

Developmental Antecedents of Leader-Follower Relationships and Trust

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Abstract

Developmental Antecedents of Leader-Follower Relationships and Trust

Stephanie Grosvenor

Previous research has shown that transformational leaders tend to be perceived as trustworthy and trust has been found to relate to many positive outcomes, such as performance, organizational citizenship behaviors, and job satisfaction. This study attempts to determine the role of developmental antecedents in explaining leadership style and trust in the leader. This study expands on Mayer, Davis and Schoorman's (1995) model of trust, in conjunction with the developmental theory of attachment, transformational leadership theory and leader-member exchange theory (LMX). The hypotheses were tested in three organizations ($N = 121$). Questionnaires were distributed in both English and French. Followers rated their immediate supervisor's leadership and attachment styles, as well as their trust in their leader. As expected, findings indicated that transformational leaders were securely attached, had high-quality LMX relationships, and were perceived as benevolent and trustworthy by their followers. As well, LMX fully mediated the relation between secure attachment and follower perceptions of leader benevolence. Implications for leader identification and development are discussed.

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Introduction

As today's organizations merge and restructure, effective leadership is becoming increasingly important. Moreover, with the growing diversity of today's workforce, it is becoming more and more important to find ways for leaders and followers to engage in trusting, give-and-take relationships. In order to have positive relationships with followers, leaders must foster trust. Trust in leadership has been found to lead to many positive organizational outcomes such as increased performance, organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs), and job satisfaction (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Thus, it is imperative to find out what factors explain trust in the leader.

Recent research in the management field has focused on transformational leadership (Bass, 1985; 1998) as a positive and important way to inspire and motivate followers. The transformational leadership theory focuses on the behaviors of the leader himself. Leadership, however, would not exist without followers and thus, leader-follower relationships must be understood. The leader-member exchange theory (LMX) takes a relationship approach to leadership, which takes into account the dynamic relationship between leaders and their followers (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

It is important to understand what factors contribute to this relationship. Previous research has looked at the developmental antecedents of transformational leaders (Popper, Mayseless, & Castelnovo, 2000) in an attempt to understand how transformational leaders develop their relational qualities. These developmental antecedents are called "attachment styles" (Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters, & Wall, 1978; Bartholomew, 1990; Hazan & Shaver, 1987). Essentially, attachment styles form during infancy, through a child's relationship with his/her primary caregiver. These attachment

styles act as blueprints for the way that children grow to interact and form relationships with others in their adult life. Attachment styles can therefore offer a potential explanation as to how transformational leaders develop and form relationships with their followers that are characterized by trust.

The present study will attempt to answer two research questions: (1) What is the role of developmental antecedents in explaining leadership style and trust in the leader? (2) What specific factors influence the decision to trust the leader? This study will expand on Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman's (1995) model of trust, in conjunction with the developmental theory of attachment (Bartholomew, 1990), transformational leadership theory (Bass, 1985; 1998) and leader-member exchange theory (e.g., Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

In the sections that follow, each theory in the proposed model will be described in detail, as well as the rationale for each hypothesis. Specifically, attachment theory will be described, followed by transformational leadership and the leader-member exchange theory. Benevolence and trust will be defined using Mayer et al.'s (1995) definitions from their integrative model of trust. Following these definitions, each hypothesis will be discussed in detail, leading to a full understanding of the proposed model that will be tested subsequently.

Attachment

According to attachment theory, learning how to interact with others begins at infancy (Ainsworth et al., 1978; Bowlby, 1973). Infants form mental models of themselves and others by internalizing interactions with their primary caregivers over time (Bowlby, 1973). The child's mental model of others is based on how available the

attachment figure is when needed, and the child's mental model of the self is based on whether the child judges him or herself to be worthy of the attachment figure's attention. Following Bowlby's research, Ainsworth et al. conducted a series of laboratory studies with infants and their mothers. Basically, each child had a different reaction to separation and reunion with his or her mother. These reactions were analyzed and classified into three types of infant attachment: secure, anxious/ambivalent, and avoidant. The *secure* style is characterized by a child who has a close relationship with his/her mother and receives consistent love and support. This child grows into an adult who is confident and trusting of others. The *anxious/ambivalent* child receives ambiguous and inconsistent responses from his/her mother. This child grows into an adult who desires close relationships with others, but fears rejection. Finally, the *avoidant* style is characterized by a mother who is cold and non-responsive. This child grows up to rely solely on him/herself with insecurity regarding the intentions of others (Ainsworth et al., 1978; Hazan & Shaver, 1987). The attachment styles provide the groundwork for the way children will grow to interact with others later in life (Bowlby, 1973; Hazan & Shaver, 1987).

Hazan and Shaver (1987) found that the childhood attachment patterns identified by Ainsworth et al. (1978) continued into adult romantic relationships. Thus, the relationship or attachment style that a child develops through interactions with his/her primary caregiver has a large effect on how an adult interacts with significant others. Consistent with the above definitions, *secure* subjects in Hazan and Shaver's study described their love experiences as friendly, happy, and trusting. Secure subjects also described themselves as easy to get to know and generally believed that other people

have good intentions. *Anxious/ambivalent* people had relationships characterized by jealousy, emotional highs and lows, and desire for reciprocation. They also described themselves as self-doubtful and felt that significant others were less willing to commit than they were. *Avoidant* subjects seemed to be afraid to get close to others and were similar to the anxious ambivalent subjects in that they seemed to have a low opinion of themselves as well as others.

Hazan and Shaver's (1987) tri-partite definition of attachment was expanded by Bartholomew in 1990 to include a fourth attachment style. Bartholomew renamed Hazan and Shaver's anxious/ambivalent style to be called *preoccupied* and separated the *avoidant* style into two distinct styles called *fearful* and *dismissing*. A *fearful* adult is described as being uncomfortable with the lack of close relationships in his/her life, while the *dismissing* adult is uncomfortable being in close relationships altogether. According to Bartholomew and her colleagues (e.g., Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Griffen & Bartholomew, 1994b), the four attachment styles map onto two underlying dimensions of *self* and *other* based on Bowlby's (1973) theory. The *self* dimension can be positive or negative and refers to a person's perception of whether he/she is worthy of love and support or not. The *other* dimension can also be positive or negative and refers to the image a person has of others. In this case, either people are seen as trustworthy and available or unreliable and rejecting (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991). Securely attached people are said to have both a positive model of the self as well as a positive model of others. Preoccupied people have a negative view of the self and a positive view of others. Dismissing people have a positive view of the self and a negative view of

others, and fearful people have both a negative view of the self and a negative view of others. These relationships are depicted in Figure 1.

Further understanding of Bartholomew's model can be derived from naming the self dimension "dependence" and the other dimension "avoidance" as can be seen in Figure 1. Dependence refers to the extent to which a person has a positive self-regard and can vary from low to high. Whereas low dependence occurs within the individual and is independent of external influences, high dependence requires external validation. Avoidance of intimacy can also vary from low to high. Avoidance is defined as the "degree to which people avoid close contact with others as a result of their expectations of aversive consequences" (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991, p. 228). Secure attachment is characterized by low dependence and low avoidance. Basically, a securely attached person is comfortable depending on others, but does not have to in order to feel good about him/herself. The preoccupied style is high on dependence and low on avoidance, thus this person is very dependent on others for support. The dismissing person is low on dependence and high on avoidance and therefore keeps to him/herself. Finally, the fearful person is high on dependence and high on avoidance, which may seem contradictory. This implies that the fearful person desires intimacy, but is afraid of it and thus is socially avoidant. Once both Bartholomew's model and Hazan and Shaver's model are understood, research connecting attachment to psychological as well as management behavioral variables can be examined.

Research to date in both the psychology and management fields have used either the tripartite model (Hazan & Shaver, 1987) or the four-category model (Bartholomew, 1990) as a basis for their attachment studies. Research in the psychology field has shown

Figure 1

Attachment Styles Mapped onto the Two Dimensions of Self and Other

		MODEL OF SELF (Dependence)	
		Positive (Low Dependence)	Negative (High Dependence)
MODEL OF OTHER (Avoidance)	Positive (Low Avoidance)	<i>Secure</i> Comfortable with intimacy and autonomy	<i>Preoccupied</i> Preoccupied with relationships
	Negative (High Avoidance)	<i>Dismissing</i> Dismissing of intimacy Counter-dependent	<i>Fearful</i> Fearful of intimacy Socially avoidant

(Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991)

that secure and anxious-ambivalent (i.e., preoccupied) people show more self-disclosure than avoidant (i.e., fearful/dismissing) people (Mikulincer & Nachson, 1991) and that secure people have a more balanced, complex and coherent self-structure than avoidant (i.e., fearful/dismissing) and anxious-ambivalent (i.e., preoccupied) people (Mikulincer, 1995). As well, people low on avoidance are higher on the endorsement of self-transcendent values, such as benevolence and universalism, than people who are high on avoidance (Mikulincer et al., 2003). Pietromonaco and Barrett (1997) have also shown that attachment styles can have an effect on the way people interact in social situations. Specifically, preoccupied people were found to have more intense emotional reactions than the other attachment styles.

The present study is based on Bartholomew's (1990) four-category model of attachment for two reasons. Firstly, Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) point out that the reason why the Bartholomew model separates *avoidant* attachment into two patterns called *fearful* and *dismissing* is due to the discovery that these two patterns of attachment are distinguishable in adulthood. Because this study is dealing with adults, it seemed appropriate to choose this model. Secondly, in a previous study looking at the relation between attachment and transformational leadership (Popper et al., 2000), the four-category model (Bartholomew, 1990) was used. Popper et al. chose this model due to its finer distinction between the attachment styles. Thus, it seemed appropriate to use this model for the present study as well, considering that it deals directly with the relations between transformational leadership and attachment. The link between attachment and organizational behavior variables, such as leadership, will be discussed later.

Transformational Leadership

Transformational leaders are unique in that they have passion and vision and articulate those characteristics and beliefs to their followers. They motivate followers to perform beyond what they normally would in a simple exchange relationship. According to Bass (1985; 1998) who expanded Burns' (1978) version of transformational leadership, there are four components: individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, and idealized influence (i.e., charisma). Each component is described below.

Individualized consideration. Transformational leaders pay individual attention to each subordinate, helping each person to reach his/her potential. The leader's involvement does not make subordinates feel as though they are being watched, but rather that their leader is there to support them when needed. The leader is seen as a mentor or coach who delegates tasks according to individual needs and skills.

Intellectual stimulation. Transformational leaders encourage their followers to be creative and question and challenge the status quo. Followers are made to feel as though it is more important to offer new ideas and approaches than to worry about whether their ideas are right or not. As well, followers are included in the problem-solving process.

Inspirational motivation. Transformational leaders create meaning and challenge for their followers by showing that they are enthusiastic about their beliefs. They allow subordinates to contribute to goal setting and increase their self-efficacy in the process (Avolio, Waldman, & Einstein, 1988). A shared vision is articulated and emphasized and expectations are clearly communicated.

Idealized influence (or charisma). Transformational leaders invoke feelings of admiration, respect, and trust in their followers. Followers see their leaders as role models and try to emulate them. These leaders are consistent and can be relied on to “do the right thing.” As well, they exhibit high standards of moral and ethical conduct.

Charisma is included as a characteristic of transformational leadership by Bass (1985; 1998), however it has also been looked at as a separate form of leadership. These two leadership styles are often operationalized using very similar definitions. For example, Conger and Kanungo (1987) describe charismatic leadership through the behaviors the leader displays. These behaviors include: articulating idealized vision, risk-taking, encouraging change of the status quo and achieving a shared vision with followers. Being an effective communicator is seen as essential for a charismatic leader to convey vision and stimulate followers. Howell and Avolio (1992) also describe charismatic leadership in terms of similar key behaviors: exercising power, creating a vision, communicating with followers, intellectually stimulating followers, and having high moral standards. Conger and Kanungo (1987) state that operationalizations of charismatic leadership have not been consistent, or agreed upon by other researchers.

