to the two other, more collectivist and higher power distance cultures, Greece and India. Hence, we were interested in whether the Greek and Indian samples differed from the US sample, which was the baseline. Again, examining seemingly unrelated regressions, combines the estimates from the three equations (of the three groupings) in one

vector for the parameters and a robust variance matrix. Testing whether partial coefficients of the fit measures differed across the groups by simultaneously testing the difference in regression coefficients revealed the following results:

Insert Table 14 & 15 about here

Only the American sample showed significant effects with regard to global avoidance in the similar leader condition. Interestingly, the American sample initially showed a negative relationship between global avoidance attachment and leader effectiveness at T2 (b = -.56; SD = .14, p < .001). However, the similar leader condition moderated this relationship and rendered it positive (b = .64; SD = .19, p = .001).

These results are directly opposite of those found in the original Greek sample in the similar leader condition. No significant results were found in the Indian sample.

Brief Discussion

The analyses presented here suggest that culture is a potent moderating factor, in relationships between attachment orientations and especially with regard to future just treatment expectations of new (similar) leaders. We discuss these findings further in the discussion section below.

General Discussion

Since prototype matching is not a "set-in-stone process" but varies between individuals, it is likely that additional informational cues are used to help individuals evaluate leaders (Chen, Gully, & Eden, 2001; Ritter & Lord, 2007). Previous socialization experiences with significant others are considered important blueprints used to make sense and evaluate future leaders, which allow comparisons with previously categorized significant others. We examined attachment orientations as possible predictors of engaging in this process of transference of

expectations and judgments. In the two presented studies we focused on the transference of leader expectations and tested this process using an experimental design. In particular, we looked at just treatment expectations and perceived leader effectiveness as the two dependent variables.

With regard to the transfer of *just treatment* expectations from a current leader to a new, similar leader, in Study 1 we found that individuals who scored higher on Relationship Specific (RS) anxious attachment were more likely to hold higher expectations of just treatment of their new leader. Individuals who scored higher on RS-anxious attachment attributed higher just treatment expectations to new leaders, as long as the new leader was similar, i.e. reminded them of their previous leader. Hence, as followers, participants are likely to still be attached or "hung-up" on their previous leader. With regard to leader effectiveness evaluations, we confirmed that the relationship between global anxious attachment and leader effectiveness expectations was positive and significant. Furthermore, individuals with an anxious attachment dimension seem to attribute higher scores to the new, similar leader than individuals who score low on this dimension. Therefore, global anxious attachment seems to be able to predict leader effectiveness expectations just as relationship-specific attachment does in the case of just treatment expectations.

On the other hand, we found a reverse pattern of relationships for avoidant attachment. Notably, an avoidance orientation (both relationship-specific and global) was associated with lower expectations for both just treatment and effectiveness. Also, attribution scores of individuals with a dominantly (global) avoidant attachment orientation were the lowest in the similar leader condition, compared to all other attachment orientations. These findings lend support to socio-cognitive explanations and links between projective with perceptual processes in the attributions made by insecure persons (Mikulincer & Horesh, 1999) and apply those to leadership processes. It seems that leader similarity/resemblance is a key trigger of attachment

cognitions also in line with recent evidence for the pervasive character of attachment cognitions (Turan, 2016). The conducting of further research is important in clarifying the conditions under which attachment-related perceptions are triggered in hierarchical relationships.

With regard to culture, previous studies have shown that higher levels of avoidant attachment are linked to negative relationship evaluations in general (Friedman, et al., 2010). This lends some support to the initial framework set out by Bowlby (1969), who theorized that attachment orientations, due to their early on-set and biological underpinnings, should be consistent across all population groups and cultures. However, culture can also moderate leadership perceptions related to avoidant or anxious orientations (Kafetsios et al., 2014) or in the way, individuals feel content in their relationships with others. As stated above, anxious attachment is more prevalent in collectivistic cultures, since collectivistic cultures are highly interdependent and place a great value on relational aspects of the self. We also found this to be the case, as anxious attachment scores obtained in India were, indeed, the highest compared to Greece or the US (Study 2). In collectivistic cultures, anxious followers' typical other-oriented schemas are further reinforced by the collectivistic culture's mandate for other-orientation in social relationships. In such cultures, avoidant participants are likely to have unmet leader-follower expectations, i.e. they might be asked to be more socially engaging and rely on others, which is not in their nature. This would likely cause disappointment and frustration (Friedman, et al., 2010) for avoidant individuals. Moreover, priming similarity in leader-traits, coupled with the culture's other-oriented cultural mandate is not in line with avoidant followers' tendencies to distance from others and focus on the self (Collins, 1996). Therefore, depending on individuals' cultural orientation and their dominant attachment orientation, persons will likely differ in the transference of leader expectations.

Accordingly, the present research found that individuals with a highly relationship-specific avoidant attachment orientation in collectivistic cultures such as Greece or India, hold

negative (or low) just treatment expectations of a new, similar leader. Although somewhat counterintuitive given avoidant attached individuals' tendency to evaluate others negatively in general (Rom & Mikulincer, 2003) this is to be expected. In such cultures avoidant attached individuals are not "hung up" or influenced by their previous leader, but rather perceive relationships with new leaders as new and unique, not tainted by previous similar relationships. In the case of avoidant individuals, these relationships can then be evaluated negatively.

This is in stark contrast to highly avoidant individuals in individualistic cultures, i.e., cultures that place great importance on individual goals and values such as the US, who hold positive (or high) just treatment expectations of new, similar leaders. This means that new, similar leaders are evaluated positively, instead of negatively, which would be in the nature of avoidance attachment. This is an important finding, as it demonstrates that avoidant individuals in highly individualistic cultures, are more greatly influenced by previous leaders, likely due to previous issues or conflicts with the current leader or the coinciding of self-focus at the cultural and individual levels. Hence, a new leader, albeit a similar one is then evaluated more positively, i.e. a new leader-follower relationship is preferred and hence positive behavioural expectations are attributed to the new relationship and leader. However, this only holds for behavioural measures such as just treatment expectations. Results could not be replicated using more cognitive evaluations such as perceptions of leader effectiveness. Indeed, a model including all three cultures did not reveal any significant results.

Limitations and Future Research

The studies presented here are of course not without limitations. Firstly, we rely on the transference methodology of Andersen, as well as Ritter & Lord (2007) with regard to testing transference in a leadership context. However, we slightly adapted previous methodologies by using a pre-determined set of attributes, instead of asking participants to retrieve attributes from memory. Potentially, one could argue this list is not exhaustive enough and cannot truly reflect

participants' descriptions of their leader. However, we repeatedly replicated the results of Ritter & Lord (2007) using this particular method, which gives us confidence of its suitability and reliability. Using the method described in this manuscript greatly simplifies execution and data collection and produces reliable results. We encourage future scholars to use this method to conduct additional research on this topic, facilitated by much larger possible samples than manual execution allows.

Secondly, one clear limitation was the use of online participant pools for two of the three samples. MTurk population is not very different from traditional participants (Paolacci & Chandler, 2014). Hauser and Schwarz (2016) even found MTurk users to be more attentive to tasks at hand than traditional participants. Although, we do acknowledge the lack of control regarding experimental conditions with such a population, our Greek sample, although not recruited via MTurk also filled out the survey online at their own discretion. Therefore, the conditions are very similar across all three samples. One could argue that MTurk users are paid for their work, and hence are motivated to go through surveys as quickly as possible. Ultimately, this could lead to random answers. Having considered this, we did take measures to ensure questions were understood and answered truthfully. We did so by implementing attention and recall checks. The used attention check questions were selected and pretested in a study by Meade and Craig (2012). Only MTurk participants who had a very high approval rating (over 85%) were contacted in both samples.

Thirdly, the use of a categorical cultural factor forms another limitation. Indeed, we accounted for cultural differences by testing our hypotheses in three different populations. Therefore, we lack more detailed measures, e.g., specific measures of several cultural dimensions. We encourage scholars to include more sophisticated measures of cultural dimensions in their analyses of attachment orientations. That way it will be possible to further disentangle which exact cultural aspects most strongly influence the relationship between

attachment orientations and the transference of behavioural expectations from one leader to another.

Conclusion

Limitations notwithstanding, the findings from our research suggest that attachment orientations are potent antecedents to socio-cognitive processes related to the transfer of expectations from a previous leader to a new one. However, this transference is not straightforward but is quite dynamic and multilevel. More general and relationship-specific attachment working models played a role depending on whether it predicted broader cognitive concepts such as perceived leader effectiveness, or more episodic-related constructs such as affective judgments of just constructs. Importantly, the cognitive transference effects observed were moderated by culture: avoidant attached individuals in the similar leader condition in collectivist cultures show negative or low just treatment expectations of their new leader while still hung up on their previous relationship and welcome a new leader with positive behavioural expectations of just treatment. These observations are in line with a dynamic view of adult attachment organization (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007) and with broader models of situated social cognition (e.g., Smith & Semin, 2007) applied to implicit leadership theories.

This chapter contributes to the existing literature in several ways. First, we demonstrate that attachment orientations do indeed predict the transference process. Second, we show that global attachment orientations are better used to predict more cognitive concepts such as (perceived) leader effectiveness, while relationship specific attachment orientations are better suited to predict more affective judgments such as expectations of just treatment. Third, we observe that attachment orientations vary slightly by culture, as Conversely, individuals who score high on avoidance attachment living in individualistic cultures, are Finally, we successfully replicate the results by Ritter and Lord (2007), using a modified methodology, enabling future computerized studies.

Table 4

Correlations of studied variables (Pre-Test)

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	Just Treatment – T1	(.93)							
2	Perceived Leader Effectiveness – T1	.76***							
3	Positive Affect – T1	.20**	.22**	(.92)					
4	Negative Affect – T1	-.11	-.06	-.15*	(.96)				
5	Just Treatment – T2	.30***	.22**	-.08	-.03	(.94)			
6	Perceived Leader Effectiveness – T2	.22**	.26***	.14	-.01	.51***			
7	Positive Affect – T2	.21**	.23***	.81***	-.15	.09	.23***	(.92)	
8	Negative Affect – T2	.02	-.02	-.02	.50***	-.17*	.05	-.13	(.94)

*** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$; $n = 211$; reliability alphas in parentheses on the diagonal, where appropriate.

Table 5

Correlations of studied variables (Study 1 – Greek workers)

		M	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
1	Manipulation – Similar	.46	.50																			
2	Manipulation – Non-similar	.54	.50	-1																		
3	Perceived Leader Effectiveness – T2	3.22	.88	.13	-.13																	
4	Leader Effectiveness – T1	3.77	1.1	.10	-.10	.04																
5	Just Treatment Expectation – T2	3.47	.84	-.13	.13	.35***	.06															
6	Just Treatment – T1	3.79	1.01	.04	-.04	-.11	.59***	.00														
7	Anxious (GL)	2.46	1.21	-.07	.07	.28**	-.16	.10	-.23*													
8	Avoidance (GL)	-1.83	.93	-.01	.01	.18	.02	-.06	-.07	.48***												
9	Anxious (GL) * Avoidance (GL)	-3.98	2.3	-.02	.02	-.10	.08	-.13	.08	-.42***	.49***											
10	Anxious (RS)	3.12	1.38	-.16	.16	.03	-.36***	.15	-.53***	.36***	.08	-.16										
11	Avoidance (RS)	-1.45	1.53	-.21*	.21*	.09	-.67***	.02	-.56***	.38***	.20†	-.06	.47									
12	Anxious (RS) * Avoidance (RS)	-3.53	4.19	-.16	.16	.16	-.54***	.04	-.44***	.24***	.20*	.04	.12	.81***								
13	Openness to Experiences	-.70	.73	.10	-.10	-.13	.04	-.07	.03	-.37***	-.37***	-.01	-.01	-.13	-.11							
14	Conscientiousness	.95	.75	.00	.00	-.29**	.07	-.14	.17	-.38***	.01	.33**	-.14	-.12	-.08	.12						
15	Extraversion	.26	.92	.04	-.04	.04	.08	.12	.00	-.20*	-.44***	-.26**	-.07	-.21*	-.16	.35***	.05					
16	Agreeableness	1.21	.68	.07	-.07	-.10	.10	-.06	.03	-.33***	-.53***	-.28***	-.04	-.22*	-.24*	.50***	.08	.46***				
17	Neuroticism	.19	.83	-.10	.10	.16	-.18	-.04	-.03	.57***	.28***	-.30**	.20†	.28**	.23*	-.36***	-.31*	-.12	-.25**			
18	Trait Anxiety	-.33	.55	-.04	.04	.16	-.14	-.07	-.12	.68***	.48***	-.11	.23*	.35***	.22*	-.34***	-.29*	-.33***	-.35***	.68***		
19	Importance of Relationship	3.42	1.17	.12	-.12	-.01	.72***	.11	.61***	-.27**	-.02	.14	-.37***	-.71***	-.56***	.01	.17	.11	.01	-.21	-.28**	
20	Daily Contact	3.55	1.18	.07	-.07	.06	.35***	.20*	.17*	-.12	-.06	.10	-.27**	-.29**	-.21*	-.19	.01	.08	-.02	-.07	-.08	.41***

*** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$; $n = 95$; (GL) = Global attachment; (RS) = Relationship-Specific attachment;

Table 6

Regression Estimates (Greece): Predicting Expectations of Just Treatment T2

Variable	(M1)	(M2)	(M3)	(M4)
Manipulated Similarity Condition (MSC)	-3.29**	-3.34**	-3.11**	-2.74**
	(-3.61)	(-3.60)	(-3.31)	(-2.71)
Just Treatment T1	-.17	-.15	-.15	-.04
	(-1.23)	(-1.09)	(-1.08)	(-0.29)
MSC *Just Treatment – T1	.58***	.57***	.54**	.42**
	(3.19)	(3.20)	(2.84)	(2.04)
Anxious Attachment (RS)	-.05	-.06	-.09	-.11
	(.58)	(.60)	(.93)	(1.12)
MSC * Anxious (RS)	.23	.25*	.23*	.24*
	(1.91)	(2.03)	(2.00)	(2.02)
Avoidance Attachment (RS)	.23	.28	.29	.31
	(.93)	(1.06)	(1.22)	(1.36)
MSC * Avoidance (RS)	-.58*	-.63*	-.57*	-.63*
	(-2.12)	(-2.17)	(-2.16)	(-2.48)
Anxious (RS) * Avoidance (RS)	-.07	-.07	-.06	-.05
	(-.94)	(-1.00)	(-0.91)	(-0.80)
MSC * Anxious (RS) * Avoidance (RS)	.18*	.19*	.18*	.19*
	(2.18)	(2.24)	(2.22)	(2.28)
Trait Anxiety		-.19	-.12	-.10
Importance			.07	.07
Contact			.14	.13
Openness				-.09
Conscientiousness				-.17
Extroversion				.13
Agreeableness				-.05
Neuroticism				-.16
Constant	4.11***	4.02***	3.24***	3.06**
	(5.79)	(5.41)	(3.89)	(3.37)
N	95	95	95	95
R^2	.23***	.24***	.29***	.32***

; ***$p < .001$, **$p < .01$, *$p < .05$; $n = 95$; (RS) = Relationship-specific attachment; robust *t*-statistics in parentheses; **unstandardized coefficients**.

Table 7

Regression Estimates (Greece): Predicting Perceived Leader Effectiveness T2

Variable	(M1)	(M2)	(M3)	(M4)
Manipulated Similarity Condition (MSC)	-3.66**	-3.70**	-3.91**	-3.84**
	(-2.85)	(-2.78)	(-2.94)	(-2.70)
Leader Effectiveness T1	-.22	-.22	-.16	-.19
	(-1.91)	(-1.92)	(-1.40)	(1.61)
MSC * Leader Effectiveness T1	.60***	.60***	.61***	.61**
	(3.76)	(3.72)	(3.71)	(3.51)
Anxious (GL)	-.04	-.03	-.08	-.09
	(-.18)	(-.13)	(-.36)	(-.43)
MSC * Anxious (GL)	.65	.67	.72*	.72†
	(1.96)	(1.88)	(2.09)	(1.98)
Avoidance (GL)	.42	.43	0.52	.54
	(1.11)	(1.09)	(1.32)	(1.35)
MSC * Avoidance (GL)	-.88*	-.90	-1.00*	-.95†
	(-1.89)	(-1.84)	(-2.05)	(-1.87)
Anxious * Avoidance (GL)	-.17	-.17	-.20†	-.16
	(-1.40)	(-1.39)	(-1.66)	(-1.36)
MSC * Anxious * Avoidance (GL)	.40*	.41*	.44*	.43*
	(2.42)	(2.36)	(-2.62)	(2.52)
Trait Anxiety		-.06	-.11	-.06
Importance			-.11	-.09
Contact			.05	.03
Openness				-.08
Conscientiousness				-.16
Extroversion				.18
Agreeableness				.08
Neuroticism				-.01
Constant	4.12***	4.08***	4.23***	4.5***
	(4.30)	(4.39)	(4.34)	(4.43)
N	95	95	95	95
R^2	.27***	.27**	.28**	.32**

*** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$; $n = 95$; (GL) = Global attachment; robust *t*-statistics in parentheses; **unstandardized coefficients**.

Table 8

Means and standard deviations by culture for primary variables

	United States			Greece			India		
	M	*SD*	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*N*
Anxious (GL)	1.98	1.32	139	2.46	1.21	95	2.79	1.19	109
Avoidance (GL)	-1.56	1.46	139	-1.83	.93	95	-1.97	.86	109
Anxious (RS)	2.35	1.26	139	3.12	1.38	95	3.44	1.61	109
Avoidance (RS)	-1.40	1.75	139	- 1.45	1.53	95	-1.91	1.15	109
Just Treatment Expectations – T2	3.31	1.08	137	3.47	.84	95	3.46	.76	109
Perceived Leader Effectiveness – T2	2.36	1.12	137	3.22	.88	95	3.49	1.08	109

(GL) = Global attachment; (RS) = Relationship-Specific attachment; **unstandardized coefficients**.

