

**Romantic Relationships and Leadership: Three Studies**

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## Abstract

Questions of who becomes a leader, and what predicts the quality of their leadership behaviors, have been of interest to scholars and the public for decades. Although most explorations of antecedents to leadership focus on individual differences, scholars have speculated on the role of social-interpersonal contexts as potentially influential in shaping various leadership outcomes. I set out to examine how one central relationship outside of work, namely romantic relationships, shape how people lead, and whether or not they become a leader in the first instance. Drawing on ten Brummelhuis and Bakker's (2012) Work Home-Resources Model, I examine three ways in which romantic relationship experiences spillover into leadership outcomes via their effects on personal resources.

In Study 1, I examine how current, personal romantic relationship behaviors indirectly influence leadership behaviors through resource gain and loss. Using a randomized-clustered experimental design ( $n = 93$  couples), results show that for female partners, positive relational behaviors serve as a contextual resource that limits personal resource loss, resulting in more positive and less negative leadership behaviors. Negative relational behaviors are a contextual demand, increasing personal resource loss, and in turn, negative leadership behaviors. In Study 2, I consider how distal personal relationships affect leadership emergence, and specifically how adolescents' experience of dating violence indirectly affects leadership role occupancy through depressive symptoms. Drawing on a longitudinal nationally representative sample (Add Health,  $n = 3277$ ), results revealed that experiencing psychological aggression for females, and experiencing physical violence across genders, are contextual demands that independently result in depressive symptoms, in turn decreasing the leader role occupancy. In Study 3, I consider how distal and vicarious relationship experiences, namely adolescents' observations of their parents'

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domestic violence, indirectly affects leader emergence. Drawing on a nationally representative sample (NCS-R,  $n = 1701$ ), I found that for females, witnessing interparental domestic violence in adolescence results in greater anxious and avoidant attachment, which in turn decreases leader role occupancy.

Together, results from these three studies point to the multiple ways in which romantic relationship behaviors influence leadership across the lifespan, and the critical role of gender in determining whether this spillover occurs.

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First, I need to start at the beginning, and since the beginning is long before the start of my PhD, entertain me as I reflect on early life events that I believe set the platform for my getting here. I study lifelong leadership development after all, so this feels fitting. I was fortunate to grow up in a supportive environment with an intelligent, driven, and loving mother, and an inquisitive, strong, and guiding father. I also had a brother... which at a very young age I thought was unfortunate. I believe the relationships I had with each one of these members of my immediate family were incredibly important in shaping me as a researcher today. My father, Denis, passed away suddenly when I was 10, and the challenge of this event taught me resilience, acceptance, and deep reflection. My brother and I grew closer, and in sharing in our pain, he truly became my best friend – then and now, Eric teaches me perspective taking, finding the silver lining in troubling events, and he models incredibly positive relational behaviors, behaviors that I now expect others to live up to. Finally, my mother, Gudrun, took on the role of both parents with grace. She has taught me to be strong in the face of adversity, to be direct, and to fight for what I want. She has supported me through every step of my education and is my truest role model. To the Cloutiers, thank you.

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**Statement of Originality**

I hereby certify that all of the work described within this dissertation is the original work of the author. Any published (or unpublished) ideas and/or techniques from the work of others are fully acknowledged in accordance with the standard referencing practices.

Anika Cloutier

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## **Chapter 1 -**

### **An Introduction to Romantic Relationships and Leadership**

Leadership is considered a competitive advantage by many organizations, as leaders are known to influence organizational effectiveness (Quigley & Hambrick, 2015), and employees' health and success (Schyns & Schilling, 2013). Indeed, much research has considered the consequences of leaders' attributes and behaviors in predicting employee and organizational outcomes (Barling, 2014), and leadership is now one of the most studied topics in organizational research (Judge, 2018). However, in comparison to the outcomes of leadership, antecedents to leadership are far less understood. Although some scholars have taken a person-centered approach in examining which stable (e.g., personality; Judge et al., 2002) and variable (e.g., sleep quality, Barnes et al., 2016) factors explain who emerges as a leader, and why leaders behave as they do – there continues to be calls for a more expansive look into the antecedents of leadership (Lord et al., 2017). More recently, scholars have speculated on the role of the social-interpersonal context in shaping various leadership outcomes (Liu et al., 2020). To understand the role of social-interpersonal context in determining how an individual leads, and whether or not they become a leader, I focus on one personal relationship: romantic relationships.

After decades of research, we know that experiences at home and at work are interdependent, and that their impact on each other can be both positive and negative (e.g., Grzywacz & Butler, 2008). Although most research on the work-family interface has focused on negative work-to-family spillover (Allen et al., 2000), somewhat disregarding family-to-work spillover (Stevens et al., 2007), there are theoretical (Liu et al., 2020; ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012) and empirical (Solomon & Jackson, 2014) reasons to believe that romantic

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relationship experiences can affect the quality of leadership behaviours, and the likelihood of occupying a leadership role in the first instance.

I focus on the role of romantic relationships as they are important and different from other personal relationships. Over time, as romantic partners invest in and develop their relationship, they open up their respective self-concepts to include the other partner (Felmee & Sprecher, 2000; Rusbult, et al., 2009) and thus any relational event that involves this romantic partner can significantly affect the self that is brought to work. Although the presence or absence of a romantic relationship is informative (Holt-Lunstad et al., 2008), I specifically consider the effects of romantic relationship behaviors (i.e., behaviors directed towards maintaining or harming one's relational partner) on leadership outcomes. The reason for this is that relationship behaviors can be positive (e.g., maintenance behaviors) or negative (psychological aggression), and the valence of these behaviors qualify whether romantic relationships can benefit or harm individuals' psychological well-being (ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012) and in turn, their leadership outcomes.

Taken together, this dissertation seeks to address one overarching question: how do romantic relationship behaviors affect leadership? I consider this question from three perspectives: (1) how do partners' current romantic relationship behaviors affect leadership behaviors (Study 1); (2) how does a history of experiencing psychologically aggressive and physically violent behaviors in dating relationships affect leadership emergence (Study 2); and (3) how does a history of observing important others' (i.e., parents') physically violent behaviors affect leader role occupancy (Study 3). I therefore consider the effects of experienced romantic relationship behaviors from three perspective: personal proximal spillover (i.e., one's current experienced positive and negative relational behaviors), personal distal spillover (i.e., one's past

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experiences of negative relational behaviors), and distal vicarious spillover (i.e., one's past observations of other's negative relational behaviors). In addition, I consider leadership as an outcome of relationship behaviors from two perspectives: leadership behaviors (i.e., transformational and abusive leadership behaviors) and leadership emergence (i.e., occupying a leadership role).

To explain the processes in which personal and vicarious romantic relationship behaviors can affect leadership proximally and distally, I draw upon ten Brummelhuis and Bakker's (2012) Work Home-Resources Model (W-HR Model) for all three of my studies.

### **The Work-Home Resources Model**

ten Brummelhuis and Bakker's (2012) Work-Home Resources Model (W-HR Model) is an integrative theoretical framework developed to explain the processes by which positive and negative spillover between home and work occur. Using insights from Hobfoll's (1989; 2002) conservation of resources (COR) theory, the authors hypothesize that individuals' experience in one domain (e.g., at home) affects their personal resources which in turn influences their ability to perform in another domain (e.g., at work). Any domain, such as the home, is a context characterized by resources and demands. Contextual resources refer to desired and valued assets located outside the self, and based on Hobfoll's (2002) COR theory can include objects (e.g., one's home) and conditions (e.g., one's relationship status). Contextual demands refer to factors located outside the self that drain or interfere with resource gain and/or maintenance, and can include the absence of resource objects (e.g., low income) or conditions (e.g., poor relationship quality). In turn, contextual resources and demands affect the individual embedded within this context, such that it affects their personal resources, i.e., assets proximate to the self. According to Hobfoll (2002), personal resources can include personal characteristics (e.g., high sense of

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self-efficacy) and energies (e.g., positive affect), and can be replenished (e.g., physical energy from a full night of high quality sleep) or depleted states (e.g., negative affect after an argument). Ultimately, the quality of personal resources affect functioning in other domains, with functioning referring to production (e.g., work performance), behaviors (e.g., interpersonal behaviors), and attitudes (e.g., job satisfaction).

Given spillover is a complex process, ten Brummelhuis and Bakker (2012) further theorized on the role of macro and key resources on spillover. Macro resources refer to contextual characteristics in which individuals live (e.g., cultural differences such as collectivist vs individualist cultures) which function to hinder or intensify the degree to which one domain affects personal resources (e.g., spillover may be hindered in cultures with higher individualism). Key resources refer to conditional factors that are characteristics of the person (e.g., traits such as conscientiousness or optimism), and moderate the degree to which resources and demands affect personal resources; for example, the more key resources people possess, the better they are able to cope with contextual demands and access contextual resources.

Finally, ten Brummelhuis and Bakker (2012) account for time in their theoretical model, suggesting spillover can occur rapidly (short-term spillover) or chronically through time (long-term spillover). Short-term spillover occurs when more temporal demands (e.g., work deadline) and volatile resources (e.g., partner support) in one domain consume or produce volatile personal resources such as energies (e.g., affect) that has more immediate consequence for the other domain. For example, daily job demands increase daily work-family conflict, which reduces family engagement in the evening (Ilies et al., 2017). Long-term spillover occurs when chronic demands (e.g., an abusive relationship) continuously deplete, or structural contextual resources (e.g., a constant social network) repeatedly

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generate more structural personal resources (e.g., health), which can affect more long-term consequences in the other domains. For example, ongoing family overload increases physical stress which eventually results in greater work absences in subsequent years (ten Brummelhuis et al., 2012). ten Brummelhuis and Bakker (2012) thus argue that spillover is a process that occurs across temporally discrete and proximate events, and can also function as loss spirals and gain, that overtime, have significantly long lasting implications for other domains.

Taken together, the resources and demands present in one domain ultimately affect the personal resources individuals carry with them into another domain. Contextual resources and demands can be transient but also chronic and structural, resulting in both short-term and long-term spillover. The degree to which one domain spills over into another is moderated by macro and key resources. This theory parsimoniously explains how romantic relationship behaviors can spillover into leadership in both the short term and long term, and how this can be experienced differently across people.

### **1.1 Dissertation Overview**

Drawing on the principles discussed above, I suggest that romantic relationships can either serve as a contextual resource (when the relationships consist of positive relational behaviors) or a contextual demand (when a relational partner engages in negative relational behaviors) which in turn affects the nature of personal resources an individual possesses and can invest into leadership. In addition to propositions highlighted in the W-HR Model, I also hypothesize that spillover will occur differently between genders, such that females will experience a greater degree of spillover than will males, as females (1) internalize their relational experiences more significantly than do males (Kerig, 1996; Leslie et al., 2016; Offer, 2014) and

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(2) have different leadership expectations compared to males (Eagly & Karau, 2002). I examine spillover and the moderating role of gender from three perspectives and across three studies, described below.

### **Study 1**

The purpose of Study 1 is to examine how the quality of individuals' current and personal romantic relationship behaviors affect the quality of their proximal leadership behaviors.

Drawing on ten Brummelhuis and Bakker's (2012) W-HR Model, I hypothesize that romantic relationships can either serve as a contextual resource or a contextual demand that influences personal resources in the short-term, and in turn has immediate effects on leadership behaviors. In addition, because females internalize romantic relationship quality more profoundly than do males (Leslie et al., 2016), I further predict that these indirect effects will be stronger for females than males. In a clustered experimental design, 93 romantic couples were randomly assigned to a relationship maintenance, conflict, or control condition; they then completed self-assessments of personal resources (i.e., positive and negative affect, emotional energy, and cognitive distraction) followed by a leadership speech task. Results were analyzed using the actor-partner interdependence model extended for mediation (Coutts et al., 2019). Relationship maintenance behaviors decreased personal resource loss, resulting in higher transformational leadership and lower abusive supervision. Relationship conflict behaviors increased resource loss, resulting in higher abusive supervision. Importantly, all significant indirect effects were only significant for females. Thus, results from Study 1 suggest that for females, romantic relationships indeed affect leadership through short-term spillover.



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### Study 2

The purpose of Study 2 is to examine how personal romantic relationships in adolescence indirectly affect one's likelihood of occupying a leadership role in adulthood. Drawing on lessons from a lifespan approach to leadership (Liu et al., 2020; Murphy & Johnson, 2011), and the W-HR Model (ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012), I hypothesize that adolescents' experiences of dating violence (psychological aggression and physical violence) will act as a distal contextual demand that chronically depletes personal mental health resources resulting in depressive symptoms. In turn, depressive symptoms will decrease the likelihood of occupying a leadership role in adulthood. I further hypothesize that parent-adolescent relationship quality will be a macro resource that buffers this negative spillover, while gender may magnify the indirect effects for females. Drawing on four waves of data from the Add Health Survey in Study 1 ( $n = 3277$ ), results show that for females, depressive symptoms mediate the relationship between experienced psychological aggression and leader role occupancy, independent of the effects of experiencing physical violence. In addition, across genders, experiencing physical violence independently increases depressive symptoms, resulting in lower leader role occupancy. Parent-adolescent relationship quality did not buffer this spillover. Taken together, results from Study 2 suggest distal and chronic romantic relationship demands deplete more structural personal resources, which has long term-consequences for leader emergence.

### Study 3

The purpose of Study 3 is to expand upon the extent to which romantic relationships can indirectly affect leader emergence, by considering how vicarious relationship behaviors indirectly affect observers' opportunity to occupy a leadership role. Again drawing on the lifespan approach to leadership (Liu et al., 2020; Murphy & Johnson, 2011), and the W-HR

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Model (ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012), I consider the role of parents in children's leader emergence by examining how witnessing interparental violence during adolescence indirectly affects leader role occupancy. I specifically hypothesize that witnessing parents engage in physical violence serves as a distal and chronic contextual demand that harms individuals' later ability to occupy a leadership role through its depleting effects on constructive personal resources, operationalized as insecure attachment styles. Based on role congruity theory, I also predict that the relationship between attachment style and leader role occupancy will be stronger for females than males. Using data from the National Comorbidity Survey – Replication ( $n = 1701$ ), the indirect effects of witnessing interparental violence on leader emergence through anxious and avoidance was significant, but only for females. Thus, results from Study 3 once again illustrate how females' experience of chronic contextual demands during their adolescence can have long-term depleting consequences on personal resources that persist into the workplace. Importantly, the consequences of romantic relationships on leadership are not isolated to personal relationship experiences, but extend to vicarious experiences of parents' relationship quality.

### **1.2 Conclusion**

To summarize, the purpose of this dissertation is to examine how romantic relationship behaviors influence leadership through multiple avenues. I draw on ten Brummelhuis and Bakker's W-HR model as a comprehensive theoretical framework to guide these three theoretical models and I further theorize about how spillover may differ between males and females. I test these models using diverse methods (e.g., experimental design, longitudinal survey) and I present the results of three studies. Ultimately, results show support for my theorized models illustrating the ways in which personal relationships outside of work affect leadership outcomes at work. I

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believe this research challenges the widely-held belief amongst management that leaders' behaviors are uninfluenced by their social and personal contexts (Barling & Cloutier, 2017). As such, this dissertation contributes to: (1) leadership theory by extending our understanding of antecedents of leader role occupancy and leader behaviors, (2) the work-home literature by applying principles of spillover from home-to-work to the understudied context of leadership, and (3) gender at work by considering the differential experiences of spillover for males and females.

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**Chapter 2 -**

**Study 1: Romantic Relationships Affect Leadership Quality: An Experiment**

**Abstract<sup>1</sup>**

Leadership behaviors have pervasive effects throughout the organization, and understanding why some leaders behave well, and others badly, is of considerable importance. This study examines whether and how the quality of romantic relationship behaviors affect the quality of leadership behaviors. Drawing on ten Brummelhuis and Bakker's (2012) work-home resources model, I hypothesize that romantic relationships can either serve as a contextual resource or a contextual demand that influence personal resources and in turn, leadership behaviors. I also predict that these indirect effects will be stronger for females than males. Using an experimental design, 93 romantic couples were randomly assigned to a relationship maintenance, conflict, or control condition; they then completed self-assessments of personal resources, followed by a leadership speech task. Results were analyzed using the actor-partner interdependence model extended for mediation. Females in the maintenance conditions experienced less personal resource loss, resulting in higher transformational leadership and lower abusive supervision and females in the conflict condition experienced more resource loss, resulting in higher abusive supervision. These indirect effects were not significant for males and gaining personal resources did not mediate the effects of maintenance on leadership. Together, these findings extend our understanding of [a] how romantic relationships affect high and poor quality leadership, [b] the differential effects of personal resource loss versus gain, and [c] the moderating role of gender in the effects of romantic relationships on leadership quality.

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<sup>1</sup> Note, a version of this chapter has been submitted to the Journal of Applied Psychology and is currently being revised for resubmission.

## 2.1 Introduction

The behaviors of leaders, whether good or bad, have received public and research attention for decades (Barling, 2014). This attention is certainly justified. Decades of research show that constructive leadership benefits individuals (e.g., Kelloway et al., 2013), teams (e.g., Eisenbeiss et al., 2008), and the organization (e.g., García-Morales et al., 2012), while destructive leadership behavior harms those same targets (e.g., Larcker & Tayan, 2016; Lin et al., 2013; Skogstad et al., 2007). Although most research has used a person-centered approach to understand why leaders behave the way that they do, focusing on personality (Bono & Judge, 2004) or sleep quality (Barnes et al., 2016) as just two examples, this study considers how non-work social context can shape leadership behaviors. Specifically, I consider how one important relationship in people's lives – their romantic relationships – affect leadership behaviors.

Using the Work-Home Resource Model (W-HR Model; ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012) which incorporates principles of spillover (Zedeck, 1992) and conservation of resources (Hobfoll, 2002) theories, I predict that positive and negative relationship behaviors will indirectly affect leadership behaviors through the loss or gain of personal resources. Specifically, I expect that experiencing positive romantic relationship behaviors (i.e., maintenance behaviors) will both impede resource loss and generate resource gain, resulting in higher quality leadership behaviors (e.g., transformational leadership). In contrast, I anticipate that experiencing negative romantic relationship behaviors (i.e., inter-partner conflict) will increase resource loss, resulting in negative leadership behaviors (e.g., abusive supervision). I also expect that gender will moderate these indirect effects, such that personal resources will be more affected by relationship experiences for females than for males, as females tend to internalize their relationship experiences more so than do males (Kerig, 1996; Offer, 2014). This study thus provides a test of



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the W-HR Model (ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012) by simultaneously testing the indirect effects of contextual resources and contextual demands on leadership behaviors, and I extend this model by considering the moderating effects of gender. To establish causal validity, I test this theorized model using a clustered-randomized experiment.

### **Romantic Relationships and Work**

Research has long established the permeability of work and home roles (e.g., Barling, 1990), and from this research, we have developed a broad understanding that managing both roles can result in conflict and various challenges (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985), but that holding both roles can also produce unique and enriching experiences that benefit or enhance respective roles (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). The current research differs in several fundamental ways from prior research. First, most prior research considers how work experiences affect peoples' home lives (Allen et al., 2000; Colichi et al., 2017); I investigate how experiences at home affect work, and specifically leadership behaviors. Second, while research mainly considers how work and home roles conflict with one another, this research considers how romantic relationships can both conflict with and enrich leadership behaviors. Third, the 'home' or 'family' domain is often broadly conceptualized to capture all non-work experiences, and similarly, the 'work' domain often captures broad conceptualization of work engagement, which collectively may limit our understanding of how specific relationships at home affect specific behaviors at work. Last, while some research has considered how family-supportive leadership antecedes employees' workplace experiences (e.g., Hammer et al., 2011) and romantic relationship quality (Greenhaus et al., 2012), limited research has focused on how non-work life affects leadership behaviors.

I focus on testing the specific effects of romantic relationship quality on leadership behaviors for three reasons. First, I respond to calls for a greater understanding of how

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contextual factors outside peoples' organizations affect leadership quality (Zaccaro et al., 2018), and some theorize that romantic relationships may be particularly relevant to leadership behaviors (Liu et al., 2020). Second, I suggest that leadership behaviors are uniquely affected by the quality of romantic relationships, given the relational basis of both these roles (Pearce et al., 2007). Third, romantic relationships are unique and central to peoples' lives, satisfying the need for belongingness (Baumeister & Leary, 1995), and occupying much of an individual's personal life outside of work, and thus experiences with one's romantic partner may consistently and constantly affects leadership behaviors at work.

Understanding the nature of romantic relationships is important if we are to appreciate why they might affect leadership. Romantic relationships are defined as "mutually acknowledged close connections between people" (Connolly & McIsaac, p. 181) that involve passion, intimacy, and commitment (Sternberg, 1986). Romantic relationships differ from other personal relationships as with increasing interaction, partners change their respective self-concepts to include the other (Rusbult et al., 2009), resulting in a new shared or 'couple identity' (Felmlee & Sprecher, 2000). Anything that happens to this shared identity is thus internalized, thereby affecting cognitions and behaviors in temporally close yet separate domains, such as work (Eby et al., 2005). In addition, interdependence with significant others can satisfy the need for belongingness (Baumeister & Leary, 1995) suggesting one's romantic relationship may affect psychological processes and subsequent work experiences to a greater extent than other personal relationships.

Although research typically examines how romantic relationship status (i.e., whether or not someone is in a romantic relationship) predicts other outcomes such as longevity (e.g., Kaplan & Kronick, 2006) and work performance (Selmer & Luring, 2011), it is the quality of

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the relationship that matters most (Bookwala & Gaugler, 2020). While low quality relationships can reverse any benefits associated with marital status (Holt-Lunstad et al., 2008), high quality relationships provide greater happiness (Kamp Dush et al., 2008), well-being (Proulx et al., 2007), and longevity (Bookwala & Gaugler, 2020). One factor that influences relationship quality are relationship behaviors (Kerig, 1996; Stafford, 2010), and I examine how two relationship behaviors, namely maintenance (Kerig, 1996; Stafford, 2010) and conflict behaviors (Schaap et al., 1988), affect leadership behaviors. Maintenance behaviors are strategic or routine behaviors that enhance romantic relationships, and include behaviors associated with positivity, understanding, openness, assurances, task-sharing, joint activities, and conflict management (Canary & Stafford, 1994; Stafford & Canary, 1991). Reminding a partner of why they are loved, or doing a partner's chores for them, are examples of assurance and task-sharing maintenance behaviors. In contrast, conflict behaviors include active or passive verbal or non-verbal behaviors that directly or indirectly harm the romantic relationship (Schaap et al., 1988), such as uncivil behaviors (e.g., making demeaning remarks, ignoring partner, engaging in arguments; Lim & Tai, 2014) and psychological aggression (e.g., swearing, threatening, damaging partner belongings; Kerig, 1996).

Just how people experience their romantic relationships is important as it can affect work-related outcomes (ten Brummelhuis & Bakker 2012). For example, engaging in consensual sex with a partner, a maintenance behavior, predicts higher next-day positive affect at work, in turn resulting in greater job satisfaction and engagement (Leavitt et al., 2019). Conversely, conflict behaviors predict anxious and depressive symptomology, resulting in more negative interpersonal experiences at work (Shulman et al., 2014). I suggest that the valence of

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experienced romantic relationship behaviours will specifically affect positive and negative leadership behaviors, and four recent studies begin to identify this spillover at varying degrees.

First, ten Brummelhuis and colleagues (2014) showed that leaders' overall family-to-work conflict predicts feelings of burnout, and decreases supportive leadership behaviors; at the same time, leaders' family-to-work enrichment predicts leaders' engagement with followers. Second, leaders' daily ego depletion mediates the effects of family-to-work conflict on abusive supervision in longitudinal and daily diary studies (Courtright et al., 2016). Third, married leaders who identify more strongly with their familial roles of spouse and parent have greater access to resources, resulting in higher transformational leadership compared to their unmarried counterparts (Dumas & Stanko, 2017). Fourth, leaders' depressive symptomatology mediates the effects of romantic relationship quality on abusive supervision (Dionisi & Barling, 2019).

Although instructive, several factors within these four studies limit the lessons that can be drawn on the intersection of romantic relationships and leadership, which I address in the current study. First, these studies predominantly consider either positive or negative spillover, largely ignoring the possibility that romantic relationships can foster both positive and negative leadership outcomes. Second, with one exception (Dionisi & Barling, 2019), these studies operationalize 'family' broadly, rather than considering the unique effects of romantic relationship quality, and so we are limited in knowing whether or not it is indeed the quality of romantic relationships that is affecting leadership outcomes. Third, none of these studies establish the causal relationship between romantic relationship quality and leadership behaviors.

### **2.2 A Resource and Demand Perspective**

To understand how romantic relationship behaviors affect leadership behaviors, I draw on the Work-Home Resources Model (W-HR model, ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012), a

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theoretical framework that explains the processes linking work and family roles. Integrating lessons from the work-family conflict (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985) and work-family enrichment (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006) literatures, ten Brummelhuis and Bakker (2012) adapted Hobfoll's (1989, 2002) conservation of resources (COR) theory to the work-home interface and suggested that the guiding principles of COR theory can explain how and when work and home roles can be mutually enriching versus conflicting.

COR theory (Hobfoll, 1999) was originally developed to describe how people react to stressors and how stressors influence well-being. One of COR theory's major contributions to the literature was the proposition that individuals (and groups) strive to obtain, retain, foster, and protect resources that are of value to them. In contrast to the strength or resource-depletion model (Baumeister et al., 1998; Muraven et al., 1998), which conceptualizes resources as a finite physiological energy reserve, COR theory defines resources as valuable objects (e.g., a house), personal characteristics (e.g., conscientiousness), conditions (e.g., marital status), or energies (e.g., time) all of which can be depleted and replenished. The first central assumption of COR theory (see Hobfoll, 2002) is that greater access to, and retention of these resources will better equip individuals to face future stressors. However, when facing stressors, people expend resources, and if these resources become threatened, depleted or lost – coping, motivation, and performance are hindered. A second assumption of COR theory is that having resources enhances the likelihood of generating additional resources, which ultimately protects against future stressors. Central to this assumption is the notion of “resource spirals”, i.e., that having resources generates more resources, resulting in an excess of resources to draw upon at a later time of need. Christie and Barling (2010) likened these two principles to the notion that “the rich get richer, and the poor get poorer”.

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ten Brummelhuis and Bakker (2012) adapted and refined these assumptions within the context of the work-family interface. First, ten Brummelhuis and Bakker (2012) suggested that resources should be further distinguished based on their origin, such that resources can be contextual or personal. Contextual resources are located outside of the self and include object and conditional resources (e.g., social support, autonomy, opportunities for personal development). Personal resources are inherent to the self and include personal characteristics and energy resources (e.g., conscientiousness, affect, cognition). Second, ten Brummelhuis and Bakker (2012) propose that the processes that explain resource loss and resource gain apply to the work-home interface. Specifically, the W-HR model posits that contextual demands or stressors in one domain (e.g., conflict with one's partner) can result in personal resource loss (e.g., states such as negative affect, cognitive distraction) thereby limiting optimal functioning in another domain (e.g., work). Although empirically tested less frequently, the W-HR model also posits that contextual resources in one domain (e.g., maintenance with one's partner) can generate a gain of personal resources (e.g., emotional energy) that would facilitate or enhance functioning in another domain<sup>2</sup>.

Applying this framework to the current study, I first conceptualize romantic relationship quality as either a contextual resource characterized by high quality interactions (i.e., maintenance behaviors: behaviors intended to enhance and support the relationship, e.g., doing partner's chores) or a contextual demand characterized by low quality interactions (i.e., inter-partner conflict: behaviors intended to harm one's partner such as engaging in intentional arguments). Second, I conceptualize personal resources as loss states (i.e., cognitive distraction,

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<sup>2</sup> Other adaptations of COR theory to the work-home interface are included in ten Brummelhuis & Bakker's (2012) WH-R model; for example, how work affects family functioning and how resources can be volatile versus structural. I do not discuss these further conceptualizations here.