Charismatic leaders have been defined as facilitating vs. self-serving (Harwood, 2003), ethical vs. non-ethical (Howell & Avolio, 1992), and socialized vs. personalized (House & Howell, 1992). Although the above authors adopt different names for the types of charismatic leadership, their definitions are conceptually similar. Thus, the terms personalized charismatic leader and socialized charismatic leader will be used to represent them all.

Socialized charismatic leaders have characteristics that are conceptually similar to those of transformational leaders. “Socialized leaders use their power to serve others; align their vision with the followers’ needs and aspirations; maintain open, two-way communication; and adhere to moral standards” (Popper, 2002, p. 798). However, charismatic leaders can also have negative influence in that they abuse their power and strive to attain their own goals without considering those of their followers (Harwood, 2003). The followers merely become pawns in the leader’s game. This is what is known as personalized charismatic leadership. These leaders can nevertheless be effective, and examples such as Adolf Hitler have been given to illustrate this point. Thus, it is cautioned that there is a “dark side” of charisma (Howell & Avolio, 1992). This illustrates the importance of identifying the most effective and positive types of leaders, as will be attempted in the present study.

Transactional Leadership

Transactional leadership is characterized by the recognition of follower behavior based on whether or not they meet standards set by the leader. Essentially, it is an exchange relationship. Bass (1998) outlines three styles of transactional leadership: contingent reward, and active and passive management-by-exception (active: MBE-A and passive: MBE-P). A leader who employs contingent rewards outlines tasks and rewards subordinates based on satisfactory performance. This has been found to be the most effective component of transactional leadership. However, this type of leadership has sometimes been found to be negatively related to business-unit performance (e.g., Howell & Avolio, 1993) and it is not as effective as transformational leadership. Management-by-exception can be active or passive. This kind of leader waits for

mistakes to be made and then takes corrective action. Management-by-exception has been found to be negatively related to business-unit performance (Howell & Avolio, 1993). Although transactional behaviors alone are not as effective as transformational behaviors, Bass (1985) asserts that the most effective transformational leader does behave “transactionally” from time to time.

Research to date has shown that transformational leadership is a very effective style of leadership. Transformational leaders motivate and empower their followers (Conger, 1989), they increase their subordinates’ performance as well as organizational effectiveness (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Rich, 2001), and they are perceived as trustworthy by their subordinates (Boies & Corbett, 2005). Recent meta-analyses have confirmed the previous findings and added to them as well. Judge and Piccolo (2004) found that transformational leadership is positively related to follower job satisfaction, followers’ satisfaction with the leader, follower motivation, group/organization performance, and leader effectiveness. In an earlier meta-analysis by Lowe, Kroeck, and Sivasubramaniam (1996), subordinate perceptions of leader effectiveness were more highly correlated with transformational leadership than organizational measures of effectiveness. However, overall, transformational leadership was associated with work unit effectiveness (Lowe et al., 1996). Transactional leaders can also have positive effects (Avolio et al., 1988) on follower performance, however transformational leaders tend to have more positive effects than their transactional counterparts (e.g., MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Rich, 2001).

As stated previously, this study will focus on the most effective and positive style of leadership as defined by Bass (1998), namely, transformational leadership. This

decision is based on two criteria. Firstly, the present study attempts to determine the developmental antecedents of leadership, and past research has already looked at the developmental antecedents of transformational leaders (Popper et al., 2000). This will allow for comparison of the results. Secondly, in Judge and Piccolo's (2004) meta-analysis of transformational and transactional leadership, they point out that there have been more studies done on these two types of leadership than on any other form of leadership. Thus, the focus on transformational leadership is warranted. It is important to note however, that these studies focus on the leader's qualities alone, rather than the relationship between leaders and their followers.

Leader-Member Exchange

The transformational leadership theory focuses on the characteristics and behaviors of the leader alone. On the other hand, the leader-member exchange theory is described as a "relationship-based approach" (e.g., Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Thus, it provides us with further insight into the complex relationship between leaders and their followers (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

Leader-member exchange (LMX) is based on the original theory called Vertical Dyad Linkage (VDL: Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975), which posited that leaders can have different relationships with each of their followers. In other words, leaders do not adopt the same leadership style with all of their followers. A leader might be transformational, but depending on the particular follower, he/she may have a transformational or transactional relationship with them. A high-quality LMX relationship is characterized by trust, respect, and mutual obligation, whereas a low-quality LMX relationship is characterized by low trust, little respect, and minimal mutual

obligation (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Importantly, relationships can start out as low-quality and move to high-quality as leaders and followers get to know each other better. Once these partnerships are formed, social exchanges become characterized by the trust, mutual respect, and obligation of a high-quality relationship (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

The idea that leader-member exchanges are described as partnerships is a more recent development in the LMX literature according to Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995). They show that the theory has gone through a series of stages. In stage one, LMX originated as VDL. In stage two, there is a focus on the LMX relationship and its outcomes. In stage three, the focus is on the building of a partnership between leader and follower. Finally, in stage four, LMX is applied at the group/team level. Most relevant to the present study is the research in stage three which is referred to as “leadership making.” This stage focuses more on how leaders can offer all subordinates a chance at a high-quality LMX relationship, and departs from the previous differentiation approach (from stage one) where some followers may have been in the in-group and others in the out-group.

The life cycle of leadership making progresses through three phases. The first phase is the *stranger* phase where the leader and follower relate on a very formal basis. This phase is characterized by role-finding and the quality of leader-member exchange is typically low. If the relationship progresses, the *acquaintance* phase is reached. This phase is characterized by role-making and a medium leader-member exchange quality. This phase is particularly important because more social exchanges take place and thus leader and member are able to establish a relationship that is less contractual. The third and final phase is called *maturity* and this is when the partnership is formed. This phase is characterized by role implementation and a high-quality LMX relationship. At this

stage, the leader and follower can count on each other and no longer have a simple exchange relationship. Reaching this final stage of LMX is the key for positive outcomes to occur (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

Research on leader-member exchange and its correlates has shown that many positive outcomes can be achieved through a high-LMX relationship. Gerstner and Day (1997) meta-analyzed the existing LMX research and found that LMX is positively related to objective performance, satisfaction with supervision, overall satisfaction, organizational commitment, and role clarity. LMX is negatively related to role conflict and turnover intentions.

Of particular relevance to the present study, Gerstner and Day (1997) point out that LMX is more strongly related to member affective outcomes than to objective measures, such as turnover and productivity. Gomez and Rosen (2001) found that the higher the managerial trust, the more likely the member rated his/her relationship with his/her leader as high quality. Given the relational nature of LMX, it is not surprising that outcomes such as organizational citizenship behaviors (Deluga, 1994), satisfaction with supervision (Gerstner & Day, 1997), and managerial trust (Gomez & Rosen, 2001) have been found to be correlates of LMX in previous research. The present study expands on the previous research by not only looking at trust as an outcome of LMX relationships, but also in answering a call from Gerstner and Day (1997) for more studies examining the antecedents of leader-member exchange.

Trust

Trust in organizational relationships has been the topic of recent research (e.g., Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995). Mayer et al. developed an integrative model of

organizational trust, which asserts that trust is a combination of the characteristics of the trustor (i.e., the person doing the trusting) and the characteristics of the trustee (i.e., the person being trusted).

Trustors have a certain predisposition that determines whether or not they will trust people in any situation regardless of how little information they may have about a given trustee. This is referred to as *propensity to trust*. Basically, different people have different predispositions to trust where some may be more willing to trust than others. Trustees on the other hand, are judged on their *ability*, *benevolence* and *integrity* by the trustor. *Ability* is a “group of skills, competencies and characteristics that enable a party to have influence within some specific domain” (p. 717). *Benevolence* is “the extent to which a trustee is believed to want to do good to the trustor, aside from an egocentric profit motive” (p. 718). *Integrity* “involves the trustor’s perception that the trustee adheres to a set of principles that the trustor finds acceptable” (p. 719). According to Mayer et al. (1995), *trust* is defined as a willingness to be vulnerable to the trustee, based on the belief that he/she will act in the trustor’s best interest, regardless of whether or not the trustee’s behavior can be monitored or controlled. Thus, along with propensity to trust, if the trustor perceives the trustee to have high ability, benevolence and integrity, the trustor will likely trust the trustee. Furthermore, once trust exists between a given dyad, risk-taking behavior can occur. This is the behavioral manifestation of the feeling of trust in the dyad, where the two feel that they can depend on each other to do what they ask each other to do.

Being able to trust co-workers and leaders has many positive benefits in the organizational environment. Trust in leadership has been found to lead to outcomes such

as increased performance, organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs), and job satisfaction (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Specifically, in a study by Boies and Corbett (2005), transformational leadership was found to be positively related to subordinate perceptions of ability, benevolence, and integrity. Ability and integrity were found to be significant predictors of trust and mediated the relation between transformational leadership and trust. Benevolence was not found to be related to trust in their study. However, in a study exploring Mayer et al.'s (1995) model, Gill, Boies, Finegan, and McNally (2005) found that co-workers perceived as high on ability, benevolence and integrity were more likely to be trusted than co-workers low on these three antecedents of trust. Furthermore, in a quasi-experiment testing their own model, Mayer and Davis (1999) found that ability, benevolence, and integrity played a mediating role in the relation between perceptions of a new appraisal system and trust in top management. Given the positive outcomes related to trust, the present study delves deeper into how trusting relationships between leaders and followers develop.

In the present study, the Mayer et al. (1995) model was chosen because this model distinguishes between perceptions of trustworthiness (i.e., ability, benevolence, and integrity) and the construct of trust itself. The separation of the perceptions from trust allows for an understanding of the mechanism through which trust is formed. It is the mechanism through which trusting leader-follower relationships are formed that will be examined in greater detail in the present study. Of the three perceptual variables in Mayer et al.'s model, benevolence is the only factor that can be considered relational. Given its relevance, therefore, the focus of the current study will be on benevolence.

A model linking the constructs defined previously is outlined below. The proposed model suggests that secure attachment is related to both transformational leadership and LMX, and that it is through positive leader-member relations that followers come to perceive their leaders as benevolent and trustworthy. These relationships are illustrated in Figure 2. The links between each of these constructs and support for the hypotheses are now discussed in turn.

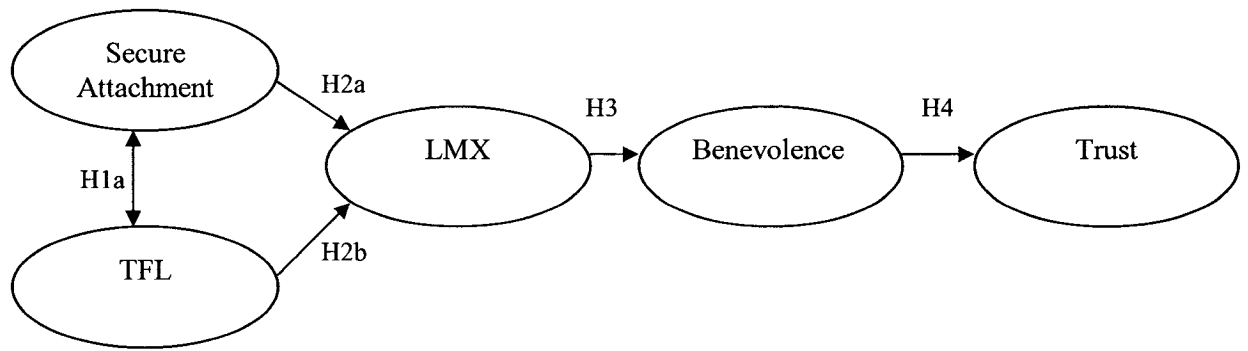
The Developmental Antecedents of Leadership

Attachment styles provide insight into the developmental antecedents of how adults interact and form relationships, and have therefore great relevance for the study of leader-follower relationships. According to Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991), securely attached people are generally comfortable in relationships with others and believe that others are trustworthy. As well, securely attached people tend to have healthy relationships characterized by happiness, friendliness, and trust (Hazan & Shaver, 1987). These studies have prompted researchers to investigate how attachment influences the way people behave and interact in the work setting.