Table 9

Correlations of studied variables (Study 2 – US workers)

		M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
1	Manipulation – Similar	.53	.50		-1																	
2	Manipulation – Non-Similar	.47	.50	-1																		
3	Leader Effectiveness – T2	2.36	1.12	.10	-.10																	
4	Leader Effectiveness – T1	3.54	1.28	.04	-.04	.25**																
5	Just Treatment – T2	3.31	1.08	.09	-.09	.65***	.28***															
6	Just Treatment – T1	4.04	1.11	.06	-.06	.19*	.74***	.32***														
7	Anxious (GL)	1.97	1.3	.04	-.04	-.04	-.25**	-.15	-.27**													
8	Avoidance (GL)	-1.56	1.47	-.02	.02	-.16	-.33***	-.23**	-.27**	.54***												
9	Anxious (GL) * Avoidance (GL)	-2.03	2.74	.00	.00	-.04	-.18*	-.11	-.06	.01	.59***											
10	Anxious (RS)	2.32	1.25	-.03	.03	-.18*	-.42***	-.19*	-.53***	.42***	.23***	.01										
11	Avoidance (RS)	-1.4	1.76	.02	-.02	-.23**	-.70***	-.18*	-.66***	.34***	.58***	.31***	.41***									
12	Anxious (RS) * Avoidance (RS)	-2.37	3.62	.04	-.04	-.22**	-.63***	-.18*	-.58***	.11	.37***	.39***	.23*	.83***								
13	Openness to Experiences	-.46	.83	-.09	.09	-.01	.01	.06	.10	-.14	-.26***	-.11***	-.15*	-.09	.00							
14	Conscientiousness	.83	.92	-.04	.04	-.04	.22**	-.01	.18*	-.53***	-.35***	-.09***	-.30***	-.30***	-.13	.13						
15	Extraversion	-.39	1.15	.16	-.16	.04	.21*	.17*	.18*	-.31***	-.57***	-.42***	-.28**	-.44***	-.30***	.28**	.18*					
16	Agreeableness	.82	.92	.06	-.06	.04	.28***	.13	.23**	-.36***	-.66***	-.35***	-.18*	-.42***	-.28**	.33***	.26**	.43***				
17	Neuroticism	-.65	.97	.01	-.01	-.09	-.25**	-.14	-.23**	.67***	.62***	.27***	.32***	.46***	.25**	-.27***	-.40***	-.46***	-.36***			
18	Trait Anxiety	-.44	.73	-.06	.06	-.11	-.20*	-.11	-.19*	.61***	.62***	.28***	.29***	.44***	.24**	-.28***	-.49***	-.45***	-.31***	.82***		
19	Importance of Relationship	3.00	1.26	.02	-.02	.21*	.76***	.24**	.68***	-.29***	-.48***	-.27**	-.33**	-.84***	-.72***	.07	.26**	.32***	.40***	-.38***	-.33***	
20	Daily Contact	3.31	1.06	.16	-.16	.07	.15	.09	.13	-.14	-.23***	-.13	-.14	-.23**	-.12	.26**	.21**	.43***	.28***	-.23**	-.17	.26**

*** $p < .001$, $^{**}p < .01$, $^{*}p < .05$; $n = 137$; (GL) = Global attachment; (RS) = Relationship-Specific attachment;

Table 10

Correlations of studied variables (Study 2 – Indian workers)

		M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
1	Manipulation – Similar	.52	.50																			
2	Manipulation – Non-Similar	.48	.50	-1																		
3	Leader Effectiveness – T2	3.49	1.08	.35**	-.35***																	
4	Leader Effectiveness – T1	3.92	.90	-.07	.07	.17																
5	Just Treatment – T2	3.46	.76	.15	-.15	.66***	.18															
6	Just Treatment – T1	3.68	.77	-.11	.11	.04	.49***	.18														
7	Anxious (GL)	2.79	1.19	.26**	-.26**	.21*	-.13	.08	-.31**													
8	Avoidance (GL)	-1.97	.86	.09	-.09	-.08	-.10	-.19*	-.32***	.24*												
9	Anxious (GL) * Avoidance (GL)	-5.25	2.98	-.15	.15	-.22*	.04	-.19*	.02	-.66***	.48***											
10	Anxious (RS)	3.44	1.61	.15	-.15	.17	-.28**	.06	-.34***	.69***	.28**	-.36***										
11	Avoidance (RS)	-1.91	1.15	.18	-.18	-.13	-.59***	-.22*	-.53***	.25**	.55***	.13	.38***									
12	Anxious (RS) * Avoidance (RS)	-5.89	3.66	.02	-.02	-.35***	-.31***	-.30**	-.19*	-.42***	.22*	.51***	-.48***	.51***								
13	Openness to Experiences	-.74	.73	-.17	.17	-.11	.06	-.03	.04	-.48***	-.30**	.18	-.51***	-.25**	.27**							
14	Conscientiousness	.56	.81	-.12	.12	-.07	.16	.11	.24*	-.58***	-.34***	.20*	-.49***	-.35***	.13	.46***						
15	Extraversion	.23	.80	-.02	.02	.05	.08	-.11	.00	-.10	-.42***	-.21*	-.04	-.28**	-.17	.16	.06					
16	Agreeableness	.78	.77	-.18	.18	-.05	.15	.09	.07	-.39***	-.50***	-.01	-.48***	-.33***	.16	.53***	.50***	.40***				
17	Neuroticism	-.28	.69	.19	-.19	.19	-.15	.04	-.43***	.63***	.23*	-.32***	.44***	.35***	-.13	-.31***	-.46***	-.08	-.31***			
18	Trait Anxiety	-.48	.47	.16	-.16	.13	-.32***	-.06	-.48***	.60***	.37***	-.19*	.49***	.43***	-.05	-.42***	-.51***	-.12	-.44***	.68***		
19	Importance of Relationship	3.97	.98	-.01	.01	.20*	.69***	.24*	.52***	-.15	-.29**	-.04	-.28**	-.62***	-.36***	.06	.16	.21*	.18	-.21*	-.41***	
20	Daily Contact	3.81	.94	.06	-.06	.02	.36***	-.10	.19*	-.06	-.18	-.10	-.05	-.40***	-.23*	.15	.24*	.36***	.14	-.14	-.18	.32***

(GL) = Global attachment; (RS) = Relationship-Specific attachment; *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$; $n = 109$

Table 11

Regression Estimates (X-Cultural): Predicting Just Treatment Expectations T2

Variable	**(1)**	**(2)**	**(3)**	**(4)**
Manipulated Similarity Condition (MSC)	-1.10	-1.09	-1.04	-1.03
Just Treatment T1	.03	.04	.01	.03
MSC * Just Treatment T1	.39**	.38**	.37**	.37**
US Culture	(base)	(base)	(base)	(base)
Greek Culture	.14	.15	.04	.10
Indian Culture	1.33	1.29	1.06	1.12
MSC * Greece	-1.27	-1.28	-1.23	-1.37*
MSC * India	-1.75	-1.72	-1.61	-1.68
Anxious (RS) – T1	.02	.02	.02	.02
Greek * Anxious (RS)	.11	.11	.12	.11
Indian * Anxious (RS)	-.31	-.30	-.26	-.29
MSC * Anxious (RS)	-.12	-.12	-.13	-.14
MSC * Greek * Anxious (RS)	.28	.28	.28	.32
MSC * Indian * Anxious (RS)	.47	.46	.44	.47
Avoidance (RS) – T1	-.13	-.10	-.06	-.02
Greek*Avoidance (RS)	.34	.34	.33	.30
Indian*Avoidance (RS)	.65	.64	.60	.62
MSC *Avoidance (RS)	.24	.24	.25	.22
MSC *Greek*Avoidance (RS)	-.81*	-.82*	-.81*	-.82*
MSC *Indian*Avoidance (RS)	-.93*	-.94*	-.91*	-.94*
Anxious-RS*Avoidance (RS)	.06	.05	.06	.05
Greek*Anxious-RS*Avoidance (RS)	-.10	-.10	-.10	-.09
Indian*Anxious-RS*Avoidance (RS)	-.21	-.21	-.20	-.21
MSC *Anxious-RS*Avoidance (RS)	-.13	-.13	-.14	-.13
MSC *Greek*Anxious (RS)*Avoidance (RS)	.29*	.29*	.30*	.29*
MSC *Indian*Anxious (RS)*Avoidance (RS)	.27	.27	.28	.28
Trait Anxiety		-.08	-.07	.00
Relationship Importance			.09	.09
Daily Contact			.03	.03
Openness to Experience				-.02
Conscientiousness				-.09
Extraversion				.00
Agreeableness				.10
Neuroticism				-.09
Constant	3.02***	2.98***	2.78***	2.73***
R^2	.19***	.20***	.20***	.21***

*** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$; $n = 341$; (RS) = relationship-specific attachment; **unstandardized coefficients.**

Table 12

Test on the Equality of Structural Coefficients of Relationship-specific Avoidance Attachment across cultural groups in the Similar Leader Condition

	Comparison of avoidance attachment coefficients (JT as DV, no covariates)		Comparison of avoidance attachment coefficients (JT as DV, all covariates)	
Groups of Comparisons	*df*	$\chi 2$	*df*	$\chi 2$
US (low CO) vs. GR (high CO) vs. IN (high CO)	2	8.39^{*}	2	10.20^{***}
US vs. GR	1	5.79^{**}	1	7.37^{***}
US vs. IN	1	5.13^{*}	1	6.62^{**}
GR vs. IN	1	.11	1	.08

$^{*}p < .05$, $^{**}p < .01$, $^{***}p < .001$; JT = Just treatment expectations; DV = dependent variable; CO = collectivistic; US = United States of America; GR = Greece; IN = India

Table 13

Test on the Equality of Structural Coefficients of Relationship-Specific Fearful Attachment across cultural groups in the Similar Leader Condition

	Comparison of interaction between avoidance and anxious attachment coefficients (JT as DV, no covariates)		Comparison of avoidance attachment coefficients (JT as DV, all covariates)	
Groups of Comparisons	*df*	$\chi 2$	*df*	$\chi 2$
US (low CO) vs. GR (high CO) vs. IN (high CO)	2	11.17^{**}	2	14.36^{***}
US vs. GR	1	6.71^{**}	1	7.76^{***}
US vs. IN	1	$3.71^{\dagger}$	1	4.70^{*}
GR vs. IN	1	.10	1	.23

$^{\dagger} p < .10$, $^{*} p < .05$, $^{**} p < .01$, $^{***} p < .001$; JT = Just treatment expectations; DV = dependent variable; CO = collectivistic; US = United States of America; GR = Greece; IN = India

Table 14

Regression Estimates: Predicting Perceived Leader Effectiveness T2 by Culture

Variable	United States	Greece	Indian
Manipulated Similarity Condition (MSC)	-.75	-3.84**	-3.25*
	(-1.15)	(-2.70)	(-2.25)
Leader Effectiveness – T1	-.08	-.19	-.25
	(-.67)	(1.61)	(-1.31)
MSC * Leader Effectiveness – T1	.57***	.61**	.74***
	(4.24)	(3.51)	(3.43)
Anxious (GL)	.07	-.09	.11
	(.49)	(-.43)	(.27)
MSC * Anxious (GL)	-.11	.72†	-.01*
	(-.68)	(1.98)	(-.03)
Avoidance (GL)	-.56***	.54	.13
	(-3.88)	(1.35)	(.21)
MSC * Avoidance (GL)	.64***	-.95†	-.38
	(3.45)	(-1.87)	(-.63)
Anxious (GL) * Avoidance (GL)	.10	-.16	.03
	(1.23)	(-1.36)	(.17)
MSC * Anxious (GL) * Avoidance (GL)	-.08	.43*	-.06
	(-.81)	(2.52)	(-.27)
Trait Anxiety	-.13	-.06	.39
Importance	.03	-.09	.20†
Contact	.09	.03	-.17
Openness	.04	-.08	.06
Conscientiousness	-.21†	-.16	.12
Extroversion	-.10	.18	.06
Agreeableness	-.21	.08	-.08
Neuroticism	.03	-.01	.01
Constant	1.60**	4.5***	4.32***
	(2.61)	(4.43)	(3.08)
N	137	95	109
R^2	.27***	.32**	.36***

*** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$, n (total) = 341; (GL) = global attachment; robust t-statistics in parentheses; **unstandardized coefficients**.

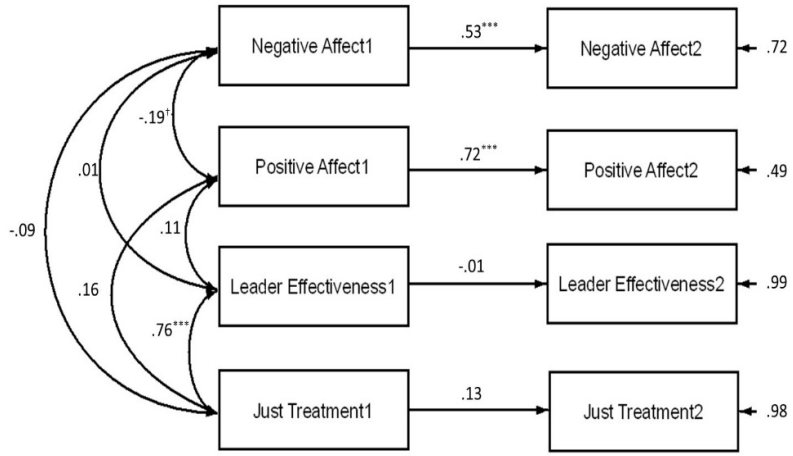
Table 15

Test on the Equality of Structural Coefficients of Relationship-specific Avoidance Attachment across cultural groups (DV = LEFF) in the Similar Leader Condition

	Comparison of avoidance attachment coefficients (LEFF as DV, no covariates)		Comparison of avoidance attachment coefficients (LEFF as DV, all covariates)	
Groups of Comparisons	*df*	$\chi 2$	*df*	$\chi 2$
US (low CO) vs. GR (high CO) vs. IN (high CO)	2	10.92^{**}	2	12.52^{**}
US vs. GR	1	9.55^{**}	1	10.52^{**}
US vs. IN	1	2.27	1	$3.05^{\dagger}$
GR vs. IN	1	.60	1	.61

$^{*}p < .05$, $^{**}p < .01$, $^{***}p < .001$; LEFF = Leader Effectiveness Ratings; DV = dependent variable; CO = collectivistic; US = United States of America; GR = Greece; IN = India

Panel A
Non-similar group (N = 108)



Panel B
Similar group (N = 103)

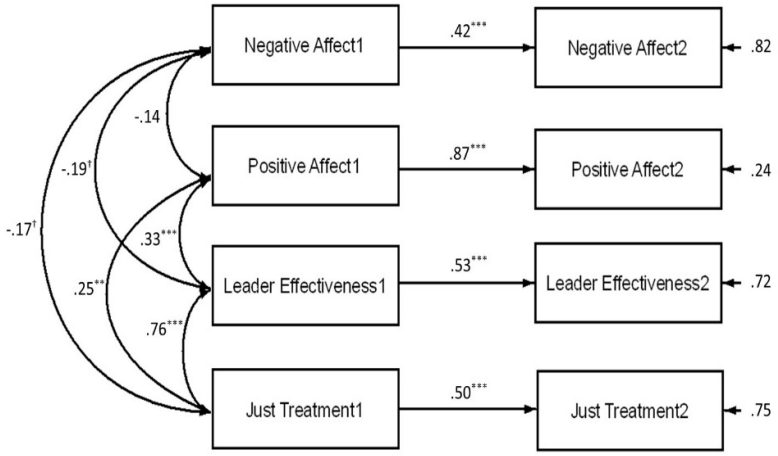


Figure 4 - Pre-test transference model presented separately for the non-similar (A; n = 108) and similar (B; n = 103)

$^{\dagger}p < .10$, $^{*}p < .05$, $^{**}p < .01$, $p < .001$.

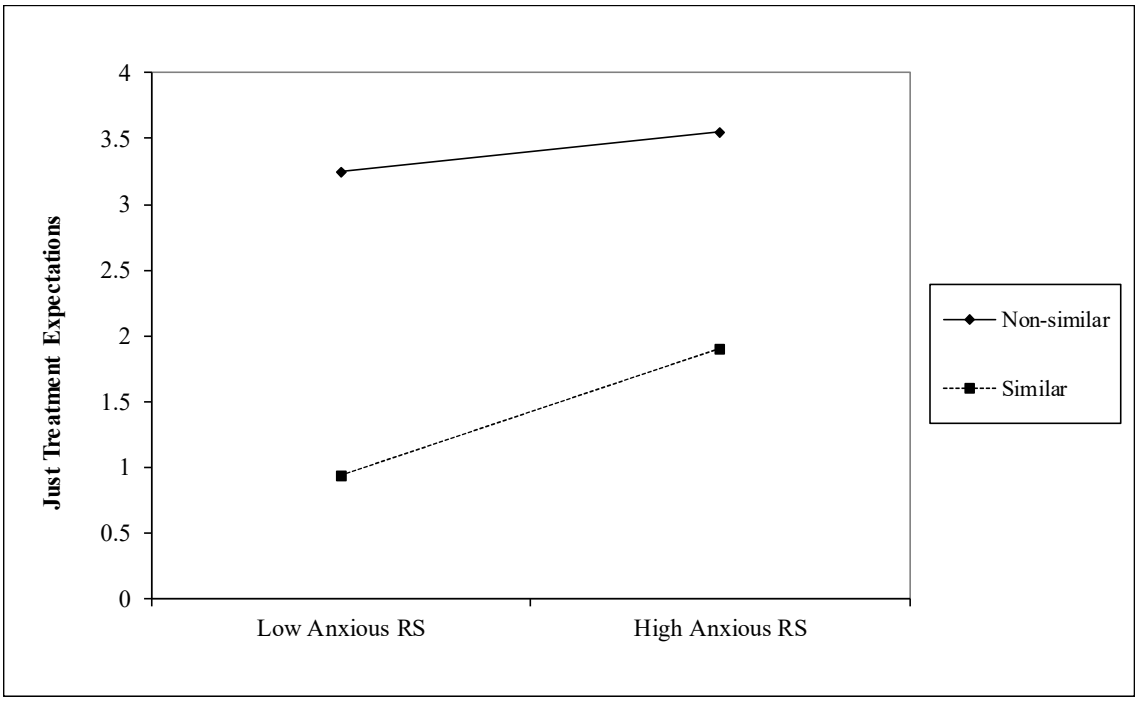


Figure 5 – Influence of Relationship-Specific Anxious Attachment on Just Treatment Expectations across conditions (Study 1)

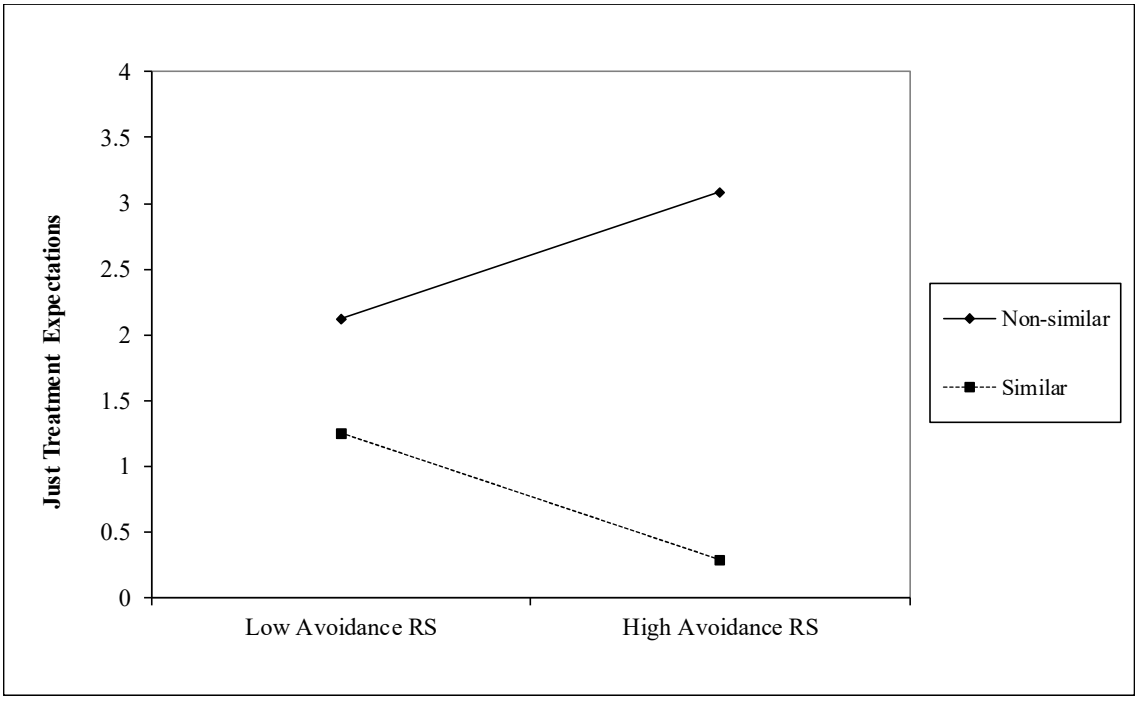


Figure 6 – Influence of Relationship-Specific Avoidance Attachment on Just Treatment Expectations across conditions (Study 1)