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negative affect) or gain states (i.e., emotional energy, positive affect), and third, functioning in the work domain as leadership behaviors capturing high quality (i.e., transformational leadership) and low quality (i.e., abusive supervision) leadership behaviors. Transformational leadership reflects four leadership behaviors, namely idealized influence (i.e., the demonstration of high moral and ethical standards), inspirational motivation (i.e., developing collectively shared goals, values and ideals in followers), intellectual stimulation (i.e., encouraging followers' divergent thinking and creativity), and individualized consideration (i.e., identifying, recognizing, and addressing followers' unique needs) (Bass, 1985; Bass & Riggio, 2006). Abusive supervision is reflected in hostile verbal and nonverbal behaviors (but not physical contact) directed against followers (Tepper, 2000), and includes behaviors such as ridiculing, blaming, and insulting employees. The conceptual model appears in Figure 2.1.

--insert Figure 2.1 about here--

### **Romantic Relationship Quality affects Leadership Behaviors through Resource Loss**

My first assumption is that romantic relationship quality will affect leadership via its effect on personal resource loss. Like others, I conceptualize personal resource loss as two depleted states, namely cognitive distraction (i.e., the inability to concentrate and direct attention; Brotheridge & Lee, 2002; Hobfoll & Shirom, 2000) and negative affect (i.e., low/high arousal displeasure; Drobles et al., 1994; Thompson et al., 2019).

**The effects of maintenance behaviors on resource loss.** I first suggest that experiencing maintenance behaviors, a contextual resource, will limit or prevent personal resource loss (ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). Some evidence shows that experiencing maintenance behaviors from a romantic partner does reduce the psychologically depleting effects of other contextual demands, such as economic instability (Dew & Jackson, 2018). The presence of maintenance

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behaviors may also directly lower cognitive depletion. Indeed, positive experiences with one's partner serve a protective function against psychological resource loss (Dew & Wilcox, 2013) and help preserve cognitive resources. As a result, romantic partners who feel secure in their relationship need to direct fewer cognitive resources towards concerns related to their relationship, reserving such cognitive resources for other targets, such as work.

Retaining cognitive resources may be particularly useful in facilitating high quality leadership behaviors, given the cognitive complexity inherent in the enactment of high quality leadership. For example, access to cognitive resources enables leaders to recognize and respond to followers' collective and individual needs, and to engage in cognitively challenging exchanges with followers – core behaviors within transformational leadership (Mumford et al., 2015). Taken together, experiencing positive romantic relationship quality will ensure that leaders have sufficient cognitive resources to enact high quality leadership. Thus:

H1. Cognitive distraction will mediate the relationship between maintenance behaviors and transformational leadership.

Maintenance behaviors may also limit the development of negative affect. For example, maintenance behaviors have been linked to lower distress (Badr & Taylor, 2008) and lower depressive moods (Baker et al., 2013). Experiencing maintenance behaviors should similarly reduce negative affect, which in turn would increase positive and decrease negative leadership behaviors. First, lower negative affect will enable leaders to engage in more transformational leadership behaviors, because negative affective displays are inconsistent with the positive affect required in the enactment of aspects of transformational leadership such as individualized consideration or inspirational motivation (Jin et al., 2015). Supporting this, symptoms related to negative affect (i.e., depressive and anxious symptomology) are negatively associated with



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transformational leadership (Byrne et al., 2014). Thus, leaders' lower negative affect may enable them to engage in the positive emotional displays inherent in transformational leadership behaviors.

Second, I expect that lower negative affect will decrease abusive supervision. Negative affect is a reliable predictor of antisocial impulses in general (DeWall et al., 2007), and a consistent predictor of abusive supervision (Zhang & Bednall, 2016). When negative affect is low, there are fewer antisocial impulses to control or regulate (DeWall et al., 2007; Kiewitz et al., 2012), reducing the likelihood of engaging in abusive supervision when in a leadership position. Thus:

H2. Negative affect will mediate the relationship between maintenance behaviors and transformational leadership (H2a) and abusive supervision (H2b).

**The effect of conflict behaviors on resource loss.** Romantic couples disagree, argue, and experience conflict in different ways as they navigate the complexities of shared lives with individual goals. As predicted by the W-HR model (ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012) doing so is stressful, and emotionally and cognitively taxing (Beach et al., 1994). Experiencing conflict behaviors perpetrated by one's partner limits the degree to which a romantic relationship is a resource, but rather, experiences in the relationship become a contextual demand that can result in states of personal resource loss. In turn, personal resource loss will limit leaders' ability to engage in positive leadership behaviors and increase their likelihood of engaging in negative leadership behaviors.

Experiencing relationship conflict leaves people reflecting or ruminating about the conflictual issues (Du et al., 2016). As such, leaders may be physically present at work, but cognitively preoccupied with thoughts about the conflict with their partner at home. Empirical

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evidence supports this claim: experiencing family demands (Dionisi & Barling, 2019; Du et al., 2016) and intimate partner aggression (LeBlanc et al., 2014) both result in cognitive distraction.

As a result, experiencing relationship conflict may leave leaders with fewer personal cognitive resources than that required for the complex demands of their leadership role and responsibilities (Rothbard, 2001). Exacerbating the loss of cognitive resources, cognitive attention during stressful periods is likely to become self- rather than other-focused (Rothbard, 2001; Wood et al., 1990). This is important, as cognitive distraction has been linked to withdrawal behaviors and performance impairment (Barling & Boswell, 1995; LeBlanc et al., 2014). Behaviors characteristic of transformational leadership, such as intellectual stimulation, draw upon cognitive resources for successful enactment. As such:

H3. Cognitive distraction will mediate the relationship between conflict behaviors and transformational leadership.

Experiencing relationship conflict can also result in negative affect because relationship conflict is both emotionally stressful and draining, especially given the interdependence in partners' identities (Felmee & Sprecher, 2000). As a result, relationship conflict is negatively associated with mental and physical well-being (Fincham, 2003) which can induce negative affect.

In turn, I posit that negative affect will predict lower transformational and higher abusive supervision for several reasons. First, the positive emotions associated with the display of transformational leadership would be challenging for leaders experiencing heightened negative affect, and leaders who experience greater negative emotions (e.g., depressive or anxious symptomatology) engage in less transformational leadership (Byrne et al., 2014). Similarly,

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negative affective displays are considered inconsistent with positive evaluations of transformational leadership (Jin et al., 2015) and atypical of ideal leaders (Trichas et al., 2017).

Second, temporally discrete events that induce negative affective states deplete self-regulatory resources which have been linked to abusive supervision behaviors (Tepper et al., 2017). Moreover, low and high arousal negative affect (e.g., depressive and anxious symptoms; Byrne et al., 2014; Dionisi & Barling, 2019; Yam et al., 2016) predict abusive supervision, a finding supported by meta-analytic evidence (Zhang & Bednall, 2016). Even if leaders do try to repress negative affect, managing such emotions is resource depleting, suggesting that over time, self-control will be further compromised (Muraven et al., 1998), increasing the likelihood of engaging in abusive behaviors. Thus, I predict that romantic relationship conflict will increase negative affect and in turn affect leadership quality:

H4. Negative affect will mediate the relationship between conflict behaviors and transformational leadership (H4a) and abusive supervision (H4b).

### **Romantic Relationship Quality affects Leadership Behaviors through Resource Gain**

Relational maintenance behaviors can do more than limit personal resource loss<sup>3</sup>. Building on the second principle of the W-HR model (ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012), I expect that maintenance behaviors will serve as a surplus of contextual resources that can in turn generate a surplus of personal resources that can be used towards positive leadership behaviors. Consistent with prior research (Ouyang et al., 2019; Owens et al., 2016; Thompson et al., 2019), I conceptualize personal resource gain as emotional energy (i.e., the ability to invest emotionally in others) and positive affect (high/low arousal pleasure).

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<sup>3</sup> I do not make any hypotheses linking cognitive distraction to abusive supervision, as I do not predict that the psychological experience of cognitive overload will result in active hostile behaviors characteristics of abusive behaviors. Further, I do not develop any hypotheses relating conflict behaviors to resource gain, as I predict that experiencing low relationship quality will have no relation to the development of additional personal resources.

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I first suggest that experiencing maintenance behaviors by a romantic partner will generate a surplus of emotional energy, and empirical research supports this. Receiving social support from important others at work predicts emotional energy while at work (Armon et al., 2012), and experiencing romantic relationship maintenance behaviors increases the desire to emotionally ‘give back’ to others (Kamp Dush et al., 2008). In other words, experiencing or receiving positive relationship interactions by a relational other generates additional emotional energy that can be directed to and transferred to other relationships.

Although traditionally emotional energy is reciprocated and reinvested into the relationship in which this emotional energy was received (Blau, 1964), emotional energy can also be transferred to other social relationships (Baker, 2019). I predict that individuals who have a surplus of emotional energy will be in a position to direct this emotional energy towards their followers because of the relational nature of the leadership role (Pearce et al., 2007), which will effectively be experienced as transformational leadership by followers. Indeed, leaders who show empathy, emotional involvement, and concern for their followers, behavioral outcomes of emotional energy, would be demonstrating behaviors that are the essence of individualized consideration specifically and transformational leadership more broadly (Popper et al., 2000). Thus, I predict that:

H5. Emotional energy will mediate the relationship between maintenance behaviors and transformational leadership.

Receiving maintenance behaviors can also enhance positive affect. Indeed, partners who receive maintenance behaviors feel happier and more satisfied in their relationship (Ogolsky & Bowers, 2013), and these effects spillover into the workplace. For example, positive mood mediated the effects of sex with a romantic partner at home on job satisfaction and work

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engagement (e.g., Leavitt et al., 2019). One possible reason for this is that positive relationship experiences satisfy the need for belongingness, inducing positive affect. Drawing on these findings, I predict that positive affect will increase the enactment of transformational leadership behaviors, and limit instances of abusive supervision.

First, leaders higher on positive affect will display the positive emotions characteristic of transformational leadership (Jin et al., 2015; Trichas et al., 2017) and leaders' positive affectivity and displays of agreeableness predict subordinates' ratings of their transformational leadership behaviors (Rubin et al., 2005), suggesting that positive emotions translate into positive leadership behaviors. This link can be situated within Fredrickson's (1998; 2001) broaden-and-build hypothesis which posits that positive emotions generally expand people's momentary thoughts and cognitions, resulting in additional enduring personal resources that can be invested elsewhere. For example, experiencing positive emotions such as joy (Ellsworth & Smith, 1988) or love (Izard, 1977) have been linked to seeking new information and experiences, and investing these thoughts into relational behaviors. Those who experience positive emotions may therefore think of novel and creative ways in which to intellectually stimulate their followers, and attend to followers' unique and individual needs, resulting in increased transformational leadership behaviors.

Second, positive affect should be negatively associated with abusive leadership behaviors. Given the critical role of self-regulatory failure in abusive supervision (e.g., Kiewitz et al., 2012), experiencing high positive affect would give leaders access to the personal emotional resources that enable them to suppress negative impulses in the face of workplace challenges (e.g., poor subordinate performance) that could otherwise provoke abusive supervision (Tepper et al., 2011; Walter et al., 2015; Yam et al., 2016). Thus:

H6. Positive affect will mediate the relationship between maintenance behaviors and transformational leadership behaviors (H6a) and abusive supervision (H6b).

### **The Moderating Role of Gender**

Finally, I propose that gender will moderate the indirect effects of romantic relationship experiences on personal resources, and in doing so, I extend the W-HR model. This is an important extension, as ten Brummelhuis and Bakker (2012) called for the exploration of boundary conditions to their model, and gender is a meaningful variable to both romantic relationships and leadership behaviors. Specifically, I predict that the indirect relationships proposed above will be stronger for females than males. I base this prediction on the premise that females experience their relationships more profoundly, and internalize both negative and positive relationship experiences more than do males, perhaps due to the gendered expectations that females should be primary caregivers (Leslie et al., 2016) and thus relationship quality is more central to their identities.

Empirical evidence supports this. First, females' romantic relationship quality is more likely to affect their overall relationship evaluations (Kerig, 1996), and their health (Offer, 2014) than it does for males. Second, family-to-work conflict is more stressful for females than males; indeed, females are more likely to use sleep medication to cope with the stress of family-to-work conflict than males (Lallukka et al., 2013). Third, family issues result in greater emotional stress and cognitive distraction for women while on the job, whereas males are affected more by job stress, and report greater work-to-family spillover (Offer, 2014). At the same time, high quality romantic relationships benefit females more than males. As one example, the effects of romantic relationship quality on partners' engagement in relationship maintenance behaviors was stronger for females than males (Stafford, 2010). In addition, females who enjoy more support and

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positive relationship events at home are more likely to provide emotional support to colleagues at work (ten Brummelhuis & Greenhaus, 2018). Of more relevance to the current study, the benefits of marital status and family role identification on resource transfer was stronger for female than male leaders (Dumas & Stanko, 2017). Thus, females experience both the advantages and disadvantages of romantic relationship quality and work-family issues more strongly than do males. As a result, I predict that the effects of maintenance and conflict behaviors on leadership behaviors via personal resource states will be stronger for females than for males:

H7a. The indirect effect of maintenance behaviors on leadership behaviors through personal resource loss will be stronger for females than for males.

H7b. The indirect effect of conflict behaviors on leadership behaviors through personal resource loss will be stronger for females than for males.

H7c. The indirect effect of maintenance behaviors on leadership behaviors through personal resource gain will be stronger for females than for males.

### **Current Study**

Drawing from the W-HR model, the goal of my research is to examine the indirect effects of romantic relationship behaviors on leadership behaviors using a methodological design that enables causal inferences. Past research suggests that romantic relationship quality can be manipulated experimentally (Ben-Naim et al., 2013; Kammrath & Peetz, 2011) and that couples who participate in such experiments report that their interactions in the lab are accurate representations of their real-world interactions (Fincham, 2003). Thus, in an experimental laboratory study, I manipulate relationship quality by randomly assigning couples to engage in either maintenance, conflict, or neutral relational behaviors. Thereafter, I test (a) the effects of

relationship behaviors on personal resource loss and resource gain, and (b) whether these personal resource states affect leadership behaviors in a speech task developed for this study. Before introducing the experiment, I describe three pilot studies conducted to validate the manipulations and outcome measure used in the experiment.

### **2.3 Pilot Study 1: Testing the Manipulation of Romantic Relationship Quality**

The purpose of this pilot study was to test the effectiveness of the experimental manipulations (adapted from Ben-Naim et al., 2013; Kammrath & Peetz, 2011). Nineteen heterosexual couples ( $M$  age = 19.58 years,  $SD$  = 1.00;  $M$  relationship length = 15.63 months,  $SD$  = 14.54) participated in a one-hour laboratory study. Using clustered randomization, couples were randomly assigned to either a relational maintenance ( $n$  = 6), conflict ( $n$  = 7), or control ( $n$  = 6) condition. Couples in the maintenance condition were asked to write something they love about their partner, plan a date, and consider a chore they could do for their partner. Couples in the conflict condition were asked to write about a recent disagreement they had with their partner. Couples in the control condition were asked to read a short article unrelated to the purpose of the study, and to write a summary of the article's main points. Participants had five minutes to complete the writing task; they then had five minutes to read and explain what they had written to their partner. Partners were then separated into different rooms where they completed a manipulation check, and the remainder of the study protocol (i.e., self-reported resource measures, behavioral leadership speech task). See Appendix A for full manipulation instructions.

To test the effectiveness of the manipulation, participants rated the positivity of their interaction on three items (i.e., “how [good; loved; supported] did your partner make you feel during this task?”;  $r$  = .90), using a 0 (very low) to 10 (very high) scale. To verify the



effectiveness of the manipulation, I conducted a series of pre-planned contrasts comparing the effects of condition on the positivity of the interaction. Participants in the maintenance condition ( $M = 9.02$ ,  $SD = 1.92$ ) reported significantly higher positivity than those in the conflict ( $M = 5.09$ ,  $SD = 2.74$ ),  $t(31) = 3.67$ ,  $p = .001$ , Hedges'  $g = 1.56$ , and control conditions ( $M = 6.73$ ,  $SD = 2.29$ ),  $t(31) = 2.20$ ,  $p = .037$ , Hedges'  $g = 1.03$ . There were no differences in positivity between the conflict and control conditions,  $t(31) = -1.54$ ,  $p = .137$ , Hedges'  $g = 0.62$ .

This pattern of results show support for the positive effects induced by the maintenance condition, however, the manipulation did not adequately assess perceptions of negative relationship quality, limiting the utility of the manipulation check.

### **2.4 Pilot Study 2: Expanding the Manipulation Check**

As a result, I expanded the manipulation checks in Pilot Study 2, in which 36 heterosexual couples participated. Four couples did not follow instructions and were excluded from analyses ( $M$  age of the 32 couples = 19.56 years,  $SD = 1.40$ ;  $M$  relationship length = 15.22 months,  $SD = 10.22$ ). The procedure for Pilot Study 2 was identical to that of Pilot Study 1, but changes were made to strengthen the manipulation. First, all partners were separated from each other during the manipulation to ensure instructions were being followed. Second, in addition to the same instructions in Pilot 1, couples in the maintenance condition ( $n = 10$ ) also received cards, stickers and colored pens to heighten the emotional intensity of the written material given to their partner. Third, to ensure a fairer comparison between conditions, couples in the conflict condition ( $n = 11$ ) were asked to write about a recent conflict they had with their partner, something they dislike about their partner, and a topic of disagreement between themselves and their partner, resulting in the same number of 'tasks' as those in the maintenance condition. The control condition ( $n = 11$ ) was unchanged. Fourth, all participants were given seven minutes to

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complete this task, and once completed, the researcher exchanged the cards between the members of the couple. Participants then read the card their partner had written, and when finished, proceeded with the remainder of the study. Fifth, items for the manipulation check were rated on a 0 - 100 scale, and negatively valenced items were added. See Appendix B for revised manipulation instructions.

To test the effectiveness of the manipulation, participants rated the same items used to assess the positivity of the interaction (i.e., felt good, loved, supported;  $r = .93$ ) as in Pilot Study 1, rated on a 0 (not at all) to 100 (very much) slider scale. In addition, participants rated how negative their interaction was on two items (i.e., “how [much conflict; negative] did your partner make you feel during this task?”; inter-item  $r = .79$ ) using the same scale.

To verify the effectiveness of the revised manipulation, I conducted a series of pre-planned contrasts. Participants in the maintenance condition ( $M = 90.73$ ,  $SD = 8.49$ ) reported significantly more positive interactions than participants in the conflict ( $M = 55.29$ ,  $SD = 19.13$ ),  $t(63) = 6.12$ ,  $p < .001$ , Hedges'  $g = 2.31$  and control conditions ( $M = 58.23$ ,  $SD = 24.28$ ),  $t(63) = 5.61$ ,  $p < .001$ , Hedges'  $g = 1.72$ . There were no differences in positivity ratings between the conflict and control condition,  $t(63) = -.52$ ,  $p = .61$ , Hedges'  $g = .13$ .

In addition, participants in the conflict condition ( $M = 52.93$ ,  $SD = 22.42$ ) reported significantly more negative interactions than participants in the maintenance ( $M = 5.56$ ,  $SD = 10.47$ ),  $t(63) = 7.18$ ,  $p < .001$ , Hedges'  $g = 2.62$  and control conditions ( $M = 19.13$ ,  $SD = 25.27$ ),  $t(63) = 5.27$ ,  $p < .001$ , Hedges'  $g = 1.39$ . There were no differences in negativity ratings between the maintenance and control condition  $t(63) = -2.01$ ,  $p = .06$ , Hedges'  $g = .68$ .

Taken together, the results from these two pilot studies strongly support the validity of the three manipulations. In addition, the primes were equally effective in inducing positive

versus negative relationship experiences (as demonstrated in the similar effect sizes), allowing for a fair comparison across conditions (Cooper & Richardson, 1986).

### **2.5 Pilot Study 3: Validating the Leadership Speech Writing Task**

In order to measure leadership in an experimental lab setting, I adapted a leadership task in which participants were asked to write a leadership speech (Barnes et al., 2016). The purpose of Pilot Study 3 was thus to validate this task. Specifically, this task required participants to read a scenario in which they assumed a leadership position of a team of 10 people who were directly responsible for a workplace accident that resulted in the serious injury of one team member. Participants had 10 minutes to compose a speech that they would use in opening a meeting about the incident with their team. This scenario was selected as it would enable both positive and negative leadership behaviors to emerge. Although other field and experimental studies have assessed leadership through speeches (e.g., Antonakis et al., 2015; Barnes et al., 2016; Latu et al., 2013; Mio et al., 2005), it was important in this study to ensure that the speech prompt provided an opportunity for the emergence of both positive and/or negative leadership behaviors, and that these behaviors could be detected by raters blind to the nature of the study.

I collected all 38 speeches generated during Pilot Study 1. I and a second researcher first independently read all 38 speeches, determining there was indeed a range of leadership quality in the speeches. We then categorized speeches as either positive, negative, or mixed displays of leadership quality, and selected a subsample of 15 speeches that we believed represented the most positive, negative and mixed displays of leadership. See Appendix C for selected speeches. To verify our observations, these 15 speeches were then rated by 17 expert raters (i.e., graduate students and professors with subject expertise on leadership) on the positivity of the leadership displayed in these speeches, using a scale ranging from 1 (highly negative example of

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leadership) to 11 (highly positive example of leadership). Results from these responses showed that the raters detected the full range (min = 1, max = 11) of both positive and negative leadership behaviors. Using within-subjects contrasts, positive leadership speeches ( $M = 7.39$ ,  $SD = .99$ ) received significantly higher positivity ratings than mixed leadership speeches ( $M = 5.19$ ,  $SD = 1.15$ ),  $F(1, 16) = 52.34$ ,  $p < .001$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .77$ , and negative leadership speeches ( $M = 2.91$ ,  $SD = 1.01$ ),  $F(1, 16) = 342.27$ ,  $p < .001$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .96$ . Likewise, negative leadership speeches were rated as significantly less positive than mixed leadership speeches,  $F(1, 16) = 95.82$ ,  $p < .001$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .86$ , suggesting that participants' speeches indeed ranged in leadership quality as determined by two sets of subject experts.

Finally, to ensure that leadership quality could be evaluated by non-experts, the nine most prototypically positive, negative, and mixed leadership speeches identified in the prior stage (i.e., three most positive, negative, and mixed speeches as evaluated by the experts) were rated by 231 undergraduate students whom were not familiar with the study hypotheses. Students were asked to assume the role of a follower hearing each speech and this time, rather than rate general positivity and negativity of the speeches, students rated the extent of transformational (Podsakoff et al., 1990) and abusive (Tepper, 2000) leadership in each of the nine speeches. Speeches were randomly presented to participants. See Appendix C for selected speeches, which are italicized.

Within-subjects a priori pairwise contrasts showed that positive speeches ( $M = 5.40$ ,  $SD = .79$ ) received higher transformational leadership ratings than negative ( $M = 2.47$ ,  $SD = .90$ ),  $F(1, 230) = 1038.65$ ,  $p < .001$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .83$ , and mixed speeches ( $M = 4.16$ ,  $SD = 1.00$ ),  $F(1, 230) = 294.01$ ,  $p < .001$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .56$ , and mixed speeches were rated as more transformational than negative speeches,  $F(1, 230) = 549.01$ ,  $p < .001$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .71$ . In addition, negative speeches ( $M = 4.80$ ,  $SD = 1.05$ ) were rated as higher on abusive supervision than positive ( $M =$

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2.01,  $SD = 1.07$ ),  $F(1, 230) = 697.18$ ,  $p < .001$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .75$ , and mixed ( $M = 2.48$ ,  $SD = 1.07$ )  $F(1, 230) = 593.79$ ,  $p < .001$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .72$ , and mixed speeches were rated as more abusive than positive speeches,  $F(1, 230) = 68.07$ ,  $p < .001$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .23$ .

These results validate the Leadership Speech Writing Task by demonstrating its ability to generate varying leadership quality behaviors that can be detected by both experts and non-experts, in turn justifying its use as a method for assessing transformational leadership and abusive supervision. I therefore proceeded with the full study.

### 2.6 Method

#### Participants

Ninety-six undergraduate couples ( $M$  age = 19.34 years,  $SD = 1.49$ ;  $M$  relationship length = 16.10 months,  $SD = 8.19$ ) from a medium-sized Canadian university were recruited to participate in an on-campus laboratory experiment. All but three couples were heterosexual (one male-male, two female-female). Eligibility criteria included being in a committed romantic relationship for a minimum of 12 months to attenuate the possibility of honeymoon effects (Lorber et al., 2015), one member of the couple was required to be enrolled at the university, and both members of the couple were required to attend the 60-minute lab session. Enrolled students received course credit while non-student participants received a \$10 gift card for participation. On average, couples reported high levels of baseline romantic relationship quality ( $M = 6.11$ ,  $SD = .66$ , rated on a 1 (low) – 7 [high] scale) and high feelings of overlapping identities ( $M = 5.02$ ,  $SD = 1.23$ , rated from 1 [no overlap] to 7 [complete overlap]), suggesting these relationships were established and the partners were committed to each other.

#### Procedure

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Romantic couples were invited to attend a one-hour on-campus laboratory session, with couples tested one at a time. To limit hypothesis guessing and demand characteristics, participants were told that the purpose of the study was to understand how relationships function in a workplace. Partners were separated and completed questionnaires assessing demographic information, relationship quality, and individual difference variables using an online survey.

Using clustered randomization, couples were assigned to one of three conditions: maintenance ( $n = 31$ ), conflict ( $n = 34$ ), or control ( $n = 31$ ). The instructions for the maintenance and control conditions were derived from similar approaches used in past research to induce positive relationship feelings (e.g., Kammrath & Peetz, 2011) and conflict (e.g., Ben-Naim et al., 2013). Couples in the maintenance condition received the following instructions:

*“Using the materials provided to you, please take the next five minutes to write a card to your partner about the ways you can show your care and support for your partner. This card should include: (1) one thing you love about your partner or your relationship, (2) a plan for a new date (something you have not done together before), and (3) a promise about something you can do for your partner to help make their life easier in the next few weeks (e.g., doing one of their chores). Please write these ideas out with detail.”*

Couples in the conflict condition were instructed to:

*“Using the cards provided to you, please take the next five minutes to think about and write ongoing issues in your relationship. Research suggests conflict in relationships is normal. Take this as an opportunity to reflect and describe some issues you are currently experiencing in your relationship. This should include: (1) something you disagree with your partner about, (2) something your partner does that bothers you, and (3) a recent unresolved fight you’ve had that is still bothering you. From your perspective, please write these issues out with detail.”*

Couples in the control condition<sup>4</sup> read:

*“Using the article provided to you [participants received either an article discussing the emerging gig economy or an article discussing issues associated with presenteeism], please take the next five minutes to read through this article and note the main points this*

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<sup>4</sup> Partners in the control condition were randomly presented with different articles from one another to ensure this task did not indirectly induce feelings of positivity or negativity towards one’s partner. Specifically, if partners read the same article, and came to similar conclusions about that article, this could induce positive feelings of synchronicity; while arriving at different conclusions may be experienced as conflict.

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*paper is making. This should include: (1) the issue being discussed, (2) the main arguments, and (3) recommendations made by the author. Please write these ideas out with detail.”*

Participants were given seven minutes to complete the task. I then exchanged couples' cards, and asked members of the couple to carefully read their partners' cards privately and reflect on how the sentiments or ideas expressed by their partner made them feel. After reading their partners' thoughts and feelings, or summaries in the control condition, participants proceeded with the online survey, after which they had 10 minutes to prepare and write the leadership speech task described in Pilot Study 3.