Hazan and Shaver (1990) examined the relation between attachment styles and on-the-job behaviors and attitudes. In two studies that supported their hypotheses, they found that secure respondents were more likely to be satisfied with their jobs; they felt that they were good workers and that their co-workers evaluated them positively. As well, secure workers were not worried about being rejected by co-workers, had positive views about themselves, and felt confident in completing work-related tasks. As expected, anxious/ambivalent (i.e., preoccupied) participants reported a preference to work with others rather than alone, but felt underappreciated and unrecognized. They

Figure 2

Graphical Representation of the Hypothesized Direct Relations



Note. TFL: Transformational Leadership. LMX: Leader-Member Exchange.

also reported being preoccupied with wanting approval from others and felt that this interfered with their productivity. Finally, avoidant participants (i.e., fearful/dismissing) dissociated themselves from co-workers and preferred to work alone. However, they seemed to be satisfied with their jobs. This is typical of the avoidant relationship style in that the person avoids relating to others by burying him/herself in his/her work. Schmidt and Bell (2005) related attachment style to psychological contract and organizational commitment. They found that preoccupied individuals had higher perceived psychological contract violations and lower organizational commitment than individuals exhibiting the other attachment styles. Sumer and Knight (2001) examined the relation between attachment and work/family spillover effects. Preoccupied individuals were more likely to experience negative spillover from the home/family to the work domain, whereas secure individuals were more likely to experience positive spillover in both domains.

Some of the above evidence can be applied to the leadership domain. For example, leaders who feel confident and have positive relationships with others (i.e., securely attached) are likely to be transformational, whereas those who would prefer to work alone (i.e., fearful/dismissing) are probably not. Previous research has shown that secure attachment is positively related to the four components of transformational leadership (i.e., inspirational motivation, idealized influence (charisma), intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration) (Popper et al., 2000). Perhaps being securely attached facilitates individualized consideration, given that secure attachment reflects a positive relationship style with others. Secure attachment is likely to have more of an influence on certain components of transformational leadership (e.g., individualized

consideration), and perhaps this can provide one explanation as to how secure attachment is related to transformational leadership. As further evidence for this relation, it has also been shown that the insecure attachment styles (i.e., preoccupied, fearful, and dismissing) are negatively related to transformational leadership and its components (Popper et al., 2000). Thus, a positive relationship style is likely to influence perceptions of transformational leadership, whereas negative relationship styles associated with insecure attachment are likely to detract from perceptions of transformational leadership.

One study examined the link between transformational leadership and attachment directly. Popper et al. (2000) conducted a series of three studies in order to test their hypothesis that secure attachment is correlated with transformational leadership. The first sample consisted of six teams from an officer's course in the Israeli Police, each led by a commander. The cadets in each team were being trained to become leaders and had been previously selected based on their aptitude and personality. In this case, the commanders were asked to assess both the attachment and leadership styles of their trainees. The other two studies were conducted in the Israeli Defense Forces (IDF). In the second study, soldiers in an officer's course were asked to report on their own attachment style and two commanders rated each trainee on their leadership style. The third study used more conventional methods of measurement in that it was now the soldiers who were asked to assess their commanders' leadership style and the commanders rated their own attachment style.

All three of the studies obtained similar results supporting the hypothesis that secure attachment correlates highly with transformational leadership. The third study looked at whether secure attachment was correlated with any of the other leadership

styles, such as contingent reward and management-by-exception, to assess discriminant validity. Secure attachment did not show significant correlations with either of the two. This finding further supports the decision to focus only on transformational leadership in the present study. In a more recent study by Popper, Amit, Gal, Mishkal-Sinai, and Lisak (2004), secure attachment, along with internal locus of control, low level of anxiety, high self-efficacy and optimism were defined as psychological capacities to lead. Leaders were found to possess these capacities whereas non-leaders were not. All of these important findings lead to the first two hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1a: Secure attachment style will be positively related to transformational leadership.

Hypothesis 1b: Fearful, preoccupied, and dismissing attachment styles will be negatively related to transformational leadership.

Inherent in transformational leadership is the notion that these leaders establish high-quality relationships with their followers. Certain transformational leadership characteristics such as individualized consideration and charisma facilitate the development of high-quality LMX relationships. This suggests that there may be a link between transformational leadership and LMX. The positive association between transformational leadership and LMX has been established empirically (Howell & Hall-Merenda, 1999).

A link can also be established between LMX and attachment styles in that they both essentially describe the way people relate to each other. A high-quality LMX relationship is dominated by trust, respect, and mutual obligation (Graen & Uhl Bien, 1995) and a securely attached person relates positively to others and is trusting in the

workplace (Hazan & Shaver, 1990). Thus, it is expected that both secure attachment and transformational leadership would be related to LMX. Two more hypotheses can be derived from these findings:

Hypothesis 2a: Secure attachment will be positively related to the quality of leader-member exchange (LMX).

Hypothesis 2b: Transformational leadership will be positively related to the quality of leader-member exchange (LMX).

Outcomes of Positive Leader-Follower Relationships

One of the key aspects of LMX, according to Graen and Uhl Bien (1995), is that there is a cycle through which the relationship goes in order to reach high-quality status. This cycle begins at the acquaintance phase and ends at the partnership phase. Throughout the cycle, leaders and members are getting to know each other better and are able to make better assessments about each other in the process. One of the propositions from Mayer et al.'s (1995) integrative model of trust states that "the effect of perceived benevolence on trust will increase over time as the relationship between the parties develops" (p. 722). Ability and integrity are proposed to be more salient early on in the relationship between the two parties, perhaps when information on benevolence is less available or less easily obtained. Thus, because this study focuses on transformational leaders and high-quality LMX relationships (that by definition take time to form), benevolence appears highly relevant.

Among the three antecedents of trust according to Mayer et al. (1995), benevolence is the only relational factor in that it actually involves the trustee's personal relationship with the trustor. In this case, it involves how well intentioned the leader is

towards his/her followers. A follower can only judge whether or not his/her leader is benevolent based on personal interactions and experiences over time. In fact, high-quality LMX relationships are characterized by mutual obligation, which is conceptually similar to benevolence in that they both involve positive intentions and actions towards others.

According to Mayer et al. (1995), perceptions of benevolence lead to trust. Some previous findings have supported the positive relation between benevolence and trust (e.g., Gill et al., 2005; Mayer & Davis, 1999) while others have not (e.g., Boies & Corbett, 2005). No research to date has focused solely on benevolence as a predictor of trust. However, because this study pertains to leader-follower relationships and how trust is fostered, it appears likely that followers would base their assessments of their leaders' trustworthiness on perceptions of benevolence. The preceding discussion leads to the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 3: The quality of leader-member exchange (LMX) will be positively related to follower perceptions of leader benevolence.

Hypothesis 4: Follower perceptions of leader benevolence will be positively related to trust in the leader.

Mediation Hypotheses

In addition to the hypothesized direct relations, three mediating hypotheses can be derived. Firstly, a person who is securely attached is both trusting and confident in relationships (Hazan & Shaver, 1990), and is comfortable depending on others and having others depend on him/her (Hazan & Shaver, 1987). It seems logical that someone who relates to others in such a positive way would be considered benevolent, in that they

would look out for the best interests of others. In the context of leadership, secure attachment may not effect perceptions of benevolence directly. However, perhaps it is through the establishment of high-quality LMX relationships that securely attached leaders are perceived as benevolent. More specifically, since secure attachment reflects a positive relationship style, leaders who are securely attached may have greater facility establishing high-quality relationships with their followers, which may, in turn, influence follower perceptions of leader benevolence. In high-quality relationships, which form over time, securely attached leaders may have more occasions to display acts of benevolence and thus influence their followers' perceptions of their desire to act in their best interest. Thus, the following mediating hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 5a: The relation between secure attachment and follower perceptions of benevolence will be mediated by LMX.

Secondly, transformational leadership has been found to be positively related to followers' perceptions of benevolence in previous research (Boies & Corbett, 2005). Since transformational leaders pay close attention to individuals and are supportive (i.e., through individualized consideration), it seems logical that they would be perceived as benevolent. The same relation is proposed in the present study, however it is believed that transformational leadership acts on followers' perceptions of benevolence through positive leader-follower relationships. LMX has been previously established as a mechanism for transformational leaders to influence followers' performance and organizational citizenship behaviors (Wang, Law, Hackett, Wang, & Chen, 2005), a construct conceptually similar to benevolence. In this case, LMX is believed to act on followers' perceptions of benevolence. Transformational leaders, by definition, establish

high-quality relationships with their followers. As previously stated, these high-quality relationships develop over time, allowing followers the opportunity to witness their leaders acting in their best interest. Thus, the following mediating hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 5b: The relation between transformational leadership and follower perceptions of benevolence will be mediated by LMX.

Finally, LMX relates to trust because high-quality LMX relationships are characterized by trust (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). However, before high-quality LMX relationships can lead to trust, LMX may act on followers' perceptions of benevolence in the manner described previously. Benevolence has already been found to be correlated to trust (Gill et al., 2005) and thus, a logical extension is that benevolence could be the mechanism through which high-quality LMX relationships are perceived as trustworthy. Furthermore, ability, benevolence, and integrity have already been established as mediators in the relation between perceptions of a new performance appraisal system and trust in top management (Mayer & Davis, 1999). Specifically, the introduction of the new appraisal system influenced trust in top management through employees' perceptions of ability, benevolence, and integrity. The final hypothesis is as follows:

Hypothesis 6: The relation between LMX and trust in the leader will be mediated by benevolence.

In sum, secure attachment is expected to be positively related to transformational leadership and LMX, given that a secure attachment style is the basis for positive relationships with other people (Hazan & Shaver, 1987). It is expected that through these positive relationships, followers will perceive their leaders as benevolent and trustworthy.

In the sections that follow, the method for testing the proposed model is described, the results of the study are presented, and finally, the results are interpreted and practical implications are suggested.

Method

Sample

The sample consisted of a total of 121 employees from three different organizations in the Montreal area: a large local hospital affiliated with a university health center, a medium sized investment banking firm and a large manufacturing company. The 121 employees rated 20 leaders. The number of people per leader ranged from 2 to 25 with an average of 6.61 individuals per leader. Three hundred and eighteen questionnaires were distributed, and 121 were returned for a response rate of 38%. Age of the participants ranged from 21 to 60 ($M=38.9$, $SD=9.5$). Seventy-eight percent of the participants were female and 22% were male. Most participants had undergraduate or graduate degrees (76%). They had been working with their current manager/supervisor for an average of 4.8 years ($SD=4.6$).

Procedure

The organizations used to collect data in this study were recruited through personal contacts. Each of the contacts in the three organizations agreed to distribute the questionnaires to managers or supervisors who had previously agreed to participate in the study. Each manager/supervisor was asked to fill out a questionnaire regarding his/her own leadership and attachment styles. The leader was also asked to distribute the follower questionnaires to all of his/her subordinates. In the end, there were too few leaders to conduct analyses, and thus information regarding attachment and leadership

styles was obtained from the follower, which is in line with previous research (e.g., Popper et al., 2000).