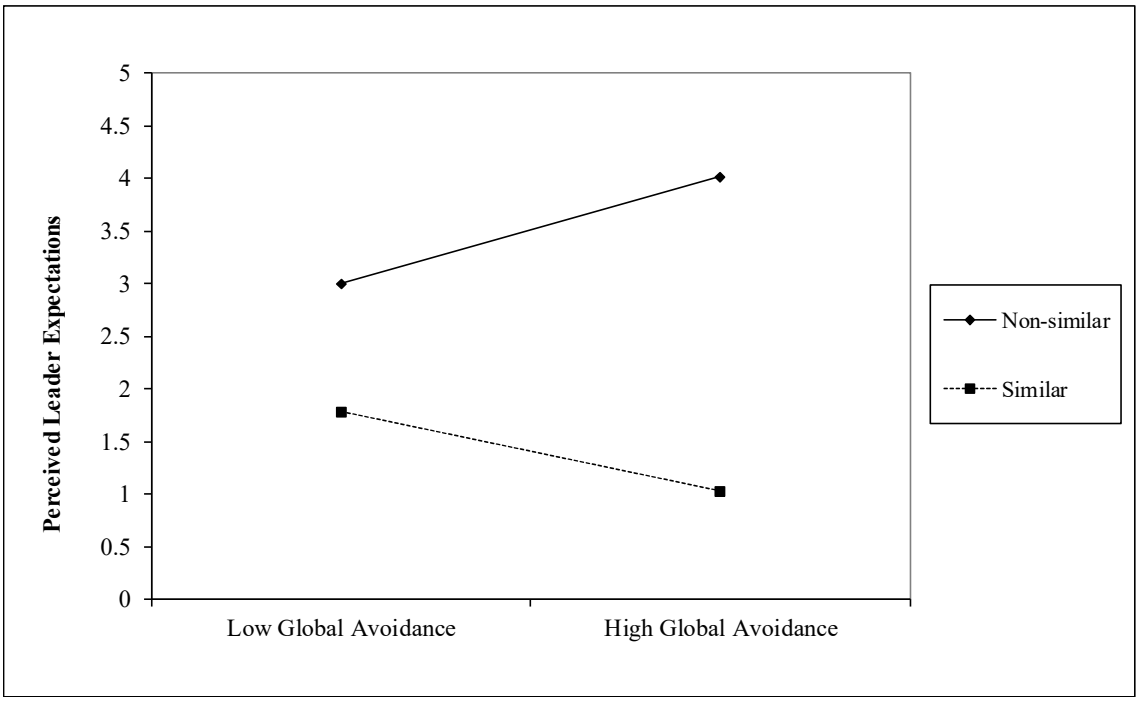


Figure 7 – Influence of Global Avoidance Attachment on Perceived Leader Effectiveness Expectations across conditions (Study 1)

CHAPTER 3

Influence of Attachment Orientations on Leader Prototypicality

Abstract

If leadership is defined as a relationship between leaders and their followers, studies on this topic should also be examining relational follower characteristics and specifically relationship quality more closely. In this chapter, I examine leadership prototypicality using relational individual characteristics, namely followers' attachment styles.

I propose and find that individuals scoring high on anxious attachment are less likely to be seen as leaders by other team members, although these results were insignificant when covariates such as personality and self-esteem were introduced. Further, we find no support that securely attached individuals are likely to emerge as team leaders given the provided group exercise. Therefore, these findings cannot confirm previous work on secure attachment and leader likeliness in teams (Berson, et al., 2006). However, notably, individuals who score high on avoidance attachment were likely to be perceived as most leader prototypical. I explain these findings with the nature of the work task, since context matters highly in real life individual interactions. In addition, this phenomenon is discussed as an evolutionary advantage for individuals with a dominantly avoidant attachment orientation. Attachment orientations have important implications in practical high-stakes applications such as organizational teamwork, which are discussed in the course of the chapter.

Introduction

If you were asked to describe a leader, what would come to mind? Leaders are respected and oftentimes treated more favorably than others. They inspire us to do better, to accomplish more, and to reach our full potential. Yet, how is it that some individuals are more likely to be seen as leader-like, or more leader prototypical, than others? In this chapter, we examine leader prototypicality[4] using relational individual characteristics, namely followers' attachment orientations.

In this paper we define leadership as a leader-follower relationship (Day, et al., 2009; Hall & Lord, 1998). Prior research suggests that during social interactions, individuals mutually influence each others' perceptions, emotions and behavior (Humphrey, 2002; Pirola-Merlo, et al., 2002). Therefore, follower characteristics are vital in perceiving and evaluating leaders (Emery, et al., 2013). Indeed, previous literature has shown some results with regard to certain characteristics. For example, we know that followers' personality traits influence their perceptions of leaders (Judge, Bono, Ilie, & Gerhardt, 2002), including the preference and evaluation of leaders (Emery, et al., 2013).

However, if leadership is defined as a relationship between leaders and their followers, studies on this topic should also be examining relational follower characteristics and relationship quality. Harms (2011) argued that attachment style is an established antecedent of "interpersonal relationship quality and psychological well-being" (p. 285). Individuals seek high quality relationship with others, relationships that foster and increases individuals' well-being. Arguably, the same high quality relationships are sought with leaders as well. We

[4] As stated in van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg (2005), leader prototypicality as a term is used in two different literatures. While in this chapter I define leader prototypicality as a "leader's representativeness of a leader category (i.e. matching the stereotype of a leader", in the social identity literature leader prototypicality refers to the "representativeness of the work group, team or organization that the leader is leading" (p. 27). This double usage of terms can be confusing; however, in this chapter, and throughout this thesis, we refer to the leader categorization theory meaning of leader prototypicality.

therefore take this research further by suggesting attachment orientations as possible predictors of leader prototypicality and preference.

Bringing Together Attachment and Leadership

Attachment theory states that individuals' unique perception of leadership, as well as the perception of others in general, is built on primary experiences with early caretakers (Bowlby, 1973, 1980). From an early age people learn to react to others' dependability and approachability, i.e. whether others are available and responsive to one's needs, particular in times of distress (Thompson, 2008). Therefore, individual behavior is partially a result of others' behavior toward one's needs and wants (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2010). Initial interactions with early attachment figures shape our internal working models (IWMs) and impact our perception of others (e.g. Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Collins, 1996; Collins & Feeney, 2004; Collins & Read, 1994; Fraley & Shaver, 2000). These IWMs are comprised of memories of interactions, beliefs and attitudes about attachment figures, and remain stable over time (Delius, et al., 2008). They influence our affect, cognition and behavior toward others in social relationships, including those at the workplace (Collins, et al., 2004; Mikulincer, et al., 2003). Indeed, the main objective of the behavioral attachment system is to provide protection from unpleasant experiences with an attachment figure by influencing how individuals process and interpret social interactions and cues (Dykas & Cassidy, 2011; Thompson, 2008).

Attachment theory states that these reactions to relational stimuli shape whether individuals view themselves as valued and worthy of affection by others or unworthy of recognition and affection, i.e. a secure view of self or an insecure view of self, respectively (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2010). Hence, individuals differ in their relational reaction and affective perception of others, depending on attachment styles. We suggest that this holds in the case of leaders as well.

Relatively few studies have examined the relationship between attachment orientations and leadership, including leader perceptions (Kahn & Kram, 1994; Keller, 2003) and leader performance (Avolio, 1994; Bresnahan & Mitroff, 2007; Keller, 2003). Further, De Sanctis and Karantzas (2008) found that followers with securely attached leaders perceived their leaders as more effective than did followers of insecurely attached leaders. Finally, Berson, et al. (2006) found that securely attached individuals were more likely to be perceived and preferred as leaders. However, there are several points of critique with the study by Berson, et al. (2006), including a categorical measure of attachment and the assessment of leader prototypicality.

Categorical vs. Continuous Measurement

The most pressing issue in the previous paper by Berson, et al. (2006) is the application of a categorical measure of attachment, namely the Hazan and Shaver (1990) scale. Although categorical measures of attachment have been widely used in the past (for a review see Ravitz, Maunder, Hunter, Sthankiya, & Lancee, 2010), recent research suggest that continuing to do so can lead to a misrepresentation of the nature of individual differences in attachment (C. Fraley, et al., 2015). Other attachment scholars seem to agree that a dimensional measure of attachment, especially in an organizational context, is more desirable (Crawshaw & Game, 2014; C. Fraley, et al., 2015; Richards & Hackett, 2012).

Theoretically speaking, the major problem with using a categorical model of attachment is the distortion of reality that comes with analysing adult attachment categorically. For example, in the four category model proposed by Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991), the authors describe each attachment orientation as conceptually different and distinct from each other. Using a two-dimensional measure of attachment allows for variation in the "functioning of two control processes in the attachment system" (C. Fraley, et al., 2015; Fraley & Shaver, 2008). Anxious attachment reflects individual differences in the monitoring and appraisal of others with regard to availability and accessibility, whereas avoidance attachment reflects

attachment-related regulation of thoughts, feelings and behaviour. Both dynamics are part of every individual, albeit that one of these orientations is usually more dominant than the other.

From a methodological point of view, categorizing a potentially continuous variable would result in a major loss of variance (Cohen, 1983). Categorizing is an extreme form of dichotomizing, and can lead to problematic results for individuals with boundary attachment scores, placing them into a completely different box. In addition, placing individuals into categories based on continuous scores certainly impacts statistical power (C. Fraley, et al., 2015; MacCallum, Zhang, Preacher, & Rucker, 2002). Dimensional models of attachment simply capture more richness and complexity than categorical measures (C. Fraley, et al., 2015).

We build on their previous work and extend the literature on attachment and leader prototypicality in the context of forty-nine student groups using a group exercise task.

Attachment Orientations and Leader Perception

Attachment is a two-dimensional concept (Fraley & Waller, 1998) consisting of anxious and avoidant attachment (Brennan, et al., 1998; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2005; Simpson, Rholes, & Phillips, 1996). Both of these styles are defined as insecure attachment. Individuals who score low on both anxious and avoidant attachment dimensions are considered securely attached. Secure attachment is present in the majority of individuals (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2010; Simpson, et al., 2009). In this paper, we focus primarily on the differences between securely and insecurely attached individuals.

We focus mainly on the differences between individuals who score low on both dimensions, known as securely attached versus those who score high on both dimensions, known as fearfully attached (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007a). We begin with a more detailed discussion of secure attachment.

Secure Attachment

Secure individuals perceive others to be trustworthy and approachable in times of need. They feel secure in their ability to cope effectively with social interactions and to resolve conflict situations (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2005). Their secure IWMs enable these individuals to better tolerate distressing emotions, i.e. they handle relational stress caused by potentially emotional situations with greater ease than insecurely attached individuals. Being able to tolerate social interactions well, allows the development of self-comforting strategies that the individual can apply in times of conflict (Fonagy, Gergely, & Target, 2007; Sroufe, et al., 2005). This tendency is also reflected in higher self-esteem, and expectation of favorable evaluations by others (Richards & Schat, 2011). Securely attached individuals are likely to evaluate others as well as be evaluated favorably by others (Berson, et al., 2006).

Insecure Attachment

In contrast, insecurely attached individuals evaluate others based on their subjective attachment serving needs (Dewitte & De Houwer, 2011; Dewitte, De Houwer, Koster, & Buysse, 2007). They perceive their social environment more negatively than securely attached individuals, as they also demonstrate higher level attentiveness to social cues in relationships than their securely attached counterparts (Collins & Feeney, 2004). Insecurely attached individuals are less likely to trust others, i.e., more likely to view others as untrustworthy and negative. Due to this negativity bias, it is likely that these individuals are less favorably perceived by others.

Anxiously attached individuals seek psychological intimacy and nurturing support from others. Anxiously attached individual fear abandonment and are driven to remain close to others and to consistently worry about others' desire for emotional closeness. This fear of abandonment becomes acute during times of heightened stress (Hardy & Barkham, 1994) and

displays through hyperactive behavior, driving the anxiously attached individual to intense desire for emotional closeness. Individuals with an anxious attachment orientation "feel they are unworthy of responsiveness from others" (Richards & Schat, 2011: 170), so they are less likely to be perceived as competent or dependable and may be viewed as lacking leadership abilities (Davidovitz, et al., 2007; Kafetsios, et al., 2014). We therefore expect and hypothesize the following:

H1: Anxious attachment relates negatively to leader prototypicality.

Although both anxiety and avoidance attachment are deemed insecure, individuals of each insecure attachment orientation make use of very different coping mechanisms. These mechanisms are comprised of either deactivation, in the case of avoidance attachment, and hyperactivation in the case of anxious attachment (Bowlby, 1969, 1973, 1980). Avoidant individuals experience deactivation by limiting their interactions with others as much as possible, becoming self-reliant, and preferring emotional distance, in order to shield themselves from the expected lack of dependability on and support of others (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2005, 2010; Mikulincer, et al., 2003). This deactivating strategy therefore impairs their socio-emotional functioning (Rom & Mikulincer, 2003) and suppresses any natural nurturing impulses.

In contrast to anxiously attached individuals, avoidant attached individuals are more likely to demonstrate a stereotypically negative view of others (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Collins, 1996). Statements such as "others cannot be trusted to be responsive when needed" (Richards & Schat, 2011: 170) are a result of this attachment orientation. Avoidant attached individuals see others as distant, unavailable, uncaring and unresponsive (Bowlby, 1973; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2005). These individuals avoid interactions or negative displays of emotions that can lead to feelings of rejection (Cassidy & Kobak, 1988; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2005; Mikulincer, et al., 2003). Avoidant attached individuals prefer instead to demonstrate

self-reliance rather than seeking support from others (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2005, 2007). Accordingly, negative emotions are repressed and the value of supportive relationships diminished (Fraley & Shaver, 1997). We therefore expect these individuals to be less likely to be perceived as highly prototypical leaders than individuals who score low on this dimension.

H2: Avoidance attachment relates negatively to leader prototypicality.

Contrasting the two attachment dimensions, it is difficult to hypothesize which one is less likely to have a negative effect on leader prototypicality. However, there is some previous empirical support that depending on the task and cultural perceptions of the population, individuals who score high on avoidance attachment are more likely to be preferred in authority positions than individuals who score high on anxious attachment (Kafetsios, et al., 2014), particularly in the case of threat or conflict. Although the administered team task here is highly unlikely to cause any danger or threat, it is not entirely without conflict. Team members must communicate and reach a team decision. Conflict gives rise to avoidant attached individuals' tendency to express their assertiveness and take over control, due to their mistrust in others and others' abilities. Hence, we would expect avoidant attached participants to be considered more leader-like than highly anxiously attached participants. We hypothesize the following:

H3: Avoidance attachment relates more favorably to leader prototypicality than anxious attachment.

Methodology

Procedure and Sample. To test our hypotheses, we used a sample of 200 students (57.00% female, M_{age} = 22.63 years; *SD* = 2.32 years). Fifty-seven groups were formed consisting of 4-5 randomized team members (1 group with 5 team members). We explained the purpose of the study and assured confidentiality and anonymity to all participants. We provided each team and student with an individual ID comprised of their team letter and individual number. Only in two

teams did we notice some missing data. Including all teams versus only those with full data revealed the same results. We hence decided to include all teams to provide a more holistic picture.

Firstly, we measured an important characteristic when it comes to leadership, namely participants' intelligence. Individuals, who are seen as intelligent are more likely to be seen as leaders. In order to save time however, instead of administering a complete intelligence test, we test fluid intelligence. This task is known as the "Zahlenverbindungstest" (Vernon, 1993) and correlates highly with general intelligence. This task is a "trail-making test in which subjects draw lines to connect, in order, circled numbers from 1 to 90 which are positioned more or less randomly on a piece of paper, and 4 other different versions of the ZVT" (Vernon, 1993: 35). Following the fluid intelligence test, we collected data on attachment, self-esteem, personality and demographics.

At first, we measured individual level differences, such as intelligence, personality and attachment orientations. Participants were then assigned a team task, which lasted about 10 – 15min. After the task, all team members had to evaluate each other on leadership prototypicality. Secondly, after a quick break we randomized participants into groups of four and handed each team a set of sequential pictures in randomized order, known as the "Zoom-Rezoom Task" (Banyai, 1998). In order to save time, and since group sizes were limited to around four team members, we used a slightly modified version of the same task. Instead of each team receiving all 30 pictures, each team member received three pictures, hence twelve pictures in total. Each set of 12 pictures tells a story, and each team needs to come to an agreement and determine the right picture sequence. However, this decision is reached through communicating and describing each picture with the rest of the group. Team members are not allowed to simply show their assigned pictures to their team. The task is complete once the

team reaches an agreement on the right picture order and hands the pictures in the right order back to the instructor.

The task itself was used to allow initial interactions between team members in their assigned, randomized teams. It is noteworthy, that the task itself only lasted 10-15min, so was rather short in duration. Furthermore, participants then proceeded to evaluate all other group members on leadership prototypicality using the measure by Cronshaw and Lord (1987). However, the items presented in the scale (Cronshaw & Lord, 1987) were not modified to refer to the team task itself, i.e. participants were not asked to evaluate team members' leadership prototypicality during the team task. Rather, the instructions were to simply evaluate every group member on the items presented in the scale. In so doing, we effectively measure leader preference in brief, real interactions between participants.

Measures

Global Attachment. One of the most available trait attachment scales in the current literature is the Experiences of Close Relationships (ECR; Richards & Schat, 2011), ranging from 1 ('Disagree strongly') to 7 ('Agree strongly'). This measure includes the assessment of two separate dimensions, anxiety and avoidance. These dimensions can be combined to create the four-style typology suggested by Brennan, et al. (1998), including secure and fearfully avoidance attachment. Therefore, a combination of high avoidance and high anxiety is interpreted as fearfully-avoidant; high in anxiety but low in avoidance is equivalent to anxious or preoccupied attachment style; low anxiety and high avoidance is equivalent to avoidant (or dismissing-avoidant) attachment style; and low anxiety and low avoidance is interpreted as secure attachment.

Personality. Previous literature has found several associations between attachment and personality dimensions (Noftle & Shaver, 2006). For example, neuroticism has been positively

related to both attachment dimensions, particularly anxious attachment (Neustadt, Chamorro-Premuzic, & Furnham, 2011; Richards & Schat, 2011). Further, both extraversion and agreeableness have been found to be negatively related to avoidance to avoidance as well as anxiety dimensions (Richards & Schat, 2011). Given these existing associations between these constructs, we control for Big 5 personality characteristics as well.