Participants' leadership speeches were later rated by two undergraduate psychology research assistants. Research assistants received six hours of training across two days in which they first learned about transformational leadership and abusive supervision and how to detect these behaviors in speeches. They then practiced rating speeches taken from Pilot Study 1. Once research assistants' ratings were consistent with each other, and two subject experts on how to detect leadership behaviors in speeches, they were given access to all 192 speeches, and rated these speeches independently using an online survey. Research assistants were blind to the study purpose and participant condition.

For ethical reasons, couples who had been exposed to the conflict condition participated in the maintenance task after they had completed the Leadership Speech Writing Task. When both members of the couple had completed the full study, they received a written and oral debriefing that explained the purpose of the study and were compensated for their participation.

### **Questionnaires.**

***Attention checks.*** To ensure participants were paying attention while completing the survey, three attention check items were randomly embedded in scales (e.g., “To show you are

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paying attention, leave this item blank”; DeSimone et al., 2015). No participants had to be eliminated on the basis of the attention checks.

***Manipulation checks.*** To test the effectiveness of the manipulation, participants rated the positivity (three items: “how [good; loved; supported] did your partner make you feel during this task?”) and negativity (two items: (“how [much conflict, negative] did your partner make you feel during this task?”) of the task, on a 0 (not at all) to 100 (very much) scale.

***Baseline romantic relationship quality.*** Participants completed a 6-item shortened version of Fletcher et al.’s (2000) Quality of the Relationship Scale. Participants rated their relationship satisfaction, commitment, intimacy, trust, passion, and love (e.g., “How much do you trust your partner?”) from 1 (not at all) to 7 (extremely). Items were averaged into an overall indicator of relationship quality. Participants also completed Aron et al.’s (1991) one-item Other in Self scale as an indicator of overlapping identities (i.e., couple closeness), in which participants select 1 of 7 images displaying increasingly overlapping circles, ranging from 1 (no overlap) to 7 (complete overlap). There were no differences across conditions on romantic partners’ baseline romantic relationship quality,  $F(2, 189) = 1.05, p = .35$ , or overlapping identities,  $F(2, 189) = 2.50, p = .09$ .

***Cognitive distraction.*** Participants responded to the 4-item cognitive weariness subscale (e.g., “Right now, I am having difficulty concentrating”) taken from Melamed et al.’s (2006) burnout measure, with all items rated on a 1 (not at all) to 7 (very much) scale.

***Emotional energy.*** Participants completed Shirom’s (2004) 4-item emotional energy subscale (e.g., “Right now, I feel I am capable of investing emotionally in others”). Each item is rated on a 1 (not at all) to 7 (very much) scale.



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***Positive and negative affect.*** Participants responded to both the 10-item negative (e.g., “angry”, “sad”) and 10-item positive (e.g., “ecstatic”, “at ease”) affect subscales from van Katwyk et al.’s (2000) Job-Related Affective Well-Being Scale (JAWS); all items are rated on a 1 (not at all) to 5 (extremely) scale. All personal resource state measures asked participants to rate these items to reflect how they feel “right now, in this moment”.

### **Leadership Speech Task**

Research assistants rated each speech using the following two scales.

***Transformational leadership.*** Transformational leadership was rated using a four item shortened version of Podsakoff et al.’s (1990) transformational leadership scale (e.g., “Develops a team attitude and spirit among employees”). One item was used to reflect each of the four dimensions of transformational leadership, with all items rated on a 1 (no display) to 7 (high display) scale. Items were averaged to reflect an overall indicator of transformational leadership.

***Abusive supervision.*** I selected four items from Tepper’s (2000) abusive supervision scale (e.g., “Puts team members down”); each item was rated on a 1 (no display) to 7 (high display) scale.

Inter-rater reliability (ICC[2]) for both of these scales was satisfactory: transformational leadership ( $r = .66$ ; ICC[2] = .63), and abusive supervision ( $r = .76$ ; ICC[2] = .80). As a result, scores from the two raters were combined and averaged to form the measures of transformational leadership and abusive supervision.

See Appendix D for a full list of measures.

## **2.7 Data Analyses**

Given the hypothesized moderated indirect relationships, and the interdependent nature of the dyadic data, I tested the proposed theoretical model using an extension of the Actor-

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Partner Independence Model (APIM) implemented through the MEDYAD PROCESS macro (Coutts et al., 2019), a regression-based computational tool for SPSS that conducts mediation analysis with distinguishable dyadic data. This macro estimates the direct and indirect effects of each partners' predictor variable on their own and their partner's outcome variable through their own and their partner's mediator variable(s), and measures properties of the dyad (e.g., a shared property of the couple such as relationship length). Thus, this model allows for a test of shared, within, and across partner indirect effects of relationship quality on leadership behavior. I treated "condition" (i.e., positive, neutral, negative manipulation) as a shared couple property, and given its multicategorical nature, it was dummy coded with the control condition as the referent group.

I regressed the effects of participants' own leadership behaviors and own personal resources on condition, thereby testing within-partner indirect effects only. I did not theorize and therefore did not test indirect crossover effects between one partner's resources on the other partner's leadership behaviors. Because gender is the distinguishable variable, I omitted the three homosexual couples from the sample.

I began by testing the conditional indirect effect hypotheses (i.e., H7a, H7c, H7b, in which I predict that the indirect spillover of maintenance and conflict to leadership behaviors will be moderated by gender) given its higher order effects (Aguinis et al., 2017). In the absence of a conditional indirect effect, the unconditional indirect effects would be tested (Aguinis et al., 2017). Given restrictions in the analyses of the APIM (i.e., results are separated by gender), I compared the significance of the indirect effects by gender, and I determined significance based on whether the index of mediation had confidence intervals that excluded zero. Across all analyses, I used 10,000 bootstrapped samples.

## 2.8 Results

Descriptive statistics and inter-correlations of all measures are reported in Table 2.1.

-- insert Table 2.1 about here--

### Manipulation check.

To ensure validity of the manipulation, I first compared conditions on the positivity and negativity of the task interactions. For positivity ratings, participants in the maintenance condition ( $M = 88.92$ ,  $SD = 15.48$ ) reported significantly more positive interactions than participants in the conflict ( $M = 56.99$ ,  $SD = 20.05$ ),  $t(189) = 9.14$ ,  $p < .001$ , Hedges'  $g = 1.74$ , and control condition ( $M = 54.66$ ,  $SD = 23.72$ ),  $t(189) = 9.47$ ,  $p < .001$ , Hedges'  $g = 1.68$ . There were no differences in ratings of positive interactions between the conflict and control condition,  $t(189) = .63$ ,  $p = .53$ , Hedges'  $g = .10$ . Likewise, for task negativity ratings, participants in the conflict condition ( $M = 41.76$ ,  $SD = 25.58$ ) reported significantly more negative interactions than those in the maintenance ( $M = 5.08$ ,  $SD = 12.23$ ),  $t(185) = 10.58$ ,  $p < .001$ , Hedges'  $g = 1.75$ , and control condition ( $M = 12.60$ ,  $SD = 17.38$ ),  $t(185) = 8.47$ ,  $p < .001$ , Hedges'  $g = 1.32$ . There were no differences in negative interactions between the maintenance and control condition  $t(185) = -1.89$ ,  $p = .06$ , Hedges'  $g = .44$ . Taken together, these findings support the validity of the experimental manipulation and provide a fair comparison between the maintenance and conflict manipulations.

### Main Analyses

To test the proposed moderated mediational model, I first tested the conditional (i.e., gender) indirect relationships proposed through personal resource loss, and then through personal resource gain, accounting for the interdependence of the data<sup>5</sup>.

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<sup>5</sup> I initially conducted individual-level analyses to explore whether relationship quality affected psychological resources in the theorized directions. As expected, those in the maintenance conditions experienced higher

### **Personal resource loss.**

*Cognitive distraction as a mediator of the effects of high relationship quality.* In contrast to H1, cognitive distraction did not mediate the effect of high relationship quality on transformational leadership for females or males (see Table 2.2).

*Negative affect as a mediator of the effects of high relationship quality.* Negative affect mediated the indirect effect of high relationship quality on transformational leadership for females (indirect effect:  $b = .20$ ; CI: [.03, .42; direct effect:  $b = -.08$ ; CI: [-.76, .60]) but not for males (H2a supported). In addition, negative affect mediated the effect of high relationship quality on abusive supervision for females (indirect effect:  $b = -.15$ ; CI: [-.32, -.01; direct effect:  $b = .21$ ; CI: [-.51, .92]) but not for males (H2b supported). Given significant effects only emerged for females, H7a was supported across these results (see Table 2.3).

*Cognitive distraction as a mediator of the effects of low relationship quality.* The hypothesized indirect effects of low relationship quality on transformational was not significant, therefore I did not support H3, see Table 2.2.

*Negative affect as a mediator of the effects of low relationship quality.* Negative affect did not mediate the effect of low relationship quality on transformational leadership for females or males, showing no support for H4a. However, negative affect did mediate the effect of low relationship quality on abusive supervision for females (indirect effect:  $b = .26$ ; CI: [.01, .61; direct effect:  $b = -.17$ ; CI: [-.90, .57]) but not for males, supporting H4b and H7b (see Table 2.3).

### **Personal resource gain.**

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emotional energy and positive affect than those in the conflict or control conditions. In addition, those in the conflict condition reported lower emotional energy and positive affect than those in the maintenance or control conditions. The results of these analyses can be found in Appendix E.

***Emotional energy as a mediator of the effects of high relationship quality.*** No support emerged for the indirect effects of high relationship quality on transformational leadership via emotional energy for either females or males, rejecting H5 (see Table 2.4).

***Positive affect as a mediator of the effects of high relationship.*** Again, no support emerged for the indirect effects of high relationship quality on transformational leadership or abusive supervision via positive affect for either females or males (see Table 2.5). Thus, no support emerged for any of the hypotheses (H6a, H6b, H7c) regarding resource gain.

### 2.9 Discussion

The goal of this study was to understand how romantic relationship behaviors affect positive and negative leadership behaviors. Drawing on the work-home resources model (W-HR model, ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012), I hypothesized that relationship behaviors would affect leadership behaviors indirectly, through the mediating effects of personal resource loss and gain. Moreover, because romantic relationships affect males and females differently, I extended the W-HR model and posited that the indirect effects would be stronger for females. I tested these assumptions in a clustered randomized experiment.

The results from this study reveal three important findings. First, the findings support the resource loss pathway described in the W-HR Model, suggesting that romantic relationship behaviors can serve as a contextual resource or a demand, affecting whether personal resources are maintained or lost, and in turn, influencing the positivity or negativity of leadership behaviors. Specifically, for females, experiencing maintenance behaviors resulted in lower negative affect, which resulted in higher transformational leadership and lower abusive supervision. Likewise, experiencing conflict behaviors for females led to higher negative affect, which resulted in more abusive supervision.

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Second, consistent support emerged for the moderating role of gender. Where indirect effects were significant, this was only the case for females; none of the indirect effects were significant for males. This suggests that experienced relationship behaviors affect females' personal resources more strongly, which in turn, influences the types of leadership behaviors they engage in. This is consistent with findings showing that females' work behaviors are affected by the quality of experiences at home, while males' behavior at work show no such effect (ten Brummelhuis & Greenhaus, 2018).

Third, in contrast to the role of resource loss, no support emerged for the mediating effects of resource gain. An analysis of the current findings identifies where the resource gain pathway breaks down. Specifically, romantic relationship behaviors did indeed predict personal resource gain, such that maintenance behaviors increased emotional energy and positive affect, and conflict behaviors decreased resource gain. However, additional personal resources were not associated with either transformational leadership or abusive supervision, questioning the role of excess personal resources on leadership behaviors (see Appendix E). In other words, gaining resources did not improve leadership behaviors, but the loss of resources worsened leadership behaviors.

However, it may be premature to abandon the idea that personal resource gain can benefit leadership for several reasons. First, mono-operation bias may have been an issue in the current experiment as I only operationalize two indicators of resource gain, and it remains possible that other indicators of resource gain (e.g., cognitive attention, empathy, social energy) will be more relevant to leadership behaviors. Thus, precision in specifying the types of personal resources that would link romantic relationship behaviors and leadership behaviors is essential. Second, it is possible that the benefits associated with resource gain take longer to emerge than

do the damages of resource loss. Indeed, ten Brummelhuis and Bakker (2012) suggest that temporal lags could be domain-dependent, and longitudinal research is a necessary next step before the potential benefits of resource gain can be rejected.

### **Theoretical Implications**

Several theoretical lessons can be drawn from this research, especially because the experimental design used in this study allows for causal inferences. First, although some studies (e.g., Courtright et al., 2016; Dionisi & Barling, 2019; Dumas & Stanko, 2017; ten Brummelhuis et al. 2014) examined family-to-leadership spillover, this is the first study to focus simultaneously on both positive and negative romantic relationship behaviors, and positive and negative leadership behaviors, and as such, goes beyond the traditional work-family conflict paradigm and provides a more nuanced understanding of how specific personal relationships impact leadership behaviors at work (c.f. ten Brummelhuis et al., 2014).

Second, this research contributes to the work-family literature in general, and the W-HR Model (ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012) in particular. Simultaneously testing the resource loss and gain hypotheses within one study yielded support for the loss but not for the gain pathway. Thus, the findings establish the role of personal resource loss on the subsequent quality of leadership behaviors, while questioning whether a surplus of personal resources is either necessary or beneficial in enacting high quality leadership or resisting bad leadership behaviors. One possibility is that what I am demonstrating is additional support for the “bad is stronger than good” proposition (Baumeister et al., 2001). Indeed, I assured fair comparisons in the strength of the positive and negative manipulations, and yet the effects of negative psychological experiences were stronger than positive.

Third, the inclusion of gender as a moderator in this study provides a major conceptual advance. Although ten Brummelhuis and Bakker (2012) point to the importance of moderators in their theoretical model in the form of key and macro resources, they do not directly consider how individual differences affect the degree to which resource loss (and gain) affect outcomes across domains. I expand the W-HR model by showing how gender moderates the degree to which contextual resources affect work outcomes. Specifically, support emerged for the hypothesized indirect effects of romantic relationship behaviors on leadership behaviors for females but not for males. While this finding remains to be replicated with organizational leaders, the possibility that gender functions as a moderator of the hypothesized indirect effects is consistent with findings from the marital literature showing that females experience romantic relationship quality more strongly than do males (e.g., Courtright et al., 2015; ten Brummelhuis & Greenhaus, 2018).

Last, this research bridges two literatures (i.e., leadership and the work-family interface) that until recently (e.g., Dionisi & Barling, 2017; ten Brummelhuis et al., 2014) have been treated separately. A consideration of leaders' romantic relationships may be particularly important, given growing evidence that factors outside of the workplace predict both leader emergence (Barling & Weatherhead, 2016) and leader behaviors (Murphy & Johnson, 2011).

### **Strengths**

The current study has several strengths which give greater weight to any conclusions drawn from the results. First, by using a randomized experimental design, causal inferences can be made about the hypothesized relationships in the theoretical model. Indeed, this is the first study to enable causal inferences about the link between romantic relationships and work behaviors, and specifically in this case, leadership behaviors.



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Second, by ensuring similar effect sizes and between-condition mean differences of the maintenance and conflict manipulations, fair comparisons between the effects of positive and negative relationship quality were possible (Cooper & Richardson, 1986). Third, because both resource loss and gain hypotheses were tested simultaneously as suggested by ten Brummelhuis and Bakker (2011), fair comparisons of the mediating roles of resource loss and gain were also possible. Fourth, I developed a psychometrically reliable and valid leadership speech task for the purposes of this study. This task can be adapted for use as a behavioral leadership outcome measure for laboratory research; the absence of such measures has hindered laboratory-based experimentation in the past.

### **Limitations**

Like all research, the current study has several issues that warrant mention. First, participants in this study were predominantly university students, potentially threatening generalizability of the model to organizational leaders or those in marital relationships. Although concerns about generalizing from laboratory to field settings may be overestimated in leadership research (Brown & Lord, 1999), establishing internal validity through randomized experiments remains an important initial step in any new research area.

Second, although several steps were implemented to validate the leadership speech task (i.e., ensuring positive and negative leadership behaviors could be perceived and rated by experts and non-experts), ecological validity remains an issue as this task cannot account for the dynamic nature of leadership behaviors. In addition, it is possible that the nature of the prompt (e.g., an accident in the workplace) limited the types of leadership behaviors participants could reasonably enact. Indeed, whether the prompt initiates a strong or weak leadership situation (Mischel, 1977) may matter in determining whether and how external factors such as personal

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relationship quality affects leadership behaviors. For example, the leadership behaviors exhibited in response to a weak situation (e.g., missing a sales target or surpassing a sales goal) could be more influenced by spillover from relationship quality.

Third, results showed no support for the resource gain pathway. As noted earlier, one possibility is that the mediating variables used to operationalize personal resource gain (i.e., emotional energy, positive affect) do not capture the resources needed to enable positive leadership behaviors. Alternative indicators such as cognitive liveliness (Shirom, 2004) or social energy (Owens et al., 2016) may be more appropriate in predicting high quality leadership.

### **Future Directions**

Several findings from this study can serve as a springboard for future research. First, the proposed theoretical model should be replicated using organizational leaders. This would allow for a more expansive test of leadership behaviors, and probe the generalizability of my theoretical model. Using longitudinal field data would also enable some causal inferences to be made.

Second, the proposed theoretical model should be extended. For example, additional moderators such as the degree to which leaders create boundaries between their work and personal lives (Clark, 2000) should now be examined. In addition, while there was no support for resource gain in this study, other indicators of personal resource gain (e.g., state self-control) that may be more relevant to leadership behaviors need to be investigated before discarding the notion that resource gain can benefit the quality of leadership behaviors.

Third, the quality of different personal relationships may be considered. While parents' relationships with their children can exert a toll on their emotional and cognitive resources (Barnett & Baruch, 1985; ten Brummelhuis et al., 2014), the psychological presence of family

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can also serve as a contextual resource that has positive benefits, such as increasing home-to-work transfer of resources (Dumas & Stanko, 2017). Future research could investigate whether parent-child relationship quality indirectly affects leadership behaviors.

### **Organizational Implications**

Results from this study offer at least two implications for organizations. First, organizations need to recognize that personal relationships outside of the workplace affect the quality of leaders' behaviors, and as a result, question what if any role they have in supporting leaders' romantic relationships. While organizations have traditionally been reluctant to involve themselves in their employees' personal lives, the meaningful effects of personal lives on leadership behaviors suggests such questions can no longer be avoided. One strategy could be to ensure that (a) employee assistance programs offer assistance with romantic relationship issues, and (e.g., Stanley et al., 2020) (b) traditional family-friendly work policies that target followers also include leaders.

Second, the indirect effects of romantic relationship behaviors on leadership behaviors were only significant for women, highlighting the unique challenges women face in achieving leadership success. If organizations are to facilitate equal opportunities for male and female leaders, they need to confront the additional external burdens that female leaders experience; burdens which might even discourage women from seeking leadership positions in the first instance. Thus, policies that promote female leadership more generally (e.g., family benefits, flexible work schedules) may help organizations reduce the unique burden on female leaders (Kalysh et al., 2016).

### **2.10 Conclusion**

Research has already established that leaders affect their followers' family and romantic relationship quality (e.g., Hammond et al., 2015; Wang & Walumbwa, 2007). The current study takes the link between work and family and leadership in a different direction: we now know that females' romantic relationship quality indirectly affects their leadership quality, how these effects emerge, and that these effects do not exist for males. The challenge now is to broaden our understanding of this phenomenon, and understand whether and how organizations might help leaders experience positive relationships at home which in turn might benefit the quality of their leadership behaviors at work.

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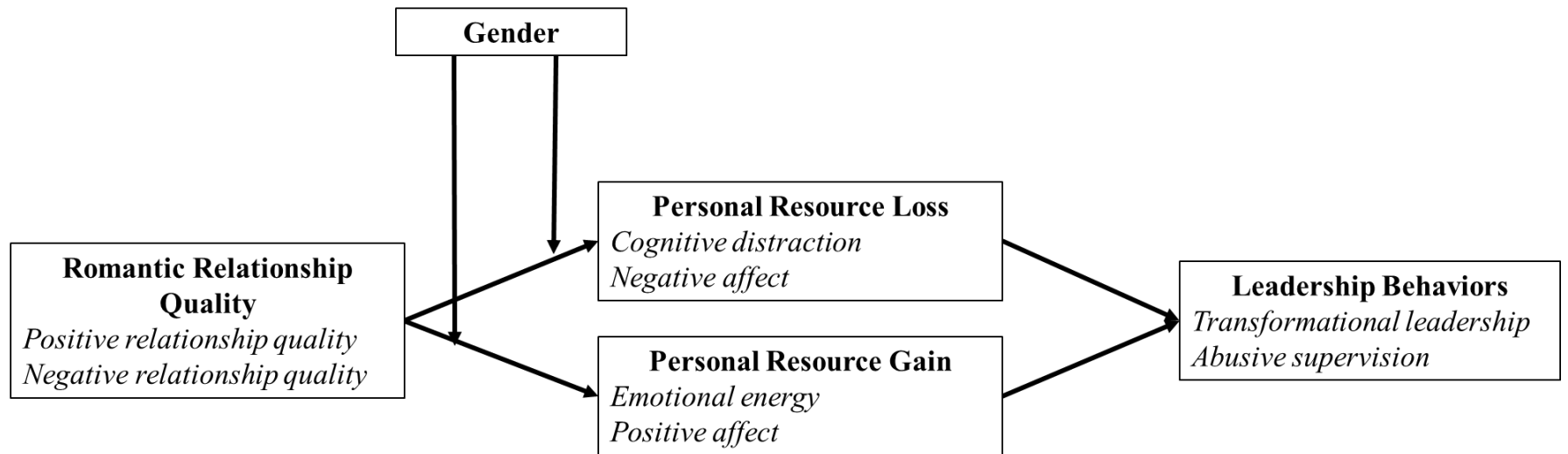
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*Figure 2.1*

Conceptual model of the indirect effects of romantic relationship quality on leadership behaviors





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**Table 2.1**

*Descriptive Statistics and Intercorrelations (N = 192)*

	<i>M(SD)</i>	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.
1. Condition	--	--										
2. Sex	.49 (.50)	-.039	--									
3. Baseline relationship quality	6.11 (.66)	-.070	.039	.80								
4. Task positivity (manipulation check)	66.91 (25.27)	.55**	-.094	.083	.91							
5. Task negativity (manipulation check)	20.67 (25.26)	-.132	.008	-.068	-.465**	.89						
6. Cognitive distraction	3.16 (1.42)	-.173*	-.043	-.219**	-.297**	.237**	.86					
7. Negative affect	1.50 (.52)	-.200**	-.019	-.102	-.453**	.584**	.444**	.84				
8. Emotional energy	5.81 (.97)	.055	-.171*	.230**	.245**	-.176*	-.086	-.069	.86			
9. Positive affect	2.99 (.96)	.428**	.006	.025	.604**	-.486**	-.405**	-.508**	.256**	.93		
10. Transformational leadership	3.54 (1.22)	-.021	.022	.105	.057	.050	-.171*	-.127	.036	.018	.90	
11. Abusive supervision	2.33 (1.43)	.037	.020	.087	.003	-.026	.131	.089	-.063	.015	-.571**	.97

*Note.* Listwise deletion was applied. Alphas appear on the diagonal and are italicized.

\* $p < .05$ ; \*\* $p < .001$



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**Table 2.2**

*Relationship Quality on Transformational Leadership through Cognitive Distraction (N couples = 93)*

<b>Outcome: Cognitive Distraction</b>					
Variables	<i>b</i>	SE	<i>T</i>	LLCI	ULCI
Female Constant	3.63	.27	13.45	3.09	4.17
Male Constant	2.95	.25	11.58	2.44	3.45
Female Maintenance Condition	-1.01	.38	-2.69	-1.76	-.26
Male Maintenance Condition	-.06	.35	-.16	-.76	.65
Female Conflict Condition	-.29	.37	-.78	-1.01	.44
Male Conflict Condition	.31	.34	.91	-.37	.99

<b>Outcome: Transformational Leadership</b>					
Variables	<i>b</i>	SE	<i>T</i>	LLCI	ULCI
Female Constant	3.91	.53	7.36	2.86	4.97
Male Constant	4.08	.50	8.26	3.10	5.07
Female Cognitive Distraction	-.13	.09	-1.36	-.31	.06
Male Cognitive Distraction	-.17	.09	-1.81	-.35	.02
Female Maintenance Condition	-.01	.35	-.01	-.69	.68
Male Maintenance Condition	-.31	.32	-.95	-.95	.33
Female Conflict Condition	-.22	.33	-.67	-.86	.43
Male Conflict Condition	.38	.30	1.26	-.22	.98

Indirect effects	Effect	Boot SE	LLCI	ULCI
Female: maintenance condition on transformational leadership via cognitive distraction	.13	.11	-.05	.39
Male: maintenance condition on transformational leadership via cognitive distraction	.01	.06	-.11	.15
Female: conflict condition on transformational leadership via cognitive distraction	.04	.06	-.07	.19
Male: conflict condition on transformational leadership via cognitive distraction	-.05	.06	-.19	.07
Female: conflict condition on safety leadership via cognitive distraction	.05	.08	-.08	.24
Male: conflict condition on safety leadership via cognitive distraction	-.05	.05	-.16	.06

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**Table 2.3**

*Relationship Quality on Transformational Leadership and Abusive Supervision through Negative Affect*

(*N couples* = 93)

<b>Outcome: Negative Affect</b>					
Variables	<i>B</i>	SE	<i>t</i>	LLCI	ULCI
Female Constant	1.59	.10	15.48	1.38	1.79
Male Constant	1.48	.09	17.03	1.30	1.65
Female Maintenance Condition	-.39	.14	-2.71	-.67	-.10
Male Maintenance Condition	-.14	.12	-1.14	-.38	.10
Female Conflict Condition	.22	.14	1.62	-.05	.50
Male Conflict Condition	.18	.12	-1.14	-.38	.41

<b>Outcome: Transformational Leadership</b>					
Variables	<i>B</i>	SE	<i>t</i>	LLCI	ULCI
Female Constant	4.38	.61	7.19	3.17	5.59
Male Constant	3.92	.58	6.73	2.76	5.08
Female Negative Affect	-.52	.24	-2.12	-1.00	-.03
Male Negative Affect	-.28	.28	-1.03	-.83	.27
Female Maintenance Condition	-.08	.34	-.23	-.76	.60
Male Maintenance Condition	-.31	.33	-.96	-.97	.34
Female Conflict Condition	-.05	.33	-.16	-.70	.60
Male Conflict Condition	.38	.31	1.21	-.24	.99

<b>Outcome: Abusive Supervision</b>					
Variables	<i>B</i>	SE	<i>t</i>	LLCI	ULCI
Female Constant	1.03	.56	1.85	-.08	2.14
Male Constant	2.86	.63	4.56	1.61	4.11
Female Negative Affect	.73	.26	2.78	.21	1.25
Male Negative Affect	-.11	.37	-.30	-.86	.63
Female Maintenance Condition	.21	.36	.57	-.51	.92
Male Maintenance Condition	.23	.40	.56	-.57	1.02
Female Conflict Condition	-.17	.37	-.46	-.90	.57
Male Conflict Condition	-.28	.41	-.69	-1.11	.54

Indirect effects	Effect	Boot SE	LLCI	ULCI
Female: maintenance condition on transformational leadership via negative affect	.20	.10	.03	.42
Male: maintenance condition on transformational leadership via negative affect	.04	.06	-.03	.21
Female: conflict condition on transformational leadership via negative affect	-.12	.09	-.33	.04
Male: conflict condition on transformational leadership via negative affect	-.05	.06	-.18	.06
Female: maintenance condition on abusive supervision via negative affect	-.15	.08	-.32	-.004
Male: maintenance condition on abusive supervision via negative affect	-.00	.03	-.09	.04
Female: conflict condition on abusive supervision via negative affect	.26	.16	.01	.61
Male: conflict condition on abusive supervision via negative affect	-.04	.10	-.20	.19