The organizations were structured in departments, divisions, or teams and thus, subordinates could easily identify the leader that they were rating. This was important because subordinates were informed that the survey asked questions about their immediate supervisor/manager and their relationship with them. As well, in order to ensure that participants understood who they were rating, some questionnaires referred to “managers” and others to “supervisors,” depending on the organization. Questionnaires were given arbitrary numbers so that they could be identified anonymously and matched according to the leader being rated. All questionnaires included an information sheet where participants were guaranteed anonymity and were informed that their consent to participate was given based on the return of the questionnaire. A copy of the English information sheet can be found in Appendix A, and a copy of the French information sheet can be found in Appendix B. Participants were given return envelopes and asked to mail their questionnaires upon completion, once again ensuring confidentiality of responses.

There were two versions of the questionnaire to assess order effects. The questionnaires were also distributed in both English and French. Each contact from the organizations gave an approximate count of how many English and French questionnaires they required and the appropriate amount of each was distributed. All scales were previously validated in English. The MLQ was previously translated and validated in French (Cacciatore, Faulk, Perret, & Antonakis, 2003). The benevolence and trust scales, the Leader-Member Exchange questionnaire, and the Relationship

Questionnaire were translated by a professional translator and verified by the researchers (one French-speaking and one English-speaking) for accuracy.

Measures

The survey consisted of questions regarding the supervisor's leadership style, attachment style, benevolence and participants' trust in their leader. The questionnaires were rephrased to refer to either managers or supervisors, depending on the nomenclature used in each organization. A copy of the English questionnaire can be found in Appendix C, and a copy of the French questionnaire can be found in Appendix D. However, the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire is copyrighted and thus only five sample items are provided. Each of the measures will be described in detail below.

Leadership style. Leadership style was assessed using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Form 5X (MLQ: Bass & Avolio, 1995). Four items measure each of the following subscales: inspirational motivation, idealized influence (behavior), idealized influence (attributed), intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. These subscales form a higher-order factor, which is transformational leadership (e.g., Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999). According to Bass and Avolio (2000), each of the subscales received adequate internal consistency reliability and have acceptable validity. Each item was rated on a 5-point scale where participants were asked to assess the frequency of occurrence of each item (0 = not at all to 4 = frequently, if not always).

LMX. Leader-member exchange was measured by the LMX-7 (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Seven items with 5-point anchored rating scales assessed the quality of the exchange. A sample item was "How well does your supervisor recognize your

potential?” LMX was measured from the follower’s perspective, as recommended by Gerstner and Day (1997).

Attachment Style. Attachment style of the leader was measured from the follower’s point of view using Griffen and Bartholomew’s (1994a) Relationship Questionnaire (RQ). This measure contains four paragraphs, rated on a 7-point scale (1 = not at all like him/her to 7 = very much like him/her). Each paragraph describes one attachment style: secure, fearful, preoccupied, and dismissing. An example of the secure description was: “It is easy for my supervisor to become close to others. He/she is comfortable depending on others and having others depend on him/her. He/she doesn’t worry about being alone or having others not accept him/her.” It is recommended that this be used as a continuous measure rather than a categorical one (Griffen & Bartholomew, 1994a) because it assesses the degree to which a person is secure, fearful, dismissive and/or preoccupied; it does not classify participants into specific types.

Normally, multi-item measures are preferred in research as they tend to be more reliable. However in this case, this single-item measure was chosen for a number of reasons. Attachment styles are traditionally measured from the “self-report” perspective, using a multi-item measure. However, in a previous study looking at the relationship between attachment and transformational leadership in a military setting, the RQ was used from the followers’ perspective (Popper et al., 2000). The present study also measures leader attachment from the followers’ perspective. Furthermore, when the paragraphs from the RQ are separated into a multi-item questionnaire (e.g., The Relationship Scales Questionnaire (RSQ): Griffen & Bartholomew, 1994a), the items seem quite personal and subordinates might find it hard to rate their supervisors if they do

not have intimate knowledge of their relationship styles. When the items are grouped into paragraphs in the Relationship Questionnaire, subordinates can make more general assessments of their leader's interpersonal relationship style. Also, most of the multi-item measures of attachment, such as the RSQ, focus on romantic relationships, whereas the RQ targets relationships in general. As well, Griffen and Bartholomew (1994b) thoroughly examined the Relationship Questionnaire and found that this measure adequately assessed the underlying attachment dimensions from both the self and peer (i.e., follower) points of view. Finally, although multi-item measures of adult attachment are available (e.g., RSQ: Griffen & Bartholomew, 1994a), single-item measures in paragraph form are widely used (e.g., Hazan & Shaver, 1987; Pietromonaco & Barret, 1997; Popper et al., 2000; Schmidt & Bell, 2005; Sumer & Knight, 2001). Thus, it seemed more appropriate to use the single-item measure in this case.

Benevolence. Benevolence was measured by five items developed by Mayer and Davis (1999). Each item was rated on a 5-point scale (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree). A sample item was: "My supervisor is very concerned with my welfare."

Trust. Participants rated the degree to which they trusted their supervisor or manager. Four items developed by Mayer and Davis (1999) were used to measure trust in the leader. Each item was rated on a 5-point scale (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree). A sample item was: "I would be willing to let my supervisor have complete control over my future in this company." Although Cronbach's alpha for this scale was slightly lower than .7 ($\alpha = .67$), this value is considered marginally acceptable, thus the scale was included. It should be noted that similar Cronbach's alphas for this scale were obtained in previous studies (e.g., Mayer & Davis, 1999).

Data Cleansing

Missing data. Very few participants had missing scale scores, thus analyses were performed using pairwise deletion. No participants were removed entirely from the database.

Outliers. An examination for univariate outliers was conducted on individual-level data. Scale scores were standardized in order to establish the presence of univariate outliers. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (1996), all standard scores above +3.29 or below -3.29 are considered outliers. There were no univariate outliers in this sample.

Data Analysis

Level of analysis. The sample consisted of 20 groups of employees each rating their respective leader. Analyses were conducted at the individual level because there were not enough groups to be able to conduct analyses at the leader (or group) level. Furthermore, although individuals rated the same leader, their work was not organized around teams and, therefore, the individual level of analysis appeared appropriate. However, to account for variance that may be attributed to having the same leader, all regression analyses controlled for group membership.

T-Tests. An independent-samples t-test was conducted to verify whether there were significant differences between the two counterbalanced versions of the questionnaire. The independent variable was the version of the questionnaire and the dependent variables were the scores on each of the scales (i.e., transformational leadership, LMX, benevolence, trust, and attachment). The analyses showed that there were no significant differences between scale scores for those who answered version 1 and those who answered version 2, except for the secure scale, which was significant

(results are shown in Table 1). Because of this difference, hierarchical regression analyses testing for hypotheses including secure attachment (Hypotheses 1a, 1b, 2a, and 5a) were conducted with version as a control variable. . This was done in order to verify whether the significant difference for secure attachment on the different versions of the questionnaire made a difference in the results. The same pattern of results was obtained when controlling for group and version as when controlling for group alone, showing that the difference in secure attachment for version did not have an effect on the results. Thus, all regression analyses presented in the results which included secure attachment controlled for group only.

An independent-samples t-test was also conducted to verify whether there were significant differences between the French and English questionnaires. The independent variable was the language of the questionnaire and the dependent variables were the scores on each of the scales. The analyses showed that there were no significant differences between those who answered the questionnaires in French and those who answered the questionnaires in English for all scales except the preoccupied scale (results are shown in Table 2). In order to determine whether the significant difference for the preoccupied scale on the different languages of the questionnaire had an effect on the results, hierarchical regression, controlling for group and language, was conducted on Hypothesis 1b. The same pattern of results were obtained when controlling for group and language of the questionnaire as when controlling for group alone. This indicates that the difference in the preoccupied scale was not meaningful, and thus the regression analysis presented for Hypothesis 1b controlled for group only.

Analysis of Variance. A one-way ANOVA was conducted to verify whether there were significant differences between the three organizations. The independent variable was the organization and the dependent variables were the scores on each of the scales. Only one significant difference was found for the fearful scale (see Table 3). No significant differences were found for any of the other scales. Hierarchical regression, controlling for group and organization, was conducted on Hypothesis 1b, in order to verify whether the significant difference for the fearful scale in the different organizations had an effect on the results. The pattern of results obtained were the same when controlling for group and organization as when controlling for group alone, showing that the significant difference did not have a meaningful effect on results. Thus, as previously mentioned, the regression analysis presented for Hypothesis 1b controlled for group only.

Multicollinearity. Some of the predictors in the different regression equations were highly correlated, therefore, tests for multicollinearity were conducted, based on Tabachnik and Fidell's (1996) recommendations. According to the authors, multicollinearity can be diagnosed if the conditioning index exceeds 30 for any given root in a regression analysis, and if two of the variance proportions exceed .5. None of the conditioning indices exceeded 30 in any of the regression analyses. Moreover, none of the Variance Inflated Factors (VIF) exceeded 10, which is the cut-off score recommended by Stevens (1996). This evidence confirms that multicollinearity could not be diagnosed.

Tests of the hypotheses. Correlation and regression analyses were used to determine whether or not the hypotheses were supported. Hypotheses 1 through 4 were directional and thus one-tailed correlations (Pearson's r) were used. Hierarchical

Table 1

Scale Score Differences between Version 1 and Version 2

Scale	<u>Version 1</u>		<u>Version 2</u>		<i>df</i>	<i>t</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>		
Secure	4.00	1.57	4.56	1.45	118	-1.98*
Fearful	3.16	1.85	2.65	1.50	118	1.63
Preoccupied	2.93	1.67	2.86	1.55	114	.22
Dismissing	3.91	1.87	4.03	1.68	114	-.35
TFL	2.35	.83	2.41	.71	119	-.36
LMX	3.49	.94	3.44	.74	118	.28
Benevolence	3.52	.93	3.59	.87	119	-.39
Trust	3.41	.75	3.39	.75	118	.11

Note. TFL: Transformational Leadership. LMX: Leader-Member Exchange.

* $p < .05$

Table 2

Scale Score Differences between English and French Questionnaires

Scale	<u>English</u>		<u>French</u>		<i>df</i>	<i>t</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>		
Secure	4.38	1.39	4.33	1.65	115	.19
Fearful	2.86	1.64	2.80	1.64	115	.18
Preoccupied	2.43	1.39	3.64	1.59	111	-4.30**
Dismissing	4.04	1.83	3.78	1.61	111	.79
TFL	2.37	.79	2.39	.69	116	-.12
LMX	3.41	.82	3.52	.81	115	-.73
Benevolence	3.57	.83	3.53	.98	116	.24
Trust	3.37	.72	3.59	.74	115	.09

Note. TFL: Transformational Leadership. LMX: Leader-Member Exchange.

** $p < .01$

Table 3

One-Way Analysis of Variance for Effects of Different Organizations on Eight Dependent Variables

Variable and Source	<i>df</i>	<i>SS</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>
Secure				
Between groups	2	2.08	1.04	.45
Within groups	117	271.22	2.32	
Fearful				
Between groups	2	18.89	9.45	3.62*
Within groups	117	505.10	2.61	
Preoccupied				
Between groups	2	2.39	1.19	.47
Within groups	113	287.15	2.54	
Dismissing				
Between groups	2	2.25	1.12	.37
Within groups	113	347.72	3.10	
TFL				
Between groups	2	1.44	.72	1.27
Within groups	118	66.62	.57	
LMX				
Between groups	2	2.80	1.40	2.14
Within groups	117	76.76	.67	
Benevolence				
Between groups	2	2.89	1.44	1.86
Within groups	118	91.68	.78	
Trust				
Between groups	2	1.66	.83	1.51
Within groups	117	64.61	.55	

* $p < .05$

regression analyses (controlling for leaders/group, which were dummy variables) was also conducted on the first four hypotheses. Mediation analyses were conducted for Hypotheses 5a, 5b, and 6 using the Baron and Kenny method (1996) and the Sobel test (Sobel, 1982). The results of these statistical analyses will be discussed in the following section.