The short version of the NEO – IPIP big five personality scale (Goldberg, et al., 2006) was used to evaluate trait-personality characteristics of the sample of participants. A total of 50 items assessed the dimensions of Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Neuroticism and Openness to Experience, were reported on a scale ranging from 1 ('Strongly Disagree') to 6 ('Strongly Agree').

Self-Esteem. Self-esteem has been found to relate positively to secure attachment (Mickelson, Kessler, & Shaver, 1997) and negatively related to both anxiety and avoidance attachment (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Bylsma, Cozzarelli, & Sumer, 1997). In this study we use the self-esteem measure by Rosenberg (1965), ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree).

Leader Prototypicality. At Time 2, all participants evaluated each other in terms of their leader prototypicality using the General Leadership Impression scale by Cronshaw and Lord (1987). In this study we replaced "superior" with "this person", since we asked all participants to evaluate all other team members. Sample items include "To what degree does this person fit your image of what a leader should be?" and "How much leadership does this person exhibit?" The scale is based on a 5-point Likert scale from 1 ("None") to 5 ("A lot"). As a few participants left some questions unanswered, the total number of observations however was $k = 608$.

Data Analysis. In order to appropriately model the inherent dependency, each participant's rating of all other team members was combined into one measure of leader prototypicality. Based on this rating each participant received an average leadership score, i.e.

a score which reflects to which degree all other group members perceive that participant as leader like. Hence, leader prototypicality was assessed based on within-group ratings of leadership prototypicality. A ranking from 1-4 was formed based on these results, in which 1 marks the highest leader prototypicality score and 4 the lowest in each group. For this study we were merely interested in whether attachment styles as a trait-like characteristic predict whether participants are more or less likely to be attributed leadership and be perceived as the most likely prototypical team leader.

In the first stage, attachment styles are used as predictors of leader prototypicality using ordered logistic regressions. Individual differences characteristics were introduced subsequent to each other, one at a time, to predict leader prototypicality.

Results

Correlations are found in Table 16 below.

Insert Table 16 about here

In our model, we tested both attachment dimensions, i.e. avoidance and anxiety, as well as their interaction. We did so in order to include findings with regard to fearful (high on both dimensions) and secure attachment (low on both dimensions). We compare results from the basic model (M1) to the full model (M4). The full model includes the covariates self-esteem, fluid intelligence and personality. Results are reported in the table below (Table 17).

Insert Table 17 about here

We examined the main effects of anxious (H1) and avoidance attachment (H2) influence leader prototypicality, controlling for several other individual differences. Using ordered

logistic regressions we also observed whether avoidance attachment is more or less likely to lead to leader prototypicality compared to anxious attachment (H3).

Regarding H1, results show a negative (and marginally significant) relationship between participants' anxious attachment and leader rank (b = -.28; p = .076) in the base model (M1). However, the base model provides a poor fit (p = .148). In the full model (M5) the significance of this effect is diluted as control variables are introduced, beginning with self-esteem (M2; b = -.17; p = . 32). Therefore, we do not find ample support that anxious attachment significantly affects leader prototypicality. However, the direction of the relationship is negative, as expected.

Regarding H2 and H3, surprisingly we found a significant positive relationship between avoidance attachment and leader prototypicality (M5; b = .63, p = .02). This effect remains significant across all models. It seems individuals who score high on avoidance attachment are a) indeed likely to be perceived as leaders and b) more likely to be perceived as leaders than individuals with an anxious attachment dimension are. Therefore, we find support for H3.

Discussion

Attachment orientations are coping mechanisms, which guide individuals in their perceptions and expectations of others, based on previous interactions with others (Mikulincer, Shaver, Cassidy, & Berant, 2009). Previous studies on attachment have shown that individuals with an insecure attachment style are prone to be biased in their perception of others, oftentimes evaluating others or themselves more negatively than secure attached individuals do (Davidovitz, et al., 2007; Dewitte & De Houwer, 2011; Dewitte, et al., 2007; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2010). Since previous research has focused almost exclusively on global attachment (except Crawshaw & Game, 2014) we examined the effect of attachment on the perception of leader prototypicality. Put differently: can attachment orientations can help predict leader preference in teams, alongside other characteristics such as personality? We built on previous

work by Berson, et al. (2006) with improved empirical measures and a different experimental team exercise task.

In the presented study, we find that attachment orientations, particularly avoidance attachment, do influence the perception and attribution of leadership in other team members. On the one hand, by projecting their own negative self-image onto others, anxiously attached individuals make others more approachable and dependable. Therefore, anxiously attached individuals are likely to exhibit a need for emotional closeness and dependency on others. Due to this dependency on others, individuals with an anxious attachment orientation lack qualities such as a positive perception of self and taking the initiative (Kafetsios, et al., 2014). In short, their exhibited behavior is not associated with strong leadership. This hence explains the negative relationship between anxious attachment and leader prototypicality.

On the other hand, avoidant attached individuals generally perceive others negatively (Davidovitz, et al., 2007) and protect themselves from emotional harm by distancing themselves from others, maintaining their own self-worth. Although these might not sound like typical leader characteristics, we found a positive relationship between avoidance attachment and leader prototypicality. One explanation might be found in social defence theory (Ein-Dor, et al., 2010). High levels of avoidance attachment is strongly associated with a rapid fight-flight schema, which encourages self-protective responses to danger without consultation of others or help seeking. Accordingly, research (Mickelson, et al., 1997) has found that higher levels of anxious but not avoidant attachment is strongly associated with life events and socio-economic presses. Mickelson, et al. (1997) further argued that individuals scoring highly on avoidance attachment are likely to be protected from social and economic stressors, due to the relative cognitive consistency associated with avoidance attachment in infancy and childhood. The same line of reasoning has been found and applied in more recent work on attachment orientations and attention control as well (Gillath, Giesbrecht, & Shaver, 2009).

Another possible influencing factor is the type of relationship that exists between leaders and followers, compared to social relationships to others. The existing hierarchical dynamics within a leader-follower relationship could also influence the perception and attribution of leaders within the observed teams. Once a team members, and team members cohesively as a group, have reached a consensus that a specific team member is attributed the leadership role, the leader is automatically, and subconsciously, is seen as higher up, and are therefore attributed a higher degree of authority and hierarchy in general by all other team members. Creating this psychological distance to someone else fits neatly with avoidant-attached individuals' needs to further distance themselves from their leaders, and the preference and seeking out of a leader who is similar to themselves (see Chapter 1). This would mark another contribution of this chapter and we encourage future scholars to study these dynamics further in future research.

Taking into account context as well, there are several factors which have led individual team members to evaluate highly avoidant attached others as more leader prototypical. These include task duration, lack of task repetitions and team formation. First, the group exercise task we used in this paper does not take more than 10-15min to solve in a team of four. Given the short duration, there was no need (nor time) for emotional closeness in the decision-making process. Secondly, we asked teams to complete this task only once, i.e. there were no subsequent rounds. Therefore, there was no need for a team member to be overly supportive, approachable and emotionally sensitive, in order to be perceived as highly prototypical of a leader. Thirdly, an additional argument regarding the nature of the task is team formation. Since participants were assigned randomly to teams, they likely did not know their team members very well and therefore likely would be less inclined in having to establish a trusting relationship with all team members. In such an environment, avoidant attached individuals thrive and are likely to be seen as leader-like, i.e. prototypical of a leader.

Overall, the team task used in this study primarily was designed to enable real initial interactions among team members, in order to provide participants some exposure to their fellow group members. Participants' subsequent evaluation of others' leadership most likely referred to their general impression of their fellow team members, since the task was too short to reflect true leader "emergence". This is also evident in the examination of several covariates, such as fluid intelligence and extraversion. Both of these characteristics usually relate very strongly and positively to leader prototypicality. Since this is not the case here, it supports the notion that participants likely evaluated team members based on the general impression or preference of other team members based on participants own relational orientations towards others in general.

Finally, it is important to remember that our measure of leader prototypicality is unlikely to relate to actual team performance, since participants received their team's performance evaluation only after the completion of the study. Therefore, participants did not evaluate others based on effectiveness, but on perceived leader prototypicality.

Conclusion

In order to learn why some individuals are seen as leaders, while others are not, we should consider individuals' relational characteristics (Shamir, 2007). Attachment theory allows us to focus on these individual differences, and provides us with a relational theoretical framework of perception of others (Hazan & Shaver, 1990; Richards & Schat, 2011; Zhang & Hazan, 2002). In this chapter, we proposed and found that individuals scoring high on anxious attachment are less likely to be seen as leader prototypical by other team members, although these results were insignificant when covariates such as personality and self-esteem were introduced. Notably, individuals who score high on avoidance attachment were likely to be perceived as highly leader prototypical. We explain these findings with the nature of the work task. Further, we find no support that securely attached individuals are likely to be perceived as

prototypical team leaders given the provided group exercise. Attachment orientations have important implications in practical high-stakes applications such as organizational teamwork, which we discuss in the course of the paper.

Table 16 Correlations among variables

		M	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1	Leader-Rank (reverse)	3.59	1.12	(.92)												
2	Anxious Attachment	2.56	.81	-.00	(.84)											
3	Avoidance Attachment	-1.51	.88	.12†	.24***	(.87)										
4	Anxious * Avoidance Attachment	-3.70	2.50	.08	-.31***	.80***										
5	Openness to Experience	1.99	.59	-.05	-.12†	-.09	-.00	(.78)								
6	Conscientiousness	1.03	.69	.03	.08	-.12†	-.16*	.04	(.81)							
7	Extraversion	.51	.78	-.11	-.13†	-.46***	-.33***	.32***	-.07	(.88)						
8	Agreeableness	1.63	.62	-.06	.03	-.39***	-.38***	.12†	.07	.31***	(.84)					
9	Neuroticism	-1.63	.67	.09	-.46***	-.24***	.03	.13†	.05	.15*	.05	(.78)				
10	Fluid Intelligence	51.24	8.01	-.12†	.09	-.15*	-.13	-.01	.19**	.12†	.06	.07	(.89)			
11	Self-Esteem	.65	.54	.10	-.46***	-.29**	-.04	.25***	.10	.30***	.08	.51***	.10	(.76)		
12	Age	22.62	2.32	.12†	-.18**	-.04	.08	-.01	-.01	-.08	-.20**	.14*	-.24***	.07		
13	Gender	1.43	.50	.07	-.12†	.10	.15*	.08	-.01	-.03	-.26***	.23**	-.08	.26***	.13†	

$^{\dagger}p < .10$, $^{***}p < .001$, $^{**}p < .01$, $^{*}p < .05$

Table 17 Ordered Logistic Regressions – Leader Prototypicality (Interaction Effects)

	M1	M2	M3	M4	M5
Anxious Attachment	-.28†	-.17	-.14	-.12	-.12
	(-1.78)	(-.99)	(-.79)	(-.68)	(-.69)
Avoidance Attachment	.58*	.59*	.56*	.57*	.63*
	(2.19)	(2.23)	(2.10)	(2.08)	(2.33)
Anxious * Avoidance Attachment	-.15†	-.14†	-.14	-.13	-.14†
	(-1.83)	(-1.65)	(-1.59)	(-1.47)	(-1.64)
Control Variables					
Self-Esteem		.31†	.36†	.37†	.36†
		(1.66)	(1.85)	(1.76)	(1.67)
Fluid Intelligence			-.02	-.02*	-.01
			(-1.77)	(-1.99)	(-1.45)
Big-5 Personality					
Openness to Experience				-.16	-.16
				(-1.12)	(-1.12)
Conscientiousness				.08	.07
				(.63)	(.55)
Extraversion				-.16	-.14
				(-1.19)	(-1.08)
Agreeableness				.25†	.32*
				(1.70)	(1.97)
Neuroticism				.15	.12
				(1.03)	(.81)
Demographics					
Age					.06†
					(1.84)
Gender					.07
					(.43)
N (groups)	198	197	195	195	194
Pseudo R2	1.00	1.71†	2.29*	3.81†	4.41*
Wald chi2	5.35	7.97	11.37	18.23	22.27

† $p < .10$, *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$; z-statistics in parentheses, **unstandardized coefficients**.

THESIS DISCUSSION

Theoretically speaking, the importance of attachment theory as a relationship theory should be evident in leader-follower relationships and the perception of these relationships. We know that attachment orientations result from early socialization experiences with others, be it parents (Keller, 2003) or previous interaction partners in general, such as significant others (Brumbaugh & Fraley, 2007; Brumbaugh & Fraley, 2006). It seems that relationships are very important in determining individuals' future perception, affect and behaviour toward others. Hence, it is very likely that attachment theory, i.e. the most dominant relationship theory, can help scholars understand, explain and account for individual differences when it comes to the leader-follower relationship as well. A closer examination of attachment orientations in the leadership literature has been called for in several previous paper (Epitropaki, et al., 2013; Junker & van Dick, 2014; Thomas, et al., 2013). However, there has been little follow-up research so far. This dissertation aims to fill that gap. In this dissertation, I examine the relevance of attachment orientations in leadership, particularly leader perception, the transfer of behavioural expectations and judgments from one leader to another, as well as leader prototypicality in teams.

Leader Preference

Beginning with leader perception, I hypothesized that attachment orientations are likely to predict the preference for specific leader attributes. In the first study (Chapter 1) I discuss the expected differences between the two main attachment orientations, i.e. anxious and avoidance attachment, with regard to autonomous leaders, using an online leader prototype and individual differences survey. The reason why I focus on this particular leader dimension is simple. Individuals who score high on anxious attachment relate very differently to an attachment person

than individuals who score high on avoidance attachment, in particular in their reactive behaviour towards others. Highly anxious attached individuals prefer close emotional proximity to their leader and engage in hyperactived proximity seeking towards their attachment figure. Whereas highly avoidant attached individuals engage in deactivation and increased distance toward their attachment figure. Attachment theory argues, this is a result of previous interactions with other attachment figures. Highly anxious attached individuals are likely to have experienced inconsistent negative experiences with attachment figures, i.e. their attachment needs were not always, but sometimes, met. This has led them to rely on others in times of need and subsequently, created a feeling of not being good enough to deal with a situation unless the attachment figure is present and nearby. Therefore, these individuals would be likely to prefer an attachment figure, in this case leader, who exhibits a low autonomous leadership style, i.e. someone who is emotionally close, approachable and in general supportive. They likely prefer a leader who is dissimilar to themselves, someone who brings with complementary skills and attributes. In short, they are also likely to evaluate such a leader as more competent and approachable. This is what we find in both studies (Chapter 1) as well, namely a negative relationship between anxious attachment and high autonomous leadership as well as a lower attribution of competence to a highly autonomous leader. This was studied in Study 2 (Chapter 1) with the help of an online experimental vignette study. Therefore, high scores of anxious attachment do not only impact preferred ideal leader attributes (ILTs) but also the attribution of higher competence levels to a (fictional) low autonomous leader. Theoretically, this makes sense since by perceiving others as more capable, highly anxious attached individuals effectively fulfil their own attachment needs and therefore increase proximity and dependence on others (Fraley, et al., 2006).

Conversely, we would expect highly avoidant attached individuals to respond favourably to highly autonomous leaders due to their experience of consistently negative interactions with previous attachment figures (Collins & Feeney, 2004). Therefore, their attachment needs were not fulfilled previously, hence teaching them not to rely on others, and to have to take care of things on their own. Hence, they are likely to prefer a leader who is quite similar in this aspect (Hansbrough, 2012; Keller, 1999), namely a highly autonomous, self-governing, independent and unique leader, just like their self-reliant selves. In Chapter 1 we find that indeed, highly avoidant attached participants preferred highly autonomous leaders and evaluated these leaders higher on perceived competence as well (Study 2).

Likewise, highly avoidant attached individuals' ideal leader prototype should also include attributes describing an autonomous leadership style. However, in Study 1 (Chapter 1) I did not find enough significant evidence towards this hypothesis. In the discussion section of the first chapter I argue that this might be due to the failed activation of avoidance attachment (Ein-Dor, 2015; Fraley, et al., 2000) since I used two different tasks in each study. Avoidance attachment needs to be activated in individuals, in contrast to anxious attachment which is always active (Fraley, et al., 2006). Therefore, in the second study I direct participants to imagine they work for and report to the described leader (using two conditions: low/highly autonomous leadership style). The two used leader descriptions can be found in the appendix of this dissertation (Appendix A). The goal was to activate avoidance attachment in the low autonomous leader condition. I expected highly avoidant attached individuals to try to protect themselves from experiencing too much emotional closeness and proximity to their highly supportive, and team oriented attachment figure. They would do so by engaging in deactivation, i.e. evaluating the leader negatively, in order to distance themselves from that person (Ein-Dor, 2015; Fraley, et al., 2000). Indeed, findings show

that highly avoidant attached individuals do evaluate low autonomous leaders negatively, and low on perceived competence. However, these findings with regard to leader preference should be interpreted in the context in which they occur.

Role of Context

Context can play a large role in the sense making of attachment specific results. One example is the impact on avoidance attachment in the course of this dissertation. In Chapter 3, I find a positive relationship between avoidance attachment and leader prototypicality. Does this mean that avoidant attached individuals are preferred as leaders in general? How can that be? Previous studies have consistently shown that secure attachment is preferred in leaders, regardless of the subordinates' own attachment orientation (Berson, et al., 2006; Davidovitz, et al., 2007). What do these results mean for individuals who score low on both anxious and avoidance attachment, i.e. exhibit secure attachment? This is where the nature of the task, i.e. context comes in.

The team task presented to team members in Chapter 3 was short, and participants were required to complete the task only once, i.e. no subsequent rounds. They were told that this information upfront. Hence, the time required to solve the task was relatively short (10-15min) and did not require any emotional closeness between group members. In addition, team members were randomly assigned to their corresponding teams. Therefore, they likely did not know their team members, or at least not well beforehand. Hence, there was no need for a team member to be overly supportive, approachable and emotionally sensitive, in order to be perceived as highly prototypical of a leader. As stated in Chapter 3, in such an environment, avoidant attached

individuals thrive. Hence, given this context, highly avoidant attached individuals are likely to be seen as leader-like, i.e. prototypical of a leader.

In addition, when it comes to working in a team and leader preference, one should not ignore the possible evolutionary advantage to a high degree of avoidance attachment. As previous scholars have argued (Ein-Dor, et al., 2010), social defense theory could help interpret these findings. According to Ein-Dor, et al. (2010), high levels of avoidance attachment are strongly associated with a rapid fight-flight schema, which encourages self-protective responses to danger without consultation of others or help-seeking. Other research (Mickelson et al., 1997) has found that higher levels of anxious but not avoidant attachment is strongly associated with life events and socio-economic presses. These scholars further argued that individuals with a dominantly avoidance attachment orientation are likely to be protected from social and economic stressors, due to the relative cognitive consistency associated with avoidance attachment in infancy and childhood. The same line of reasoning has been found and applied in a more recent work on attachment orientations and attention control as well (Gillath, et al., 2009). Therefore, it seems there is much more to the predictive role of attachment orientations than merely examining them as trait-like characteristics. Indeed, in this dissertation I have argued repeatedly not just for the importance of general attachment orientations, but also relationship specific attachment orientations, i.e. in which manner individuals relate to specific attachment figures. Context surely matter when assessing differences among individuals relational characteristics, and this context further can also extend to specific significant others (global versus relationship-specific attachment) as well as to more macro level influencers, such as culture. I discuss both these aspects in Chapter 2 and in the section below.