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**Table 2.4**

*Relationship Quality on Transformational Leadership through Emotional Energy (N couples = 93)*

<b>Outcome: Emotional Energy</b>					
Variables	<i>B</i>	SE	<i>t</i>	LLCI	ULCI
Female Constant	6.01	.19	32.08	5.64	6.38
Male Constant	5.77	.18	31.62	5.41	6.13
Female Maintenance Condition	.17	.26	.64	-.35	.68
Male Maintenance Condition	.06	.25	.23	-.45	.56

<b>Outcome: Transformational Leadership</b>					
Variables	<i>B</i>	SE	<i>t</i>	LLCI	ULCI
Female Constant	1.99	1.15	1.73	-.30	4.27
Male Constant	2.87	1.08	2.64	.71	5.10
Female Emotional Energy	.11	.14	.78	-.16	.37
Male Emotional Energy	-.01	.13	-.08	-.27	.25
Female Maintenance Condition	.10	.33	.29	-.57	.76
Male Maintenance Condition	-.31	.31	1.20	-.24	.99

Indirect effects	Effect	Boot SE	LLCI	ULCI
Female: maintenance condition on transformational leadership via emotional energy	.02	.04	-.05	.13
Male: maintenance condition on transformational leadership via emotional energy	-.00	.03	-.08	.06

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**Table 2.5**

*Relationship Quality on Transformational Leadership and Abusive Supervision through Positive Affect (N couples = 93)*

<b>Outcome: Positive Affect</b>					
Variables	<i>B</i>	SE	<i>t</i>	LLCI	ULCI
Female Constant	2.54	.15	16.93	2.24	2.84
Male Constant	3.01	.15	20.24	2.72	3.31
Female Maintenance Condition	1.33	.21	6.40	.92	1.75
Male Maintenance Condition	.62	.21	3.00	.21	1.03

<b>Outcome: Transformational Leadership</b>					
Variables	<i>B</i>	SE	<i>t</i>	LLCI	ULCI
Female Constant	2.64	.65	4.04	1.34	3.93
Male Constant	2.71	.62	4.40	1.49	3.94
Female Positive Affect	-.03	.17	-.19	-.37	.31
Male Positive Affect	.16	.16	.98	-.16	.48
Female Maintenance Condition	-.04	.40	-.09	-.84	.76
Male Maintenance Condition	-.57	.38	-1.50	-1.33	.18

<b>Outcome: Abusive Supervision</b>					
Variables	<i>B</i>	SE	<i>t</i>	LLCI	ULCI
Female Constant	2.53	.74	3.44	1.07	3.99
Male Constant	3.13	.78	3.99	1.57	4.68
Female Positive Affect	-.10	.19	-.53	-.48	.28
Male Positive Affect	-.03	.21	-.13	-.44	.38
Female Maintenance Condition	.20	.45	.45	-.70	1.11
Male Maintenance Condition	.59	.48	1.21	-.37	1.55

Indirect effects	Effect	Boot SE	LLCI	ULCI
Female: maintenance condition on transformational leadership via positive affect	-.04	.27	-.55	.50
Male: maintenance condition on transformational leadership via positive affect	.10	.11	-.11	.34
Female: maintenance condition on abusive supervision via positive affect	-.14	.30	-.76	.41
Male: maintenance condition on abusive supervision via positive affect	-.02	.12	-.27	.20

**Chapter 3 -**

**Study 2: Dating Violence and Leader Role Occupancy: The Mediating Effects of  
Depressive Symptoms and the Moderating Role of Gender**

**Abstract**

Leaders are integral to organizational success, as a result of which identifying antecedents of leadership emergence is critical. Drawing on a lifespan approach to leadership emergence, and the work-home resources model, I investigate whether dating violence in adolescent relationships is associated with later leader role occupancy. Specifically, I predict that experiencing psychological aggression and physical violence each predict depressive symptoms, which in turn decreases the likelihood of occupying a leadership role. I hypothesize that parent-adolescent relationship quality will inhibit, and female gender will magnify the indirect effects. Drawing on longitudinal data derived from the Add Health Survey ( $n = 3277$ ), the indirect effect of psychological aggression (measured in 1996) on leader role occupancy (measured in 2007/08) via depressive symptoms (measured in 2001/02) was moderated by gender, with the indirect effect only significant for females. Across genders, physical violence exerted indirect effects on leader role occupancy through its effects on depressive symptoms. No support was found for the attenuating effects of parent-adolescent relationship quality. I discuss how findings extend our understanding of leadership emergence and the work-family interface.

### 3.1 Introduction

Who becomes a leader, who does not, and why? For several decades (Barling, 2014; Stogdill, 1948), scholars have intermittently investigated these questions given the critical role leaders have in organizations (Quigley & Hambrick, 2015) and in the well-being of employees (Skakon et al., 2010). Interest in this topic is shared amongst the general public, who tend to romanticize leadership (Meindl et al., 1985) not only due to the appeal of power and status held by leaders (Marmot, 2004), but because leadership roles offer favorable work characteristics such as autonomy and decision making latitude (Christie & Barling, 2009). However, not everyone becomes a leader, and evidence suggests that certain socially disadvantaged groups such as visible minorities (Sanchez-Hucles & Davis, 2010), females (Eagly & Karau, 2002), non-heterosexuals (Fassinger et al., 2010), and people facing economic adversity (Barling & Weatherhead, 2016) are less likely to obtain leadership positions. To understand the antecedents to leader role occupancy, it is critical to identify factors that derail leadership emergence. Given that social adversity limits the likelihood of occupying leadership roles, I investigate whether experiencing two forms of dating violence (i.e., psychological aggression and physical violence) during adolescence indirectly affect leader role occupancy.

In the context of this study, dating violence refers to experiences of psychological aggression (e.g., insulting, belittling, publically humiliating, intimidating) and physical violence (e.g., slapping, hitting, kicking and beating) in adolescent romantic relationships. I use the term dating violence when referring to both psychological aggression and physical violence collectively, but consider their independent effects on leader role occupancy given they reflect different types of relational experiences.

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The link between adolescent dating violence and later leadership may not immediately be apparent. However, this framework is consistent with the lifespan approach to leadership (Liu et al., 2020; Murphy & Johnson, 2011) and decades of research that has established the interdependence between work and non-work domains (Allen & Martin, 2017; Barling, 1990). Indeed, adolescence is a period of impressionable years (Krosnick & Alwin, 1989) as individuals transition from childhood to adulthood, and non-work experiences during this time shape individual attributes, characteristics, and behaviors that can be critical for later leadership outcomes (Liu et al., 2020). A key part of adolescent development involves searching for meaningful relationships outside of the family, and 89% of adolescents ages 13 to 18 report having had a least one dating relationship (Wolfe & Feiring, 2000). Violence is a common relational experience, and 35-97% of adolescents report having experienced psychological aggression (Rubio-Garay et al., 2017; Stonard et al., 2014) and 20-34% have experienced physical violence (Joly & Connolly, 2016; Wincentak et al., 2017) in their dating relationships. What these experiences may mean for leadership remain to be investigated.

Although organizational research has focused on the organizational consequences of workplace-based violence (e.g., sexual harassment, Willness et al., 2007; workplace aggression, Hershcovis & Barling, 2010), organizational outcomes of aggression and violence occurring outside of work has received much less attention. This is an important omission given dating violence results in significant short- and long-term individual costs (e.g., mental illness, Foshee et al., 2013) that do indeed affect individual workplace behaviors (e.g., withdrawal from work; Leblanc et al., 2014) amongst other organizational consequences (e.g., productivity costs, Reeves & O'Leary-Kelly, 2007).

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Drawing on the lifespan approach to leadership (Liu et al., 2020) and ten Brummelhuis and Bakker's (2012) Work-Home Resources Model (W-HR Model), I suggest that dating violence during adolescence is a distal contextual demand that depletes victims' personal resources, which then spill over into the work domain. Specifically, I hypothesize that experiencing psychological aggression and physical violence within adolescent relationships will result in depressive symptoms in young adulthood, which in turn decreases the likelihood of attaining an organizational leadership role as an adult. I further investigate two factors that could mitigate and magnify this indirect effect. First, I suggest that parent-adolescent relationship quality will act as a contextual resource that attenuates the negative effects of dating violence on depressive symptoms, leaving adolescents better positioned to emerge as a leader. Second, I expect that the indirect effects of dating violence on leader role occupancy will be more harmful for females than males because females hold less power in heterosexual relationships (Caldwell et al., 2012) and relationship quality is more central to female identity (Kerig, 1996; Offer, 2014), thereby impacting female well-being more significantly and for longer than it does for males. I examine this conceptual model using a subsample of the National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent to Adult Health (Add Health; Harris et al., 2009).

### **Leader Role Occupancy: A Lifespan Approach**

The overarching purpose of this research is to contribute to our broader understanding of leadership emergence. Leadership emergence has been widely conceptualized and operationalized, for example, as (a) self-reported desire and/or motivation to lead (e.g., Chaturvedi et al., 2012), (b) peer-nomination in which other organizational members (e.g., group members, subordinates, supervisors) nominate and rate leadership potential of a target individual (e.g., Liu et al., 2019), and (c) leader role occupancy, which focuses on the more formal



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organizational role held, typically describing those who hold supervisory responsibility of others (e.g., Barling & Weatherhead, 2016). In the context of this study, I conceptualize leader emergence as leader role occupancy because my interest is in understanding distal and proximal factors that derail some people from attaining desired leadership roles characterized by higher income, greater status, and more autonomy and decision making latitude.

Existing research on the antecedents of leader role occupancy has been primarily focused on identifying more proximal organizational conditions (e.g., training programs, Day & Thorton, 2018; Lacerenza et al., 2017), and stable individual differences (e.g., personality, Ensari et al., 2011; genetics, De Neve et al., 2013; cognitive ability, Daly et al., 2015) that facilitate emergence into leadership positions. This narrow focus has been critiqued for disregarding the influence of a broader set of distal and proximal contextual influences that may relate to and predict leadership emergence (Liu et al., 2020). As such, calls have been made to adopt a lifespan approach to leadership development (Day et al., 2014), in which leader development is conceptualized as a process that occurs across the entire life span, impacted by the various developmental stages from birth, through childhood, to adolescence, and into adulthood (Day, 2000; Day et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2020).

Experiences during adolescence have been highlighted as a particularly critical development stage for leadership emergence given the unique changes that occur during this time (Liu et al., 2019; Liu et al., 2020). Indeed, as postulated in the “impressionable years hypothesis”, adolescence is a period during which teenagers change and develop their attitudes and values based on their personal experiences, which then stabilize as they enter into adulthood (Krosnick & Alwin, 1989). As such, adolescence reflects an important transition period between childhood and adulthood during which physiological, emotional, and psychological changes

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occur as adolescents begin to develop a sense of self, independent from their more immediate family unit (Erikson, 1968; Erikson & Erikson, 1998). Such changes endure into adulthood, thereby impacting individuals within organizations more broadly. Importantly, some evidence also supports the notion that adolescent environment influences leadership; for example, parental behaviors during adolescence influence the likelihood of early leader emergence (Liu et al., 2019; Reitan & Stenberg, 2019) and adolescent leadership behaviors (Oliver et al., 2011; Zacharatos et al., 2000), while other environmental conditions such as financial adversity during adolescence (Barling & Weatherhead, 2016) have been shown to limit leader emergence. I thus expand upon the life-span approach to leadership by considering the long-term consequences of adolescent dating violence on leader role occupancy.

### **Interpartner Violence and Work**

Domestic violence refers to physical violence, psychological aggression, and sexual violence targeting family members, i.e., romantic partners, children, and/or seniors (Gelles & Straus, 1988). One common form of domestic violence is violence perpetrated between current or former intimate partners (i.e., intimate partner violence, IPV). Although once believed to be located solely within a marital relationship, IPV often starts in adolescent dating relationships (e.g., Hickman et al., 2004) between the ages of 15 and 16 (Wekerle & Wolfe, 1999). In this research, I focus on the independent effects of adolescent victims' experience of psychological aggression and physical violence in dating relationships.

Psychological aggression and physical violence commonly co-occur, such that victims of physical violence invariably report initially experiencing psychological aggression (Murphy, & O'Leary, 1989). Thus, psychological aggression in dating relationships is more common and can occur without physical violence (Eshelman & Levendosky, 2012; Hossain et al., 2020), although

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physical violence does occur infrequently in the absence of psychological aggression (Eshelman & Levendosky, 2012; Haynie et al., 2013). Nonetheless, both psychological aggression (Rubio-Garay et al., 2017; Stonard et al., 2014) and physical violence (Joly & Connolly, 2016; Wincentak et al., 2017) reflect common experiences in adolescent dating relationships, estimated at 35-97% and 20-35% respectively. Although people generally perceiving physical violence as more detrimental than psychological aggression (Williams et al., 2012), both types of dating violence affect mental health (Eshelman & Levendosky, 2012; Lawrence et al., 2009), even after controlling for the effects of each other (Lawrence et al., 2009) suggesting that they each exert unique effects on mental health.

Despite the enormous body of empirical research on IPV (Ali et al., 2016; Bacchus et al., 2018; Jennings et al., 2017), there remains very little research on how the effects of interpartner violence spill over into the workplace (see MacGregor et al., 2019 for a systematic review). From the research that has been conducted, we do know that both female and male victims with a history of physical violence experience greater absenteeism, tardiness and presenteeism than non-victims (Reeves & O'Leary-Kelly, 2007). Moreover, experiencing physical violence in intimate relationships is also associated with greater difficulty getting to work (Wathen et al., 2015), lower job performance (Garcia et al., 2017; Swanberg & Logan, 2005), fewer hours worked on the job (Tolman & Wang, 2005), and increased job loss (Zink & Sill, 2003). One explanation for this is that victims are forced to miss work because of sabotaging behaviors perpetrated by their abusers. The effects of psychological aggression on work outcomes has received even less empirical attention, but shows similar consequences, such that female victims report greater work withdrawal (partial absenteeism and intentions to leave; Leblanc et al., 2014), lower work performance (Leblanc et al., 2014) and greater psychological distress

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resulting in lower performance evaluations (Garcia et al., 2017). Importantly, longer-term consequences of dating violence on later work-related outcomes have also been identified, with victims with a history of dating violence associated with unemployment (Lindhorst et al., 2007), low employment stability (Crowne et al., 2011), and lower salary if employed (Reeves & O’Leary-Kelly, 2007).

The intersection between IPV and leadership has not yet been investigated, but Liu et al.’s (2020) lifespan model of the development of leadership helps to understand how dating violence might indirectly and negatively affect later leader role occupancy. Liu et al.’s (2020) framework suggests that romantic relationships influence leadership in three ways. First, Liu et al. (2020) highlight the dyadic nature of both romantic and leadership relationships, and speculate how interpersonal skills learned in one domain may transfer to the other. Second, major events in one domain (i.e., romantic relationships) such as marriage or in the case of the current study, dating violence, could trigger changes to traits such as conscientiousness or agreeableness, or resources such as depressive symptoms, which affect leader emergence and effectiveness (Zaccaro et al., 2018). Third, work-family enrichment (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006) and work-family conflict (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985) literatures explain how romantic partner behaviors can spillover into leadership. For example, romantic relationship conflict increases depressive symptoms, resulting in abusive supervision (Dionisi & Barling, 2019). In addition, women experiencing psychological and physical aggression have lower work performance, which result in lower supervisor-rated promotability ratings (Tolentino et al., 2017).

Expanding upon the intersections between domestic violence and work in general, and romantic relationships and leadership more specifically, I suggest that adolescent experiences of dating violence may be especially important for later leader emergence. Given the developmental

challenges and changes that characterize adolescence (Erikson, 1968; Erikson & Erikson, 1998; Krosnick & Alwin, 1989), and the enduring effects of violence on psychological development (Reeves & O’Leary-Kelly), I postulate that experiences of dating violence during this impressionable developmental period will shape future work outcomes, including leader emergence. To understand just how dating violence affects leader role occupancy, I turn next to ten Brummelhuis and Bakker’s (2012) Work-Home Resources Model (W-HR Model).

### **3.2 Dating Violence and Leader Role Occupancy: A Theory of Resource Loss**

Drawing on Hobfoll’s (1989; 2002) conservation of resources theory, ten Brummelhuis and Bakker (2012) posited that any life domain provides access to contextual resources (i.e., valued objects/conditions located outside the self) and demands (i.e., factors located outside the self that drain or interfere with resource gain) which influence the personal resources (i.e., including attributes and energies) that people have available for other domains. For example, although home life can provide contextual resources (e.g., social support) that result in additional personal resources (e.g., positive affect), it also poses demands (e.g., interpartner conflict) that drain personal resources (e.g., emotional exhaustion), threatening what remains to be invested in the work domain (e.g., absenteeism, work performance). The same type of spillover can occur from work to home domains.

Two further aspects of the ten Brummelhuis and Bakker’s W-HR model are noteworthy. First, they outlined factors that moderate the spillover across domains to account for the complexity of home-work spillover, namely macro (i.e., contextual) and key (i.e., individual difference) resources that strengthen or weaken the extent to which spillover occurs. Second, they also suggested that spillover can occur across short or long time periods. Peoples’ home lives are characterized by significant ongoing structural demands that can deplete and

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permanently alter structural personal resources (e.g., health, view and sense of self), which can then affect distal outcomes in the work domain. For example, experiencing poverty during childhood (i.e., a macro demand) results in lower personal mastery (i.e., a stable personal resource), in turn lowering the likelihood of occupying a leadership role (i.e., success in the work domain) in young adulthood (Barling & Weatherhead, 2016).

Informed by the W-HR model, I present a conceptual model specifying how experiencing psychological aggression and physical violence in dating relationships (i.e., contextual demands) affects depressive symptoms (personal mental health resources) in young adulthood, which hinders later leader role occupancy as an adult. I also posit that parent-adolescent relationship quality (i.e., a macro contextual resource) and gender will moderate these indirect effects (see Figure 3.1).

--insert Figure 3.1 about here--

### **Dating Violence, Leader Role Occupancy, and the Mediating Role of Depressive Symptoms**

Building on the basic spillover process presented in the W-HR model (ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012), I begin by positing that psychological aggression and physical violence during adolescence deplete personal mental health resources, operationalized as depressive symptoms. I next posit that depressive symptoms will be negatively associated with the likelihood of occupying a leadership role.

First, much research demonstrates the negative effects of experiencing dating violence on mental health in general (Hossain et al., 2020), and the negative effects of both psychological aggression and physical violence on depressive symptoms specifically (e.g., Banyard & Cross, 2008; Devries et al., 2013; Eshelman & Levendosky, 2012; Lawrence et al., 2009). Importantly,

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psychological aggression and physical violence both predict depressive symptoms across time (Chuang et al., 2012; Johnson et al., 2014), demonstrating the lasting effects of dating violence.

There are several reasons why dating violence would result in depressive symptoms. (a) The behaviors associated with psychological aggression (e.g., publically humiliating partner) and physical violence (e.g., hitting partner) induce negative emotions such as sadness, fear, isolation, shame, guilt, and stress (Ansara & Hindin, 2011; Devries et al., 2013), which when experienced over time, can result in chronic depressive symptoms. (b) Victims expend significant emotional and cognitive resources trying to predict if and when aggressive and/or violent behaviors will recur, and how they might be prevented or avoided, which can result in depressive symptoms. (c) Experiencing psychological aggression and physical violence affect internal self-evaluations by signaling to victims that they are of lower worth (Matheson et al., 2015) and deserving of such aggression (Overstreet & Quinn, 2013), and low self-esteem reliably predicts depression (Orth et al., 2009). (d) Victims of violence experience stigma, with the resulting effortful behaviors to conceal the violence from others leading to sustained and long-term depressive symptoms (Eckstein, 2016). (e) Finally, compared to violence perpetrated by strangers, aggression and violence emanating from trusted and intimate partners may affect depressive symptoms more significantly as such violence is likely to be seen as a purposeful and personal intent to hurt, and cannot be justified easily as random and impersonal (Herman, 1992).

Second, I postulate that depressive symptoms will lower the likelihood of obtaining a leadership role in adulthood for several reasons. (a) Individuals experiencing depressive symptoms may self-select out of leadership opportunities if they feel unworthy or unfit (Matheson et al., 2015) to match the expectations of prototypical leaders (namely charismatic and dynamic, Epitropaki & Martin, 2004), and both self-efficacy and self-esteem are important

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predictors of leader emergence (Liu et al., 2019). In addition, depressive symptoms are associated with withdrawal from social relationships which is important as the ability to socially connect with others (Riggio et al., 2003) and develop social relationships with others (Kwok et al., 2018) predict leader emergence.

(b) Individuals experiencing depressive symptoms may send signals to those making leadership selection decisions that are incongruent with prototypical leadership attributes (e.g., charisma, Epitropaki & Martin, 2004) and leadership traits (e.g., extraversion, Ensari et al., 2011). Adding to this, leaders are expected to experience better mental health and an absence of mental illness than non-leaders (Cloutier & Barling, 2017), and such expectations may influence selection and promotion committee decision-making.

(c) Depressive symptoms may also affect the ability to work at optimal levels, which could then inhibit the likelihood of attaining leadership positions (Norton et al., 2014). For example, subclinical depression is positively associated with negative performance evaluations (Martin et al., 1996). Lower performance may result in negative evaluations, which decrease future recommendations for leadership appointment (Kiker & Motowidlo, 1999; Podsakoff et al., 2009). Taken together, therefore, I predict:

H1a. Depressive symptoms will mediate the relationship between psychological aggression and leader role occupancy.

H2a. Depressive symptoms will mediate the relationship between physical violence and leader role occupancy.

### **Parent-Adolescent Relationship Quality as a Moderating Contextual Resource**

Not all experiences of psychological aggression or physical violence result in long-term consequences (Masten et al., 1990). In an attempt to identify protective factors within the context



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of ten Brummelhuis and Bakker's (2012) W-HR model, I consider whether parent-adolescent relationship quality (i.e., a macro contextual resource) moderates the effects of psychological aggression and physical violence on depressive symptoms, thereby attenuating the negative indirect effects of dating violence on future leader role occupancy. Although adolescence is often viewed as a developmental stage in which individuals attempt to individuate and form relationships outside of family (Laursen & Williams, 1997), parent-adolescent relationships remain consequential for adolescents' current and future development (Smetana et al., 2006).

I suggest that high quality parent-adolescent relationships will mitigate the effects of dating violence on depressive symptoms for three reasons. First, these relationships act as a contextual resource that generates a surplus of personal resources that would enable individuals to deal with the depleting effects of violence. Second, high quality parent-child relationships provide adolescents with alternative trusted relationships to turn to when confronting violence, thereby reducing any demands imposed by dating violence. For example, victims of physical violence with positive familial relationships experience lower depression and anxiety as a function of the violence (Holt & Espelage, 2005). Third, high quality parent-adolescent relationships may serve as positive relational models to adolescents, which then help adolescents recognize that dating violence is atypical and harmful, and a relationship unworthy of pursuit (Ha et al., 2010; Johnson & Galambos, 2014; Overbeek et al., 2007; Walper & Wendt, 2015).

Taken together, I predict:

H1b. Parent-adolescent relationship quality will moderate the indirect relationship between psychological aggression and leader role occupancy such that higher quality parent-adolescent relationships will attenuate the effects of psychological aggression on depressive symptoms.

H2b. Parent-adolescent relationship quality will moderate the indirect relationship between physical violence and leader role occupancy such that higher quality parent-adolescent relationships will attenuate the effects of physical violence on depressive symptoms.

### **Gender as a Moderator**

I hypothesize that the negative indirect effects of both psychological aggression and physical violence on leader role occupancy will be moderated by gender, as I expect that the effects of dating violence on depressive symptoms will be stronger for female partners as compared to male partners. Three explanations support this hypothesis. First, men hold more power in romantic relationships than do females (Caldwell et al., 2012; Ridgeway & Smith-Lovin, 1999) and traditional gender socialization across most cultures is such that many men believe they have a greater right to authority in their partnerships with females (Anderson, 2002; Anderson & Umberson, 2001). Men are also biologically bigger and stronger than females, and therefore create more fear and stress than female perpetrators, who hold social and physically less powerful positions (Caldwell et al., 2012; Hayes & Kopp, 2019). As a result, even though females and males experience similar rates of psychological aggression (Rubio-Garay et al., 2017) and physical violence (Wincentak et al., 2017), females are more affected by both forms of violence (Archer, 2000; Caldwell et al., 2012; Coker et al., 2002a) than are males. Indeed, wives who experience high levels of psychological aggression and physical violence suffer greater depressive symptoms than husbands (Beach et al., 2004). In addition, females report more depressive symptoms as a function of psychological violence, even after controlling for physical violence (Coker et al., 2002b). Physical violence perpetrated by males against females is generally more chronic and severe than the reverse, and as a result, more harmful (Dobash &

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Dobash, 2004; Muñoz-Rivas et al., 2007; Tjaden & Thoennes, 2000), and fears associated with potential physical injury result in greater psychological depletion and depressive symptoms for females than males (Beach et al., 2004; Tjaden & Thoennes, 2000).

Second, females view their romantic relationships as more central to their identity (Leslie et al., 2016), and as a result, experience greater spillover from their romantic relationships into other life domains. There is also evidence that the spillover of relationship experiences into work (Offer, 2014) and leadership in particular (Dumas & Stanko, 2017) affect female partners more than male partners.

Third, females generally experience more depressive symptoms (Bulhões et al., 2019) and depression (World Health Organization, 2017) in response to stressful life events in general (Leadbeater et al., 1999), and intimate partner violence in particular (Afifi et al., 2009). In contrast, males tend to respond with externalizing responses (e.g., conduct disorder) to intimate partner violence victimization (e.g., Afifi et al., 2009). Thus, I predict:

H1c. Gender will moderate the indirect relationship between psychological aggression and leader role occupancy such that the effects of psychological aggression on depressive symptoms will be stronger for females than males.

H2c. Gender will moderate the indirect relationship between physical violence and leader role occupancy such that the effects of physical violence on depressive symptoms will be stronger for females than males.

### 3.3 Method

#### Participants

Data for the current study were taken from the National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent Health (Add Health; Harris, 2009), an ongoing, nationally representative,

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longitudinal study of adolescents in the United States designed to examine social and individual correlates of physical health. Commencing in 1994-1995, Wave I consisted of in-home interviews with 27,000 adolescents in grades 7 to 12, which has been followed by four additional waves collected in 1996 (Wave 2), 2001–2002 (Wave 3), 2007–2008 (Wave 4), and 2016-18 (Wave 5). A limited sample and data from Waves 1-4 are publically available for analyses (for more information, see <http://www.cpc.unc.edu/projects/addhealth>). Analyses were based on a subsample of 3277 individuals who completed measures related to the constructs of interest across the first four waves of publically available data.

Participants ( $n = 3277$ ; 44.5% male;  $M$  age = 27.96 years,  $SD = 1.63$ ; race = 69.4% white, 21.9% Black/African American, 1% Native American, 3% Asian/Pacific Islander, 4.5% other) are a subsample of employees drawn from the Add Health Study who responded to all the variables of interest to this study. On average, participants worked 41.09 ( $SD = 11.81$ ) hours weekly and had diverse educational backgrounds (7.3% did not complete high school, 15.2% high school graduate, 9.8% vocational training, 32.4% some college education, 22% completed post-secondary degree, 6.3% some graduate school, 7.1% completed graduate school). Thirty-six percent of the sample currently held a leadership role.

### Measures

#### *Psychological Aggression (Wave 2: 1996)*

Participants first indicated the number of romantic relationships in which they had been (or are currently) involved. Participants could report up to three relationships. For each relationship, participants then indicated (using a binary 0 = “no”, 1 = “yes” response) whether they experienced two psychologically aggressive behaviors perpetrated by their partner, including whether their partner ever “publically insulted you” and “swore at you”. These

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responses were summed into an index of psychological aggression (i.e., theoretical range: 0 – 6, actual range: 0 – 5, with 22% of the sample indicating at least one experience of psychological aggression). This provided a continuous index of psychological aggression.