Results

Means, standard deviations, Cronbach's alphas, and intercorrelations between variables can be found in Table 4. A detailed discussion of the findings is presented below.

Hypothesis 1a predicted that secure attachment style would be positively related to transformational leadership and this relation was found ($r(120) = .40, p < .01$, one-tailed). Hypothesis 1b predicted a negative relationship between the three insecure attachment styles (fearful, preoccupied, and dismissing) and transformational leadership. Correlations for fearful, preoccupied, and dismissing were negative and significant ($r(120) = -.47, p < .01$, one-tailed; $r(116) = -.38, p < .01$, one-tailed; $r(116) = -.21, p < .05$, one-tailed) respectively. After controlling for group, transformational leadership was regressed on all four attachment styles. This yielded a significant change in the squared multiple correlation ($\Delta R^2 = .21, \Delta F(4,91) = 9.14, p < .01$). The beta weight associated with secure attachment style was marginally significant ($p < .10$), and fearful and preoccupied attachment styles were significant predictors of transformational leadership. Thus, Hypotheses 1a and 1b were supported. The results are reported in Table 5.

Hypothesis 2a predicted that secure attachment would be positively related to LMX. Based on Pearson's r , this relation was found ($r(119) = .38, p < .01$, one-tailed).

Table 4

Means, Standard Deviations, Cronbach's Alphas, and Intercorrelations among Variables

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Secure	4.35	1.5	--							
2. Fearful	2.84	1.7	-.55**	--						
3. Preoccupied	2.89	1.6	-.14	.32**	--					
4. Dismissing	3.98	1.7	-.36**	.43**	-.12	--				
5. TFL	2.39	.75	.40**	-.47**	-.38**	-.21*	.94			
6. LMX	3.46	.82	.38**	-.43**	-.26**	-.18	.84**	.91		
7. Benevolence	3.56	.89	.40**	-.41**	-.29**	-.19*	.78**	.80**	.92	
8. Trust	3.4	.75	.39**	-.35**	-.35**	-.12	.69**	.70**	.72**	.67

Note. TFL: Transformational leadership. Diagonal elements in boldface represent coefficient alphas for each scale. Off-diagonal elements are correlations between measures. Hypothesized correlations are one-tailed. Non-hypothesized correlations are two-tailed. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Table 5

Hierarchical Regression Analysis Testing the Relations Between Transformational Leadership and Attachment Styles

	Transformational Leadership			
	R^2	ΔR^2	ΔF	β
Step 1	.27	.27	1.86*	
Group				
Step 2	.48	.21	9.14**	
Group				
Secure				.17 [†]
Fearful				-.31**
Preoccupied				-.22*
Dismissing				-.03

Note. Beta weights associated with group dummy variables are not reported for the sake of conciseness.

[†] $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Table 6

Hierarchical Regression Analysis Testing the Relation Between LMX and Secure Attachment

	LMX			
	R^2	ΔR^2	ΔF	β
Step 1	.28	.28	1.99*	
Group				
Step 2	.34	.06	9.62**	
Group				
Secure				.29**

Note. Beta weights associated with group dummy variables are not reported for the sake of conciseness. LMX: Leader-Member Exchange.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

As well, this relation was supported by regression analysis ($\Delta R^2 = .06$, $\Delta F(1,98) = 9.62$, $p < .01$). Thus, this hypothesis was supported (see Table 6).

Hypothesis 2b predicted a positive relation between transformational leadership and LMX and this relation was found ($r(120) = .84$, $p < .01$, one-tailed). Regression analysis also showed a significant change in the squared multiple correlation ($\Delta R^2 = .47$, $\Delta F(1,99) = 197.89$, $p < .01$) after controlling for group, and thus the hypothesis was supported (see Table 7).

Hypothesis 3 predicted a positive relation between LMX and followers' perceptions of their leaders' benevolence, which was supported ($r(120) = .80$, $p < .01$, one-tailed). When benevolence was regressed onto LMX, there was a significant change in the squared multiple correlation ($\Delta R^2 = .46$, $\Delta F(1,99) = 154.57$, $p < .01$) after controlling for group, showing further support for this hypothesis (see Table 8).

Hypothesis 4 predicted a positive relation between follower perceptions of leader benevolence and trust in the leader. This relation was also highly significant and positive ($r(120) = .72$, $p < .01$, one-tailed). Regression analysis also showed a significant change in the squared multiple correlation ($\Delta R^2 = .31$, $\Delta F(1,99) = 75.13$, $p < .01$) after controlling for group. Thus, Hypothesis 4 was supported (see Table 9).

Hypothesis 5a predicted that LMX would mediate the relation between secure attachment and follower perceptions of leader benevolence. According to Baron and Kenny (1986), there are four conditions to meet in order to establish mediation effects. First, correlations between the independent variable and the mediating variable must be obtained. Second, correlations between the mediating variable and the dependent variable must be obtained. Third, there must be a significant relation between the

Table 7

Hierarchical Regression Analysis Testing the Relation Between LMX and Transformational Leadership

	LMX			
	R^2	ΔR^2	ΔF	β
Step 1	.29	.29	2.12**	
Group				
Step 2	.76	.47	197.89**	
Group				
Transformational Leadership				.80**

Note. Beta weights associated with group dummy variables are not reported for the sake of conciseness. LMX: Leader-Member Exchange.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Table 8

Hierarchical Regression Analysis Testing the Relation Between LMX and Benevolence

	Benevolence			
	R^2	ΔR^2	ΔF	β
Step 1	.25	.25	1.77*	
Group				
Step 2	.71	.46	154.57**	
Group				
LMX				.80**

Note. Beta weights associated with group dummy variables are not reported for the sake of conciseness. LMX: Leader-Member Exchange.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Table 9

Hierarchical Regression Analysis Testing the Relation Between Trust and Benevolence

	Trust			
	R^2	ΔR^2	ΔF	β
Step 1	.27	.27	1.93*	
Group				
Step 2	.58	.31	75.13**	
Group				
Benevolence				.65**

Note. Beta weights associated with group dummy variables are not reported for the sake of conciseness.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

independent variable and the dependent variable. If, and only if, these variables are correlated, the next step can be taken. The fourth step entails regression analysis. When the dependent variable is regressed onto both the independent variable and the mediating variable, the independent variable must be non significant and the mediating variable must be significant in order for mediation to be found. Since the correlations between secure attachment and LMX and LMX and benevolence were found (see Table 4), a regression analysis was conducted. In Step 1, group membership was introduced. Then, benevolence was regressed on secure attachment and the relation was significant ($\beta = .29$, $p < .01$). Finally, LMX was added to the relation to assess the mediation effect. Once LMX was added, secure attachment became non significant, while LMX was significant ($\beta = .78$, $p < .01$). Thus, according to the Baron and Kenny method (1986), full mediation was found. Results of the regression analysis can be found in Table 10.

To further confirm that this hypothesis was supported, the more conservative Sobel test was run using the MedGraph program (Jose, 2003). In order for full mediation to be found based on the Sobel test, the Sobel z-value must be significant and once the mediator is added, the beta weight between the independent variable and the dependent variable must be non significant (Jose, 2003). The Sobel z-value was 4.32 which was significant at the .01 level. Full mediation was also found using the Sobel test.

Hypothesis 5b predicted that LMX would mediate the relationship between transformational leadership and followers' perceptions of their leaders' benevolence. As with Hypothesis 5a, both the Baron and Kenny method (1986) and the Sobel test were used to determine whether mediation was present. According to the Baron and Kenny method, only partial mediation was found. After the correlations between

Table 10

Hierarchical Regression Analysis Testing the Relations between Benevolence and Secure Attachment, Mediated by LMX

	Benevolence			
	R^2	ΔR^2	ΔF	β
Step 1	.24	.24	1.66 [†]	
Group				
Step 2	.31	.07	9.31**	
Group				
Secure				.29**
Step 3	.71	.40	131.75**	
Group				
Secure				.07
LMX				.78**

Note. Beta weights associated with group dummy variables are not reported for the sake of conciseness. LMX: Leader-Member Exchange.

[†] $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

transformational leadership and LMX, and between LMX and benevolence were confirmed (see Table 4), a regression analysis was conducted. While controlling for group, benevolence was regressed on transformational leadership and the relation was significant ($\beta = .77, p < .01$). When LMX was added to the equation in Step 3, transformational leadership remained significant. However its beta weight decreased, suggesting partial mediation ($\beta = .40, p < .01$). The Sobel test confirmed this finding. The Sobel z-value was 4.91 ($p < .01$). Only partial mediation was found because although there was a drop in the beta weight between the independent variable and the dependent variable, the beta weight remained significant. Thus, Hypothesis 5b was partially supported (see Table 11).

Hypothesis 6 predicted that followers' perceptions of their leaders' benevolence would mediate the relation between LMX and trust in the leader. As with Hypothesis 5b, only partial mediation was found with the Baron and Kenny method. After verifying that Baron and Kenny's conditions for mediation were met (see correlations in Table 4), the regression analysis showed that when trust was regressed on LMX, the relation was significant ($\beta = .67, p < .01$). When benevolence was added to this relation, LMX remained significant, but its beta weight decreased ($\beta = .38, p < .01$). This indicates partial mediation, which was confirmed by the Sobel test. The Sobel z-value was 4.02 ($p < .01$). Again, only partial mediation was found due to the significance of the beta weight between the independent and the dependent variables. Thus, Hypothesis 6 was partially supported (see Table 12).

Table 11

Hierarchical Regression Analysis Testing the Relations between Benevolence and Transformational Leadership, Mediated by LMX

	Benevolence			
	R^2	ΔR^2	ΔF	β
Step 1	.25	.25	1.77*	
Group				
Step 2	.69	.44	143.33**	
Group				
Transformational Leadership				.77**
Step 3	.75	.06	20.29**	
Group				
Transformational Leadership				.40**
LMX				.47**

Note. Beta weights associated with group dummy variables are not reported for the sake of conciseness. LMX: Leader-Member Exchange.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Table 12

*Hierarchical Regression Analysis Testing the Relations between Trust and LMX,
Mediated by Benevolence*

	Trust			
	R^2	ΔR^2	ΔF	β
Step 1	.27	.27	1.90**	
Group				
Step 2	.59	.32	75.60**	
Group				
LMX				.67**
Step 3	.62	.03	9.57**	
Group				
LMX				.38**
Benevolence				.36**

Note. Beta weights associated with group dummy variables are not reported for the sake of conciseness. LMX: Leader-Member Exchange.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Discussion

Substantial support was found for the model presented in this study. Those identified as transformational leaders tended to be perceived as securely attached and had high quality LMX relationships with their followers. Transformational leadership was negatively associated with the three insecure styles of attachment (i.e., fearful, preoccupied, and dismissing). That is, the more transformational a leader was, the less likely he/she was to be characterized by one of the three insecure attachment styles. Leaders who had high-quality LMX relationships with their followers were perceived as benevolent, and leader benevolence was positively related to trust in the leader. LMX was found to be the mechanism through which secure leaders were perceived as benevolent. Finally, LMX explained part of the relation between transformational leadership and benevolence, and benevolence accounted for part of the relation between LMX and trust.