Global vs. Relationship-Specific Attachment

In Chapter 2, I analyze and discuss the transfer of *just treatment* expectations from a current leader to a new, similar leader, i.e. the influence of culture on the engagement in leader transference. Indeed, in Study 1 (Chapter 2), I found that individuals who scored higher on Relationship Specific (RS) anxious attachment were more likely to hold higher expectations of just treatment of their new leader. Individuals who scored higher on RS-anxious attachment attributed higher just treatment expectations to new leaders, as long as the new leader was similar, i.e. reminded them of their previous leader. Hence, as followers, participants are likely to still be attached or "hung-up" on their previous leader. Notably, a three-way interaction analysis of the two attachment orientations found that compared to anxious, fearful and secure attachment orientations, avoidant individuals had the lowest expectations of just treatment of their new, similar leader.

There were also differences with regard to a more cognitive outcome variable, namely leader effectiveness evaluations. Here, I did find a positive and significant relationship between global anxious attachment and leader effectiveness with higher attribution scores to the new, similar leader than individuals who score low on this dimension. Also, attribution scores of individuals with a dominantly (global) avoidant attachment orientation are the lowest in the similar leader condition, compared to all other attachment orientations. Notably, the predictor here is global attachment, not relationship-specific attachment. Therefore, global anxious attachment seems to be able to predict leader effectiveness expectations just as relationship-specific attachment does in the case of just treatment expectations.

The observed differences with regard to global versus relationship-specific attachment can be explained by the accessibility and preference for both working models (Collins & Read, 1994).

Global attachment orientations involve chronically accessible working models, with both cognitive as well as affective properties, which are an average of experiences across previous relationships (Brumbaugh & Fraley, 2007). Global attachment working models are applied similarly to the evaluation and perception of new relationships in general. Indeed, most previous research measures global attachment models, i.e. how individuals typically perceive close others and feel towards close relationships (Collins, et al., 2004; Collins & Read, 1994).

Over time individuals develop numerous relationships with significant others, therefore creating and forming person and relationship-specific working models. These more person-specific working models are also known as relationship-specific working models, or relationship-specific attachment. Previous studies have shown that, for example "relationship-specific avoidance is more influential than global avoidance on the difference in participants' feelings" (Brumbaugh & Fraley, 2006: 557). Furthermore, Brumbaugh and Fraley (2006) found that relationship-specific anxious attachment led individuals to a similar degree with regard to evaluations of others. This also means that even when there is very little overlap between the focal person (i.e., the previous interaction partner) and the target (i.e., new interaction partner), mental representations or working models of attachment of previous interaction partners guide individuals in their relational behaviour. However, in this case feelings toward the target persons were the measured outcome.

In the research presented in Chapter 2 using an experimental online leader attribution task, I hypothesized and found that the influence of the activated working models of attachment largely depends on the measured outcome variable. I was particularly interested in empirically testing the influence of attachment orientations on two outcome variables which vary in degrees of close emotional distance. More affective judgments such as affect toward someone or expectations of

just treatment toward someone are more likely to be better predicted by the recollection and activation of relationship-specific attachment since, more relationship-specific working models are associated with more episodic memories of events (Collins, 1996), and hence affective events. This is indeed what I found. On the other hand, less affective judgments, i.e. judgments that do not evoke an intimate or close response by participants such as judgments of someone's competence or effectiveness should serve as a better predictor of the activation of global attachment working models. Again, the findings show that only global attachment working models predicted perceived leader effectiveness.

Cultural Influence

Taking the case of avoidance attachment, previous studies have shown this attachment orientation is linked to negative evaluations of others in general, across cultures (Friedman, et al., 2010). This lends some support to the initial framework set out by Bowlby (1969), who theorized that attachment orientations, due to their early on-set and biological underpinnings, should be consistent across all population groups and cultures. However, culture can influence the degree to which avoidant or anxious individuals feel content in their relationships with others.

Initially, I hypothesized that anxious attachment is more likely to be prevalent in collectivist cultures, since collectivistic countries are interdependent and place a great value on relational aspects of the self. This was indeed the case, as anxious attachment scores obtained in the three countries (US, Greece and India) were indeed the highest in India (Chapter 2, Study 2). In such cultures, avoidant participants are likely to have unmet leader-follower expectations, i.e. they might be asked to be more socially engaging and rely on others, which is not in their nature. This would likely cause disappointment and frustration (Friedman, et al., 2010) for avoidant

attached individuals. Therefore, depending on which culture individuals reside in and their dominant attachment orientation, they will likely differ in the transference of leader expectations.

For example, individuals with a highly relationship-specific avoidant attachment orientation in collectivistic cultures such as Greece or India, hold negative (or low) just treatment expectations of a new, similar leader. Although a bit counterintuitive given avoidant attached individuals' tendency to evaluate others negatively in general (Rom & Mikulincer, 2003) this is to be expected. In such cultures avoidant attached individuals are not "hung up" or influenced by their previous leader, but rather perceive new leaders as new and unique, not tainted by previous similar leader-follower relationships. In the case of avoidant individuals, leaders can then be evaluated negatively. Therefore, they do not engage in the leader transference process as much.

This is in stark contrast to highly avoidant individuals in individualistic cultures, i.e., cultures which place great importance on individual goals and values such as the US, who hold positive (or high) just treatment expectations of new, similar leaders. This means that new, similar leaders are evaluated positively, instead of negatively, which would be in the nature of individuals with a dominantly avoidant attachment orientation. This is an important finding, as it shows that avoidant attached individuals in highly individualistic cultures, are more greatly influenced by previous leaders, likely due to previous issues or conflicts with the current leader. Hence, a new leader, albeit a similar one, is evaluated more positively. Put differently, a new leader is preferred and positive behavioural expectations are attributed to the new relationship interaction partner, i.e. leader. However, this only holds for behavioural measures such as just treatment expectations.

Culture remains an important factor in future work on attachment orientations and the perception of leaders. It surely should be included in future works on this and similar topics.

In sum, in this dissertation, and across the three main chapters (as well as one additional paper: see Appendix B) I make a case for the importance of follower-centric characteristics such as attachment orientations, as predictors of leader perception, transference and prototypicality.

GENERAL LIMITATIONS

This dissertation is of course not without limitations. Some limitations transcend across the three main chapters, while others are study specific. In this section, I outline these limitations beginning with general limitations, before addressing chapter specific limitations.

In the first two chapters, I use online participants recruited through Amazon MTurk. In Chapter 1 I use MTurk participants in both presented studies, a cross-sectional survey study as well as an experimental study. Whereas in Chapter 2 MTurk participants formed two out of three total samples. There is quite some debate in the scientific literature on the adequacy of using MTurk participants to study new phenomenon or even replicate existing ones. However, MTurk users have not been found to be different from traditional participants pools (Paolacci & Chandler, 2014). MTurk users also have shown to be more attentive than traditional participant pools (Hauser & Schwarz, 2016). Furthermore, since participants are paid for their work, albeit a small amount, there might be the motivation to click through surveys randomly and not answer questions truthfully. However, we are confident that we acted appropriately to circumvent these issues using attention and manipulation checks. Attention check questions had been pretested in a previous study (Meade & Craig, 2012) and participants were required to have a very high approval rating. However, the lack of control regarding experimental conditions remains. Hence, I do encourage the replication of these findings using traditional participant pools, i.e. working professionals and employees across several sectors. This especially would be valuable for study results presented in

Chapter 1.

As mentioned at the end of Study 1 (Chapter 1), although main results were as expected using MTurk participants, findings could not be replicated in a separate sample involving 174 MTurk participants. This might be due to the size of the replication sample, or the nature of those particular participants. However, another explanation might be the adapted study design with regard to Study 1 (Chapter 1). In the replication sample participants were shown only the four autonomous leadership items, as well as eight other items for randomization purposes. This could mean that in this second sample participants' ideal leader prototype failed to activate, since there were not enough items for a social-cognitive contrast or comparison to occur. Put differently, in Study 1 I asked participants to indicate to which degree each item either inhibits or facilitates outstanding leadership. While doing so participants see several items at once and therefore begin to automatically and subconsciously compare items against each other, e.g. being "independent" is a quality, which defines an outstanding leader. Yet, this could be the case only when indicating their (dis)agreement with the item "manipulative" or "honesty". In short, it is likely that participants who highly value autonomy, do so only while keeping in mind and comparing one item to other listed items. This comparison (Shondrick, et al., 2010) and activation of leader prototypes should be kept in mind in future research.

With regard to Chapter 2, the use of MTurk participants in the studies presented in both presented studies is a clear limitation. One could argue that MTurk users are paid for their work, and hence are motivated to not read the displayed instructions carefully and select leader attributes, which in reality do not present their actual leader. Ultimately, this could lead to random answers. Having taken this into account I did take measures to ensure questions were understood and answered truthfully, namely through the use of attention and recall checks. The used attention

check questions were selected and pretested (Meade & Craig, 2012) and only MTurk participants who had a very high approval rating (over 85%) were contacted in both samples. Although, we do acknowledge the lack of control regarding experimental conditions with such a population, our Greek sample, although not recruited via MTurk also filled out the survey online at their own discretion. Therefore, the conditions are virtually identical across all three samples.

Another potential limitation is the adaptation of the used approach in Chapter 2. In both presented studies, I do rely on the transference methodology of Andersen, as well as Ritter & Lord (2007) with regard to testing transference in a leadership context. However, I slightly adapt the research design by using a pre-determined set of attributes, instead of asking participants to write down attributes from memory. Potentially, one could argue this list is not exhaustive enough and cannot truly reflect participants' descriptions of their leader. However, even with this adapted approach I do replicate the results of Ritter & Lord (2007), which provides additional confidence in the suitability and reliability of this approach and findings. One additional benefit of this particular method is that it greatly simplifies execution and data collection as well as produces reliable results. I do encourage future scholars to use this method to conduct additional research on this topic, allowing much larger possible samples than previous manual execution.

Furthermore, with respect to Chapter 2, the use of a categorical cultural factor forms another limitation. Indeed, I did account for cultural differences by testing hypotheses in three culturally different populations. However, I do lack more detailed measures, e.g., specific measures of several cultural dimensions. Including such measures would allow to further tease out and disentangle which exact cultural aspects most strongly influence the relationship between attachment orientations and the transfer of expectations from one leader to another. Therefore, I

encourage scholars to include more sophisticated measures of cultural dimensions in future analyses of attachment orientations.

Finally, with regard to Chapter 3, limitations surround the nature of the task as well as the sample itself. Although we set out to measure leader prototypicality, assessed as leader endorsement within teams, we did so with student groups. Student groups have been argued to inaccurately resemble "the dynamics of social interaction and hence antecedents of success" (Antonakis, Ashkanasy, & Dasborough, 2009: 249). Another limitation of student groups is the increased homogeneity (Peterson, 2001), which might result in a distorted effect size in comparison with practicing work teams in organizational settings (also as discussed in Appendix B). Initially, the reason for choosing a student sample for the experiment presented in Chapter 3 was due to the needed randomization of team members into groups. This is likely very difficult to replicate in a real life organizational setting. Nevertheless, in order to increase the generalizability and validity of the main results in this chapter, future studies should aim to replicate the presented results in organizational settings. Hereby, it is important to observe newly formed teams, for it is in these types of teams that the effect size with regard to attachment orientations and leader prototypicality is likely to be the strongest.

FUTURE RESEARCH AND IMPLICATIONS

Attachment orientations as prime examples of relational characteristics have much to add to the leadership literature. Disregarding data restraints for just one moment, I can think of a completely new array of possible future research studies as well as implications involving attachment and leadership.

First and foremost, it would be ideal to test the influence of attachment orientations on

leader preference and especially perception using real interactions between individuals. Examining real interactions or real behaviour is likely to yield the strongest results with regard to effect size, since interactions with attachment figures, such as leaders and followers, are most likely to elicit individuals' attachment scripts. For the near future, I would like to conduct more studies involving real interactions between individuals, such as team studies. Field experiments would be even better. For example, it would be most interesting to examine employees with assigned team leaders or managers. Having the liberty and flexibility to work with an organization, which conducts most of its work based on many groups of similar sizes would allow a) the measurement of individual differences such as global attachment orientations, and b) the setup of specific configurations of leaders and followers, based on attachment orientations. Essentially, running field experiments would allow the assessment of attachment orientation matching (Keller & Cacioppe, 2001) between managers and employees, and the impact of these implications on follower performance.

Although attachment orientations have been measured on the dyadic level (Kafetsios, et al., 2014) it would be invaluable to track the formed relationship-specific attachment orientations between leader and follower over time. Putting such findings into practice, organizations would be better able to manage the assignment of team members into groups, as management could aim to achieve a "best match" between supervisors' and followers' attachment orientations.

Additionally, future research could look at whether global attachment orientations can indicate the likelihood of new employees succeeding in newly formed ties to existing team members. Assessing global attachment orientations beforehand, organizations would be much better equipped to anticipate and prevent relational conflicts between team members. Here it would be interesting to study incoming real employees, interacting with their new supervisors and team members. Again, a longitudinal study would be warranted. This could be combined with another

study testing these associations on the individual level as well.

With regard to practical implications, attachment assessment could also be introduced before the interview stage through sophisticated text analysis from sources such as public Twitter feeds, blogs etc. Introducing attachment questionnaires at the interview stage itself would be likely problematic, as organizations likely, and correctly, would point out that interviewing candidates probably are not comfortable answering personal attachment related questions. However, future research could examine whether additional data input such as previous Twitter feeds can be used to assess individuals' attachment orientations, and make predictions so that individual's supervisor preferences before newly incoming employees are assigned to their respective teams. The goal would be to provide an individualized, catered approach to handling or even possibly avoiding future relational conflicts between leaders and followers.

Another avenue to explore is the priming of attachment orientations (Mikulincer, et al., 2002). If attachment orientations can be primed, even temporarily, this could become a powerful tool for organizations as well. Potentially priming attachment orientations could be used as a tool to conflict solution, or even negotiation and communication with employees. It would be very interesting to test this potential importance of attachment orientations in negotiation scenarios (Bear & Segel-Karpas, 2015), such as the announcement of bad news to employees. Future studies could also examine whether attachment orientations could help "soften the blow" when it comes to the communication of bad news in an organization or teams. For example, one could study the changes in perceived organizational justice due to global attachment as well as relationship-specific attachment orientations. Here it is important to study actual employees with a real stake in the organization and a real interest to keep their jobs.

One potential scenario could be the announcement that a team leader has been let go or is

leaving the organization. This could the impact of attachment orientations on collective turnover, i.e. a team member leaves the team, to follow the team leader to another organization and this sets off a chain reaction. What would be the likelihood be of a team leader following their attachment figure, their team leader and leave the organization? Is this likely to happen more often to some individuals rather others, and can attachment orientations help in identifying these tendencies? Do economic conditions, such as being offered a job at another organization versus starting up their own firm, or followers' salary expectations, or even current work conditions matter?

There are a lot of questions to answer and future research can do so in various ways. I intend to explore some of the topics listed above in my own future research. For example, with regard to the implications of priming attachment orientations, dyadic experimental work involving real employees and their supervisor would be ideal. Furthermore, the likelihood of following a team leader out of an organization should first be explored on an individual level, again using experimental work. This could be done with vignettes, in which participants are given two or more decision choices e.g. stay or follow the leader, which would involve certain consequences and they again would be asked to take a decision and choose between given choices. Indeed, hereby it could be very helpful to conduct some preliminary qualitative work to explore real life factors, which would influence employees' decision-making process.

In short, considering attachment orientations in future individual level research would likely allow scholars as well as managers to better predict future leadership and followership outcomes (Murphy & Johnson, 2011; Popper & Amit, 2009; Popper, et al., 2000).

OVERALL CONCLUSION

In this dissertation, I argue that followers attribute leadership. Hence, leadership research hence should account for followers' (as well as leaders') characteristics. Surely, previous attempts to define leadership already have discussed and researched the leader-follower relationship focusing on leaders more so than followers. However, I argue that past efforts focusing purely on leader characteristics or even leader relationship quality (LMX; Graen & Uhl-Biel, 1995; Uhl-Bien, et al., 2000) simply do not suffice. For example, while accounting for relationship quality is the first step, one should not dismiss followers' individual characteristics and differences relating to the perception and evaluation of leadership.

Furthermore, oftentimes scholars working in the area of leadership, consider leaders mutually exclusive from followers. Following the train of thought of this dissertation, it is clear that this needs to change. I argue that leadership is a role that is more likely to be attributed, and take a strong follower-centric approach with regard to my experimental studies and analysis. Followers and leaders are not really different from each other; rather they should be perceived, as individuals put into two different categories, not more not less. In this dissertation, I argue that leaders are perceived as leaders either because they fit individuals' view of an ideal leader (Chapter 1), they remind individuals of a previous leader, i.e. leader transference (Chapter 2), or due to implicit agreement among team members as to who is most leader prototypical (Chapter 3).

In summary, in this dissertation I argue that leadership is a relationship between leaders and followers alike (Hinojosa, McCauley, Randolph-Seng, & Gardner, 2014). Further, in order to understand why some individuals are more likely to be perceived as leaders, it is worth focusing on followers and specifically followers' individual relational characteristics (Thomas, et al., 2013). Attachment orientations provide a perhaps overlooked opportunity for current and future scholars

to better examine and understand the leadership from a relational follower perspective. I hope that the findings presented in this dissertation will encourage additional work on attachment orientations and provide a more holistic understanding of the socio-cognitive processes involved in leader perception.

APPENDIX A - Scales

Attachment (Global)
Scored from 1 (strongly disagree) – 7 (strongly agree)

The statements below concern how you feel in social relationships. We are interested in how you *generally* experience relationships. Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the statements below:

Anxiety

1. I'm afraid that I will lose others' love. (anx1)
2. I often worry that others will not want to stay with me. (anx2)
3. I often worry that others don't really love me. (anx3)
4. I worry that others won't care about me as much as I care about them. (anx4)
5. I often wish that others' feelings for me were as strong as my feelings for them. (anx5)
6. I worry a lot about my relationships. (anx6)
7. When others are out of sight, I worry that they might become interested in someone else. (anx7)
8. When I show my feelings for others, I'm afraid they will not feel the same about me. (anx8)
9. I rarely worry about other people leaving me. (anx9R)
10. Other people make me doubt myself. (anx10)
11. I do not often worry about being abandoned. (anx11R)
12. I find that other people don't want to get as close as I would like. (anx12)
13. Sometimes others change their feelings about me for no apparent reason. (anx13)
14. My desire to be very close sometimes scares people away. (anx14)
15. I'm afraid that once others get to know me, they won't like who I really am. (anx15)
16. It makes me mad that I don't get the affection and support I need from others. (anx16)
17. I worry that I won't measure up to other people. (anx17)
18. Others only seem to notice me when I'm angry. (anx18)

Avoidance

19. I prefer not to show others how I feel deep down. (avoid1)
20. I feel comfortable sharing my private thoughts and feelings with other people. (avoid2R)
21. I find it difficult to allow myself to depend on others. (avoid3)
22. I am very comfortable being close to other people. (avoid4R)
23. I don't feel comfortable opening up to other people. (avoid5)
24. I prefer not to be too close to others. (avoid6)
25. I get uncomfortable when others wants to be very close. (avoid7)
26. I find it relatively easy to get close to other people. (avoid8R)
27. It's not difficult for me to get close to others. (avoid9R)
28. I usually discuss my problems and concerns with others. (avoid10R)

29. It helps to turn to other people in times of need. (avoid11R)
30. I tell other people just about everything. (avoid12R)
31. I talk things over with others. (avoid13R)
32. I am nervous when others get too close to me. (avoid14)
33. I feel comfortable depending on other people. (avoid15R)
34. I find it easy to depend on others. (avoid16R)
35. It's easy for me to be affectionate with others. (avoid17R)
36. Other people really understand me and my needs. (avoid18R)

Attachment (Relationship-Specific)
Scored from 1 (strongly disagree) – 7 (strongly agree)

- It helps to turn to this person in times of need. (avoid1R_rs)
- I usually discuss my problems and concerns with this person. (avoid2R_rs)
- I talk things over with this person. (avoid3R_rs)
- I find it easy to depend on this person. (avoid4R_rs)
- I don't feel comfortable opening up to this person. (avoid5_rs)
- I prefer not to show this person how I feel deep down. (avoid6_rs)
- I often worry that this person doesn't really care for me. (anx1_rs)
- I'm afraid that this person may abandon me. (anx2_rs)
- I worry that this person won't care about me as much as I care about him or her. (anx3_rs)

Attention Check Questions
Scored from 1 (strongly disagree) – 5 (strongly agree) OR adapted to each question scoring

1. I am paid biweekly by leprechauns. (attention1)
2. I have been to every country in the world. (attention2)
3. I do not understand a word of English. (attention3)
4. I have never brushed my teeth. (attention4)

Daily Contact
Scored 1 (no or barely any contact) – 5 (a lof of contact)

On a daily basis, I have ____ to my supervisor.