### ***Physical Violence (Wave 2: 1996)***

Using the same procedure as above, participants indicated whether they experienced any of three physically violent behaviors perpetrated by their partner, including “threatened with physical violence”, “pushed/shoved”, and “had something thrown at you”. I aggregated these responses into an index of physical violence (i.e., theoretical range: 0 – 9, actual range: 0 – 6; 10% of the sample indicated at least one physically violent experience), providing a continuous index of physical violence.

### ***Depressive Symptoms (Wave 3: 2001-02)***

Reflecting on the past seven days, respondents indicated how frequently they experienced nine symptoms related to depression (e.g., “could not shake off the blues”;  $\alpha = .80$ ), rated on a 0 (Never/rarely) to 3 (Most of the time/all of the time) scale. Items were averaged to form a depressive symptom scale ( $M = .50$ ,  $SD = .45$ ).

### ***Leader Role Occupancy (Wave 4: 2007-08)***

Participants were asked “Thinking about your official job duties, which of the following statements best describes your supervisory responsibilities at your (current/most recent) primary job?” Response options ranged from 1 = “I supervise or supervised other employees” (26.4% of respondents), 2 = “I supervise other employees, some of whom supervise others” (9.7% of respondents), and 3 = “I do or did not supervise anyone” (63.9% of respondents). Unlike prior research which has relied on dichotomous measures of leader role occupancy (e.g., Barling &

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Weatherhead, 2016; De Neve et al., 2013; Li et al., 2015), I recoded responses so that 0 = no supervision, 1 = supervise others, and 2 = supervise others who supervise others.

Support for the validity of this one-item measure derives from findings showing that it correlated positively with personal annual salary ( $r(3155) = .144, p < .001$ ), number of hours worked weekly ( $r(3273) = .220, p < .001$ ); job satisfaction ( $r(3276) = .097, p < .001$ ), work role status<sup>6</sup>,  $r(3273) = .115, p < .001$ ) and decision-making autonomy<sup>7</sup> ( $r(3275) = .243, p > .001$ ) and negatively with repetitive work tasks<sup>8</sup> ( $r(3275) = -.111, p > .001$ )

***Parent-Adolescent Relationship Quality (Wave 1: 1994-05)*** Parent-adolescent relationship quality was assessed using three items indicating separately the degree to which mothers and fathers were “warm and loving”, “fostered a good relationship”, and “offered satisfactory communication” (on a scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree). I summed maternal and paternal relationship quality evaluations into an overall parent-adolescent relationship quality measure ( $\alpha = .86$ ).

### ***Gender (Wave 1: 1994-05)***

Gender was based on participants’ self-selected sex, and coded as 0 for male and 1 for female participants.

### ***Control Variables (Waves 1, 2, & 4)***

I control for several variables to rule out spurious relationships. (a) Because physical violence and psychological aggression are highly correlated (see Table 3.2 for all correlations), I control for physical violence when testing the indirect effects of psychological aggression and

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<sup>6</sup> One-item assessing social status as measured on a 10-point ladder, with higher scores indicating the most educated, well-off, and respected in one’s job, relative to others in the United States.

<sup>7</sup> One-item asking “Overall, how often do you have the freedom to make important decisions about what you do at work and how you do it?” measured on a 0 [none/almost none of the time] to 4 [all or almost all of the time] scale.

<sup>8</sup> One-item asking “How much of the time do you do the same things repeatedly, that is over and over?” measured on a 0 [none/almost none of the time] to 4 [all or almost all of the time] scale.

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vice versa. (b) Age was controlled as it was correlated with psychological aggression and physical violence. (c) I controlled for education as intelligence is a reliable predictor of leader role occupancy (Ilies et al., 2004; Judge et al., 2004), and (d) participants' verbal IQ as indicated by their score on the Add Health Picture Vocabulary Test<sup>9</sup>, as communication skills are specifically related to leader emergence (Riggio et al., 2003). (e) Participants' race was controlled as dating violence is higher in minority populations (Cho, 2012) and minority populations reflect a marginalized group with respect to leader role occupancy (Sanchez-Hucles & Davis, 2010). (f) Finally, the number of dating relationships participants had experienced was controlled as peer popularity has been linked to leader emergence (Coie & Dodge, 1983; Coie et al., 1990). Refer to Table 3.1 for a full list of variables used in analyses based on the wave upon which they were collected and see Appendix F for a full list of measures used in this study.

### 3.4 Data Analyses

All data analyses were computed using SPSS25. I began by testing the conditional indirect effect hypotheses (i.e., the indirect effects of psychological aggression and physical violence on leader role occupancy via depressive symptoms as moderated by parent-adolescent relationship quality [H1b & H2b] and gender [H1c & H2c]). In the absence of a conditional indirect effect, the unconditional indirect effects (i.e., H1a and H2a) were examined (Aguinis et al., 2017). To test the conditional indirect effects, I used procedures implemented through Hayes' PROCESS program (v3.4), with 10,000 bootstrapped samples (Hayes 2017; <http://www.afhayes.com>), and across analyses, significance was determined based on whether the confidence intervals surrounding the index of moderated mediation excluded zero. To test the

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<sup>9</sup> The Add Health Picture Vocabulary Test (AHPVT) is an abridged version of the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test-Revised (PPVT-R) that can be used as a measure of verbal IQ (see <http://www.cpc.unc.edu/projects/addhealth> for more information).

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unconditional indirect effects, I implemented the same procedure, but this time significance was based on whether the confidence intervals surrounding the indirect effect of  $x$  on  $y$  excluded zero. Across analyses, I controlled for participants' age, education, AHPVT score, race, and number of relationships and physical violence (for H1a, H1b, H1c where psychological aggression is the predictor) and psychological aggression (for H2a, H2b, H2c where physical violence is the predictor). Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported for all analyses.

### 3.5 Results

Descriptive statistics and intercorrelations for all variables appear in Table 3.2.

--insert Table 3.2 about here--

I first considered the conditional effects of parent-adolescent relationship quality on the indirect effects of psychological aggression on leader role occupancy, via depressive symptoms. After controlling for age, education, verbal IQ, race, number of relationships, and physical violence, no support emerged for the moderating role of parent-child relationship quality within the indirect effects model (conditional indirect effect:  $b = .001$ , CI:  $[-.001, .003]$ ). I then considered the conditional effects of parent-adolescent relationship quality on the indirect effects of physical violence on leader role occupancy, via depressive symptoms. After controlling for age, education, verbal IQ, race, number of relationships, and psychological aggression, no support emerged for the moderating role of parent-child relationship quality within the indirect effects model [conditional indirect effect:  $b .001$ , CI:  $[-.002, .003]$ ). Thus, H2a and H2b were not supported (see Table 3.3 and 3.4).

Second, I considered the conditional effects of gender on the indirect effects of psychological aggression on leader role occupancy, via depressive symptoms. After controlling for age, education, verbal IQ, race, number of relationships, and physical violence, the indirect



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effect of psychological aggression on leader role occupancy through depressive symptoms was moderated by gender (conditional indirect effect:  $b = -.003$ , CI:  $[-.007, -.000]$ ). Specifically, the indirect effect of psychological aggression on leader role occupancy was significant for females (indirect effect:  $b = -.005$ , CI:  $[-.008, -.001]$ ) but not for males (indirect effect:  $b = -.001$ , CI:  $[-.003, .001]$ ), thereby supporting H1c (see Table 3.5). I therefore do not test the unconditional indirect effects proposed in H1a.

I also considered the conditional effects of gender on the indirect effects of physical violence on leader role occupancy, via depressive symptoms. After controlling for age, education, verbal IQ, race, number of relationships, and psychological aggression, no support emerged for the moderating role of gender (conditional indirect effect:  $b = -.001$ , CI:  $[-.006, .003]$ ). Thus, H2c was not supported (see Table 3.6).

Finally, because no conditional indirect effects emerged for physical violence, I tested the unconditional indirect effects of physical violence on leader role occupancy via depressive symptoms (Aguinis et al., 2017). After controlling for age, education, verbal IQ, race, number of relationships, and psychological aggression, depressive symptoms mediated the effects of experienced physical violence on leader role occupancy (indirect effect:  $b = -.003$ , CI:  $[-.007, -.001]$ ), supporting H2a (see Table 7).

--insert Table 3.3-3.7 about here--

### 3.6 General Discussion

The goal of this research was to consider antecedents to leader role occupancy within a lifespan perspective (Liu et al., 2020; Murphy & Johnson, 2011). Inspired by decades of research on the work-family interface (Barling, 1990; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006), and the Work-Home Resources Model (W-HR Model; ten Brummelhuis & Bakker,

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2012), I theorized that early romantic relationship experiences shape leader emergence in general, and specifically posited that dating violence, a common relational experience, would indirectly hinder victims' opportunity to occupy a later leadership role through its effects on depressive symptoms. Three key findings emerged from results.

First, results showed that experiencing psychological aggression in adolescent romantic relationships increased depressive symptoms six years later, which in turn, decreased leader role occupancy six years after that, but this effect was only significant for females. Thus, in support of existing literature (e.g., Beach et al., 2004; Coker et al., 2002) psychological aggression is more harmful for females than males with respect to depressive symptoms, and because of these increased depressive symptoms, females are less likely to emerge as organizational leaders. Importantly, the negative spillover of psychological aggression on leader role occupancy did not occur for males. Psychological aggression is common in dating relationships (Rubio-Garay et al., 2017; Stonard et al., 2014), and although males and females experience similar rates of psychological aggression in dating relationships (Rubio-Garay et al., 2017) the negative spillover of psychological aggression on leader role occupancy only occurred for females, offering an additional possible explanation for why females hold fewer leadership roles than males (Eagly & Karau, 1991). This is particularly important, as psychological aggression is often perceived as less severe than physical or sexual violence (Murphy & O'Leary, 1989), but as results show, the detrimental effects of females' experienced psychological aggression on leader role occupancy emerge above and beyond the independent effects of physical violence.

Second, results showed that independent of gender, experiencing physical violence in adolescent dating relationships predicted depressive symptoms, which in turn, decreased leader role occupancy; again, this effect was independent of psychological aggression. Thus, in contrast

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to some findings (e.g., Dobash & Dobash, 2004; Muñoz-Rivas et al., 2007; Tjaden & Thoennes, 2000), the effects of physical violence on depressive symptoms did not differ between males and females, supporting the unconditional indirect effect of physical violence on leader role occupancy. One plausible reason for a lack of gender moderation may be range restriction (i.e., the variance in reported physical violence is smaller in the sample compared to the variance in the population). Specifically, range restrictions adversely impact tests of moderation because the statistical power for detecting moderating effects is substantially diminished (Aguinis & Stone-Romero 1997; Aguinis et al., 2017). The prevalence of physical violence in this sample was low; only 10% reported at least one physically violent event compared to the population (20%, Wincentak et al., 2017) and to psychological aggression in the sample (22%), which may limit the ability to detect the moderating effects of gender (Aguinis, 1995).

Third, and contrary to hypotheses, no support emerged for the moderating effects of parent-adolescent relationship quality. In other words, the negative and indirect effects of physical violence on leader role occupancy persist irrespective of the quality of parent-child relationships. I offer three possible explanations for this finding. First, because adolescence marks a time in which children individuate from parental relationships (Laursen & Williams, 1997) adolescents might choose not to access resources generated from their relationships with their parents, rendering this resource ineffective. Second several other contextual (e.g., peer relationships) and personal (e.g., resilience, high competence) resources that mitigate the consequences of childhood trauma on successful adaptation (Masten et al., 1990) might mitigate the depleting effects of dating violence, particularly during adolescence, which were not assessed in Add health and could therefore not be tested. Third, there may be a ceiling effect with regard to parent-child relationship quality and a floor effect regarding physical violence in the present

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data. Scores on parent-child relationship quality were relatively high in this sample ( $M = 4.19$ ,  $SD = .75$ , min: 1, max: 5), with scores for physical violence being relatively low (10% of respondents reporting at least one event). Power is particularly threatened when range restrictions exist within predictors and moderators (Aguinis et al., 2017), as a result of which this lack of support for predicted moderating role of parent-adolescent relationship quality should be interpreted with caution.

### **Theoretical Contributions**

This research makes several theoretical contributions to both the leadership emergence and work-family literatures. First, adopting a lifespan approach to leader emergence (Murphy & Johnson, 2011), I identify a novel antecedent to leader role occupancy. Although scholars have speculated on the role of early romantic relationships on leadership behaviors and emergence (Liu et al., 2020), I directly tested this proposition and showed that by depleting mental health resources, negative experiences in adolescent dating relationships indirectly affect the likelihood of emerging as a leader. Thus, I contribute to the nascent literature suggesting that romantic relationship quality matters for organizational leadership (Dionisi & Barling, 2019). More specifically, findings suggest that adolescent experiences of romantic relationships can exert long-term effects on leader role occupancy through personal resources.

Second, adopting the W-HR model, I posited a resource loss explanation for why dating violence may hinder leader role occupancy, focusing on the role of depressive symptoms as mediating this effect. Although scholars have theorized that mental illness may limit leadership emergence due to conflicts between mental illness and leadership prototypes (Barling & Cloutier, 2017) and subclinical depression lowers leadership quality (e.g., Byrne et al., 2014), to my knowledge this is the first study to demonstrate that depressive symptoms limits leader role

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occupancy. As such, this study identifies one additional reason for why some people may be disadvantaged in attaining leadership positions in organizations. This is important, as leadership roles include access to desired organizational resources (e.g., higher pay, greater autonomy, Christie & Barling, 2009), and organizations should work to ensure equal access to leadership opportunities.

Third, I extend the family-to-work spillover literature, and the work-home resources model (W-HR Model; ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012) by empirically demonstrating long-term spillover effects. Indeed, I show that non-work demands (i.e., experienced psychological aggression and physical violence) deplete mental health resources six years later, which in turn, affect leader role occupancy six years after that. Most tests of the W-HR model are conducted over a shorter time period (Bakker et al., 2019), and when over the long term, are measured over a year (e.g., Debus et al., 2019). In the current study, the psychological processes outlined within the W-HR Model are supported empirically across a 12-year period.

Finally, females experiencing psychological aggression were more prone to experiencing depressive symptoms than males, which in turn only limited female leader emergence. This finding might help explain why females occupy fewer leadership roles (Eagly & Karau, 1991), despite the absence of differences in leadership behaviors between males and females (Eagly & Johnson, 1990).

### **Study Strengths**

This study has several strengths increasing its potential contribution to the leadership and work-family literatures. First, results were derived from a longitudinal dataset across four waves of data collection, spanning 12 years. This allowed for a test of the theoretical model over time, accounting for the temporal precedence of my theorized relationships. Second, analyses were

based on a nationally representative sample of Americans, which is particularly important when studying factors related to domestic violence, as convenience samples may limit the degree to which dating violence is detected. Third, the independent and indirect effects of experiencing psychological aggression and physical violence on leader role occupancy emerged even after controlling for additional theoretically-derived control variables, suggesting the robustness of the two indirect effects.

### **Study Limitations**

While offering so many advantages, using archival databases are not without limitations (Barnes et al., 2018). First, archival datasets generally, and the Add Health Survey more specifically, tend to measure broad sets of variables to appeal to multiple research interests (Barnes et al., 2018) which may limit the extent to which some variables are measured. For example, in the current study, psychological aggression and physical violence were measured with two and three items respectively, and the specificity of these items may not fully capture the extent to which psychological aggression and physical violence are experienced in dating relationships. For example, other measures of psychological aggression include multiple subscales (e.g., dominance/intimidation, denigration, Murphy & Hoover, 1999) while the most common physical violence measures includes 12 items assessing increasingly violent behaviors (e.g., kicked partner, threw partner, burned partner, Straus et al., 1996). Still, as in this study, existing research has relied on fewer items to test the long-term consequences of dating violence (e.g., Exner-Cortens et al., 2013; Gómez, 2011). Relatedly, and like other research (Barling & Weatherhead, 2016, De Neve et al., 2013, Li et al., 2018) my measure of leader role occupancy was assessed with a single item, however, extending upon Barling & Weatherhead, 2016, I validated this measure by demonstrating that leader role occupancy positively correlated with

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several variables related to organizational leadership positions including salary, hours worked, job satisfaction, job status, decision-making autonomy, and negatively correlated with repetitive work tasks. Second, data in this study are derived exclusively from self-reports, which may result in common method bias. However, many of the experiences (e.g., dating violence, depressive symptoms) included in the conceptual model are best assessed with self-report scales. Third, self-report may also result in underreporting of victimization experiences (Roscoe & Kelsey, 1986) and depressive symptoms, which was reflected in the lower percentage of adolescents indicating experiences of psychological aggression (20%) and physical violence (10%) as compared to population prevalence (35% and 20% respectively); although some evidence suggests underreporting is more likely in older than younger samples (Lyness et al., 1995).

### **Future Directions**

I offer three possible directions for future research that could advance the lifespan approach to leadership. First, several questions that remained unanswered from this current study warrant further investigation, such as why gender moderated the indirect effects of psychological aggression but not physical violence on depressive symptoms, whether results replicate with a more extensive and encompassing measure of mental health rather than self-reported depressive symptoms, and whether other contextual (social network support) or personal key (e.g., resilience) resources moderate the negative indirect effects of dating violence on leader role occupancy. For example, future research could consider whether other internalizing (e.g., anxiety) and externalizing (e.g., conduct disorder) disorders and subclinical symptoms link experiences of dating violence to leader emergence, as these various responses may be differentially affected by gender and parent-adolescent relationship quality (Dillon et al., 2013; García-Moreno et al., 2005).

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Second, future research should test explanations I posited for why depressive symptoms are negatively associated with later leaders role occupancy, that is, whether experiencing depressive symptoms results in self-selection out of leadership opportunities, or whether people involved in leadership selection are biased against applicants perceived as exhibiting depressive symptoms. This is important, as each of these explanations have different implications for organizations and individuals, and may require different interventions.

Third, having established an indirect link between dating violence and leader role occupancy, future research should consider the indirect effects of other aspects of adolescent romantic relationship quality on broader leadership outcomes. For example, research may consider how positive romantic relationship experiences during adolescence may generate social-interpersonal resources (e.g., communication skills, self-esteem) that increase the likelihood of leader role occupancy (e.g., Ensari et al., 2011; Riggio et al., 2003) later in life. Moreover, other leadership outcomes such as leadership behaviors or effectiveness could be examined as an indirect outcome of adolescent relationship quality, especially since depressive symptoms have been shown to predict positive and negative leadership behaviors (Byrne et al., 2014).

### **Organizational Implications**

I offer two organizational implications from the results of the current study. First, because depressive symptoms in early adulthood limit leader role occupancy six years later, organizations may have a role in supporting the mental health of their employees to ensure equal opportunities for leadership. In this regard, organizations should actively apply protocols that are effective in recognizing employees struggling with mental health issues (Dimoff & Kelloway, 2019), and in turn, implement programs that enhance employee mental health (Stratton et al., 2017). Second, organizations should ensure that those involved in leadership selection or



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promotion decisions receive training that minimizes biased selection processes or decision-making. This is because some evidence suggests that leaders may be expected to be mentally healthier than non-leaders (despite leaders and non-leaders experiencing the same rate of mental illness) (Cloutier & Barling, 2017). By drawing attention to this contradiction, selection committees may be motivated to identify, recognize and reduce these biases when making leadership appointments.

### **3.7 Conclusion**

For too long, scholars have focused on who becomes leaders, concentrating most of the attention on the positive attributes and characteristics that predict leader emergence (Zaccaro et al., 2013). However, of equal importance is a consideration of what factors derail leadership emergence, and how these factors can be mitigated or managed to ensure equal opportunity for leader role occupancy. In the current study, I identify how experiencing psychological aggression and physical violence in adolescent dating relationships indirectly derail the process of leader emergence. As leadership scholars continue to uncover antecedents of leadership emergence in general, these findings support the importance of taking a lifespan perspective in understanding who becomes a leader, and who does not.

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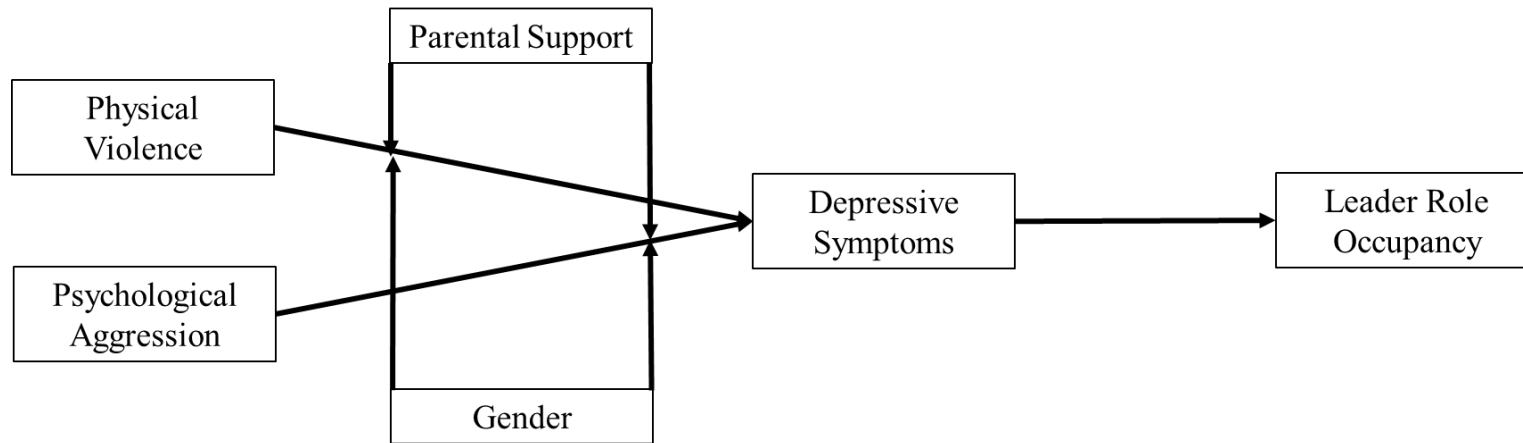
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## ROMANTIC RELATIONSHIPS AND LEADERSHIP

Figure 3.1

Conceptual model depicting the indirect effects of dating violence on leadership emergence



## ROMANTIC RELATIONSHIPS AND LEADERSHIP

**Table 3.1**

*Analyzed Add Health Variables by Wave (Waves 1-4)*

Wave 1 (1995-95)	Wave 2 (1996)	Wave 3 (2001-02)	Wave 4 (2007-08)
Gender Parental support Verbal IQ Race	Physical violence Psychological aggression Number of relationships	Depressive symptoms	Supervisor status Age Education (highest degree earned) Hours worked Income Job status Degree of decision making Work task repetitiveness Job satisfaction

## ROMANTIC RELATIONSHIPS AND LEADERSHIP

**Table 3.2**

*Study 1 Descriptive Statistics and Intercorrelations (N = 3126)*

	<i>M (SD)</i>	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.
1. Age	27.96 (1.65)	--									
2. Education	5.78 (2.19)	-.042*	--								
3. Verbal IQ	102.23 (14.03)	-.055**	.375**	--							
4. Race	1.52 (1.00)	.030	-.036*	-.214**	--						
5. Number of partners	.84 (.94)	.138**	.023	.059**	-.036*	--					
6. Psychological aggression	.32 (.69)	.147**	-.077**	-.035*	.003	.280**	--				
7. Physical Violence	.13 (.49)	.104**	-.090**	-.075**	.040*	.163**	.490**	--			
8. Depressive symptoms	.51 (.45)	-.005	-.143**	-.147**	.086**	.035*	.096**	.097**	<i>.80</i>		
9. P-A Quality	4.19 (.75)	-.142**	.024	.001	-.031	-.119**	-.138**	-.076**	-.173**	<i>.86</i>	
10. Gender	.56 (.50)	-.076**	.127**	-.064**	.023	.044*	.008	.014	.126**	-.095**	--
11. Leader role occupancy	.46 (.66)	.013	.017	.009	-.018	.048**	.008	-.030	-.039*	.006	-.091**

*Note.* Listwise deletion was applied. Alphas for depressive symptoms and parental support appear on the diagonal and are italicized.

P-A Quality = Parent-Adolescent Relationship Quality.

\* $p < .05$ ; \*\* $p < .001$ .



## ROMANTIC RELATIONSHIPS AND LEADERSHIP

**Table 3.3**

*Indirect Effect of Psychological Aggression on Leader Role Occupancy through Depressive Symptoms as Moderated by Parent-Adolescent Relationship Quality (N = 3126)*

	Mediator: Depressive symptoms			Outcome: Leader role occupancy		
	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	CI	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	CI
Control						
Age	-.015	.005	[-.024, -.005]	.408	.234	[-.040, .869]
Education	-.020	.004	[-.028, -.012]	.003	.007	[-.011, .018]
Verbal IQ	-.003	.001	[-.004, -.002]	.004	.006	[-.008, .015]
Race	.026	.008	[.010, .042]	-.001	.001	[-.002, .001]
Number of partners	.007	.009	[-.011, .024]	-.010	.012	[-.033, .014]
Physical violence	.045	.018	[.009, .081]	.035	.013	[.010, .061]
Predictor						
Psychological aggression	.073	.053	[-.030, .176]	.018	.020	[-.023, .057]
P-A Quality	-.094	.012	[-.118, -.071]	--	--	--
P-A Quality * Psychological aggression	-.011	.013	[-.037, .014]	--	--	--
Depressive symptoms	--	--	--	-.059	.027	[-.111, -.007]
Direct effect of psychological aggression on leader role occupancy				<i>b</i> = .018, <i>SE</i> = .020, CI [-.023, .058]		
Conditional indirect effect of psychological aggression on leader role occupancy through depressive symptoms				<i>b</i> = .001, <i>SE</i> = .001, CI [-.001, .003]		

*Note.* Listwise deletion was used. CI = confidence interval.

P-A Quality = Parent-adolescent quality.

# ROMANTIC RELATIONSHIPS AND LEADERSHIP

**Table 3.4**

*Indirect Effect of Physical Violence on Leader Role Occupancy through Depressive Symptoms as Moderated by Parent-Adolescent Relationship Quality (N = 3126)*

	Mediator: Depressive symptoms			Outcome: Leader role occupancy		
	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	CI	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	CI
Control						
Age	-.015	.005	[-.024, -.005]	.408	.234	[-.040, .869]
Education	-.020	.004	[-.028, -.012]	.003	.007	[-.011, .018]
Verbal IQ	-.003	.001	[-.004, -.002]	.004	.006	[-.008, .015]
Race	.026	.008	[.010, .042]	-.001	.001	[-.002, .001]
Number of partners	.006	.009	[-.011, .023]	-.010	.012	[-.033, .014]
Physical violence	.027	.014	[.001, .054]	.018	.020	[-.023, .057]
Predictor						
Psychological aggression	.087	.070	[-.050, .223]	-.059	.028	[-.113, -.004]
P-A Quality	-.097	.011	[-.119, -.076]	--	--	--
P-A Quality * Psychological aggression	-.010	.017	[-.043, .023]	--	--	--
Depressive symptoms	--	--	--	-.059	.027	[-.111, -.007]
Direct effect of physical violence on leader role occupancy				<i>b</i> = -.059, <i>SE</i> = .028, CI [-.114, -.005]		
Conditional indirect effect of physical violence on leader role occupancy through depressive symptoms				<i>b</i> = .001, <i>SE</i> = .001, CI [-.002, .003]		

*Note.* Listwise deletion was used. CI = confidence interval.

P-A Quality = Parent-adolescent quality.