The finding that secure attachment was positively related to transformational leadership is consistent with previous research on the topic (Popper et al., 2004; Popper et al., 2000). According to Popper et al. (2004), a “socialized leader needs to have a personality structure whose elements match those of the secure attachment style, namely belief in oneself and others, self-confidence, curiosity, and the ability to maintain close and even intimate relationships without fear” (p. 251). This prosocial personality is the necessary framework for a leader who can motivate others and emphasize a shared vision (Bass, 1998). Bass (1998) himself devotes part of a chapter of his book to the research done on the development of leaders. Bass (1998) highlights the results from an unpublished study by Bass and Avolio concerning biodata from transformational and

transactional leaders. Of particular relevance to the present study, Bass and Avolio found that transformational leaders had parents who were strict but fair, had happy rather than unhappy childhoods, were praised as children and had mothers who took interest in their schooling. Laissez-faire leaders on the other hand, had parents who seemed indifferent about things that their children did. Bass asserts that transformational leaders do not simply emerge, but rather they are shaped by their early experiences with their families and in their personal lives. This is consistent with the logic in the present study and lends further support to the importance of seeking to understand how transformational leaders develop.

In following the process of the relationship between leader and follower, it was hypothesized that leaders with high-quality LMX relationships would be considered benevolent. This hypothesis was confirmed, showing support for a proposition made by Mayer et al. (1995). Mayer et al. proposed that benevolence was more likely to be perceived or experienced later in a relationship between a trustor and a trustee, after the two parties have had a chance to get to know each other better. Since high-quality LMX relationships develop over time (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995), the finding that leaders in these relationships are perceived as benevolent is not surprising.

In support of Mayer et al.'s (1995) model of trust, leaders perceived as benevolent were also perceived as trustworthy. Previous research has also found this link (e.g., Gill et al., 2005; Mayer & Davis, 1999). Although LMX was positively related to benevolence and benevolence was positively related to trust, the hypothesis that benevolence would mediate the relation between LMX and trust only received partial support. This mediation effect seemed intuitive especially since according to Gerstner

and Day (1997), LMX is highly related to affective outcomes (such as benevolence and trust). One possible explanation for the partial mediation that was found could be due to the fact that in this study, benevolence was the only predictor used from Mayer et al.'s model. Although the predictors can be separated, it is really perceptions of ability, benevolence and integrity combined that should determine trust in the leader. Thus, perhaps ability, benevolence and integrity would have fully mediated the relation between LMX and trust.

LMX fully accounted for the relation between secure attachment and benevolence, which was consistent with the prediction. As stated previously, all three of these are relational constructs. Secure attachment dictates the positive style in which adults relate to others; leaders rated high on the LMX scale have positive relationships with their followers, which are characterized by trust, respect, and mutual obligation; and benevolence is associated with wanting to do good unto others. Thus, it is likely that leaders who are securely attached have greater facility establishing high-quality relationships with their followers, which, in turn, influences follower perceptions of leader benevolence. Furthermore, if these positive relationships are established over time, it is likely that followers will have more opportunity to witness benevolent behavior on the part of their leader.

It was also expected that LMX would explain the relation between transformational leadership and followers' perceptions of their leader's benevolence. In fact, LMX only partially mediated this relation. This was somewhat surprising since LMX has been found to mediate the relation between transformational leadership and organizational citizenship behaviors (Wang et al., 2005), which is conceptually similar to

benevolence. Furthermore, the present study showed that transformational leaders tend to be perceived as benevolent, that LMX was positively related to benevolence and that LMX and transformational leadership were highly related. Thus it is surprising that full mediation was not found.

It is possible, however, that other variables that were not measured may have played a role. For example, perhaps the amount of opportunities to interact as well as the types of opportunities leaders and followers had to interact could explain the relation between transformational leadership and perceptions of benevolence. For example, followers who do not have much contact with their leaders might not be able to make judgments about their leader's benevolence because they have little opportunity to experience benevolent interactions. Furthermore, followers who only have formal interactions or exchanges with their leaders may see their leaders as less benevolent than followers who interact with their leaders on a more personal level. Similar to these suggestions, previous research has shown that distance moderates leadership-performance relationships (Howell & Hall-Merenda, 1999). Specifically, it was found that transformational leaders had stronger effects on followers' performance in close versus distant relationships. This indicates that organizational context might play a role in determining the effects of transformational leaders on their followers (e.g., Berson, Shamir, Avolio, & Popper, 2001). Thus, perhaps future research could focus more on other mechanisms through which followers come to perceive their leaders as benevolent.

Limitations

Although the hypotheses in this study received substantial support, there were limitations. Firstly, since this study was correlational, it was impossible to assess causation in the model. It is hard to tell whether the outcomes in this model are in fact outcomes, or if they are actually causes. For example, a leader who has high-quality LMX relationships may cause followers to perceive their leader as trustworthy. On the other hand, the fact that the leader is perceived as trustworthy to begin with could cause followers to evaluate their leader as high on the LMX scale. In this case, one can only speculate the direction of the relation. However, field experiments have confirmed the directions of some of the relations in this model, such as the impact of perceptions of benevolence on the decision to trust (e.g., Gill et al., 2005; Mayer & Davis, 1999). Furthermore, longitudinal studies could also help establish the direction of some of these relations, especially in dealing with developmental antecedents. This type of research has been called for by a number of authors (e.g., Kunhert & Lewis, 1987; Popper et al., 2000).

Secondly, this study was conducted in three very different organizations. Although each organization was structured in teams or departments and had leaders who were easily identifiable, it is possible that context effects could have come into play. For example, employees in the investment banking firm worked in small teams and thus most likely had a lot of personal contact with their leaders. Perhaps due to the high level of interaction, employees may have had more opportunities to see transformational behaviors on the part of their leaders. On the other hand, employees working in large departments in the hospital may have less contact with their leaders, which could perhaps

have made follower assessments of their leader's attachment styles less accurate. More importantly, the amount of interaction and length of the relationship could change perceptions of benevolence and trust. The effects of context on leadership have been examined (e.g., Berson et al., 2001) and it has been suggested that a transformational leader may not be able to fully express his/her transformational style in certain contexts. However, in the current study, with one exception, there were no significant differences between organizations, thus minimizing the possibility of contextual influences on the results.

Thirdly, although this study dealt with relationships between leaders and followers, analyses were conducted at the individual level, using follower data only. Perhaps if the sample had been larger, analyses could have been done at the leader level. Furthermore, if leadership and attachment style information were assessed by the leader him/herself as well as the follower, comparisons between the two sources could have been made and agreement could have been determined. However, much research in leadership is conducted at the individual level. In fact, leadership style is generally assessed by subordinates in most studies, and Gerstner and Day (1997) suggest that LMX is most accurately measured from the follower's perspective. Peer-ratings of attachment are also widely used (e.g., Hazan & Shaver, 1987; Popper et al., 2000; Schmidt & Bell, 2005; Sumer & Knight, 2001) and have been found to accurately measure attachment styles (Griffen & Bartholomew, 1994b). Thus, it is likely that measurement from the followers' perspective was suitable in assessing the variables in this model.

Finally, there were high correlations among most of the variables in this study, indicating the possibility of common method variance. In this case, common method

variance could have occurred due to the fact that all of the data were collected with the same tool (Lindell & Whitney, 2001). Despite this, some correlations were low and non significant, which indicates that the effects of common method variance may have been limited. Future research may try to minimize this problem by using the Attachment Interview (e.g., Griffen & Bartholomew, 1994b) combined with questionnaires concerning leadership and trust.

Future Directions

This study has answered calls from many researchers to delve deeper into the developmental antecedents of leadership (Bass, 1998; Gerstner & Day, 1997; Popper et al., 2000). However, to date, only two other studies have used attachment styles to explain the psychological development of transformational leaders (Popper et al., 2004; Popper et al., 2000). These studies were conducted in the military. The current study departs from the others by assessing leader-follower relationships in civilian organizations. Given that this is the first study conducted in a civilian setting, results are perhaps more generalizable than those obtained from military samples, which is an idiosyncratic context. In order to increase the generalizability of the results that transformational leaders tend to be securely attached, more studies should be conducted in order to determine whether the results can be replicated.

In continuing with the research on attachment and leadership, it may be interesting to assess attachment styles of both leaders and followers. It has been suggested that perhaps a fit between leaders and followers may lead to optimal performance and effectiveness (Kunhert & Lewis, 1987). This notion of fit has been examined more closely by Keller (2003) in her analysis of leader and follower attachment

styles. She looked at implicit leadership theories and claimed that individuals with different attachment styles will have different assumptions and expectations (implicit theories) of what a leader-follower relationship should entail. She made theoretical interpretations and propositions as to which type of leader would fit better with which type of follower. One of her propositions was that a secure follower would fit best with a secure leader because secure followers might portray a positive regard for the leader, and the leader would likely respond with sensitivity and support. On the other hand, anxious-ambivalent (i.e., preoccupied) and avoidant (i.e., fearful/dismissing) followers would clash with secure leaders because the former would be too clingy, and the latter would be too independent. Thus, the leader would be turned off and would not provide the support that he/she could provide in other circumstances. In combining these propositions with the results from the present study, one could speculate that perhaps the followers who perceived their leaders as benevolent and trustworthy, were in fact, securely attached themselves. On the flip side, it is also possible that followers who did not find their leaders to be benevolent and trustworthy were either anxious-ambivalent (i.e., preoccupied) or avoidant (i.e., fearful/dismissing). Future research can test these propositions and the results can have important practical implications, which will be discussed later.

Before the knowledge about the link between attachment and leadership can be implemented in the field, researchers can also look into a variety of other related issues. Perhaps distance between leaders and followers can have an effect on how salient attachment styles are in these types of relationships. A CEO, for example, might be transformational and securely attached, however he/she may have little contact with

employees in the organization. Thus, it could be argued that perhaps attachment style matters for those leaders who are in constant interaction with employees. The finding that transformational leadership produces higher follower performance in close rather than distant relationships (Howell & Hall-Merenda, 1999) lends some preliminary support to this assertion.

Another correlate of attachment that can be examined is its relation to socialized and personalized leadership. This relation was proposed by Popper (2000) and later tested by him (2002). Popper (2002) hypothesized that personalized charismatic leaders would be characterized by avoidant attachment and socialized charismatic leaders would be characterized by secure attachment. Since personalized charismatic leaders lead without concern for others, the link with the avoidant (i.e., fearful/dismissing) attachment style, which is characterized by disinterest in forming relationships, is intuitive (Popper, 2000) and this relation was found (Popper, 2002). On the other hand, socialized charismatic leaders are concerned with others' welfare and are keenly interested in forming relationships with others, which parallels the secure attachment style. This relation was not supported in Popper's (2002) study. Based on these results, one could also speculate on the relation between attachment styles and forms of transactional leadership. Perhaps, like personalized leaders, active or passive management-by-exception leaders would be characterized by the avoidant attachment (i.e., fearful/dismissing) style given the distant exchange relationships they have with their followers. Future research should attempt to determine the relation between each attachment style and each style of leadership in order to fully understand what influences leader development.

Finally, other outcomes of leader-follower relationships should also be examined. A meta-analysis was conducted by Judge and Piccolo (2004) to assess the relations between transformational leadership and a number of outcomes. Transformational leadership was found to be more highly related to follower job satisfaction, satisfaction with the leader, and follower motivation than to outcomes such as leader job performance and group/organization performance. It is possible that trust may play a role in the link between transformational leadership and performance because trust involves engaging in more risk-taking behavior which could have the potential to positively affect both subjective and objective performance. Since trust in leadership has been found to be related to performance (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002), this can be a viable proposition.