Demographics

- Please indicate your amount of work experience (in years).

- Please indicate your occupation (multiple given categories).

- In which industry are you currently employed?

- It terms of job level, which comes closest to your most recent position?
  Top-level management (6)
  Upper middle management (5)
  Middle management (4)
  Lower middle management (3)
  Entry level supervisor (2)
  Employee (1)

- What is the highest level of education you have completed?
  Less than High School (1)
  High School / GED (2)
  Some College (3)
  2-year College Degree (4)
  4-year College Degree (5)
  Masters Degree (6)
  Doctoral Degree (7)
  Professional Degree (JD, MD) (8)

- In which state do you currently reside?
- What year were you born?
- What is your gender?
  Female (1)
  Male (2)
  Rather not say (0)

Importance of relationship
Scored 1 (not at all) – 5 (extremely)

My supervisor is ____ important to me.

Just Treatment
Scored 1 (to a very small extent) – 5 (to a very large extent)

The following items refer to the supervisor you just described. Please indicate to which extent you agree with the statements below.

1. Has your supervisor treated you in a polite manner? (just1)
2. Has your supervisor treated you with dignity? (just2)
3. Has your supervisor treated you with respect? (just3)
4. Has your supervisor refrained from improper remarks or comments? (just4)

Leader Attributes

List of original descriptive traits used in both studies in Chapter 2

1	*	sincere	100	*	tolerant
2	*	honest	101	*	amusing
3	*	understanding	103	*	generous
4	*	loyal	105	*	energetic
5	*	truthful	110	*	independent
6	*	trustworthy	117	*	attentive
7	*	intelligent	119	*	frank
8	*	dependable	126	*	competent
10	*	thoughtful	135	*	relaxed
12	*	considerate	146	*	curious
14	*	reliable	149	*	sociable
16	*	warm	150	*	modest
18	*	kind	153	*	tidy
19	*	friendly	157	*	practical
21	*	happy	161	*	self-confident
24	*	unselfish	163	*	studious
27	*	humorous	169	*	inquisitive
28	*	responsible	170	*	easygoing
29	*	cheerful	171	*	outgoing
30	*	trustful	176	*	self-assured
32	*	broad-minded	179	*	calm
40	*	clever	182	*	confident
41	*	pleasant	186	*	orderly
42	*	courteous	189	*	careful
45	*	helpful	193	*	self-critical
47	*	imaginative	199	*	idealistic
51	*	enthusiastic	202	*	serious
53	*	polite	205	*	persuasive
56	*	forgiving	206	*	obedient
59	*	ambitious	209	*	thrifty
62	*	efficient	210	*	sentimental
67	*	alert	212	*	nonconforming
69	*	witty	217	*	systematic
73	*	patient	220	*	daring
74	*	talented	223	*	proud
78	*	well-mannered	226	*	talkative
79	*	cooperative	227	*	excited
83	*	capable	232	*	persistent
89	*	observant	234	*	unconventional
92	*	neat	237	*	bold
93	*	punctual	239	*	cautious
94	*	logical	246	*	perfectionistic
95	*	prompt	248	*	excitable
97	*	sensible	251	*	quiet
98	*	creative	252	*	impulsive
99	*	self-reliant	253	*	aggressive

256	*	shy	410	*	pessimistic
258	*	unpredictable	411	*	unattentive
264	*	emotional	415	*	overconfident
266	*	bashful	417	*	unsociable
269	*	lonesome	419	*	wasteful
270	*	restless	422	*	short-tempered
288	*	daydreamer	425	*	envious
290	*	materialistic	426	*	overcritical
292	*	rebellious	432	*	dominating
296	*	lonely	434	*	sloppy
297	*	dependent	435	*	unsympathetic
299	*	self-conscious	437	*	hot-tempered
305	*	critical	443	*	fault-finding
306	*	conformist	446	*	uninteresting
316	*	silent	449	*	irritable
319	*	argumentative	452	*	careless
322	*	forgetful	459	*	gloomy
329	*	timid	461	*	disagreeable
332	*	gullible	465	*	disobedient
333	*	indecisive	466	*	complaining
339	*	fearful	469	*	lazy
341	*	absent-minded	470	*	unappreciative
342	*	impractical	473	*	boastful
345	*	sarcastic	475	*	gossipy
347	*	unemotional	478	*	irritating
355	*	unhappy	483	*	egotistical
356	*	indifferent	486	*	cold
358	*	clumsy	490	*	cowardly
359	*	insecure	491	*	discourteous
365	*	unhealthy	495	*	ungrateful
367	*	nervous	499	*	irresponsible
369	*	stubborn	500	*	prejudiced
370	*	unimaginative	501	-	bragging
372	*	unobservant	502	*	jealous
373	*	inconsistent	503	*	unpleasant
374	*	unpunctual	504	*	unreliable
377	*	superstitious	505	*	impolite
386	*	possessive	507	*	nosey
388	*	moody	509	*	quarrelsome
392	*	oversensitive	511	*	distrustful
397	*	untidy	514	*	boring
399	*	noisy	517	*	self-centered
402	*	angry	520	*	ill-mannered
405	*	unintelligent	522	*	unfriendly
406	*	domineering	523	*	hostile
408	*	depressed	531	*	loud-mouthed

532	*	selfish	548	*	malicious
533	*	narrow-minded	549	*	obnoxious
538	*	rude	550	*	untruthful
539	*	conceited	551	*	dishonest
540	*	greedy	552	*	cruel
543	*	insincere	553	*	mean
544	*	unkind	554	*	phony
545	*	untrustworthy	555	*	liar

Perceived Leader Effectiveness
Scored 1 (not at all) – 5 (very much)

My work supervisor is very effective as a leader.

Personality (Big 5)
Scored from 1 (Very Inaccurate) – 5 (Very Accurate)

Please use the rating scale below to describe how accurately each statement describes you. Describe yourself as you generally are now, not as you wish to be in the future. Describe yourself as you honestly see yourself, in relation to other people you know of the same sex, and roughly the same age.

1. I am the life of the party. (extra1)
2. I sympathize with others' feelings. (agree1)
3. I get chores done right away. (conscient1)
4. I have frequent mood swings. (neurot1)
5. I have a vivid imagination. (open1)
6. I don't talk a lot. (extra2R)
7. I am not interested in other people's problems. (agree2R)
8. I often forget to put things back in their proper place. (conscient2R)
9. I am relaxed most of the time. (neurot2R)
10. I am not interested in abstract ideas. (open2R)
11. I talk a lot to different people at parties. (extra3)
12. I feel others' emotions. (agree3)
13. I like order. (conscient3)
14. I get upset easily. (neurot3)
15. I have difficulty understanding abstract ideas. (open3R)
16. I keep in the background. (extra4R)
17. I am not really interested in others. (agree4R)
18. I make a mess of things. (conscient4R)
19. I seldom feel blue. (neurot4)
20. I do not have a good imagination. (open4R)

Personality (Big 5 – 50 Questions)
Scored 1 (strongly disagree) – 5 (strongly agree)

Indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with each statement.

In general, I...

1. Am the life of the party. (extra1)
2. Feel comfortable around people. (extra2)
3. Start conversations. (extra3)
4. Talk to a lot of different people at parties. (extra4)
5. Don't mind being the center of attention. (extra5)
6. Don't talk a lot. (extra6)
7. Keep in the background. (extra7)
8. Have little to say. (extra8)
9. Don't like to draw attention to myself. (extra9)
10. Am quiet around strangers. (extra10)
11. Am interested in people. (agree1)
12. Sympathize with others' feelings. (agree2)
13. Have a soft heart. (agree3)
14. Take time out for others. (agree4)
15. Feel others' emotions. (agree5)
16. Make people feel at ease. (agree6)
17. Am not really interested in others. (agree7)
18. Insult people. (agree8)
19. Am not interested in other people's problems. (agree9)
20. Feel little concern for others. (agree10)
21. Am always prepared. (conscient1)
22. Pay attention to details. (conscient2)
23. Get chores done right away. (conscient3)
24. Like order. (conscient4)
25. Follow a schedule. (conscient5)
26. Am exacting in my work. (conscient6)
27. Leave my belongings around. (conscient7)
28. Make a mess of things. (conscient8)
29. Often forget to put things back in their proper place. (conscient9)
30. Shirk my duties. (conscient10)
31. Am relaxed most of the time. (neurot1)
32. Seldom feel blue. (neurot2)
33. Get stressed out easily. (neurot3)
34. Worry about things. (neurot4)
35. Am easily disturbed. (neurot5)
36. Get upset easily. (neurot6)
37. Change my mood a lot. (neurot7)
38. Have frequent mood swings. (neurot8)
39. Get irritated easily. (neurot9)
40. Often feel blue. (neurot10)
41. Have a rich vocabulary. (open1)
42. Have a vivid imagination. (open2)
43. Have excellent ideas. (open3)
44. Am quick to understand things. (open4)
45. Use difficult words. (open5)
46. Spend time reflecting on things. (open6)
47. Am full of ideas. (open7)
48. Have difficulty understanding abstract ideas. (open8)
49. Am not interested in abstract ideas. (open9)
50. Do not have a good imagination. (open10)

Self-Esteem
Scored 1 (strongly disagree) – 5 (strongly agree)

Indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with each statement.

1. I feel that I am a person of worth, at least on an equal basis with others. (esteem1)
2. At times I think I am no good at all. (esteem2)
3. I feel that I have a number of good qualities. (esteem3)
4. All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure. (esteem4)
5. I am able to do things as well as most other people. (esteem5)
6. I feel that I do not have much to be proud of. (esteem6)
7. I take a positive attitude toward myself. (esteem7)
8. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself. (esteem8)
9. I wish I could have more respect for myself. (esteem9)
10. I certainly feel useless at times. (esteem10)

Trait Anxiety
Scored 1 (almost never) – 4 (almost always)

A number of statements which people have used to describe themselves are given below. Read each statement and then indicate how you *generally* feel. There are no right or wrong answers. Do not spend too much time on any one statement but give the answer which seems to describe how you generally feel.

1. I feel pleasant. (tanx1R)
2. I feel nervous and restless. (tanx2)
3. I feel satisfied with myself. (tanx3R)
4. I wish I could be as happy as others seem to be. (tanx4)
5. I feel like a failure. (tanx5)
6. I feel rested. (tanx6R)
7. I am "calm, cool and collected". (tanx7R)
8. I feel that difficulties are piling up so that I cannot overcome them. (tanx8)
9. I worry too much over something that doesn't really matter. (tanx9)
10. I am happy. (tanx10R)

Vignettes (Chapter 1 - Study 2)

Autonomous Leader:
Mark Smith is Director of Sales for a major appliance firm. Mark assumed his position two years ago following his attainment of an MBA degree with a specialization in marketing. In this position he has gained the respect of both his subordinates and his superiors. His superiors evaluate him as a capable worker, and his subordinates have indicated that they enjoy working for him. Mark is currently in charge of 12 subordinates. **Mark achieves what he sets out, and does not rely on others' help. His subordinates know that Mark believes in determining his own course of action at work. He is oftentimes described as**

independent and self-governing, someone who is not guided by the same assumptions and norms as his peers. This means that he sometimes prioritizes his own needs and wants with some disregard to others. His behavior is different from other supervisors at the firm, probably due to his unique internal compass. For example, his subordinates value that Mark is not afraid of outside influence such as other authority figures at the firm, limiting his own thinking and ideas. This allows him to pursue his own ideas and thoughts, which are sometimes contrary to mainstream thinking but might resonate very well with the customer. In summary, Mark's leadership style is perceived as highly autonomous and independent.

Non-Autonomous Leader:
Mark Smith is Director of Sales for a major appliance firm. Mark assumed his position two years ago following his attainment of an MBA degree with a specialization in marketing. In this position he has gained the respect of both his subordinates and his superiors. His superiors evaluate him as a capable worker, and his subordinates have indicated that they enjoy working for him. Mark is currently in charge of 12 subordinates. **Mark achieves what he sets out, and relies strongly on other's input. His subordinates know that Mark values and adopts a community approach to work. He is oftentimes described as team focused, someone who values and shares the same assumptions and norms as his peers. This means that he aims to prioritize his team's needs and wants with some disregard to himself. His behavior is harmonious with that of other supervisors at the firm, probably due to Mark's subservient nature. For example, his subordinates value that Marks is open to feedback and advice from other authority figures at the firm, enhancing his own thinking and ideas. This allows him to pursue ideas and thoughts that benefit his team and the company overall, which are always aligned with mainstream thinking and resonate well with his colleagues. In summary, Mark's leadership style is perceived as highly supportive and reliant.**

APPENDIX B (CHAPTER 4)

Seems Fair to Me: Dyadic leadership consensus mediates the relationship between perceived fairness and group performance

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Abstract

Drawing on both relational and shared leadership theory and utilizing social consensus, we examine the relationship between leader fairness, leadership consensus, and group performance. We do so by conceptualizing *leader consensus* as a new way of hypothesizing and examining shared leadership. Leadership consensus derives from mutual dyadic perceptions of all members in a team. First, we examine perceptions of leader fairness as a possible antecedent of leader consensus. Second, we investigate the meditational effect of dyadic perceptions of leadership, i.e., leadership consensus perceptions group performance. The findings indicate that when team members indeed reach a clear consensus about their team's leader, perceived leader fairness was positively associated with leadership consensus. Furthermore, teams who perceived their leaders as fair exhibited higher group performance.

Introduction

What does it take to be a legitimate leader in the eyes of others? How do we determine who is the leader of a particular group? Although the research on leadership characteristics, including leadership styles and trait determinants of leadership (Glynn & Raffaelli, 2010), is an important block in the construction of a comprehensive theory, a growing body of literature conceptualizes leadership as an interpersonal process of influence (Bass, 1990; Podolny, Khurana, & Hill-Popper, 2005). Relational leadership theories have defined leadership as an emergent property of groups that result from mutual influence (e.g. Carson, Tesluk, & Marrone, 2007; Uhl-Bien, 2006). Thus, leadership has come to be understood as a social phenomenon that is grounded in collective arrangements, and dynamically configured to produce one or more individuals perceived as leaders by the group (i.e., hierarchically defined). Given the increased emphasis on views of leadership as a relational phenomenon (Graen & Uhl-Biel, 1995; Uhl-Bien, et al., 2000), the question arises as to the nature of the social process through which leadership is created and distributed within groups.

The emergence of leadership and the legitimacy of those leaders has occupied the leadership literature for some time (Judge, et al., 2002; Yukl, 2009) and has evolved into the complexity leadership theory. In this paper we provide first empirical evidence as to the validity of complexity leadership theory, using a new conceptualisation of leadership perception, which we coin leadership consensus. We hypothesize and first test whether leadership consensus can be predicted using perceptions of leader fairness. Secondly, we examine whether leader consensus mediates the relationship between perceptions of leader fairness and a very important organizational outcome, namely group performance.

Complexity leadership theory (Uhl-Bien, 2006; Yammarino, Salas, Serban, Shirreffs, & Shuffler, 2012), indicates that there are three key components in the emergence of leadership within groups: *(a)* relative position of the members in formal hierarchy, *(b)* mutual perceptions of abilities, and *(c)* dyadic relationship patterns between team members (Yammarino, et al.,

2012). From the three aforementioned processes, relative position in formal hierarchy has been the most commonly discussed indicator of leadership (Marion & Uhl-Bien, 2003). However, mutual perceptions of abilities and dyadic relationship patterns between team members are the cornerstones required to define leadership as a dynamic system of relationships.

Given the importance of non-hierarchical determinants in relational theories of leadership, in this paper we examine shared leadership as a form of leadership consensus, a form of social consensus (Pearce, Conger, & Locke, 2008), derived from dyadic patterns of perceptions of leadership prototypicality between members, as suggested by complex leadership theory (Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2008). To the best of our knowledge the presented studies in this paper are the first empirical examination of leadership consensus within the complexity leadership theory literature. Our paper outlines two contributions.

First, we examine whether perceptions of leader fairness in groups contribute to the perception of leadership. There is a large body of research showing that fairness creates more favourable judgments of authority (see Tyler & Lind, 1992), which in turn contributes to the legitimacy of managerial leaders. In other words, fairness contributes to the view of legitimate leaders as role models, which in turn strengthens positive perceptions of the leader. In this paper we test whether perceptions of leader fairness can predict perceptions of leadership, conceptualised as *leadership consensus* among team members. In this approach, leadership consensus is defined as the degree to which group members tend to systematically agree on team members' leadership prototypicality. We operationalize leadership consensus using the using the Social Relations Model (SRM; Kenny, 1994; Kenny & La Voie, 1984). In Study 1 we test the main associations in the present research using the SRM and aggregation methods in order to compare the separate contributions of these approaches. Further, we provide a preliminary test of the utilization of the SRM to evaluate leadership consensus.

Second, understanding leadership as a relational function in groups is not trivial in terms of organizational outcomes either. In fact, consistent evidence has shown that, for example, shared leadership (a specific relational leadership theory; Uhl-Bien, 2006)) is positively related to group performance (Sivasubramaniam, Murry, Avolio, & Jung, 2002). Therefore, we investigate whether *leadership consensus* mediates the relationship between perceived leader fairness and group performance. We do so in Study 2.