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**Table 3.5**

*Indirect Effect of Psychological Aggression on Leader Role Occupancy through Depressive Symptoms as Moderated by Gender (N = 3156)*

	Mediator: Depressive symptoms			Outcome: Leader role occupancy		
	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	CI	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	CI
Control						
Age	-.006	.005	[-.015, .004]	.003	.007	[-.011, .018]
Education	-.026	.004	[-.033, -.018]	.004	.006	[-.008, .015]
Verbal IQ	-.003	.001	[-.004, -.001]	-.001	.001	[-.002, .001]
Race	.028	.008	[.012, .043]	-.010	.012	[-.033, .014]
Number of partners	.008	.009	[-.009, .025]	.035	.013	[.010, .061]
Physical violence	.041	.018	[.005, .077]	-.059	.028	[-.113, -.004]
Predictor						
Psychological aggression	.013	.019	[-.024, .049]	.018	.020	[-.023, .057]
Gender	.108	.018	[.074, .143]	--	--	--
Gender * Psychological aggression	.045	.023	[.001, .089]	--	--	--
Depressive symptoms	--	--	--	-.059	.027	[-.111, -.007]
Direct effect of psychological aggression on leader role occupancy				<i>b</i> = .017, <i>SE</i> = .020, CI [-.023, .058]		
Conditional indirect effect of psychological aggression on leader role occupancy through depressive symptoms				<i>b</i> = -.003, <i>SE</i> = .002, CI [-.007, -.001]		

*Note.* Listwise deletion was used. CI = confidence interval.

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**Table 3.6**

*Indirect Effect of Physical Violence on Leader Role Occupancy through Depressive Symptoms as Moderated by Gender (N = 3156)*

	Mediator: Depressive symptoms			Outcome: Leader role occupancy		
	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	CI	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	CI
Control						
Age	-.006	.005	[-.015, .004]	.003	.007	[-.011, .018]
Education	-.026	.004	[-.033, -.018]	.004	.006	[-.008, .015]
Verbal IQ	-.003	.001	[-.004, -.001]	-.001	.001	[-.002, .001]
Race	.027	.008	[.012, .043]	-.010	.012	[-.033, .014]
Number of partners	.008	.009	[-.009, .025]	.035	.013	[.010, .061]
Psychological aggression	.038	.013	[.011, .064]	.018	.020	[-.023, .057]
Predictor						
Physical violence	.032	.026	[-.018, .082]	-.059	.028	[-.113, -.004]
Gender	.120	.017	[.087, .153]	--	--	--
Gender * Physical violence	.016	.032	[-.046, .079]	--	--	--
Depressive symptoms	--	--	--	-.059	.027	[-.111, -.007]
Direct effect of physical violence on leader role occupancy				<i>b</i> = -.059, <i>SE</i> = .028, CI [-.114, -.005]		
Conditional indirect effect of physical violence on leader role occupancy through depressive symptoms				<i>b</i> = -.001, <i>SE</i> = .002, CI [-.006, .003]		

*Note.* Listwise deletion was used. CI = confidence interval.

# ROMANTIC RELATIONSHIPS AND LEADERSHIP

**Table 3.7**

*Unconditional Indirect Effect of Physical Violence on Leader Role Occupancy through Depressive Symptoms (N = 3156)*

	Mediator: Depressive symptoms			Outcome: Leader role occupancy		
	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	CI	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	CI
Control						
Age	-.009	.005	[-.019, .001]	.003	.007	[-.011, .018]
Education	-.021	.004	[-.029, -.013]	.004	.006	[-.008, .015]
Verbal IQ	-.003	.001	[-.004, -.002]	-.001	.001	[-.002, .001]
Race	.028	.008	[.012, .043]	-.010	.012	[-.033, .014]
Number of partners	.012	.009	[-.005, .029]	.035	.013	[.010, .061]
Psychological aggression	.039	.014	[.012, .065]	.017	.020	[-.023, .057]
Predictor						
Physical violence	.032	.026	[-.018, .082]	-.059	.028	[-.113, -.004]
Depressive symptoms	--	--	--	-.059	.027	[-.111, -.007]
Direct effect of physical violence on leader role occupancy				<i>b</i> = -.059, <i>SE</i> = .028, CI [-.113, -.004]		
Indirect effect of physical violence on leader role occupancy through depressive symptoms				<i>b</i> = -.003, <i>SE</i> = .002, CI [-.006, -.001]		

*Note.* Listwise deletion was used. CI = confidence interval.

**Chapter 4 -**

**Study 3: Witnessing Interparental Violence and Leader Role Occupancy:**

**The Roles of Insecure Attachment and Gender**

**Abstract<sup>10</sup>**

Given the role leaders play in organizational effectiveness, there is growing interest in understanding the antecedents of leader emergence. I consider the role that parents play in children's leader emergence by examining how witnessing interparental violence during adolescence indirectly affects leader role occupancy. Drawing on the work-home resources model (ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012), I hypothesize that witnessing interparental violence serves as a distal and chronic contextual demand that harms individuals' later ability to occupy a leadership role through its effects on constructive personal resources, operationalized as insecure attachment styles. Based on role congruity theory, I also predict that the relationship between attachment style and leader role occupancy will be stronger for females than males. Using data from the National Comorbidity Survey – Replication ( $n = 1701$ ), the indirect effects of witnessing interparental violence on leader emergence through anxious and avoidance was significant, but only for females. Implications of interparental violence for children's leadership emergence, and the role of gender in these relationships are discussed.

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<sup>10</sup> Note, a version of this chapter has been submitted to the Journal of Occupational Health Psychology as a short report, and is under its first round of review.

### 4.1 Introduction

Who becomes a leader, and who does not, is of considerable importance to employees and their organizations. First, attaining leadership roles is personally beneficial because such roles offer greater income, social status (Marmot, 2004), organizational resources (Hobfoll, 2002), and job control (Christie & Barling, 2009). Second, who occupies leadership roles is important to organizations because leaders influence organizational effectiveness (Quigley & Hambrick, 2015), and employees' health and success (Schyns & Schilling, 2013). My goal in this research is to explore distal and more proximal factors that differentiate between those who emerge as leaders, and those who do not. Consistent with the interdependence between work and family literature (Allen & Martin, 2017), and the lifespan approach to leader emergence (Liu et al., 2020), I examine whether adolescents' observations of interparental violence indirectly influences leader role occupancy through anxious and avoidant attachment styles.

I position my conceptual model within ten Brummelhuis and Bakker's (2012) Work-Home Resources Model (W-HR Model), and hypothesize that witnessing interparental violence is a distal and chronic emotional demand on adolescents that is indirectly and negatively associated with leader role occupancy through the mediating effects of constructive personal resources (i.e., anxious and avoidant attachment styles). Based on role congruity theory (Eagly & Diekmann, 2005; Eagly & Karau, 2002), I also hypothesize any negative effects of insecure (i.e., anxious, avoidant) attachment on leader role occupancy will be greater for females than males. Like others (e.g., Arvey et al., 2007; Barling & Weatherhead, 2016; Li et al., 2018), I conceptualize and operationalize leadership role occupancy as holding an organizational role that has formal responsibility for the behavior and performance of others.

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I focus on the role of witnessing interparental violence on leader emergence for two reasons. First, decades of research show that home and family experiences affect work outcomes (Barling, 1990; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985), including leadership-related outcomes (Dionisi & Barling, 2019; Murphy & Johnson, 2011). One family experience that receives minimal attention in organizational research is domestic violence. Domestic violence includes psychological, physical, and sexual violent behaviors that can be directed towards romantic partners, children, or the elderly (Gelles & Straus, 1988). Intimate partner violence includes violent behaviors as perpetrated between romantic partners (including parents). Such violence is often observed or recognized by children, and estimates suggest that between 8-25% of children in high income countries (Gilbert et al., 2009; Wathen & MacMillan, 2013) and  $\geq 27\%$  children in lower income countries (Devries et al., 2017) witness interparental violence. Although experiencing domestic violence has negative organizational outcomes for victims (e.g., lower attendance and performance, Leblanc et al., 2014), the effects of witnessing domestic violence on organizational outcomes is yet to be investigated.

Second, witnessing interparental violence may be relevant to leadership emergence. Although we know that parental behaviors shape children's social and interpersonal skills (Kitzmann et al., 2003), workplace attitudes (Barling et al., 1998), and even leader emergence (Liu et al., 2019; Reitan & Stenberg, 2019), parents also influence their children's attitudes and behavior vicariously (Bandura, 1977). Parents who model violent behaviors may affect the psychosocial development of their children (Kitzmann et al., 2003), which in turn could affect their children's leader role occupancy. Following Liu et al.'s (2020) comments on the role of parents on leadership development, I hypothesize that witnessing parental violence will shape



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those adolescents' relational behaviors, in turn affecting the likelihood of their assuming leadership positions.

### **Familial Experiences and Leadership**

Interest in the antecedents of leader role occupancy has existed for more than seven decades (e.g., Stogdill, 1948), with most investigations focusing on individual differences such as intelligence (Daly et al., 2015), personality traits (e.g., Ensari et al., 2011), gender (e.g., Eagly & Karau, 1991), and genetics (e.g., De Neve et al., 2013). It is now becoming clear that leader emergence is a process that occurs across the life span (Liu et al., 2019), and that early life and family environments (e.g., childhood poverty; Barling & Weatherhead, 2016) indirectly affect who emerges as a leader, and who does not. In the current study, I focus on how witnessing interparental violence during adolescence indirectly affects leadership role occupancy.

To date, some studies have investigated the relationship between parental influences and leadership. For example, transformational parenting (Zacharatos et al., 2000), parental support (Oliver et al., 2011), and authoritative parenting (Kudo et al., 2012) have all been associated with children's transformational leadership behaviors and potential, while neglectful and authoritarian parenting behaviors lowered children's later leader effectiveness (Lamborn et al., 1991). With regards to leader emergence, a positive family environment including parental support during adolescence predicts adult leader emergence (Gottfried et al., 2011; Reichard et al., 2011; Reitan & Stenberg, 2019) while more destructive parenting practices such as actively overparenting (Liu et al., 2019) decreases leadership role occupancy.

Parental behaviors are just one way in which parents affects their children, and much social learning also comes from how children observe their parents' treatment of others. Thus, extending this research and the idea that parenting behaviors in general influence leader role

occupancy (Liu et al., 2020) and consistent with social learning theory (Bandura, 1977), I hypothesize that parents' behaviors toward each other affects adolescents' later leader role occupancy. Given parents function as role models for their children (Bandura, 1977), I predict that the extent to which adolescents witness their parents mistreat each other by engaging in physical violence will affect their ability to navigate future social relationships in the workplace (i.e., through their attachment style). In turn, I predict that impaired social functioning (i.e., anxious and avoidant attachment styles) will hinder leader role occupancy. Although existing evidence suggests that children witnessing interparental violence results in behavioral problems (Graham-Bermann & Perkins, 2010), social-interpersonal challenges (Kitzmann et al., 2003), and one's own violent behaviors in intimate relationships (Black et al., 2010), no existing research has examined the relationship between domestic violence and leadership in general, or witnessing interparental violence and leader emergence in particular. Taken together, I suggest that much like the indirect effects of parenting behaviors on leader emergence (Liu et al., 2019), witnessing interparental treatment will affect adolescents' social-interpersonal resources, which will affect the opportunity and/or ability to occupy a leadership role.

### **4.2 Witnessing Interparental Violence and Leader Role Occupancy:**

#### **A Resource Perspective**

I draw upon ten Brummelhuis and Bakker's (2012) Work-Home Resources Model (W-HR model) to explain how witnessing interparental violence will indirectly affect leadership role occupancy. The W-HR model was initially developed to clarify the processes that link work and home life, and why these two domains can be mutually conflicting and enriching. Based upon Hobfoll's (2002) conservation of resources theory, ten Brummelhuis and Bakker posited that any one domain (e.g., home) provides a context characterized by resources and/or demands which

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influence the personal resources (i.e., traits and energies) that people have to invest in other domains (e.g., work). For example, when home life offers contextual resources (e.g., support from a romantic partner), the resulting personal resources (e.g., positive affect) could be useful in other contexts (e.g., work performance). At the same time, the home domain also presents contextual demands (e.g., relationship conflict at home) that drains personal resources (e.g., emotional exhaustion) resulting in less output in another domain (e.g., poor work performance).

Although most applications of the W-HR model investigate shorter-term spillover (e.g., negative effects of daily job demands on work-home conflict, Ilies et al., 2007), ten Brummelhuis and Bakker (2012) posited that chronic, structural demands in one domain can also deplete personal resources over the long-term, thereby consuming more structural personal resources (e.g., health, traits) that affects later functioning in other domains. As one example, sustained family overload results in accumulated physical stress and health issues that result in work absences in subsequent years (ten Brummelhuis et al., 2013).

Building on this model, I propose that witnessing interparental violence is a traumatic experience that constitutes a chronic and emotional contextual demand for adolescents. I operationalize witnessing violence as the extent to which adolescents witness physical aggression, which includes hitting, slapping, pushing, and beating up one's partner (Straus, 2017), between their parents. Meta-analytic findings show that children and adolescents who witness interparental violence experience similar psychosocial hindrances and developmental issues as those who experience physical violence themselves (Wolfe et al., 2003). Witnessing interparental violence is not infrequent (i.e., Devries et al., 2017; Wathen & MacMillan, 2013), and harms children's mental models of social relationships. Thus, adolescents who have witnessed violence experienced greater problems with socializing (e.g., social competence),

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externalizing behaviors (e.g., aggression), and self-esteem (Kitzmann et al., 2003) than those who have not witnessed violence. Importantly, these social-interpersonal challenges persist, such that children who witnessed interparental violence are more likely to have destructive responses to conflict in adulthood, including withdrawal and aggression.

Taken together, witnessing interparental violence is a persistent contextual demand that hinders the ability to relate constructively with others; and the ability to maintain positive interpersonal relationships can be conceptualized as a structural personal resource, critical to leader emergence. One indicator of interpersonal relational abilities is attachment style.

### **The Mediating Role of Attachment Style**

Originally developed by Bowlby (1958, 1982), attachment theory posits that the ways in which caregivers respond to infants and children affects children's subsequent mental models of relationships. When children's social, emotional or physical needs are met by caregivers, an inner sense of security, love, and esteem ensues (Bowlby, 1988). However, when caregivers are unavailable or unsupportive of infants and children's needs, a sense of secure attachment is thwarted, and negative working models of relationships result (Cassidy & Kobak, 1988; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2016). One consequence would be that these infants and children develop an anxious attachment and seek high degrees of proximity, support, and protection from others, while lacking confidence that they will be successful. In addition, they could also develop an avoidant attachment style and not seek support, instead distancing themselves emotionally from others, and relying on themselves for the comfort and protection they need. People vary in the degree to which they experience anxious and avoidant attachment, and those who are low on both of these continuums are conceptualized as securely attached.

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Two points regarding attachment styles are especially relevant for the current study. First, attachment styles developed in childhood and adolescence persist moderately stably into adulthood, affecting, to a certain extent, many future relationships (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2016). Second, personal experiences with caregivers are not the only source of children's attachment styles. Instead, witnessing how caregivers treat one another also influences the development of children's anxious and avoidant attachment styles (Cusimano & Riggs, 2013), and children and adolescents who witness interparental violence are more likely to develop anxious and avoidant attachment (Gustafsson et al., 2017).

**Attachment style and leader emergence.** Past research has linked attachment style with work attitudes and behaviors. For example, anxious-attachment is positively associated with counterproductive work behaviors and negatively associated with citizenship behaviors (Hazan & Shaver, 1990), while avoidant attachment is negatively associated with collegial relationships, instrumental and emotional support seeking (Richards & Schat, 2011). Anxious attachment has recently been linked to leadership behaviors in particular, with anxious attachment indirectly and positively associated with abusive supervision through the mediating effects of social self-efficacy (Robertson et al., 2018).

I predict that insecure attachment is negatively associated with leader role occupancy for two reasons. First, individuals with higher anxious or avoidant attachment styles may not be selected for leadership roles. The reason for this is that the types of behaviors that characterize anxious (e.g., unwanted attempts at closeness) and avoidant (e.g., aggressive and cold displays during social interactions) attachment are unlikely to be associated with peoples' implicit leadership schemas (i.e., expected attributes of prototypical leaders, Epitropaki & Martin, 2004) and as such, sends negative signals to those involved in leadership selection.

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More specifically, anxious attachment is positively associated with experiencing stress (Smyth et al., 2015), and negatively associated with emotion regulation (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2019), work performance (Hazan & Shaver, 1990), and interpersonal skills (McClure & Lydon, 2014). Anxious attachment is also negatively related to perceived attractiveness as higher anxious attachment results in nervous and socially awkward behavioral interactions with others (McClure et al., 2010). These behaviors and characteristics are incongruent with expectations that leaders are charismatic, sensitive and dynamic (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004). Moreover, facial expressions exhibiting anxiety are categorized as less leader-like than those who appear happy and confident (Trichas et al., 2017).

Avoidant attachment is also viewed as incongruent with behaviors that typify effective leadership. For example, avoidance attachment is positively linked with being perceived as cold, elusive, and unappealing (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2016), manipulative and aggressive behaviors (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2019), and negatively associated with the size of social networks (Fiori et al., 2011). Such behaviors are again perceived as incongruent with ILTs (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004), specifically the expectation that leaders are sensitive and charismatic. Together, the behaviors and characteristics that typify anxious and avoidant attachment send signals to those involved in leadership selection that the applicants do not fit the prototypical leader schema.

Second, individuals' with insecure attachments may be reluctant to lead, and as a result do not seek leadership roles. Supporting this, anxious attachment is negatively associated with performance self-efficacy (Wright et al., 2017) and positively associated with fear of rejection (Downey & Feldman, 1996). Avoidant attachment may also be negatively associated with the motivation to lead, perhaps because attachment avoidance is negatively associated with career self-efficacy (Wright et al., 2017). Further support for the notion that individuals higher in

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avoidant anxiety might choose not to seek leadership positions derives from the finding that avoidant attachment is negatively associated with engaging in extra-role work behaviors (Little et al., 2011). As such, anxious and avoidant attachment styles may inhibit people from putting themselves forward for leadership roles because of fear of negative evaluation, and the belief that they are do not have sufficient skills for the role. In contrast, securely attached individuals have no difficulty in applying for leadership roles as they perceive themselves as more leader-like than insecurely attached individuals (Berson et al., 2006).

Taken together, the ability to navigate close relationships is critical to social relationship development (Lopes et al., 2003) and leader emergence (Côté et al., 2010; Riggio et al., 2003). Individuals who experience the chronic demands of witnessing parental violence during adolescence are likely to develop anxious and/or avoidant attachment styles, which in turn may reduce the likelihood that they would eventually occupy leadership roles.

H1. Anxious attachment will mediate the relationship between witnessing parental violence and leader role occupancy.

H2. Avoidant attachment will mediate the relationship between witnessing parental violence and leader role occupancy.

### **The Moderating Role of Gender**

Finally, I posit that gender will moderate the relationship between attachment style and leader role occupancy such that the negative effects of anxious and avoidant attachment on leader role occupancy will be stronger for females. This prediction is derived from role congruity theory (Eagly & Diekmann, 2005; Eagly & Karau, 2002), which was introduced to explain why females hold fewer leadership roles than males. Role congruity theory posits that the perceived incongruity between female gender role stereotypes and leadership role stereotypes results in

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prejudice against female leaders, such that females are less likely to attain leadership roles, and even when they do, will be rated less favorably in leadership roles. More specifically, females are expected to exhibit communal traits, which would be reflected in being “affectionate, helpful, kind, sympathetic, interpersonally sensitive, nurturant, and gentle” (Eagly & Karau, 2002, p. 575). In contrast, males are expected to be agentic, which would include being “aggressive, ambitious, dominant, forceful, independent, self-sufficient, self-confident, and prone to act as a leader” (Eagly & Karau, 2002, p. 575). Importantly in terms of role congruity theory, these stereotypical masculine traits are more congruent with people’s leadership mental models.

In response, research has investigated whether females attenuate this disadvantage by displaying agentic, stereotypically male traits to appear more leader-like (Rudman & Glick, 1999; Rudman et al., 2012). However, when they do, they are evaluated even less favorably for leadership roles. Across five studies, females were penalized for behaving agentially (Rudman et al., 2012), a finding that has been replicated in several contexts, for example amongst clergy (Ferguson, 2018), in politics (Okimoto & Brescoll, 2010), and academia (Rudman & Glick, 2001). Instead, both males and females receive more approval when they conform to gender stereotypes (e.g., Glick & Fiske, 1997).

Thus, I expect that females who demonstrate lower interpersonal skills associated with anxious and avoidant attachment styles violate female gender norms inasmuch as they are not displaying the communal traits expected of them (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2016). Specifically, females who display anxious (e.g., engaging in repeated unwanted attempts of closeness) or avoidant (e.g., being cold and distant) behaviors violate gender expectations, and might therefore be penalized in leadership selection competitions. Female leaders who display more secure



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attachment behaviors such as empathy experience fewer problems with interpersonal relationships, and therefore are more likely to emerge into leadership roles (Gentry et al., 2015).

In contrast, males do not have similar communal expectations placed on them, as a result of which not displaying them in a work context should have little effect on whether they attain leadership positions. As such, females with insecure attachment styles may experience an additive negative effect on their ability to emerge as a leader.

H3. Gender will moderate the indirect effect of witnessing interparental violence on leader role occupancy, such that the negative effect of anxious attachment on leader role occupancy will be stronger for females.

H4. Gender will moderate the indirect effect of witnessing interparental violence on leader role occupancy, such that the negative effect of avoidant attachment on leader role occupancy will be stronger for females.

See Figure 4.1 for a depiction of the full conceptual model.

--insert Figure 4.1 about here--

### 4.3 Method

#### Participants

To test this model, I draw upon data from the National Comorbidity Survey- Replication (NCS-R), a cross-sectional, nationally representative survey of English-speaking respondents, 18 years and older living within the United States (see Kessler & Merikangas, 2004 for more details). The NCS-R was developed to identify risk factors and outcomes associated with mental illnesses, and included assessments of the history of domestic violence and current work experiences. Data were collected between 2001 and 2003, using a multistage-clustered area probability sampling procedure with an overall response rate of 70.9%. The survey consisted of two parts: (1) a core diagnostic assessment of ICD and DSM-IV items administered to all 9,282

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respondents, and (2) surveys assessing risk factors and work outcomes administered to a subsample of 5,692 individuals. Face-to-face interviews were conducted by professional interviewers from the Institute for Social Research at the University of Michigan.

Participants ( $n = 1701$ ; 44.7% male, 30.3% leaders,  $M$  age = 39.88 years,  $SD = 13.21$ ) include a subsample of the NCS-R who responded to all the variables of interest to this study.

### Measures

#### *Witnessing Interparental Violence*

Participants were presented with a list of physically violent behaviors, namely, pushed, grabbed, shoved, threw something at, slapped, and hit. Respondents then responded to the question: “Prior to the age of 21, how often did (your parents/the people who raised you) do any of these things to each other while you were growing up” using a 0 (never) to 3 (often) scale.

#### *Attachment Styles*

To measure anxious attachment, participants responded to one item from Hazan and Shaver’s (1987) adult attachment scale: “I find that others are reluctant to get as close as I would like. I often worry that people who I care about do not love me or won’t want to stay with me. I want to merge completely with another person, and this desire sometimes scares people away”. Participants responded to a second item from Hazan and Shaver (1987) to assess avoidant attachment: “I am somewhat uncomfortable being close to others; I find it difficult to trust them completely and difficult to depend on them. I am nervous when anyone get too close to me.” Both items were rated on a 1 (not at all) to 4 (a lot) scale.

Because both anxious and avoidant attachment were assessed with single items, I tested their validity by correlating them with a 3 item workplace interpersonal conflict scale, using a 1 (none [of the time]) to 5 (all [of the time]) rating scale (e.g., “how often do you have trouble

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getting along with others at work”,  $a = .70$ ). As expected, both anxious ( $r(1627) = .215, p > .001$ ) and avoidant ( $r(1627) = .201, p > .001$ ) attachment were significantly correlated with interpersonal conflict.

### ***Leader Role Occupancy***

Leader role occupancy was measured with a single dichotomous question, “Do you directly supervise anyone on your job?” (no = “0”; yes = “1”); 30.3% of the sample held a leadership role. Support for the validity of this one-item measure derives from findings showing leaders enjoyed a higher annual salary than non-leaders ( $M = \$77,841, SD = 50,020$  vs.  $M = \$63,093, SD = 44,955; t(1699) = 6.00, p < .001$ ); had completed more years of education than non-leaders (rated on a 1 (0-11 years) to 4 (16 or more years)  $M = 3.01 SD = .93$  vs.  $M = 2.71$  years,  $SD = .96; t(1699) = 5.87, p < .001$ ); and worked more hours per week than non-leaders ( $M = 43.87$  hours,  $SD = 12.38$  vs.  $M = 37.73$  hours,  $SD = 13.20; t(1678) = 8.93, p < .001$ ). In addition, leaders reported higher subjective social status relative to others in their community (rated on a 1 to 10-point ladder scale) than non-leaders ( $M = 6.72, SD = 1.74$  vs.  $M = 6.30, SD = 1.85; t(1681) = 4.38, p < .001$ ).

### ***Control Variables***

I control for several variables to rule out spurious relationships. First, age was controlled as experiences in childhood may be less relevant the more distal they become, and because the likelihood of attaining a leadership position increases with organizational tenure, which is associated with age. Second, education and childhood poverty status were controlled because they are associated with experiencing family violence (Anderson, 1997) and lower leadership role occupancy (Barling & Weatherhead, 2016). Education was measured with a single item reflecting the number of years of education received (on a scale ranging from 1 [less than 11

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years] to 4 [more than 16 years]). Childhood poverty was measured with a single dichotomous proxy variable in which participants indicated whether or not their family required government financial assistance prior to the age of 16 (no = “0”; yes = “1”). See Appendix G for a full list of measures used in this study.

### 4.4 Data Analyses

All data analyses were computed using SPSS25. I began by testing the conditional indirect effect hypotheses (i.e., the indirect effects of witnessing interparental violence on leader role occupancy via (H3) anxious attachment and (H4) avoidant attachment as moderated by gender [coded 0 for male, 1 for female]). In the absence of a conditional indirect effect, the unconditional indirect effects (i.e., H1 and H2) would be examined (Aguinis et al., 2017). To test the conditional indirect effects, I used procedures implemented through Hayes’ PROCESS program (v3.4), with 10,000 bootstrapped samples (Hayes 2017; <http://www.afhayes.com>), and across analyses, significance was determined based on whether the confidence intervals surrounding the index of mediation by gender excluded zero. Across analyses, I controlled for participants’ age, education, and childhood poverty status. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported for all analyses, and in the case of logistic analyses, odds ratio (OR) are included for ease of interpretation. The odds ratio for the indirect effects are computed by exponentiating the regression coefficient, i.e.,  $\exp(\beta)$ .

### 4.5 Results

Descriptive statistics and intercorrelations for all variables appear in Table 4.1.

--insert Table 4.1 about here--

I began by testing the proposed conditional indirect effects. First, I considered the conditional effects of gender on the indirect effects of interparental violence on leader role

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occupancy, via anxious attachment. After controlling for age, education, and childhood poverty status, the indirect effect of interparental violence on leader role occupancy differed by gender such that the indirect effect of interparental violence on leader role occupancy was significant for females (indirect effect:  $b = -.019$ ;  $OR = .981$ , CI: [.950, .999]), but not males (indirect effect:  $b = -.008$ ;  $OR = .992$ , CI: [.971, 1.008]), thereby supporting H3 (see Table 4.2). Thus, females who reported high anxious attachment were 2.94 times less likely to be a leader than females who reported low anxious attachment, while indirect effects were not significant for males. Because the indirect effects are conditioned on gender, I did not test the unconditional indirect effects proposed in H1 (Aguinis et al., 2017).