Implications

This study has a number of practical implications for organizations that will now be discussed. Trust in leaders is becoming crucial as organizations face increasing complexity and change. By understanding exactly what factors form the basis of trusting relationships, leaders may be more effective at fostering trust placed in them by their followers. Perhaps more importantly, it may help identify factors that could prevent the erosion of trust. There has been little research done to date on the developmental antecedents of trusting relationships between leaders and followers and the mechanisms through which trust occurs. This study has expanded on past research by delving into these issues and in finding that securely attached transformational leaders tended to be perceived as trustworthy. With the knowledge that secure attachment is a blueprint for positive interpersonal relationships, it might be possible to train leaders on how to become more effective at relating to their followers.

Instead of looking at attachment styles as developmental patterns of interpersonal relationships, perhaps they can be used as the basis for instructing leaders on how to better relate to their followers. For example, since the secure style dictates trusting, mutually dependent relationships, it might be possible to train leaders to be more open with their followers and trust that they will fulfill their duties and responsibilities. On the other hand, the insecure styles (i.e., fearful, preoccupied, and dismissing) could be used as examples of behaviors a leader should avoid. Leaders who ignore their followers (i.e., dismissing style), or smother them (i.e., preoccupied style), may negatively impact their relationships. It has already been established that leaders can be trained to be perceived as more transformational by their followers (Barling, Weber, & Kelloway, 1996; Kelloway, Barling, & Helleur, 2000). Given these findings, it seems likely that leaders can also be trained to relate more positively to their followers using the secure attachment style as a basis.

This study has also identified certain characteristics of effective leaders which may have implications for leader selection. Many studies have looked at the relation between transformational leadership and personality traits, as evidenced in Bono & Judge's (2004) meta-analysis. Personality tests are already used in some organizations for selection purposes and it has been found that some personality traits are correlated with increased performance on the job (e.g., Tett, Jackson, & Rothstein, 1991). Attachment styles can be considered a part of a person's personality, given that they represent the way people interact and form relationships with others. Thus, attachment styles, like certain personality traits, can perhaps be used as criteria for selecting leaders in organizations. In the present study, secure leaders were perceived as benevolent and

trustworthy, and thus selecting leaders based on positive relational qualities (i.e., secure attachment) might contribute to the frequency and intensity of trusting leader-follower relationships in organizations.

As previously mentioned, followers may play a role in shaping their relationships with their leaders. For example, a securely attached follower may have more positive relationships with a securely attached leader than a preoccupied, fearful, or dismissing follower. Furthermore, recent theoretical propositions about the charismatic leader-follower relationship have been made (Howell & Shamir, 2005). Specifically, it has been suggested that perhaps followers play a role in empowering their leaders, thus having an effect on the type of relationship formed between a leader and follower. It therefore seems important to establish an appropriate fit between leaders and followers who will form the most positive and effective relationships. If organizations are able to establish matches between leaders and followers, perhaps optimal working environments can be established.

Perhaps the most important practical contribution of this study lies in the discovery that relationships, and more specifically, positive and trusting relationships between leaders and followers, are salient in the work environment. Although many believe that business is not personal, the findings of this study beg to differ. This study has shown that positive personal relationships between leaders and followers are essential in determining trust in the leader, and therefore, that there is in fact a personal side of business. This personal side should not be neglected as it has the potential to lead to positive organizational outcomes.

Conclusion

The results of this study offer possible answers to the research questions posed at the beginning of this paper: (1) What is the role of developmental antecedents in explaining leadership style and trust in the leader? (2) What specific factors influence the decision to trust the leader? In answering the first question, this study showed that secure attachment can explain leadership style by acting as a blueprint for the positive relational qualities that a transformational leader exhibits. Furthermore, secure attachment can explain trust in the leader by acting on followers' perceptions of their leaders' benevolence. In answering the second question, this study showed that high-quality LMX relationships and followers' perceptions of their leaders' benevolence influenced followers' decision to trust their leaders. These findings have important practical implications and should stimulate future research on how best to use this knowledge in the field. Facilitating the establishment of positive relationships between leaders and their subordinates could ultimately play a critical role in the success of individuals, teams, and organizations as a whole.

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Appendix A

Information Sheet Supervisor-Subordinate Relationships in Organizations

Your input is needed for a study on leader-subordinate relationships being conducted at the John Molson School of Business, Concordia University. Your opinion is valued as it will help researchers and organizations understand how positive relationships between leaders and subordinates are created and maintained.

Your organization has been chosen to participate in this study. You are asked to respond to the questionnaire attached and return it to the researchers by mail in the addressed and stamped envelope provided. This will take no more than 15 minutes to complete.

There are no known risks to participating in this study, nor will there be any discomfort or inconvenience aside from the time taken to complete the questionnaire. Participation in this study is voluntary. You may refuse to participate or withdraw from the study at any time with no effect on your employment status. You are not obliged to respond to any questions that make you feel uncomfortable or to which you object. This survey asks questions about your supervisor's leadership style and your relationship with him/her. Your supervisor has also been given a survey, which asks questions about him/herself. In order for the researchers to know which supervisor/leader you are rating, an arbitrary identification number has been assigned to the questionnaires. This will allow us to match the questionnaires while keeping the responses completely anonymous. Only the researchers listed below will have access to the data. No one in your organization or elsewhere will have access to this information. The questionnaires will be kept locked in the principal researcher's office. The data will be maintained on a password protected computer and will be destroyed no later than five years after any article is published from the research. The results of this study will be used in an MSc thesis and will be published. Individual responses will be aggregated and only summary results of the entire sample of participants will be presented. In this way, confidentiality of your responses is guaranteed.

If at any time you have questions about your rights as a research participant, please contact Adela Reid, Research Ethics and Compliance Officer, Concordia University, at (514) 848-2424 ext. 7481 or by e-mail at adela.reid@concordia.ca.

Your participation is critical to the success of this important study and your time is greatly appreciated. Once the study is complete, we would be pleased to send you a summary of the findings. We would also be pleased to respond to any further questions that you might have about this study. Please feel free to contact us at the numbers, or addresses, below.

Stephanie Grosvenor
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s_grosve@jmsb.concordia.ca

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John Molson School of Business
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Appendix B

Renseignements

Nous comptons sur votre participation à une étude portant sur les relations entre subordonnés et supérieurs hiérarchiques, entreprise par des chercheurs de l'École de Gestion John Molson de l'Université Concordia. Votre point de vue est particulièrement prisé, car il aidera les chercheurs et les organisations à mieux comprendre les aspects positifs des relations entre les leaders et les subordonnés ainsi que leur origine.

Votre organisation a été choisie pour participer à cette étude. Nous vous demandons de remplir le questionnaire ci-joint et de le faire parvenir aux chercheurs par la poste dans l'enveloppe pré-adressée au port prépayé. Cette tâche ne vous prendra pas plus de 15 minutes.

La participation à cette étude ne vous fait courir aucun risque, aucun désagrément, sauf le temps qu'il vous faut pour remplir le questionnaire. La participation à cette étude est volontaire. Il vous est possible de refuser de participer ou de cesser de participer à cette étude à tout moment, sans que cela affecte votre statut d'emploi. Vous n'êtes pas obligé de répondre à toute question qui vous incommode ou à laquelle vous vous objectez. Ce questionnaire est composé de questions sur le style de leadership de votre supérieur hiérarchique et les rapports que vous entretenez avec lui ou avec elle. Votre supérieur a aussi reçu un questionnaire qui reprend certaines de ces questions à son sujet. Afin de pouvoir identifier le lien entre le superviseur et l'employé, un numéro d'identification arbitraire a été assigné à chaque questionnaire. Nous pourrions ainsi établir un lien entre les questionnaires, tout en conservant l'anonymat du participant. Seuls les chercheurs dont les noms figurent au bas de cette lettre auront accès à ces données. Aucune autre personne, associée ou non à votre organisation, n'aura accès à ces renseignements. Le questionnaire sera gardé sous clé dans le bureau du chercheur en chef. La sécurité est entretenue par un mot de passe contrôlant l'accès au système informatique. Les questionnaires seront éventuellement détruits cinq ans après la publication d'articles fondés sur cette étude. Les résultats de cette étude serviront à un mémoire de M. Sc. et seront publiés. Les réponses individuelles seront rassemblées et feront partie d'un ensemble agrégé, et seul un résumé de l'ensemble des participants sera présenté. De cette manière, la confidentialité de vos réponses est assurée.

Pour tout complément d'information quant à vos droits en tant que participant à cette étude, vous pouvez contacter Adela Reid, agente d'éthique en recherche/conformité, Université Concordia, au (514) 848-2424 poste 7481 ou par courriel, adela.reid@concordia.ca.

Votre participation contribuera grandement à la réussite de cette étude importante et le temps que vous y consacrez est grandement apprécié. À la fin de l'étude, nous serons très heureuses de vous faire parvenir un résumé de ses résultats. Nous sommes également à votre disposition pour répondre à toute autre question relative à cette étude. N'hésitez pas à nous joindre aux coordonnées suivantes :

Stephanie Grosvenor
Étudiante au M.Sc.
s_grosve@jmsb.concordia.ca

Kathleen Boies, Ph. D.
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Appendix C

F1 _____

Demographic Information

Please check the appropriate box or fill in the blanks below:

1. What is your gender? ☐ Male ☐ Female
2. What is your age? _____
3. What is your educational level?
 - ☐ High School
 - ☐ CEGEP
 - ☐ University (undergraduate)
 - ☐ University (graduate)
4. In what year did you begin employment with your current organization? _____
5. How long have you been working with the current manager of your department?
_____ year(s) _____ month(s)
6. How many members are there in your department (including yourself and your manager)? _____

Part A.1.: Supervisory Practices

Please keep your manager in mind when reading the following statements. Indicate how well each statement applies to your manager.

Never	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
0	1	2	3	4

YOUR MANAGER...

1. Provides assistance in exchange for your efforts. 0 1 2 3 4
2. Re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate. 0 1 2 3 4

Never	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
0	1	2	3	4

3. Fails to interfere until problems become serious. 0 1 2 3 4
4. Focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards. 0 1 2 3 4
5. Spends time teaching and coaching. 0 1 2 3 4

Part A.2. Supervisory Practices

Please read the following questions and indicate how they apply to you and your manager by circling the appropriate answer on the scale below each question.

1. Do you usually know how satisfied your manager is with what you do?	Rarely	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Very often
2. How well does your manager understand your job problems and needs?	Not a bit	A little	A fair amount	Quite a bit	A great deal
3. How well does your manager recognize your potential?	Not at all	A little	Moderately	Mostly	Fully
4. Regardless of the amount of formal authority your manager has, what are the chances that your manager would use his/her power to help you solve problems in your work?	None	Small	Moderate	High	Very high
5. Again, regardless of the amount of formal authority your manager has, what are the chances that he/she would "bail you out" at his/her expense?	None	Small	Moderate	High	Very high

6. I have enough confidence in my manager that I would defend and justify his/her decision if he/she were not present to do so.				
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

7. How would you characterize your working relationship with your manager?				
Extremely Ineffective	Worse than Average	Average	Better than Average	Extremely Effective

Part B.1: Interpersonal Relationships

*Please indicate how well each paragraph below describes the general way in which you believe your manager relates to others by **circling** the appropriate number. Please give your best assessment based on your knowledge of your manager.*

A) It is easy for my manager to become close to others. He/she is comfortable depending on others and having others depend on him/her. He/she doesn't worry about being alone or having others not accept him/her.

Not at all like him/her						Very much like him/her
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

B) My manager is uncomfortable getting close to others. He/she wants close relationships, but finds it difficult to trust others completely, or to depend on them. My manager worries that he/she will be hurt if he/she allows him/herself to become close to others.