Shared and relational leadership

Considering the interpersonal nature of leadership, it becomes clear that differences in leadership between individuals are not exclusive to the domain of trait theories (i.e., certain people possess a higher level of particular intrapersonal characteristics, which increases their effectiveness as leaders). Leadership may instead be the result of consistent perceptions of team members regarding the leadership qualities of several members of a group. In this manuscript, we conceptualize shared leadership within teams as a collective form of leadership (Contractor, DeChurch, Carson, Carter, & Keegan, 2012; Cullen, Palus, Chrobot-Mason, & Appaneal, 2012; Yammarino, et al., 2012), i.e. multiple team members performing leadership roles at the same time (Carter & Dechurch, 2012). Put differently, shared leadership theory allows for the existence of more than one leader at a time and is not confined by an exclusively leader-centric perspective (Drescher & Garbers, 2016). Therefore, relational leadership is a dynamic social system inseparable from the relationships between team members (Gronn, 2002; Yammarino, et al., 2012). This idea is consistent with recent conceptualizations emphasizing that leadership increases to the extent that one or more individuals are perceived as the right or best person to lead a group (DeRue & Ashford, 2010; DeRue, Nahrgang, & Ashford, 2015; Sanders & Schyns, 2006b; Schyns, 2006). Indeed, based on Hollander (1993), DeRue and Ashford (2010) argued that leadership is not something that leaders possess, but rather something that leaders and followers create by mutual endorsement. Since collective

leadership allows multiple team members to execute leadership, this type of leadership is a more interactive form of team member involvement and acknowledgement (Fletcher & Kaufer, 2003). This allows team members to respond to an increasingly complex work environment (Pearce, Yoo, & Alavi, 2004). Shared leadership also has been found to relate positively to organizational performance and satisfaction scores (D'Innocenzo, Mathieu, & Kukenberger, 2016; Wang, Waldman, & Zhang, 2014).

Network theory (Graen & Graen, 2006) and relational leadership relate conceptually and are both evolved from leader-member exchange theory (LMX; Graen & Graen, 2006; Graen & Uhl-Biel, 1995). In LMX, each leader–follower relationship is unique, varies in quality, and exists as a dyad (Anand, Hu, Liden, & Vidyarthi, 2011). Shared network theory retains from LMX the understanding of leadership as a relational, dyadic process. However, shared network theory adds the importance of leadership emergence through relational processes. Leadership results from a social process of influence that creates coordination, roles, goals, and relationships (Uhl-Bien, 2006).

Complexity leadership theory also views leadership as a socially constructed emergent phenomenon (Uhl-Bien, 2006). Using a complexity leadership approach assumes that leadership is built on complex, adaptive, dynamic systems in which individual team members depend on each other in order to achieve a common goal or mission (Yammarino, et al., 2012). Complexity leadership defines leadership, not just by individual team members' themselves (i.e. their various abilities and perceptions of each other, and their central position within the team), but also accounts for the dyadic relationships (i.e. patterns of influence between team members). Essentially, this approach assumes that the relationships individual team members form with each other can contribute to overall perceptions of leadership among teams. Therefore, the unique social relations among team members define leadership. This approach allows for the existence and examination of leadership as consistent perceptions of others on

the leadership qualities of one or more members of a group. In the course of this paper we outline and examine the importance of this approach with regard to the linkages between perceptions of leader fairness and leader consensus.

Rationale for social consensus as a leadership measure

One challenge when conceptualizing leadership as an emergent, socially driven process concerns appropriately capturing the dyadic nature of leadership. Some research circumscribed within relational leadership theories has addressed this task by estimating leadership at the team level, using different forms of aggregation, or more depurate forms of measurement based on social network analysis (Ensley, Hmieleski, & Pearce, 2006; Pearce & Sims Jr, 2002). Previous approaches include aggregation, social networks, and consensus measures.

Despite common use of the aggregation method (Mathieu & Chen, 2011) and the use of standard deviations (Schyns, 2006) to measure consensus, there are several drawbacks in these methods, including missing important sources of variance at the dyadic level (D'Innocenzo, et al., 2016). Previous aggregation studies have focused on hierarchical leadership configurations (Ensley, et al., 2006; Pearce, et al., 2004; Sivasubramaniam, et al., 2002), and ignored informal teams with no appointed leader have not been examined (D'Innocenzo, et al., 2016). Another form of aggregation used in previous research has relied on standard deviation of team members' perceptions of relevant leadership characteristics (e.g. see Sanders & Schyns, 2006a; Schyns, 2006). This is a more refined estimation of relational leadership because it considers mutual perception within teams to estimate a form of leadership emergence based on the degree of dispersion of leadership evaluations.

However, using standard deviation as an indicator of the degree of leadership consensus has several limitations. Firstly, standard deviations are sensitive to the skewness of sample distributions because the squares of the deviations. Second, standard deviation computations ignore the amount of variability in dyadic behavior that can be attributed to the individual,

dyadic, or group level of analysis. Therefore, this approach ignores the inherent non-independence observed in interpersonal constructs, such as leadership.

Social networks. The social network approach is another way of examining shared leadership (Carson, et al., 2007; D'Innocenzo, et al., 2016; Mehra, Smith, Dixon, & Robertson, 2006). Here, scholars study the configural constructs that make up a team. Importantly, using this approach, team member scores are not converged or averaged, but rather account for the distribution of relational influences between team members (Mehra, et al., 2006). Yet, the social network approach also has certain drawbacks. First, density is essentially an aggregation measure (D'Innocenzo, et al., 2016). It does not capture and contribute to the understanding of patterns of influences. In teams in which more than one leader emerges, the network theory approach does not apply, as it assumes one central leader (Yammarino, et al., 2012). Finally, networks are assumed to be stable over time (Brass, 1984; Brass, Galaskiewicz, Greve, & Tsai, 2004), although relationships and in particular work relationships, can be very dynamic.

Consensus. One conceptual alternative is the use of consensus as a preferred approach in team decision-making (Pearce, et al., 2008). Consensus involves estimating the degree to which multiple members agree about the leadership characteristics of one or more members of a group, over and above other social processes such as idiosyncratic evaluations of others, and personal preferences for one or more members of a group (e.g., friendship). Thus, an ideal measure of consensus should estimate whether one or more members gathered sufficiently positive perceptions from other team members to be considered the leader.

Hence, in order to appropriately capture mutual perceptions of leadership occurring within teams, it is necessary to consider a scenario where team members' perceptions of each other's leadership are modelled in a way that makes it possible to disentangle the portion of variance corresponding to the degree of agreement across team members with respect to each

given target. Accordingly, we endorse the Social Relations Model (SRM; Kenny, 1994; Kenny & La Voie, 1984).

Social relations model. The SRM is an interpersonal model that has been used extensively to investigate behavior occurring in mutual dyadic interactions, such as attraction and personality impressions (Back & Kenny, 2010).

Using the SRM, Livi, Kenny, Albright, and Pierro (2008) conceptualized leadership as a multilevel construct that operates at the group, person, and dyadic level of analysis. They argued that differences between individuals relating to how much each member of a group is perceived as a leader are a distinct operationalization of leadership at the individual level. Further, they showed those differences can be meaningfully distinguished as leadership operating at the group (differences in leadership among groups), dyadic (idiosyncratic perception between some members of a group), and individual level of analysis (i.e., differences between individuals in how much leadership they perceive in others; assimilation). Reinforcing our notion of leadership as consensus, Livi, et al. (2008) reanalyzed evidence from seven previous round-robin design studies using the SRM and found that about 48% of the variance was attributed to leadership consensus, indicating that a relevant portion of the interpersonal perceptions of leadership in groups lies in the eye of the beholder.

Leader fairness and leader consensus

Fairness is a common heuristic people use to judge individuals in the workplace (Janson, Levy, Sitkin, & Lind, 2008). Facing organizational environments beset by tensions and facing conflict between the benefits and drawbacks of investing time and effort in multiple relationships, individuals make use of heuristics to help them judge their co-workers and navigate the organizational setting (van Knippenberg, De Cremer, & van Knippenberg, 2007).

Previous studies have proposed that justice treatment or perceptions of fair treatment relate positively to employees' perceptions of the leader-follower relationship. Leaders choose

whether they engage in fair treatment with their followers, and this influences not only followers' perceptions of their leader, but also their own fair treatment with others (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998). Reciprocating this behaviour then impacts followers' organizational citizenship behaviour as well as job satisfaction and performance. Some support for this proposed model has been found (Colquitt, et al., 2013), in which the authors used a structure equation model examining meta-analytic results of the relationship between justice perceptions and performance, mediated by the leader-follower relationship.

Indeed, Cropanzano, Prehar, and Chen (2002) have made use of a mediation model similar to the one we propose in this paper, namely that relational leadership acts as a mediator between fair treatment and job performance. In short, a leader-follower relationship of high quality is likely to increase the relationship between justice perceptions and various outcome variables (Masterson & Lensges, 2015), as employees are likely to be motivated to reciprocate that same fair behaviour. In this paper we extend these findings further.

In this paper we propose and test a mediation model in which we focus on perceptions of leader fairness, observations of leader consensus and group performance as an organizational outcome. Firstly, we know that leaders perceived as fair by their followers build better relationships, and engender more positive attitudes including job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Masterson, 2001). These leaders also increase positive emotions, and more desirable behavior such as task performance and cooperation while reducing undesirable behaviors such as deviance and retaliation (Masterson & Lensges, 2015). The fair treatment of others, i.e., interactional justice is the strongest of all four justice dimensions (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001), while the supervisor is the source of fairness perceptions in the overall group (Burton, Sablynski, & Sekiguchi, 2008). Hence, we focus on the perceptions of fair treatment with regard to the team leader.

Secondly, we acknowledge that the leader-follower relationship does not exist in a vacuum. Therefore, it is likely that other dyadic relationships, between the leader and other followers or between followers themselves (Henderson, Liden, Glibkowski, & Chaudhry, 2009) influence perceptions of fair treatment (Masterson & Tong, 2015). We do so through the lens of leader consensus, since consensus includes follower-follower relationships as well as leader-follower relationships. This leads us to our first hypothesis.

H1: Leader fairness positively relates to leadership consensus.

Leader consensus and group performance

Past research has also stressed the link between different theoretical contributions related to relational leadership (e.g., shared leadership) and team performance (Avolio, Jung, Murry, & Sivasbramaniam, 1996; Hoch & Kozlowski, 2014). Several meta-analyses have confirmed these previous findings (D'Innocenzo, et al., 2016; Nicolaides, et al., 2014; Wang, et al., 2014). Theoretically, the more leadership is shared among team members, the higher individual team members' involvement in the team and the more positive the outcomes for these individuals. However, it is important to keep in mind that shared leadership is an informal and internal process (D'Innocenzo, et al., 2016; Morgeson, DeRue, & Karam, 2010). Shared leadership assumes the distribution of leadership among team members is a dynamic and emergent process (Avolio, et al., 1996; Carson, et al., 2007).

A recent meta-analysis by D'Innocenzo, et al. (2016) found that in 3,198 teams (published and unpublished) there is also a clear difference of effect sizes, depending on the measurements of shared leadership. For example, studies applying a network approach or similar measures of shared leadership result in higher effect sizes than studies applying an aggregation approach. Clearly, there is an empirical difference. However, the theoretical difference, i.e. whether team members are asked to evaluate the team as a whole, or all team members individually, still stands. If shared leadership is defined not merely by individual

team members' abilities and attitudes but also by their dyadic interactions with their team peers, these interactions need to be taken into account empirically as well (D'Innocenzo, et al., 2016). They likely contribute to the distribution of leadership and the informal assignment of leadership roles within the team (Contractor, et al., 2012; DeRue, 2011) and likely have an impact on performance. Therefore, using the complexity leadership approach, we hypothesize the following:

H2: Leadership consensus positively relates to team performance.

Mediational effect of leader consensus

In our paper we take a step towards examining the previously proposed model of fairness and performance while considering the social context of teams (Lavelle, Rupp, & Brockner, 2007; Masterson & Lensges, 2015). Previous research indicates that teams composed of trusting and respectful team members are more likely to achieve high levels of team performance (Day, Gronn, & Salas, 2004; Marks, Mathieu, & Zaccaro, 2001). Shared leadership influences this process positively (Carson, et al., 2007; Erez & Isen, 2002; Pearce & Sims Jr, 2002) and distributed leadership among team members is more likely to contribute to better functioning team dynamics and subsequently higher team performance. We therefore hypothesize the following:

H3: Leadership consensus mediates the relationship between leader fairness and team performance.

Study 1

In Study 1, we utilized a round-robin design to evaluate the relationship between perceived leader fairness and leadership consensus, as well as the association between leadership consensus and group performance in non-randomized teams using SRM and

aggregation methods. This study also provides a variance partionining analysis to demonstrate the importance of employing the SRM.

Methodology

Procedure and sample. In the first study, we used a sample of students working in teams from the beginning of the semester. All students were part of an undergraduate business program. Six groups were formed, each of which consisted of 6–7 members. Data for this study was completed in two parts over a period of approximately 1 month. At Time 1, all students reported their GPA and demographics. Data collected at Time 2 included measures on consensus and fairness. Overall, the sample consisted of 38 participants (55% female, M_{age} = 21.3 years; *SD* = 0.83 years). We explained the purpose of the study to the students and assured their confidentiality and anonymity. Informed consent was provided to all participants, however they were only told that the study was on the nature of team dynamics rather than specifically being told about the researchers' interest in fairness and leadership emergence in order to avoid any tendency toward social desirability bias when rating their peers for leadership qualities. Once the informed consent form was read, signed, and returned, we provided each team and student with an individual ID comprised of their team letter and individual number.

Data Analysis. In this study, leadership was assessed using a round-robin design based on within-group ratings of leadership characteristics. To appropriately model the inherent dependency resulting from this design, an SRM (Kenny, 1994; Kenny & La Voie, 1984) for indistinguishable dyads (i.e., members of each group cannot be distinguished from one another by some variable, such as gender) was initially used. This design allowed us to decompose the variance and determine the hypothesized associations between PLF and leadership consensus, including trait-based control measures. Multilevel modeling (MLM) was employed to analyze

the data because of the non-independence of the data structure. The data structure includes the individual level of analysis (i.e., actor and partner), the dyadic level of analysis (i.e., multiple evaluations of each member), and the group level of analysis (each working group). This type of data creates a cross-classified data structure.

The SRM distinguishes three fundamental observable phenomena in every interpersonal interaction. A portion of the total variance in dyadic behavior is due to individual-level effects. Within these individual-level effects, it is possible to separate the following two common phenomena: the individual tendency to perceive others stereotypically (i.e., assimilation; Kenny, 1994) and the individual tendency to be perceived consistently across a group of individuals (i.e., consensus; Kenny, 1994).

For example, in a group of workers, assimilation captures the tendency for members to rate other group members as similar with regard to leadership (everybody is either a good or a bad leader). In contrast, consensus reflects the level of agreement across team members regarding the leadership characteristics of one or more members (everybody agrees that person "X" is a good leader or a bad leader). Additionally, the SRM estimates the portion of variance due to the specific relationship between two individuals (e.g. Ann's behavior with Jo is unique; Kenny, 1994).

We estimated the SRM actor, partner, and relationship variance without predictors using random intercepts for actor, partner, dyad, and group (Kenny & Livi, 2009). The intra-class correlation for group members' reports on leader characteristics (i.e., partner variance) was interpreted as a meaningful indicator of leadership consensus.

In a second step, individual scores of leadership consensus based on the estimation of partner effects, following the formulas by Kenny, Kashy, and Cook (2006). This computation creates a continuous measure of leadership consensus based on the degree to which each individual in a group received more favourable (or unfavourable) evaluations from others.

Then, the association between leadership consensus and perceived fairness and group performance were estimated using MLM. Finally, these associations were compared to aggregation methods at the group level and standard deviations. These analyses were run using simple regression models given that both aggregation methods dispense of the non-independence resulting in the dyadic data-structure.

Measures

Data collected included leadership consensus, perceived leader fairness, and team performance.

Leadership consensus (LC). LC was assessed using Cronshaw and Lord (1987) General Leadership Impression scale. Since this is a student population, we replaced "superior" with "leader." Participants were asked to evaluate each member of their team except themselves. Sample items include the following: "To what degree does this person fit your image of what a leader should be?" and "How much leadership does this person exhibit?" The scale is based on a 5-point Likert scale from 1 ("None") to 5 ("A lot"). The internal consistency alpha was good (α = .93). As some participants left some questions unanswered, the total number of observations for Study 1 was k = 204.

Perceived leader fairness (PLF). The measure for perception of leader fairness was derived from Ambrose and Schminke (2009). The authors' measure of Perceived Overall Justice (POJ) built upon both Lind (2001), and Colquitt and Shaw (2005). POJ includes two dimensions: individuals' personal justice experiences and fairness of the organization in general (Ambrose & Schminke, 2009). We were mostly interested in the perceived overall fairness or general feelings of justice with regard to the team leader. Hence, we chose three measures to determine the leader's perceived degree of fairness, after replacing "unit supervisor" with "team leader" and replacing "unit employees" with "team members". This was done due to the nature of the sample i.e. students instead of actual employees. This scale

was comprised of the following items: 1) “Overall, team members are treated fairly by their team leader”, 2) “In general, team members can count on their team leader to be fair” and finally, 3) “In general, the way team members are treated by their team leader is fair”. Participants scored their agreement with each item on a 7-point scale (*M*=6.59, *SD*=0.63) ranging from (1) “strongly disagree” to 7 “strongly disagree”. The alpha for perceived overall justice was .77.

Team Performance. Team performance was scored on a scale from 1-20, according to the French grading system, where 1-9 constitutes a “fail”, and anything above 10 a “pass”. In general, any grade above 16 is rated as “excellent”, 14-15 as “very good”, 12-13 as “good” and 10-11 as “satisfactory”. Each team had to read one of six books on management practices, relate the book to the material discussed in class and finally present their findings in a group presentation. The group presentation was conveyed in a talk-show format in which participants were free to decide how to present their material in the most informative and entertaining manner. Participants were told beforehand that it is up to them to decide what information they choose to focus on and present. Each group was graded as a whole, i.e. all team members received the same grade. Grades were determined, but not announced, just after each presentation was completed.

Results

Variance partitioning of leadership consensus. Table 18 shows the SRM variance decomposition estimates for reports of LC. To facilitate interpretation, Table 18 reports the proportion of variance for each effect (i.e., actor, partner, and relationship).

Insert Table 18 about here

This is akin to estimating the intra-class correlation (*ICC*) for each relevant random effect included in the model. Results indicated significant actor variance, σ^2 = .14, *Wald-z* = 2.89, $p < 0.01$ [*95%CI*: 0.07 / 0.29], such that some people tended to stereotypically evaluate other people in a similar way. More importantly, significant partner variance was found, σ^2 = .18, *Wald-z* = 3.09, $p < 0.01$ [*95%CI*: 0.10 / 0.34], which was larger than the stereotypical ratings (i.e., actor variance). This indicates that several members of the groups reached a consensus concerning the leadership qualities of one or more fellow team members.

Perceived leader fairness and leadership consensus. PLF was significantly associated with LC, $t(23) = 2.34$, $p < 0.05$, 95%CI[0.04 / 0.59], using the SRM. Contrasting with these results, perceived fairness did not significantly predict leadership consensus using the standard deviation method of aggregation (See Table 2), whereas the parameter estimate for the association between perceived fairness and leadership consensus based on simple aggregation were positively and significantly related, $t(23) = 3.57$, $p < 0.01$ 95%CI[0.16 / 0.57].