--insert Table 4.2 about here--

Second, I considered the conditional effects of gender on the indirect effects of interparental violence on leader role occupancy, via avoidant attachment. After controlling for age, education, and childhood poverty status, the indirect effect of interparental violence on leader differed by gender such that the indirect effect of interparental violence on leader role occupancy was significant for females (indirect effect:  $b = -.024$ ;  $OR = .977$ , CI: [.949, .998]) but not males (indirect effect:  $b = .009$ ;  $OR = 1.009$ , CI: [.989, 1.035]), thereby supporting H4 (see Table 4.3). What this means is that females who reported high avoidant attachment were 2.93 times less likely to be a leader than females who reported low avoidant attachment. Indirect effects were not significant for males. Again, because the indirect effects are conditioned on gender, I did not test the unconditional indirect effects proposed in H2 (Aguinis et al., 2017).

--insert Table 4.3 about here--

### 4.6 Discussion

Drawing on the work-home resources model (ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012), I investigated whether anxious and avoidant attachment mediates the effects of witnessing interparental violence during adolescence on attaining a leadership role in adulthood. Based on role congruity theory (Eagly & Karau, 2002), I also predicted that gender would moderate the link between insecure attachment and leader role occupancy, such that the detrimental effect of insecure attachment would hinder leader emergence more for females than males. Overall, results showed that for females, witnessing interparental violence was associated with a lower likelihood of occupying a leadership role as a function of anxious and avoidant attachment. However, no spillover occurred for males.

#### **Theoretical Implications**

The current findings offer several theoretical contributions regarding our understanding of both leadership and the intersection of work and family. First, by identifying the role of witnessing interparental violence during adolescence, the current results build upon what is known about the antecedents to leader role occupancy, and support the importance of a social lifespan perspective in the development of leader emergence (Liu et al., 2020; Murphy & Johnson, 2011). Assuming a lifespan perspective in understanding the development of leadership emergence goes beyond a focus on individual level predictors, whether genetic (De Neve et al., 2013), gender (Eagly & Karau, 1991), or personality (Reichard et al., 2011) determinants.

Second, I extend ten Brummelhuis and Bakker's (2012) W-HR model by demonstrating the long-term indirect effects of home demands on work outcomes via its effect on personal resources. Tests of the W-HR model have been limited to more short-term spillover (e.g., Ilies et

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al., 2007); in contrast, our findings show how distal home demands indirectly impact the work domain, and more specifically, adult leader role occupancy.

Third, I identify one more reason why females occupy fewer leadership roles than males. Specifically, the results of the current study show that witnessing interparental violence during adolescence was associated with both males' and females' anxious and avoidant attachment. However, the negative effects of anxious and avoidant attachment style on leader role occupancy was only significant for females, not for males. Although males do experience other consequences associated with early witnessing of violence (e.g., incarceration, Dargis & Koenigs, 2017), these findings provide further support for role congruity theory, as females were penalized in terms of leader emergence when they did not conform to gendered, communal expectations (Rudman et al., 2012), and males were not.

### **Strengths**

This study has several strengths. First, I drew upon a nationally representative sample of Americans, increasing confidence in the generalizability of the findings. Second, using a larger sample is particularly important when investigating experiences related to interpartner violence. Indeed, a common critique of the family violence literature is the over-reliance on small, female-only samples (Wolfe et al., 2003). Third, I controlled for several variables (namely, age, education, childhood poverty) that could pose plausible, alternative explanations for the indirect link between witnessing domestic violence and leader emergence, thereby minimizing possible threats to validity and interpretation.

### **Weaknesses**

Nonetheless, several aspects of this study potentially threaten conclusions that might be drawn. First, data from the NCS-R are cross-sectional, which limits inferences about the

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temporal ordering and the causal nature of the theorized mediation model. To mitigate this, I implemented several suggestions by Spector (2019). (a) Mediation analyses were theoretically driven (Hayes, 2017) and it is unlikely that reverse causality is an issue, e.g., that current leadership status influences retrospective reports of attachment style or experiences of witnessing interparental violence during adolescence. (b) The survey implemented retrospective event history by asking participants to rate the frequency with which they witnessed their parents engage in specific violence behaviors prior to the age of 21, with leader role occupancy measured as participants' current employment role, thereby specifying a clear order of events. (c) I controlled for age, education, and childhood poverty to exclude several possible rival explanations for the relationship between witnessing violence and leader role occupancy, enhancing confidence in the relationship within my hypothesized model. However, I was unable to control for other known predictors of leader emergence (e.g., personality, genetics) that were not measured in the NCS-R.

Second, the data drawn from the NCS-R are all single-source and self-report, still, I suggest that this is appropriate in the current study. (a) Adolescents' reports of witnessing interparental violence may matter more than objective reports, and adolescents' feelings of attachment insecurity can best be assessed with self-report. (b) The two significant interactions exclude the possibility that common method bias explains the relationships between anxious and avoidant attachment and leader role occupancy (Siemsen et al., 2010).

Third, because data were derived from a lengthy survey intended to test comorbidity of mental illnesses, all constructs were measured with single items, which raise concerns about sensitivity, reliability, and content validity. However, such concerns are reduced for several reasons. (a) Anxious and avoidant attachment were correlated with workplace interpersonal



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conflict, and (b) leaders had higher education, salary, hours worked, and social status than non-leaders. (c) Moreover, concerns related to single-item measures may be over-stated (Wanous & Reichers, 1996), and single-item measures (e.g., such as attachment style; Hazan & Shaver, 1987) have been shown to be reliable and significantly correlated with multi-item measures of the same construct.

### **Future Directions**

I offer several suggestions for future research to replicate and extend the current results. First, the current findings need to be replicated using longitudinal and multisource data. Second, I offered two possible reasons for why those who are anxiously or avoidantly attached may be less likely to attain leadership positions: (a) they are not selected because they demonstrate behaviors deemed anti-prototypical and insufficient to lead, and/or (b), insecurely attached individuals may choose not to seek out leadership opportunities. Future research should investigate these two possible explanations to clarify the indirect link between witnessing interparental violence and leader role occupancy. This is important, as each of these explanations would have very different implications for organizations and individuals. Third, future research could consider interparental relationship quality more broadly, including whether and how witnessing high-quality parental relationships influence secure attachment and the likelihood of occupying leadership roles. Researchers may also investigate whether and how interparental treatment affects other leadership outcomes, such as leadership behaviors and effectiveness.

### **Social and Organizational Implications**

As noted above, both females and males experience similar insecure attachments as a function of witnessing interparental violence, yet only females' leader role occupancy is affected by anxious and avoidant attachment. As such, these findings identify an additional obstacle

experienced by females that may partially explain why females occupy fewer leadership roles than males. Indeed, females with insecure attachment styles may feel less motivated to take on leadership positions which are stereotypically viewed as incongruent with expectations of their gender (Eagly & Karau, 2002) and leadership prototypes (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004). Another possibility is that those on promotion committees overemphasize gender stereotypes when making leadership appointments and therefore penalize females but not males in their selection.

Our findings thus suggest two recommendations for organizations given the negative indirect effects of witnessing interparental violence on later leader role emergence for females. First, organizations could offer programs that support employee mental health (e.g., Nielson et al., 2010) to address any chronic consequences associated with witnessing interpartner violence that indirectly affect motivation to lead (Chan & Drasgow, 2001). Second, managers engaged in selecting and/or promoting people to leadership positions in the organization should receive training that addresses biased leadership selection processes or decision-making. For example, human resource professionals and managers could receive information about the lack of gender-based differences in leadership effectiveness (Eagly & Johnson, 1990), and about the inequalities that exist regarding gender parity in leadership roles more generally<sup>11</sup>.

### 4.7 Conclusion

Who becomes a leader, and who does not, is of considerable importance to the organizations which employ them, to team members led by them, and to individuals aspiring to attain leadership roles themselves. Like others (Liu et al., 2020; Murphy & Johnson, 2011), I

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<sup>11</sup> Note, I do not recommend that those with insecure attachment styles should be favored for leadership positions in general as evidence suggests that insecure attachment styles predict abusive supervisory behaviors (Robertson et al., 2018) while secure attachment is related to transformational behaviors (Mayseless, 2010; Popper et al., 2000). Rather, I wish to draw attention to the inequality that females experience as a function of insecure attachment with regards to leadership emergence.

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hypothesized that leader development occurs across the lifespan and consistent with the interdependence of work and family, that family experiences spill over into work via its effects on personal resources (ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). Extending past work that shows the effects of family violence on work outcomes (Leblanc et al., 2014), and parenting behaviors on leadership outcomes (e.g., Liu et al., 2019), we now know that witnessing how parents treat each other indirectly influences later leader role occupancy through its effect on individuals' attachment styles, but only for females. Continued investigations adopting a lifespan approach will be imperative as we expand our understanding of who becomes a leader, and who does not.

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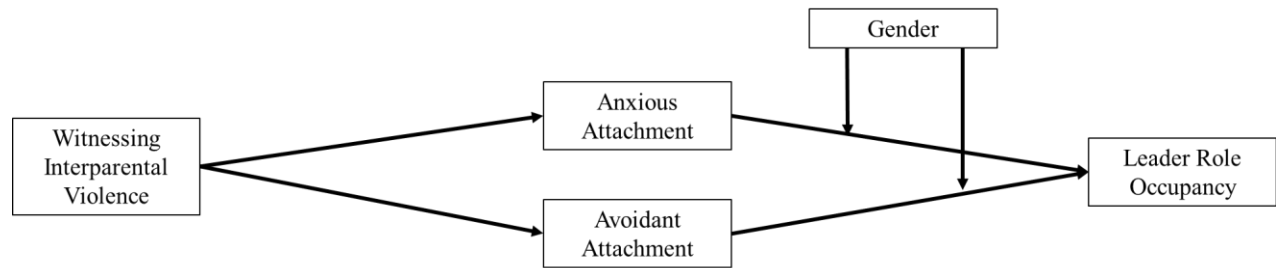
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**Figure 4.1**

*Conditional Indirect Effects Model of Witnessing Interparental Violence on Leader Role*

*Occupancy*



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**Table 4.1**

*Descriptive Statistics and Intercorrelations (N = 1627)*

	<i>M (SD)</i>	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.
1. Age	39.93 (13.20)	--							
2. Sex	.55 (.50)	-.002	--						
3. Education	2.81 (.96)	.043	.090**	--					
4. Childhood poverty	.11 (.32)	-.140**	.000	-.097**	--				
5. Interparental violence	1.38 (.82)	.055*	.048	-.069**	.230**	--			
6. Anxious attachment	1.35 (.71)	-.100**	-.015	-.073**	.070**	.105**	--		
7. Avoidant attachment	1.86 (1.01)	-.037	.021	.016	.086**	.130**	.293**	--	
8. Leader role occupancy	.31 (.46)	.061*	-.133**	.145**	-.051*	-.017	-.065**	-.027	--

*Note.* Listwise deletion was applied. Education is a categorical variable (ranging from 1 [0-11 years of school] to 4 [16+ years of school]). All variables reflect single-item measures.

\* $p < .05$ ; \*\* $p < .001$

**Table 4.2***Effects of Witnessing Interparental Violence on Leader Role Occupancy through Anxious**Attachment Style as Moderated by Gender (N = 1665)*

Predictor	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>OR</i>	CI <i>OR</i>
Outcome: Anxious attachment				
Constant	1.567	.082		
Interparental violence	.076	.022		
Age	-.005	.001		
Education	-.043	.018		
Childhood poverty	.062	.056		
Outcome: Probability of leader role occupancy				
Constant	-1.681	.316	1.681	[.100, .346]
Interparental violence	.026	.071	1.026	[.894, 1.178]
Anxious attachment	-.108	.114	.898	[.720, 1.123]
Sex	-.467	.244	.627	[.389, 1.012]
Sex * Anxious attachment	-.147	.167	.863	[.621, 1.198]
Age	.008	.004	1.008	[1.000, 1.016]
Education	.355	.059	1.426	[1.270, 1.601]
Childhood poverty	-.222	.189	.801	[.553, 1.159]

*Note.* Listwise deletion used. *OR* = odds ratio; CI *OR* = confidence intervals of odd ratios.

**Table 4.3***Effects of Witnessing Interparental Violence on Leader Role Occupancy through Avoidant**Attachment Style as Moderated by Gender (N = 1667)*

Predictor	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>OR</i>	CI <i>OR</i>
Outcome: Avoidant attachment				
Constant	1.641	.116		
Interparental violence	.138	.031		
Age	-.002	.002		
Education	.028	.026		
Childhood poverty	.189	.080		
Outcome: Probability of leader role occupancy				
Constant	-2.008	.302	.134	[.074, .243]
Interparental violence	.019	.071	1.019	[.887, 1.170]
Avoidant attachment	.067	.079	1.069	[.916, 1.250]
Sex	-.216	.229	.806	[.514, 1.262]
Sex * Avoidant attachment	-.238	.111	.788	[.635, .979]
Age	.008	.004	1.008	[1.000, 1.017]
Education	.369	.059	1.447	[1.289, 1.624]
Childhood poverty	-.206	.189	.814	[.562, 1.179]

*Note.* Listwise deletion used. *OR* = odds ratio; CI *OR* = confidence intervals of odd ratios.

### **Chapter 5 -**

#### **General Discussion**

I set out to examine whether romantic relationships affect leadership. I considered three ways in which romantic relationships can influence leadership, and found that for females, one's current romantic relationship quality can influence leadership behaviors (Study 1), one's past experience of dating violence can hinder leadership emergence (Study 2), and one's past observations of inter-parental domestic violence can also harm leader emergence. In contrast, the spillover of romantic relationships into leadership outcomes did not emerge for males. Across all three studies, ten Brummelhuis and Bakker's (2012) Work-Home Resources Model served as my primary conceptual framework, in which I suggested that romantic relationship experiences can either serve as contextual resources or contextual demands that affect personal psychological resources, and in turn leadership outcomes. Results consistently showed that the effects of romantic relationships on leadership are indirect in nature, such that romantic relationship behaviors (i.e., maintenance and conflict behaviors, dating violence, observations of parental violence) indeed influence individuals' personal resources (namely, negative affect, depressive symptoms, and insecure attachment), and that the presence or depletion of these resources determine whether and how individuals lead. I also consistently identified gender as a critical moderator, and with the exception of one result in Study 2 (i.e., indirect effect of physical violence on leader role occupancy), all three studies showed that the indirect effects of romantic relationships on leadership affect females but not males.

#### **Implications**

Three broad implications can be derived from this dissertation. First, my dissertation centered on leadership and focused on understanding the antecedents to leadership behaviors

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(Study 1) and leader emergence (Studies 2 and 3). Based on the results established across these three studies, I show support for the proposition that romantic relationships do matter for various leadership outcomes, thereby expanding the nomological network of leadership (Lord et al., 2017). Moreover, calls for more research on how early life experiences affect leadership have been made (Liu et al., 2020) and Studies 2 and 3 respond to this call by demonstrating how personal and vicarious romantic relationships can influence leadership role occupancy.

Second, this dissertation is largely founded on the premise that home life spills over into work (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006), and specifically how romantic relationships influence leadership. Romantic relationships and leadership are two topics that have mostly been considered separately in research, and I demonstrate their conceptual overlap, expanding our understanding of the extensive effects of the work-family interface.

Third, and of critical importance, what emerged across all three studies is the moderating effect of gender. That is, all three indirect effects of romantic relationship behaviors on leadership outcomes affected females but not males (with the exception of one indirect effect in Study 2, in which experienced physical violence indirectly limits leadership role occupancy across genders). This consistent pattern of results contributes to the growing body of research on genders and leadership, which has directed significant attention towards understanding factors that predict why females occupy fewer leadership roles than males (Eagly & Sczesny, 2019; Nater & Sczesny, 2018), and whether or not female and male leadership behaviors have different antecedents (Tuncdogan et al., 2017).

Taken together, this research offers one practical implication: organizations need to support their employees' (and particularly female employees) well-being, as indicators of well-being (e.g., affect, depressive symptoms) exert short-term and long-term consequences on



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important leadership outcomes. The first step to providing organizational support is recognition; organizational decision makers and leaders need to be aware of factors outside of work (i.e., familial relationships, individual well-being) that affect organizational behaviors at work. Second, organizations need to offer and actively maintain programs that support employee well-being, particularly targeting people in leadership positions. Although the specific programs supporting employee well-being need to be customized based on industry and individual needs, I recommend that work-family balance initiatives are embedded in such programs. Such initiatives may include efforts to ensure employees have time to invest in relationships outside of work, such as providing flexible work structures (Norgate & Cooper, 2020), or informational resources related to managing positive romantic relationships with partners (Stanley et al., 2020). As couples are becoming increasingly challenged in managing their work and romantic relationships due to blurred boundaries and challenges posed by the current Covid-19 pandemic, organizations that support work-life balance may better position their employees to navigate these uncertain times.

### **Strengths**

The three studies presented in this dissertation all have conceptual and methodological strengths. First, the goal of this dissertation was to understand whether romantic relationships affect leadership. I adopted different perspectives to address this question that incorporated temporal (current vs past) and interpersonal (personal, dyadic, vicarious) variations. These approaches allowed me to test the extent to which romantic relationships matter for leadership. Second, I matched the methodological approach used to the specific questions I aimed to address across the respective studies. This resulted in experimental, longitudinal, and representative datasets, with a total of 5,164 participants studied.

### **Future Directions**

Based on the findings established across these three studies, we now know that romantic relationships do indeed influence leadership. The overlap between family and leadership deserves continued investigation, and I recommend three broad future opportunities for research. First, I suggest scholars consider leaders' current romantic and familial relationship quality as an antecedent to leadership behavior using an event sampling methodology. Given the influence of leadership behaviors on employee outcomes varies daily (e.g., Breevaart et al., 2014) and that leaders' behaviors are rarely consistently positive or negative (Suurd Ralph, 2019), it is important to understand what relationship experiences predict more discrete leadership behaviors, or variations in leadership behaviors. Because family interactions occur constantly (daily) and vary in quality, I believe the quality of these relationships will be particularly important for leadership behaviors via their influence on leaders' psychological resources.

Second, the lifetime approach to leadership (Liu et al., 2020) deserves continued investigation. It would be especially worthwhile to investigate relationship experiences in childhood and adolescence more broadly as antecedents to leadership emergence amongst other leadership outcomes. For example, researchers may consider how parent-child relationship quality affects leadership quality, as parental figures often model relational behaviors that may influence children's later leadership behaviors. Other relationships such as adolescent relationships with peers may also matter. For example, one interesting statistic in Study 2 showed that the number of adolescent romantic relationships (i.e., a possible proxy for extraversion) was a strong, positive predictor of leader role occupancy. Future research may consider how relational experiences during adolescence, such as the number of high quality relationships with romantic and non-romantic partners, influences leader emergence.

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Third, the bi-directional influence of leadership and romantic relationships is also worth investigating. For example, leadership effectiveness, and the quality of leader-follower interactions may influence leaders' romantic relationship behaviors positively or negatively. Although the benefits of leadership training on leadership behaviors is well established (e.g., Barling et al., 1996; Lacerenza et al., 2017), whether receiving leadership training positively affects personal relationships beyond the workplace, such as those with one's romantic partner and children, may be a fruitful area of research.

Finally, it is worth considering how romantic relationships and leadership interact in light of the current Covid 19 crisis. Indeed, those fortunate enough to have continued employment may find themselves working from home, together with their romantic partner for the first time. At the same time, any leadership behaviors would be enacted remotely. Given the increasingly blurred boundaries between home life and work life, the degree to which relationship quality affects work behaviors and leadership behaviors in particular may be intensified. As such, current (rather than future) research may focus on how increased time spent with romantic partners, and the quality of that time together, affects leadership behaviors.

### **Conclusion**

Scholars and the public alike often focus on the outcomes of leadership. We romanticize leaders, their roles in organizations, and their contributions to society. But who enters into these positions and what affects their leadership behaviors is less widely considered, and as a result, comparatively less understood. I set out to examine how one seemingly separate domain of peoples' lives influence leadership behaviors and leader emergence by focusing on romantic relationships. In doing so, I found that current, past, and vicarious relationships affect who becomes a leader and leadership behaviors. Leaders cannot be defined solely by their work title,

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nor can they be viewed as unencumbered by events outside of their leadership roles; like other individuals, leaders are shaped by the events of their current and developing lives, and in particular, their relationships. Taking a holistic approach to the study of leadership will undoubtedly build upon and improve our understanding of both leadership emergence and leadership behaviors.

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## **Appendix A: Pilot Study 1 Manipulation Instructions**

### **Maintenance condition instructions.**

Using the cards provided to you, please take the next five minutes to write a card to your partner about the ways you can show your care and support for your partner.

This card should include: (1) one thing you love about your partner or your relationship, (2) a detailed plan for a date for the two of you, and (3) a promise about something you can do for your partner to help make their life easier in the next few weeks (e.g., doing one of their chores).

After five minutes, the researcher will ask you to trade cards with your partner and you will have a chance to read these cards and talk with your partner about your plans. During your chat, the researcher will give you privacy by leaving the room for five minutes. It is important that you follow instructions and take this task seriously – but also, have fun!

### **Conflict condition instructions.**

Using the cards provided to you, please take the next five minutes to think and write about a recent disagreement between you and your partner.

This may be something your partner did that hurt you, a concern you have about your relationship, a recent argument you had with your partner that caused you pain or anger, or something you believe your partner can change about themselves. Write out this response with detail.

After five minutes, the researcher will ask you to take turns in describing this issue to your partner. Your partner may not respond, but just listen. Then the other partner will have a turn. At this time, we ask you not to discuss resolutions to these issues. During your discussion, the researcher will give you privacy by leaving the room for five minutes. It is important that you follow instructions and take this task seriously.

### **Control condition instructions.**

Using the article provided to you, please take the next five minutes to read through this article and note the main points this paper is making.

This should include: (1) the issue being discussed, (2) the main arguments, and/or (3) recommendations made by the author.

After five minutes have passed, the researcher will ask you to talk about this paper with your partner. At this point, you will each take turns explaining what you read about as you will have both read different articles. During this activity, the researcher will give you privacy by leaving the room for 5 minutes. It is important that you follow instructions and take this task seriously.

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[*Note.* One member of the couple read a short article entitled “Are there good jobs in the gig economy?” while the other partner read a short article entitled “The hidden costs of presenteeism”.]



## **Appendix B: Pilot Study 2 Manipulation Instructions**

### **Maintenance condition instructions.**

Using the cards provided to you, please take the next five minutes to write a card to your partner about the ways you can show your care and support for your partner.

This card should include: (1) one thing you love about your partner or your relationship, (2) a plan for a new date (something you have not done together before), and (3) a promise about something you can do for your partner to help make their life easier in the next few weeks (e.g., doing one of their chores). Please write these ideas out with detail.

After five minutes, the researcher will ask you to trade cards with your partner and you will have a chance to read these cards before moving on to the next part of this study. It is important that you follow instructions and take this task seriously.

### **Conflict condition instructions.**

Using the cards provided to you, please take the next five minutes to think about and write 1-2 ongoing issues in your relationship.

Research suggests conflict in relationships is normal. Take this as an opportunity to reflect and describe some issues you are currently experiencing in your relationship. This may include something you disagree with your partner about, something your partner does that bothers you, or a recent unresolved fight you've had that is still bothering you. From your perspective, please write these issue(s) out with detail.

After five minutes, the researcher will ask you to trade cards with your partner and you will have a chance to read these cards before moving on to the next part of this study. It is important that you follow instructions and take this task seriously.

### **Control condition instructions.**

Using the article provided to you, please take the next five minutes to read through this article and note the main points this paper is making.

This may include: (1) the issue being discussed, (2) the main arguments, or (3) recommendations made by the author. Please write these ideas out with detail.

After five minutes have passed, the researcher will ask you to trade notes with your partner, who has read a different article. It is important that you follow instructions and take this task seriously.

[[*Note.* One member of the couple read a short article entitled “Are there good jobs in the gig economy?” while the other partner read a short article entitled “The hidden costs of presenteeism”.]

**Appendix C: Pilot Study 3 Leadership Speech Examples used for Validating Measure**

*Note.* Only the italicized speeches were rated by the student sample.

**Positive leadership speeches.**

Good Afternoon Everyone, We are here today due to the advent of a recently unsafe work practice that resulted in the injury of one of our colleagues. I will preface this workplace address by saying that they are currently on the mend but will unfortunately be unable to work for the next 3 months. I think I speak for all of us when I say that we are thankful for this small miracle. I believe this incident highlights the potential for damage or harm that can occur in our everyday life if we aren't careful. No one thinks an incident will happen to them until it happens and that is exactly what has been demonstrated today. While this is the first incident to occur, it is serious in nature and I would like to remind everyone to follow corporate protocols when moving forward with their work. They exist there not to stifle individuals, reduce workplace efficacy, or introduce cumbersome metrics into our daily operations but rather to ensure the safety of our workforce and the sanctity of our workplace. If you're unsure about the viability of your work or safety of it, I would like to remind you of some best practices:

- reporting unsafe workplace environments
- adhering to carefully designed safety protocols
- your right to refuse unsafe work

Each and every one of you here have chosen to do so. We believe, in our organization, about the inalienable right for individuals to work and produce a steady income whilst also being protected. If we want to prevent this incidents in the future we must be way, vigilant, and watchful so that no one else finds themselves in the hospital for the foreseeable future. I would like to believe we have established a good, quality team that can both produce our reputable work whilst also preventing injury. That's all I have for today. Stay safe out there.

---

*Hello. As many of you know, John was seriously injured last week on the job. It has come to my attention that he was injured as a direct result of our unsafe work practices, and that stems right from the top. This is my fault, and I take responsibility.*

*It is my duty to the team, his company, and to each and every one of you to keep you safe, and healthy on the job. From this point forward I will be organizing meetings to go over safe procedures, and will be doing a full revamp of our processes to ensure this never happens again.*

*I am sure that some of you may be angry, or upset with me. That is understandable. What you have to realize however is that as a team, it is everyone's responsibility to speak up, about mal-*

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*practices that you encounter or believe are not safe. The way this company has been doing this work has been the same for many years, and from this point forward, that must change.*

*I am truly truly, truly sorry to John and his family for what happened under my supervision, and I guarantee from this point forward that it will never happen again. Raise your hand if you are with me, because I know what this group of people is capable of, and I know the great things that we are going to accomplish. We have yet to reach our full goals, but we are close. I know, with your dedication, and hard work, those goals will come to life. As I close off, I will be emailing you individually with details on our next meeting, and the new training system in place to prevent these accidents from happening. Each of you will be required to complete a test at the end of the training modules to ensure that we all know how to operate the machinery and work safely.*

*If you have any questions, I encourage you to reach out and ask, and as always, feel free to drop by my office, my door is always open. Now let's get this done. Learn, live and improve. Thank you.*

----

*Hi Everyone, I think you all know why we are here today. One of our team members was seriously injured in a workplace accident, that we were directly responsible for. I want to acknowledge our part in this injury, and that I am truly sorry for what happened, and that I will do everything in my power to make sure that this does not happen again. In order to make this a safer work environment, we have to come together as a team and hold each other accountable for what goes on around here. On my part, I will work to have an inspection of the workplace every month in order to make sure that everything is working and safe. However, I will need all of your help to ensure that everyone is working in a safe manner, and that no one is putting themselves at risk. Be sure to keep an eye on each other, and step in if anything seems risky. If something seems off to you, then there is probably something wrong, and it is always better to be safe than sorry. Trust your gut instinct, and report anything that you think needs to be addressed to me, and I will work to mitigate the risks. Lastly, I want to apologize one more time to the employee who was injured in the incident, and I ask that all of us go to visit the hospital tomorrow to see him, so that he still feels like he is a part of our team. Thank you all for your hard work, and I want you to know that I am asking you to do your best to make this a safer work environment, as I care deeply about each and every one of you, and I never want to see an incident like this happen again.*

----

Hello team, I know that everyone is now aware of the incident that happened at work this past week. We are all trying to be the best at our jobs and I commend all of you for the hard work and dedication you show this company on a daily basis. The incident that happened was due to a shortcut being taken with our safety policies. I know that we all stray away from these at times in the means of productivity for the company but this cannot happen again. From now on we will be implementing a safety training program that will take place once every 3 months to ensure that all of our workers are safe and educated on the risks at work. This company can continue to

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drive forward only when it addresses the need for safe work practices for all. We have been very successful in the past with these safety procedures in the past and some of the blame can be put on myself for not being as prompt with enforcing the rules. I will make a concentrated effort to do absolutely everything in my power to keep all of you safe so something like this does not take place in the future. Aside from the incident I would like to offer our sympathy to our hurt team member and wish them a speedy recovery. We are a team and together we can hold everyone accountable to be the best and the safest company we can be moving forward.