Not at all like him/her						Very much like him/her
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

C) My manager wants to be completely emotionally intimate with others, but he/she often finds that others are reluctant to get as close as he/she would like. My manager is comfortable being without close relationships, but sometimes worries that others don't value him/her as much as he/she values them.

Not at all like him/her						Very much like him/her
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

D) My manager is comfortable without close relationships. It is very important to him/her to feel independent and self-sufficient, and he/she prefers not to depend on others or have others depend on him/her.

Not at all like him/her						Very much like him/her	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

Part B.2: Summary of Interpersonal Relationships

If you had to choose **ONE** of the above paragraphs to describe your manager, which one would you say best describes your manager? *Please circle one.*

Paragraph: **A** **B** **C** **D**

Part C: Work attitudes

Indicate the degree to which you agree with the following statements by circling the appropriate number based on the scale below:

Disagree Strongly	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Agree Strongly
1	2	3	4	5

- | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. My manager is very capable of performing his/her job. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. My needs and desires are very important to my manager. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. My manager is known to be successful at the things he/she tries to do. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. Most experts tell the truth about the limits of their knowledge. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. My manager has a strong sense of justice. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. If I had my way, I wouldn't let my manager have any influence over issues that are important to me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. Most people can be counted on to do what they say they will do. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Disagree Strongly	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Agree Strongly
1	2	3	4	5

- | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 8. My manager has much knowledge about the work that needs to be done. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. These days, you must be alert or someone is likely to take advantage of you. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. I like my manager's values. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. My manager will go out of his/her way to help me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. One should be very cautious with strangers. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13. Most salespeople are honest in describing their products. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. My manager is well qualified. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15. My manager tries hard to be fair in dealing with others. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16. I really wish I had a good way to keep an eye on my manager. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 17. Most repair people will not overcharge people who are ignorant of their specialty. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 18. My manager is very concerned about my welfare. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 19. My manager would not knowingly do anything to hurt me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 20. I would be willing to let my manager have control over my future in this company. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 21. I never have to wonder whether my manager will stick to his/her word. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 22. Most people answer public opinion polls honestly. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 23. My manager's actions and behaviors are not very consistent. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 24. I would be comfortable giving my manager a task or problem which was critical to me, even if I could not monitor his/her actions. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 25. My manager really looks out for what is important to me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Disagree Strongly	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Agree Strongly
1	2	3	4	5

26. Sound principles seem to guide my manager's behavior. 1 2 3 4 5

27. Most adults are competent at their jobs. 1 2 3 4 5

28. I feel very confident about my manager's skills. 1 2 3 4 5

29. My manager has specialized capabilities that can increase my performance. 1 2 3 4 5

Thank you very much for taking the time to participate in this study. Your input is greatly appreciated!

If you would like to obtain a document explaining the purpose of this study, please contact Stephanie Grosvenor or Dr. Kathleen Boies using the addresses on the information sheet on the first page of this package.

Appendix D

F1 _____

Renseignements démographiques

Veillez cocher les cases ou compléter les sections, selon le cas :

1. Vous êtes : ☐ un homme ☐ une femme
2. Votre âge? _____
3. Votre niveau scolaire?
☐ Secondaire
☐ CEGEP
☐ Université (premier cycle)
☐ Université (deuxième/troisième cycle)
4. En quelle année avez-vous été embauché(e) par votre employeur actuel? _____
5. Depuis combien de temps travaillez-vous avec votre gérant(e) actuel(le)?
_____ an(s) _____ mois
6. Combien de membres forment votre équipe/département (incluant vous-même et votre gérant(e))? _____

Partie A.1 : Pratiques de gestion

En utilisant l'échelle de fréquence ci-dessous, déterminez à quel point les énoncés décrivent votre gérant(e).

Pas du tout	Rarement	Parfois	Assez souvent	Fréquemment, sinon toujours
0	1	2	3	4

MON/MA GÉRANT(E)...

1. M'aide en échange de mes efforts. 0 1 2 3 4
2. Réexamine les normes et pratiques pour s'assurer de leur bien-fondé. 0 1 2 3 4
3. N'intervient pas avant que les problèmes ne deviennent sérieux. 0 1 2 3 4

4. Concentre son attention sur les irrégularités, erreurs, exceptions, et déviations à la norme. 0 1 2 3 4
5. Consacre du temps à l'enseignement et au coaching. 0 1 2 3 4

Partie A.2 : Pratiques de gestion

Veuillez lire les questions suivantes et évaluer la pertinence des réponses suggérées quant aux relations que vous entretenez avec votre gérant(e) en **encerclant** la réponse de votre choix sur l'échelle figurant au bas de chaque question.

1. D'une manière générale, savez-vous si votre gérant(e) est satisfait(e) de ce que vous faites?				
Rarement	À l'occasion	Parfois	Souvent	Très souvent
2. Dans quelle mesure votre gérant(e) comprend-il (elle) les difficultés et besoins liés à votre travail?				
Pas le moindre	Un peu	Passablement	Beaucoup	Considérablement
3. Votre gérant(e) est-il (elle) capable de reconnaître votre potentiel?				
Pas du tout	Un peu	Parfois	Presque toujours	Toujours
4. Peu importe l'autorité que votre gérant(e) exerce sur vous, comment évaluez-vous la probabilité qu'il (elle) vous aide à résoudre les problèmes liés à votre travail?				
Inexistante	Faible	Moyenne	Élevée	Très élevée
5. Encore une fois, peu importe l'autorité que votre gérant(e) exerce sur vous, comment évaluez-vous la probabilité qu'il (elle) vous cautionne à ses frais?				
Inexistante	Faible	Moyenne	Élevée	Très élevée
6. J'ai une telle confiance en mon/ma gérant(e) que je n'hésiterais pas à me porter à sa défense et à justifier ses décisions en son absence.				
Pas d'accord du tout	Pas d'accord	Neutre	D'accord	Tout à fait d'accord

7. Comment qualifiez-vous vos relations de travail avec votre gérant(e)?				
Très inefficaces	Inférieures à la moyenne	Moyennes	Supérieures à la moyenne	Très efficaces

Partie B.1 : Relations interpersonnelles

*Veillez évaluer à quel point chaque paragraphe ci-dessous décrit, de manière générale, la relation qu'entretient votre gérant(e) avec les gens, en **encerclant** le chiffre qui correspond le mieux à votre réponse. Faites votre évaluation au meilleur de vos connaissances.*

A) Mon/ma gérant(e) a un contact facile avec les gens. Il/elle se sent à l'aise de dépendre des autres et vice-versa. Il/elle ne s'inquiète pas d'être seul(e) ou de ne pas être accepté(e) par les autres.

Pas du tout comme lui/elle						Tout à fait comme lui/elle
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

B) Mon/ma gérant(e) est mal à l'aise avec les gens. Il/elle souhaite entretenir de bonnes relations, mais a du mal à faire entièrement confiance aux autres ou à s'y fier. Mon/ma gérant(e) craint d'être blessé(e) s'il/elle entretient des relations trop étroites avec les autres.

Pas du tout comme lui/elle						Tout à fait comme lui/elle
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

C) Mon/ma gérant(e) cherche à entretenir des relations étroites avec les autres, mais constate souvent que cela n'est pas réciproque. Mon/ma gérant(e) ne craint pas l'absence de telles relations, mais s'inquiète parfois que les autres ne l'apprécient pas autant qu'il/elle les apprécie.

Pas du tout comme lui/elle						Tout à fait comme lui/elle
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

D) Mon/ma gérant(e) se sent à l'aise de ne pas entretenir des relations étroites. Il/elle tient beaucoup à son indépendance et à son autonomie, et il/elle préfère ne pas dépendre des autres et que les autres ne dépendent pas de lui ou d'elle.

Pas du tout comme lui/elle						Tout à fait comme lui/elle	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

Part B.2 : Résumé des relations interpersonnelles

Si vous aviez à choisir UN paragraphe de la page précédente, LEQUEL décrit le mieux votre gérant(e)? *Veuillez encercler un choix.*

Paragraphe : **A** **B** **C** **D**

Partie C : Attitudes au travail

Indiquez votre niveau d'accord ou de désaccord avec les énoncés suivants en encerclant le chiffre correspondant à l'échelle ci-dessous :

Pas d'accord du tout	Pas d'accord	Neutre	D'accord	Tout à fait d'accord
1	2	3	4	5

1. Mon/ma gérant(e) est très capable d'assumer ses tâches. 1 2 3 4 5
2. Mes besoins et mes désirs sont très importants pour mon/ma gérant(e). 1 2 3 4 5
3. Mon/ma gérant(e) a la réputation de bien réussir tout ce qu'il/elle entreprend. 1 2 3 4 5
4. La plupart des experts expriment franchement la limite de leurs connaissances. 1 2 3 4 5
5. Mon/ma gérant(e) a un sens très poussé de ce qui est juste. 1 2 3 4 5
6. S'il n'en tenait qu'à moi, mon/ma gérant(e) n'influencerait pas les questions qui me tiennent à cœur. 1 2 3 4 5

Pas d'accord du tout	Pas d'accord	Neutre	D'accord	Tout à fait d'accord
1	2	3	4	5

- | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 7. On peut se fier à ce que la plupart des gens tiennent parole. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. Mon/ma gérant(e) possède beaucoup de connaissances quant au travail à accomplir. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. De nos jours, il faut se méfier, sinon quelqu'un risque de chercher à profiter de vous. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. Mon/ma gérant(e) a des principes que j'aime bien. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. Mon/ma gérant(e) fera des pieds et des mains pour m'aider. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. Il faut faire très attention avec les étrangers. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13. La plupart des vendeurs décrivent leurs produits honnêtement. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. Mon/ma gérant(e) est très compétent(e). | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15. Mon/ma gérant(e) s'efforce de traiter les autres équitablement. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16. J'aimerais bien avoir un moyen de surveiller mon/ma gérant(e). | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 17. La plupart des techniciens de service n'abusent pas des clients qui ne connaissent pas leur spécialité. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 18. Mon/ma gérant(e) tient à mon bien-être. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 19. Mon/ma gérant(e) ne poserait sciemment aucun geste qui pourrait me blesser. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 20. Je serais d'accord pour que mon/ma gérant(e) contrôle mon avenir au sein de cette compagnie. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 21. Je ne doute jamais que mon/ma gérant(e) tiendra parole. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 22. La plupart des gens répondent honnêtement aux sondages. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 23. Les agissements et le comportement de mon/ma gérant(e) manquent de constance. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Pas d'accord du tout	Pas d'accord	Neutre	D'accord	Tout à fait d'accord
1	2	3	4	5

24. Je n'hésiterais pas à déléguer à mon/ma gérant(e) une tâche ou un problème d'une importance critique pour moi, même si je ne pouvais pas surveiller le déroulement des opérations. 1 2 3 4 5
25. Mon/ma gérant(e) s'inquiète de ce qui m'importe. 1 2 3 4 5
26. Le comportement de mon/ma gérant(e) repose sur des principes sains. 1 2 3 4 5
27. La plupart des adultes sont compétents dans leur travail. 1 2 3 4 5
28. Les compétences de mon/ma gérant(e) m'inspirent confiance. 1 2 3 4 5
29. Mon/ma gérant(e) possède des compétences spécialisées qui peuvent accroître mon rendement au travail. 1 2 3 4 5

Merci beaucoup d'avoir pris le temps de participer à cette étude. Votre contribution est grandement appréciée!

Pour un complément d'information expliquant le but de cette étude, veuillez contacter Stephanie Grosvenor ou Kathleen Boies, dont les coordonnées apparaissent sur le feuillet de renseignements en page de garde de cet envoi.