It is worth noting that the amount of variability explained by LC measured using SRM approach was $R^2_{(m)} = 0.11$, indicating a greater relative contribution in explaining LC compared to the previous significant model ($R^2 = 0.07$). Furthermore, it is important to mention that the simple correlation between LC and perceived fairness of the partner was small in magnitude, $r = 0.27$, $p < 0.01$, indicating a small overlap between the tendency to be seen by other as a leader and the perceptions from others as a fair leader. Similarly, when the LC was correlated with the individual tendency to evaluate others as fair on average (actor effect) the correlation was non-significant, $r = -0.07$, $p > 0.10$, indicating that fairness did not relate to LC as a result of continuity in judgments of the leader and her qualities, such as fairness.

Leadership consensus and group performance. Results showed that leadership predicted a significant amount of variance of group performance, $t(23) = 3.21$, $p < 0.01$, $R^2 = 0.23$, and that leadership consensus scores were positively and significantly associated with group performance, $b = 1.01$, $p < 0.01$, using the SRM. Standard deviations scores of leadership consensus were also positively associated with group performance, $t(23) = 4.09$, $p < 0.01$, $R^2 = 0.34$. Finally, using single aggregation method to estimate leadership consensus was not associated with group performance, $t(23) = 0.59$, $p > 0.10$ to a statistically significant extent.

In sum, the SRM provided consistent and stable estimates of both perceived fairness and group performance compared to both methods of aggregation. Additionally, the SRM estimates of leadership consensus were not shown to be highly correlated with measures of perceived fairness, indicating no overlap between the two constructs. Finally, using the SRM permitted us to disentangle the portion of variance corresponding to leadership consensus, allowing a high degree of confidence in the observed relationships.

Study 2

In Study 2 we extended the findings of Study 1 and properly estimated the mediational model anticipated in **Hypothesis 2**. Study 2 included a larger sample of participants and utilized a round-robin survey design, which allowed the estimation of the mediational model with sufficient statistical power.

Methodology

Procedure and sample. As in Study 1, a sample of students working in project teams was used to assess the hypothesized mediational effect of LC on the relationship between PLF and team performance. Overall, the sample consisted of 194 participants (52% female, M_{age} = 22.8 years; SD = 4.4 years). All students were part of an undergraduate business program.

Thirty-five groups participated, each of which included 4–7 members. Members were assigned to teams using random number assignment. Informed consent was provided to all participants; however, they were only told that the study was on the nature of team dynamics rather than specifically being told about the researchers' interest in fairness and leadership emergence in order to avoid any tendency toward social desirability bias when rating their peers for leadership qualities. Once the informed consent form was read, signed, and returned, we provided each team and student with an individual ID comprised of their team letter and individual number.

Measures

Members of each group reported their GPA and demographics at Time 1.

Leadership Consensus (LC). As in Study 1 (Cronshaw & Lord, 1987), participants were asked to evaluate each member of the team except themselves (k = 892 independent observations). The internal consistency alpha was good (α = .95).

Perceived fairness (PLF). This scale was the same as administered in Study 1. Thus, participants scored their agreement with each item on a 7-point scale (M = 5.71, SD = 1.52, α = 0.91) ranging from (1) "strongly disagree" to 7 "strongly agree."

Personality (Big-Five). The Big-Five personality dimensions questionnaire (Goldberg, et al., 2006) was also administered to participants as a control variable when estimating potential antecedents of leadership consensus. Namely Openness to Experience (M = 3.43, SD = 0.56, α = 0.75), Conscientiousness (M = 3.45, SD = 0.58, α = 0.75), Extraversion (M = 2.96, SD = 0.65, α = 0.78), Agreeableness (M = 3.57, SD = 0.53, α = 0.70) and Emotional Stability (M = 2.85, SD = 0.64, α = 0.76) were completed.

Team performance. It is better to use objective performance measures rather than simply rely on self-report surveys. Too high are the chances of contamination effects in the case of subjective ratings, which could include leniency effects or process-outcomes

performance cuing effects (Martell & Leavitt, 2002). In addition, using subjective performance ratings artificially strengthens the relationship between shared leadership and team performance outcomes (D'Innocenzo, et al., 2016). Therefore, in this study, an independent third-party lecturer of the class assessed each team's performance.

Teams worked on a group project over the course of 16 weeks. Each team completed two to three group assignments over the course of one semester. Each assignment included both a paper and a presentation during normal class hours. The paper and presentation were graded separately and group performance was based on the average of all group grades completed during the semester. Each team's performance was evaluated only based on this group work. Grades were assigned on a 100-point scale. Performance scores were determined at Time 2, but were not announced. Prior research demonstrates that grades are a meaningful measure of group performance (Hecht, Allen, Klammer, & Kelly, 2002).

Data analysis. As in Study 1, data analysis in the present study was conducted using an SRM for indistinguishable dyads (Kenny, 1994; Kenny & La Voie, 1984). Thus, random intercepts for actor, partner, dyad, and group were used to appropriately model the cross-classified data structure as a result of the round-robin design (Kenny & Livi, 2009). Perceived leader fairness, age and gender were introduced separately for the partner and the actor (i.e., pairwise data structure) so that actor and partner effects could be addressed as independent fixed effects.

The mediational analysis was performed using PROCESS (Hayes, 2013), a dedicated application used to conduct a large set of mediation and moderation analyses using bootstrapping. This analysis includes providing calculations for direct and indirect effect sizes, as well as confidence intervals and standard errors. The indirect effect was reported using the proportion of the total effect accounted for by the indirect effect (PM; Wen & Fan, 2015), and kappa-squared effect size (Preacher & Kelley, 2011).

Before performing this analysis, we first estimated individual scores of leadership consensus based on the estimation of partner effect, following Kenny, et al. (2006: 197) formulas. In the present study, every individual rated each team member on leadership abilities and therefore, each group member had the same opportunity to be perceived as a good leader. The associations tested were the degree to which one or more individuals were perceived as good leaders, partialling out the influence of other phenomena resulting from the process of mutual endorsement (Kenny, et al., 2006).

Results

Results are separated into three sub-sections, following the three stages of analysis explained above.

Variance partitioning of leader consensus. Table 19 shows the proportion of variance for each effect (i.e., actor, partner, and relationship).

Insert Table 19 about here

Results showed a significant actor variance, $\sigma^2 = 0.54$, *Wald-z* = 6.29, $p < 0.01$ [*95%CI*: 0.40 / 0.74]. This indicates that some people assimilated group members as having the same degree of leadership or assigning equivalent ratings of leadership to all their fellow group members. Notably, significant partner variance exists, $\sigma^2 = 0.48$, *Wald-z* = 6.43, $p < 0.01$ [*95%CI*: 0.33 / 0.66]. This indicates that group members generally agreed on the leadership qualities of specific members within groups. In other words, a certain amount of consensus emerged within groups concerning the leadership characteristics of some of their members.

Insert Table 20 about here

This finding, once again, supports the idea that LC will significantly account for the degree of consensus in participants' ratings of leadership characteristics within each group. Results showed a significant amount of relationship variance, $\sigma^2 = 0.15$, *Wald-z* = 3.19, $p < 0.01$ [*95%CI*: 0.08 / 0.29], indicating that a certain degree of mutuality was observed between the leadership ratings among dyads. In other words, some consensus was reached regarding the leadership characteristics of other group members within each team.

Antecedents of leadership consensus. Perceived leader's fairness was positively associated with leadership consensus, $b = 0.14$, $t(151) = 3.04$, $p < 0.01$ [95%CI: 0.05 / 0.23]. However, the variance explained by this fixed effect was small in magnitude, $R^2_{(m)} = 0.04$. Other control variables in the model (See Table 21) did not reveal any statistically significant effect. Overall, the findings suggest that the degree of leader fairness perceived by group members is consistently associated with leadership consensus.

Insert Table 21 about here

Mediational process. In this analysis, we tested whether LC (estimated as partner effects) mediates the relationship between PLF and group performance. Results from over 10,000 bootstrap re-samples yielded a significant total effect, $\beta = 1.43$, $t(156) = 2.09$, $p < 0.01$[*95%CI*: 0.08 / 2.78], indicating that PLF significantly predicted group performance.

Once LC was included in the model, the direct effect of perceived leader's fairness fell below the minimum threshold for significance ($p = .13$), and the indirect effect of PLF on group performance passing through LC was different from zero, $\beta = .41$[*95%CI*: 0.03 / 0.92], $P_M = 0.29$ [*95%CI*: 0.02 / 1.86], $k^2 = 0.05$ [*95% CI*: 0.01 / 0.10]. This provides evidence for a mediational process (the 95% confidence intervals did not include zero). This model also accounts for a significant amount of variance, $R^2 = .12$, $F(2, 155) = 10.29$, $p < 0.01$. Thus, teams who perceived their leaders to be quite fair overall exhibited greater group performance

as a result of the greater consensus on the positive leadership characteristics of the group leader, supporting Hypothesis 2.

The figure below (Figure 8) provides a graphical representation of these findings. The inclusion of age and gender in the model did not alter the main effects.

Insert Figure 8 about here

Discussion

The presented approach distinguishes individual differences in leadership from the mutual perceptions of leadership that each member endorses. Here, leadership qualities are not presumed from formal roles or static interpretations using unidirectional rates or inferences based on the aggregation of scores from pairs or triads of individuals. We endorse the SRM and a conceptualization of leadership as consensus as a well-suited measure of leadership because SRM uses all possible mutual perceptions in a given group and then estimates the degree to which consensus is achieved with regard to leadership characteristics of one or more members. For this study we therefore adopted a shared leadership view (Carson, et al., 2007), which allowed us to address circumstances in which leadership is not always appointed but rather is socially constructed (DeRue & Ashford, 2010; DeRue, et al., 2015) and accounts for the fact that teams can have more than one leader (Vidyarthi, Erdogan, Anand, Liden, & Chaudhry, 2014).

Recently, scholars have begun to accept leadership as more than the top-down, formal supervisory roles that were traditionally understood to be equivalent with leadership (Ancona & Backman, 2008; Bedeian & Hunt, 2006; DeRue & Ashford, 2010). Likewise, previous literature describes cases in which formal supervisors are not perceived as leaders (Bedeian & Hunt, 2006), whereas individuals with no supervisory power are perceived as leaders or leader-

like by others (Charan, Drotter, & Noel, 2010; Spreitzer & Quinn, 2001). By defining leadership as a shared reality among the members of a given group, our research contributes to the idea that one or more members of the same group may spontaneously be perceived as the real leader of the team (DeRue & Ashford, 2010). Therefore, we take a step back from the traditional perspective of leadership—i.e., leadership is intrapersonal (individual characteristic), one-directional (leader exhibits authority over follower), and static (leaders will always be leaders and followers will always only be followers) — and instead conceptualize leadership as a process of mutual influence between leader and follower (DeRue & Ashford, 2010). This allows us to view the leader–follower relationship as dynamic, and argue that this relationship can be reshaped and redirected over time depending on the situational context.

We propose a more sophisticated method to estimate the presence of leadership consensus among group member responses concerning leadership characteristics of team members. We define leadership based on the degree of consensus reached by individuals in groups based on the SRM, which provides a more robust and refined picture of leader–follower dynamics. This is in contrast to previous work on leadership consensus, which measured consensus by averaging group measures or standard deviations (Cole, Bedeian, & Bruch, 2011). The findings indicate that group members reached consensus about their leadership, perceived leader fairness was positively associated with leadership consensus, and that teams who perceived their leaders as fair, exhibited higher group performance.

In keeping with previous studies, we evaluate the effect of one particular interpersonal characteristic predicting leadership consensus, namely leader fairness. Our results show that members seem to put more effort into their work when they are treated fairly by a team leader to whose leadership they consent (Cohen, 1992). In other words, members are likely to follow others, as a team, they deem worthy of being the team leader. This reciprocation often translates into increased work performance, as shown here present in both studies by the

significant and strong effect on group performance, which is mediated by consensus. Therefore, our findings indicate that leadership is a strong function of social perception processes occurring within groups. This further underlines the use of a consensus measure of leadership.

Regarding future research, we first advocate future studies to consider measures of consensus when evaluating the relationship between leadership and performance. We would like to encourage future researchers to use consensus as a meaningful expression of leadership within groups, particularly in organizational settings. One example could be found in organizations that utilize project teams, particularly when those teams are self-forming and self-managing. Additional research may also shed new light on these findings by increasing the number of teams involved in the study.

Second, future studies could investigate the reasons behind the perception of leadership, and subsequently the consensus on leadership. A possible research question could investigate the degree to which individuals differ in perceiving someone else as "leader-worthy." If individuals differ in their reasoning, we may be more inclined to support the conceptualization of leadership as an interpersonal recognized relationship (Shamir & Eilam, 2005) rather than something that people "possess" (Hollander, 1993: 29) e.g., specific traits, etc. In contrast, if reasons for leader approval are similar, we may be more inclined to stick to traditional conceptualizations of leadership as an individual difference.

Limitations

This study has certain limitations. First and foremost, the observed groups consisted of students only. Antonakis, et al. (2009) argued against using student samples, particularly since "the dynamics of social interaction and hence antecedents of success are not the same in student and real-world settings" (p. 249). Additionally, Peterson (20010 shows that student samples

were slightly more homogenous that work samples and effect size sometimes differed in both size and direction in student samples compared to similar work place samples. While student groups may be adequate to discover an interesting or even compelling set of findings, in order to generalize to organizational settings and to earn the genuine interest of the practitioner community, these findings should be replicated in organizational settings with practicing work teams.

Another limitation concerns the SRM. MLM is used to estimate the corresponding variances. This method assumes that actor-partner covariance is zero and that dyadic covariance is positive. Although in the present research we mostly focus on partner variances, we had to make these strong assumptions regarding data analytic procedures, which if not satisfied, may alter the magnitude, but not the significance, of the variance estimates.

We also need to keep in mind that leader fairness is not a trait. As Lind (2001) states, individuals' decision to help others or themselves is based on fairness judgments of their surroundings. Fairness is indeed trainable (Skarlicki & Latham, 1996). It follows that leadership training and development seminars can have a great impact in shaping a leader's perceptions (Pierro, Giacomantonio, Kruglanski, & van Knippenberg, 2014).

Conclusion

In the present research, we argue that leadership consensus reflects a meaningful shared leadership process because differences in leadership between individuals emerge as a result of consistencies in the mutual perceptions of team members regarding who is a leader. The present approach distinguishes individual differences in leadership from the mutual perceptions of leadership that each member endorses and uses this information as a key component that defines leadership. Our approach is a shared leadership process, as leadership qualities are not presumed from formal roles or static interpretations using unidirectional rates or inferences

based on the aggregation of scores from pairs or triads of individuals. Based on the SRM, leadership consensus—as understood in the present approach — uses all the possible mutual perceptions in a given group and then estimates the degree to which consensus is achieved regarding the leadership characteristics of one or more members. We found that leader fairness predicts leader consensus and group performance. Further, the relationship between leader fairness and group performance was mediated by leader consensus, i.e., the degree of agreement of all team members on some positive leadership characteristics attributed to a particular team member. In closing, we recommend that additional research be undertaken in organizational settings and that future studies address the assumptions inherent in our study of partner effects.

Table 18 Social Relations Model of Leadership emergence for working groups (Study 1)

Variable	*M*	*SD*	Actor variance (Assimilation)	Partner variance (Emergence)	Relationship variance	Error
Leadership consensus	3.76	0.86	23%**	32%**	2%	43%

Note: k = 204 observations. Leadership emergence ratings were made on a scale ranging from 1, *not at all*, to 5, *a great deal*. ** $p < .01$.

Table 19 Associations between different leadership consensus estimates and perceived fairness and group performance (Study 1)

	Leadership consensus estimate		
	SRM	*Standard deviation*	*Simple aggregation*
Perceived fairness	0.32*	0.03	0.37**
Group Performance	1.01**	3.62**	0.19

Note. Unstandardized estimates reported. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 20 Social relations model of leadership emergence for working groups (Study 2).

Variable	*M*	*SD*	Actor variance (Assimilation)	Partner variance (Emergence)	Relationship variance	Error
Leadership	3.48	1.29	40%**	34%**	15%**	11%

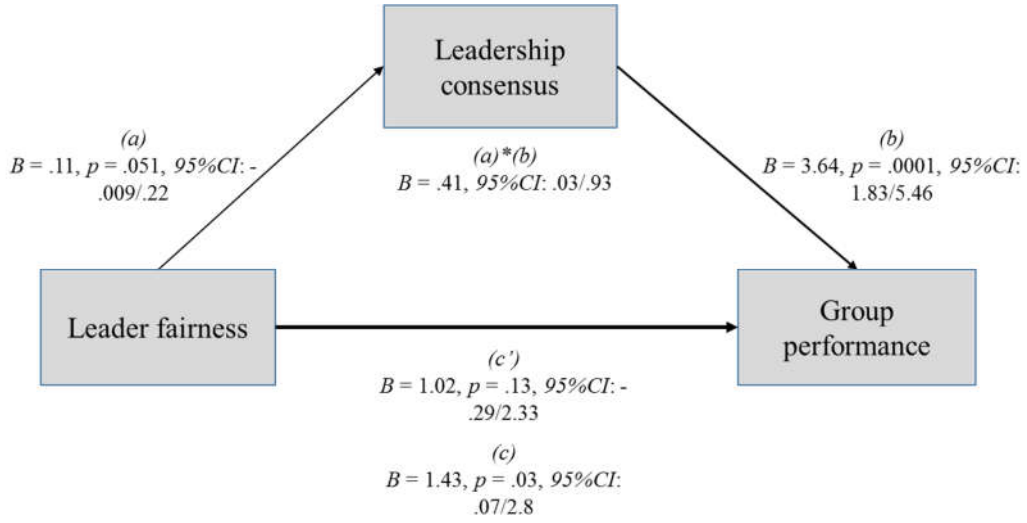
Note: k = 892 observations. Leadership emergence ratings were made on a scale ranging from 1, *not at all*, to 5, *a great deal*. ** $p < .01$.

Table 21 Associations between leadership emergence and individual differences variables (Study 2)

	Leadership		
	Estimate	*Std. Error*	*Deviance -2ΔLL(Δdf)*
Perceived leader's fairness	0.14**	0.05	428.4(2)**
GPA			1958.7(2)**
GPA (target)	0.31	0.62	
Target's age	-0.18	0.10	1946.8(2)**
Target's gender (reference: male)	-0.76	0.62	1956.5(2)**
Extraversion Conscientiousness (target)	-0.09	0.22	
Agreeableness (target)	-0.12	0.26	
Conscientiousness (target)	-0.17	0.22	
Emotional Stability (target)	-0.15	0.22	
Openness to experience (target)	0.05	0.22	1390.2 (10)**
Extraversion s (perceiver)	0.17	0.22	
Agreeableness (perceiver)	-0.19	0.27	
Conscientiousness (perceiver)	0.44†	0.22	
Emotional Stability (perceiver)	-0.21	0.23	
Openness to experience (perceiver)	0.03	0.24	

Note. Unstandardized estimates reported. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. The corresponding associations between perceivers' characteristics and leadership emergence were also included in the models, although for the sake of simplicity, the hypothesized target effects are reported. In the case of the Big-5 measure, all variables where entered both as target (someone who was evaluated) and perceiver (as the one who rate others).

Figure 8 Model for leadership consensus mediating the relationship between perceived leader's fairness and group performance (Study 2)



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