----

*Good afternoon team, As I'm sure many of you are aware, one of our team members was seriously injured in the course of their duties at this firm, as a result of unsafe work practices. Now, as leader of this team, I accept responsibility for this unfortunate event, as it was indeed the actions of our team which led to the avoidable injury of our valued colleague. However, as members of a team, we must all work together to ensure that such an accident does not occur in the future. It will be our mandate to work as a unit under the primary directive that we must act to ensure that each and every member of our team can expect to arrive at work each day, and perform their daily tasks in a safe, hospitable environment. You are all valued members of our team, and I speak for the firm when I say that our main concern at all times is your well-being, and absolute safety. With your help, we can ensure that by following guidelines, exercising caution at all time, and being cognizant of our fellow team member's needs, such an incident does not occur again. Thank you all, X*

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### Mixed leadership speeches.

Hi everyone, before we get down to work today, I wanted to discuss with everyone the incident last week that injured one of the members on our team. We all have worked with him for a long time and it was truly unfortunate that a safety issue caused a serious injury that was completely avoidable. We all know that he will be recovering in the next while, and our team cannot afford to lose another one of our own like that again. Safety in the workplace cannot be understated and we all must be mindful and concentrate on our tasks to prevent future incidents. I want to remind everyone to review our company policies and work procedures and make sure that we keep each other safe. I hope everyone will be committed to this goal and we won't ever see another team member get hurt again.

----

*Hello team, I am very unhappy to let you know that one of the members of our team will not be able to work for the next 3 months due to an injury on one of our projects that you may or may not have heard about yet. This is the first incident of its nature however, having been brought to our attention, it will change the way that work will proceed on this task for the next few months. There will be new safety protocol for you all to follow as to prevent this from happening again, and there will be more careful supervision in the future on tasks of this nature. Should any of you need anyone to talk to for support with the absence of your colleague, information on the new protocol, or concerns regarding your own safety in this workplace, please let me know as I would be happy to meet with any of you.*

----

*Hello everyone, I am sure by now all of you have heard about the incident that led to one of our team members getting seriously injured on the job. I want to let you all know that they are now in recovery but unable to work for the next three months. Safety in our organization has always been a top priority for us. We have always believed that our people are the greatest assets of our organization. This incident was due to an unsafe work practice. While it has not happened in the past, we want to ensure that it never happens again. Going forwards, we will be re-evaluating and re-implementing a new safety policy that will ensure no future incidents will occur. We want every member of this team to cooperate and work together to create a safe work environment.*

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*As many of you may know, one of our team members was seriously injured recently due to unsafe practices led by our team. The situation remains very uncertain, but, your coworker is in stable condition and in recovery mode. Furthermore, your fellow coworker will not be able to work for the next three months, directly impacting his personal and professional life. It is paramount that we have a discussion surrounding workplace safety, rules, and regulations, and how we will work together to move forward from this incident and ultimately create a more safe workplace for all. This will start with myself and the leadership team making a protocol that will later be shared with the team. The type of behaviour that has been going on around the workplace is inexcusable and dangerous, and something needs to be done to change that. Furthermore, there will be required training courses that everyone must attend. These courses will be centered around learning workplace safety procedures and have an evaluation at the end that will ensure that each participant is equipped with the proper knowledge to conduct a safe workplace. It is important that we learn from these mistakes and think about our coworker who remains in critical condition. Let us all be committed and strive towards a more safe workplace.*

----

Hi everyone,

As most of you know we have had a few incidences on the job in the past couple of months, which resulted in a few team members being injured. Unfortunately someone was severely injured and unable to come back to work so we are looking at the situation to figure out the root of the problem. For this not to happen again we are going to go through a safety protocol and discuss situations in which we can prevent unsafe work habits. I will be showing videos and you will be working in teams to work out different situations. After everything is done we will have each person in the room go around and say what they think is the best way to prevent injury on the job.

Thanks!

### **Negative leadership speeches.**

As I'm sure you are all aware, one of our members recently suffered a serious injury as a direct result of the unsafe work practices here at our company. While our injured worker will recover, he will be out of work for three months. We are lucky that this incident wasn't worse, he could have suffered even harsher injuries or maybe even death. The purpose of this meeting isn't to scare you, the purpose is to instill change in your practices and make sure you recognize can happen when mistakes occur. Safety is always the number one priority at this company, if you feel you can't do a job safely then talk to me or any of the other bosses and we will think of some precautions that can be taken or rethink the job entirely. Yes I am aware that this is the first injury that has occurred at our firm, and we must ensure that it is last. Because of this incident we will be taking tomorrow off to reexamine every safety policy that this company has. I hope that you will all take this more seriously now that you've seen what can happen when you aren't careful. After the presentation tomorrow, you will all take a quiz on safety policies at this company and in order to be reinstated to work you must get at least 90% on this quiz. You will be allowed to retake it. We will retake this quiz as a team every 6 months to ensure nothing is forgotten.

----

*Hello everyone,*

*It is necessary to address the unsafe behaviour and actions that have been shown by this team regarding our team member who was severely injured. It is unacceptable that this happened in our workplace and we are all at fault and should work together to be better. It is crucial that every member of our team follows the safety rules to make sure an event like this does not happen again, and everyone stays safe in the future. These actions not only affected the individual, but everyone involved. I will review the safety precautions that should be followed at all times, and keep copies of these rules accessible to all team members. - -\*\* listed rules reviewed*

*This event was unacceptable and will not be tolerated in this work place. This is a warning and a reminder on how to remain safe, and in the future more serious actions will be taken if safety rules are not followed.*

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## ROMANTIC RELATIONSHIPS AND LEADERSHIP

First of all I want to thank everyone for taking the time to come to the meeting I called. As I am sure some rumors have been circulating about one of our team members, I am here to clarify what happened. One of our team members will be unable to work for the next 3 months due to an unsafe work practice. This unsafe situation occurred because of every team member that is currently sitting in this room, which brings me to the second purpose of this meeting: re-establishing what it means to be a team player and conducting disciplinary actions in result of what happened. Something very important when working in a team is trust. That trust was broken when each of you caused an unsafe scenario on a fellow teammate who now suffers because of it. Moving forward, we are going to communicate what we did wrong to him/her and compensate for the 3 months they will be out of work. In addition to that, we will explain the safe environment we should have conducted and hopefully eventually earn back his or her trust so that he or she will feel safe to be a returning member of the team. Everyone will be attending workplace safety training to ensure these kinds of actions don't happen again. We will also be conducting a sequence of trust exercising so that not only our workplace is safe due to following the laws/rules but also because it is in the best interest of each other. None of you will be taking more disciplinary action than the other considering this was a team effort and everyone is equally as involved. Should you have any more questions about our team member's state or the disciplinary actions, please feel free to contact me afterwards, but make sure to come to me before confronting him/her (person that was injured).

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*Okay team, here's the issue: As you all know, \_\_\_\_\_ was injured in a recent incident as a result of unsafe work practices. While situations like this are more common in areas of work like our own, lax work practices that result in such a catastrophic failure are unacceptable. All of us have been given thorough training in how to operate in our conditions, and it would only be through a failure to follow through on that training that something like this happens. \_\_\_\_\_ is out of commission now for three months. He can't come in to work, and his injury is bound to affect him in some way for a very long time; possibly for the rest of his life. We don't just give out training for the fun of it. If you're working here, you need to be taking what you do seriously enough that you continue to be careful, even after months or years of working in this environment. Accidents happen, but fewer accidents happen when we take care and pride in our work. I know you all know what you're doing, so please let \_\_\_\_\_ be an example at least of what can happen when you stop paying attention to the details in your work. He might not be physically here for the next few months, but I expect that he stays with us anyway as a reminder to be careful.*

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## ROMANTIC RELATIONSHIPS AND LEADERSHIP

*I am so disappointed. We spend a whole day on safety training before you guys are even allowed to start this job. We dedicate time every month to go over the basic principles. And for what?!?! Do none of you guys pay attention or something? Is that it? Your colleague is in serious condition - he's lucky your tomfoolery didn't get him killed. Poor kid. Just know, if this happens again, it may be one of you that is the unlucky victim. And I'm warning you, luck may not be on your side. So decide whether you want to be here. If that answer is no, then leave now. But if you do want to be here, then smarten up and get your work done. There is no room for playground games in this area, so this is your last warning. Now I've got to go talk to corporate on why my employees are such idiots.*

**Appendix D: Study 1 Measures**

**Baseline measures.**

What gender do you currently identify with? \_\_\_\_\_

How old are you (in years)? \_\_\_\_\_

The following are questions about work experiences within and beyond school.

Are you currently employed? Yes No

On average, how many hours a week do you work? \_\_\_\_\_

Are you currently in any leadership role (e.g., supervisor at work, coach, team leader, president of a social club)? Yes No

If yes, what is this role (e.g., “president of social club”): \_\_\_\_\_

If yes, how many people do you lead? \_\_\_\_\_

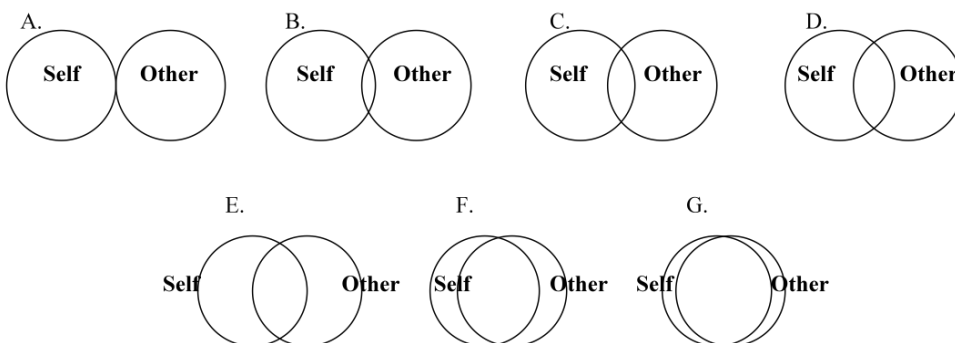
**Romantic relationship quality measures.**

How long (in months) have you been in your current relationship? \_\_\_\_\_

Please use the following 1 (not at all) to 7 (extremely) scale to rate your feelings about your current relationship. In general:

1. How satisfied are you with your relationship?
2. How committed are you to your relationship?
3. How intimate is your relationship?
4. How much do you trust your partner?
5. How passionate is your relationship?
6. How much do you love your partner?

The following scale consists of a series of increasingly overlapping circles. If the circle on the left represents you, and the circle on the right represents your partner, please select the image that best indicates how close you feel to your current partner.



## ROMANTIC RELATIONSHIPS AND LEADERSHIP

### **Manipulation instructions.**

#### ***Maintenance condition instructions.***

Using the cards provided to you, please take the next five minutes to write a card to your partner about the ways you can show your care and support for your partner.

This card should include: (1) one thing you love about your partner or your relationship, (2) a plan for a new date (something you have not done together before), and (3) a promise about something you can do for your partner to help make their life easier in the next few weeks (e.g., doing one of their chores). Please write these ideas out with detail.

After five minutes, the researcher will ask you to trade cards with your partner and you will have a chance to read these cards before moving on to the next part of this study. It is important that you follow instructions and take this task seriously.

#### ***Conflict condition instructions.***

Using the cards provided to you, please take the next five minutes to think about and write 1-2 ongoing issues in your relationship.

Research suggests conflict in relationships is normal. Take this as an opportunity to reflect and describe some issues you are currently experiencing in your relationship. This may include something you disagree with your partner about, something your partner does that bothers you, or a recent unresolved fight you've had that is still bothering you. From your perspective, please write these issue(s) out with detail.

After five minutes, the researcher will ask you to trade cards with your partner and you will have a chance to read these cards before moving on to the next part of this study. It is important that you follow instructions and take this task seriously.

#### ***Control condition instructions.***

Using the article provided to you, please take the next five minutes to read through this article and note the main points this paper is making.

This may include: (1) the issue being discussed, (2) the main arguments, or (3) recommendations made by the author. Please write these ideas out with detail.

After five minutes have passed, the researcher will ask you to trade notes with your partner, who has read a different article. It is important that you follow instructions and take this task seriously.

[Note, one member of the couple read a short article entitled "Are there good jobs in the gig economy?" while the other partner read a short article entitled "The hidden costs of presenteeism".]

## ROMANTIC RELATIONSHIPS AND LEADERSHIP

### **Manipulation check items.**

Items were rated on a 0 (not at all) to 100 (very much) scale. Participant instructions were as follows:

*The following are questions regarding the activity you just engaged in.*

*Reflect on this experience. Think about what you write. Reflect on what your partner wrote to you. How does this experience make you feel about your partner and your relationship?*

*Now, please answer the questions below, related to this task.*

1. How good did your partner make you feel during this task?
2. How loved did your partner make you feel during this task?
3. How supported did your partner make you feel during this task?
4. How much conflict did your partner make you feel during this task?
5. How negative did your partner make you feel during this task?

## ROMANTIC RELATIONSHIPS AND LEADERSHIP

### **Resource measures.**

#### ***Cognitive distraction.***

Items rated on a 1 (not at all) to 7 (very much) scale.

1. My thinking process is slow.
2. I have difficulty concentrating.
3. I feel I am not thinking clearly.
4. I feel I am not focused in my thinking.

#### ***Emotion engagement.***

Items rated on a 1 (not at all) to 7 (very much) scale.

1. I feel able to show warmth to others.
2. I feel able to be sensitive to the needs of others.
3. I feel I am capable of investing emotionally in others.
4. I feel capable of being sympathetic to others.

#### ***Positive and negative affect.***

Items rated on a 1 (not at all) to 5 (extremely) scale.

1. Angry
2. Anxious
3. At ease
4. Bored
5. Calm
6. Content
7. Depressed
8. Discouraged
9. Disgusted
10. Ecstatic
11. Energetic
12. Enthusiastic
13. Excited
14. Fatigued
15. Frightened
16. Furious
17. Gloomy
18. Inspired
19. Relaxed
20. Satisfied

## ROMANTIC RELATIONSHIPS AND LEADERSHIP

### **Leadership task instructions.**

Please read the following instructions carefully.

In this next task, you will take on the role of a leader for a team of 10 people. This task will involve you developing a speech to your team.

This has become necessary because your team was directly responsible for an unsafe work practice that resulted in one of your team members being seriously injured on the job. The injured team member is now recovering and unable to work for the next three months. This is the first incident like this to have occurred, but is serious in nature. It is your responsibility to address the team to ensure similar errors do not occur in the future.

It is now your responsibility, as team leader, to prepare a speech to deliver to your team members related to this incident. Please write out this speech in preparation for your meeting. Imagine this speech should take no longer than three minutes to deliver.

You now have ten minutes to prepare this speech (as indicated on the timer on this page). This page will auto advance after the ten minutes is up. Write your speech out below.

### **Leadership behaviours scales.**

*Note.* Trained research assistants each rated speeches on transformational leadership, abusive supervision, and passive leadership.

The following questions are in regards to the behaviours exhibited in the speeches. Please rate the degree to which the leader displayed the following behaviours using the 0 (no display) to 7 (high display) scale.

#### ***Transformational leadership.***

1. Develops a team attitude and spirit among employees.
2. Inspires others with his/her plans for the future.
3. Shows respect for individual team members' feelings.
4. Stimulates team to think about problem in a new way.

#### ***Abusive supervision.***

1. Blames team members for accident.
2. Is rude in tone.
3. Makes demeaning or derogatory remarks.
4. Puts team members down.

#### ***Passive leadership.***

1. Does not address poor performance directly [behaviours that led to accident].
2. Provided no feedback regarding poor performance [behaviours that led to accident].
3. Provided no feedback regarding good performance [no history of accidents].
4. Offered no form of praise for good performance [no history of accidents].

## ROMANTIC RELATIONSHIPS AND LEADERSHIP

### **Appendix E: Study 1 Exploratory Individual-Level Analyses Examining the Effect on Relationship Condition on Resources**

I examined whether condition indeed affected the psychological resources of participants as predicted. First, there were significant differences between conditions on cognitive distraction,  $F(2,189) = 3.71, p = .026$ . Pairwise contrasts revealed that participants in the maintenance condition ( $M = 2.77, SD = 1.31$ ) reported significantly lower cognitive distraction than participants in the conflict condition ( $M = 3.34, SD = 1.54$ ),  $t(189) = -2.31, p = .022$ , Hedges'  $g = -.40$  and the control condition ( $M = 3.38, SD = 1.34$ ),  $t(189) = -2.40, p = .017$ , Hedges'  $g = -.46$ . There were no significant differences in cognitive distraction between the conflict and control condition,  $t(189) = .16, p = .87$ , Hedges'  $g = -.03$ .

Second, there were significant differences between conditions on negative affect,  $F(2,189) = 14.28, p < .001$ . Pairwise contrasts revealed that participants in the maintenance condition ( $M = 1.26, SD = .35$ ) reported significantly lower negative affect than participants in the conflict condition ( $M = 1.72, SD = .68$ ),  $t(189) = -5.34, p < .001$ , Hedges'  $g = -.84$  and the control condition ( $M = 1.51, SD = .33$ ),  $t(189) = -2.86, p = .005$ , Hedges'  $g = -.73$ . In addition, participants in the conflict condition reported significantly higher negative affect than those in the control condition,  $t(189) = -2.34, p = .020$ , Hedges'  $g = -.38$ .

Third, there were significant differences between conditions on emotional energy,  $F(2,189) = 3.24, p = .041$ . Pairwise contrasts revealed that participants in the maintenance condition ( $M = 6.0, SD = .92$ ) reported significantly higher emotional energy than participants in the conflict condition ( $M = 5.58, SD = 1.06$ ),  $t(189) = 2.48, p = .014$ , Hedges'  $g = .41$ . but did not differ from the control condition ( $M = 5.87, SD = .90$ ),  $t(189) = 1.68, p = .10$ , Hedges'  $g = .14$ .

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There were no significant differences in emotional energy between the conflict and control condition,  $t(189) = .72, p = .47$ , Hedges'  $g = .29$ .

Fourth, there were significant differences between conditions on positive affect,  $F(2,189) = 46.43, p < .001$ . Pairwise contrasts revealed that participants in the maintenance condition ( $M = 3.75, SD = .63$ ) reported significantly higher positive affect than participants in the conflict condition ( $M = 2.49, SD = .97$ ),  $t(189) = 9.21, p < .001$ , Hedges'  $g = 1.52$  and the control condition ( $M = 2.75, SD = .71$ ),  $t(189) = -7.06, p < .001$ , Hedges'  $g = 1.48$ . In addition, participants in the conflict condition reported marginally lower positive affect than those in the control condition,  $t(189) = 1.89, p = .060$ , Hedges'  $g = .30$ .



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### Appendix F: Study 2 Add Health Measures

#### Wave 1 Measures (1994-95)

##### *Demographics*

1. How old are you? [range 10-19]
2. What sex are you? [male; female; multiple responses; refuse to respond]
3. What is your race? If you are of more than one race, you may choose more than one.  
[white; Black or African American; Asian or Pacific Islander; American Indian or Native American, other]

##### *Parent-Adolescent Relationship Quality*

The next questions ask for your feelings on a broad range of subjects. Please tell me whether you agree or disagree with each of the following statements. Scales ranged from 1 (strongly agree) to 5 (strongly disagree).

1. Most of the time, your mother is warm and loving toward you.
2. You are satisfied with the way your mother and you communicate with each other.
3. Overall, you are satisfied with your relationship with your mother.
4. Most of the time, your father is warm and loving toward you.
5. You are satisfied with the way your father and you communicate with each other.
6. Overall, you are satisfied with your relationship with your father.

##### *Add Health Picture Vocabulary Test Raw score*

Test not provided. Raw scores ranging from 0 to 87.

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#### Wave 2 Measures (1996)

##### *Number of Dating Partners*

1. In the last 18 months—since {MONTH, YEAR}—have you had a romantic relationship with any one? [Yes; No; Refused]
2. In the last 18 months—since {MONTH, YEAR}—have you had a romantic relationship with any other person? [Yes; No; Refused]
3. In the last 18 months—since {MONTH, YEAR}—have you had a romantic relationship with any other person? [Yes; No; Refused]

##### *Psychological Aggression*

During your relationship with {INITIALS [Partner 1]}, did {INITIALS} do any of the following to you?

1. Call you names, insult you, or treat you disrespectfully in front of others? [Yes; No; Refused]
2. Swear at you? [Yes; No; Refused]

During your relationship with {INITIALS [Partner 2]}, did {INITIALS} do any of the following to you?

1. Call you names, insult you, or treat you disrespectfully in front of others? [Yes; No; Refused]

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2. Swear at you? [Yes; No; Refused]

During your relationship with {INITIALS [Partner 3]}, did {INITIALS} do any of the following to you?

1. Call you names, insult you, or treat you disrespectfully in front of others? [Yes; No; Refused]
2. Swear at you? [Yes; No; Refused]

### ***Physical Violence***

During your relationship with {INITIALS [Partner 1]}, did {INITIALS} do any of the following to you?

1. Threaten you with violence? [Yes; No; Refused]
2. Push or shove you? [Yes; No; Refused]
3. Throw something at you that could hurt you? [Yes; No; Refused]

During your relationship with {INITIALS [Partner 2]}, did {INITIALS} do any of the following to you?

1. Threaten you with violence? [Yes; No; Refused]
2. Push or shove you? [Yes; No; Refused]
3. Throw something at you that could hurt you? [Yes; No; Refused]

During your relationship with {INITIALS [Partner 3]}, did {INITIALS} do any of the following to you?

1. Threaten you with violence? [Yes; No; Refused]
2. Push or shove you? [Yes; No; Refused]
3. Throw something at you that could hurt you? [Yes; No; Refused]

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## **Wave 3 Measures (2001-02)**

### ***Depressive Symptoms***

Now, think about the past seven days. How often was each of the following things true during the past seven days? Scales ranged from 0 (never or rarely) to 3 (most of the time or all the time).

1. You were bothered by things that usually don't bother you.
2. You could not shake off the blues, even with help from your family and your friends.
3. You felt that you were just as good as other people.
4. You had trouble keeping your mind on what you were doing.
5. You were depressed.
6. You were too tired to do things.
7. You enjoyed life.
8. You were sad.
9. You felt that people disliked you.

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## **Wave 4 Measures (2007-08)**

### ***Education***

1. What is the highest level of education that you have achieved to date?
  - a. 8<sup>th</sup> grade or less
  - b. Some high school

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- c. High school graduate
- d. Some vocational/technical training (after high school)
- e. Completed vocational/technical training (after high school)
- f. Some college
- g. Completed college (bachelor's degree)
- h. Some graduate school
- i. Completed a master's degree
- j. Some graduate training beyond a master's degree
- k. Completed a doctoral degree
- l. Some post baccalaureate professional education (e.g., law school, med school)
- m. Completed post baccalaureate professional education (e.g., law school, med school)
- n. Don't know

### ***Leader Role Occupancy***

1. Thinking about your official job duties, which of the following statements best describes your supervisory responsibilities at your (current/most recent) primary job?
  - a. I supervise other employees
  - b. I supervise other employees, some of whom supervise others
  - c. I do not supervise anyone

### ***Job Status***

1. Think of this ladder as representing where people stand in the United States. At the top of the ladder (step 10) are the people who have the most money and education, and the most respected jobs. At the bottom of the ladder (step 1) are the people who have the least money and education, and the least respected jobs or no job. Where would you place yourself on this ladder? Pick the number for the step that shows where you think you stand at this time in your life, relative to other people in the United States. [Scale ranged from Step 1 to Step 10; refused; don't know]

### ***Decision Making Autonomy***

1. Overall, how often do you have the freedom to make important decisions about what you do at work and how you do it?
  - a. None or almost none of the time (value = 0)
  - b. Some of the time (value = 1)
  - c. Most of the time (value = 2)
  - d. All or almost all of the time (value = 3)

### ***Repetitive Work Tasks***

1. How much of the time do you do the same things repeatedly, that is over and over?
  - a. None or almost none of the time (value = 0)
  - b. Some of the time (value = 1)
  - c. Most of the time (value = 2)
  - d. All or almost all of the time (value = 3)

### ***Salary***

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1. Now think about your personal earnings. In {2006/2007/2008}, how much income did you receive from personal earnings before taxes, that is, wages or salaries, including tips, bonuses, and overtime pay, and income from self-employment?

Responses were open-ended.

### ***Number of Hours Worked***

1. How many hours a week (do/did) you usually work at this job?

Responses were open-ended.

### ***Job Satisfaction***

1. How satisfied are you with this job, as a whole?
  - a. Extremely satisfied (value = 1)
  - b. Satisfied (value = 2)
  - c. Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied (value = 3)
  - d. Dissatisfied (value = 4)
  - e. Extremely dissatisfied (value = 5)

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### Appendix G: Study 3 NCS-R Measures

#### *Demographics*

1. How old are you? [range 10-19]
2. What sex are you? [male; female; multiple responses; refuse to respond]
3. Education: What is the highest grade of school or year of college you completed?
  - a. NONE ..... 0
  - b. ONE..... 1
  - c. TWO ..... 2
  - d. THREE ..... 3
  - e. FOUR ..... 4
  - f. FIVE ..... 5
  - g. SIX..... 6
  - h. SEVEN ..... 7
  - i. EIGHT ..... 8
  - j. NINE..... 9
  - k. TEN ..... 10
  - l. ELEVEN..... 11
  - m. TWELVE..... 12
  - n. THIRTEEN..... 13
  - o. FOURTEEN ..... 14
  - p. FIFTEEN ..... 15
  - q. SIXTEEN..... 16
  - r. SEVENTEEN OR MORE ..... 17
4. Hours worked: About how many hours do you work for pay or profit in an average week? (Your best estimate is fine.) Open ended responses.
5. Income: The next questions are about the different sources of income you may have. For each question, please tell me the letter you see on page 55 in your booklet that represents the correct answer. First, which letter best represents your own personal earnings income in the past 12 months, before taxes? Count only wages and other stipends from your own employment, not pensions, investments, or other financial assistance or income. (Your best estimate is fine.)
  - A. Less than \$0 (Loss) M. \$10,000 - \$10,999 Y. \$30,000 - \$34,999 B. \$0 (None)
  - N. \$11,000 - \$11,999 Z. \$35,000 - \$39,999 C. \$1 - \$999 O. \$12,000 - \$12,999
  - AA. \$40,000 - \$44,999 D. \$1,000 - \$1,999 P. \$13,000 - \$13,999 BB. \$45,000 - \$49,999
  - E. \$2,000 - \$2,999 Q. \$14,000 - \$14,999 CC. \$50,000 - \$74,999 F. \$3,000 - \$3,999
  - R. \$15,000 - \$15,999 DD. \$75,000 - \$99,999 G. \$4,000 - \$4,999
  - S. \$16,000 - \$16,999 EE. \$100,000 - \$149,000 H. \$5,000 - \$5,999 T. \$17,000 - \$17,999
  - FF. \$150,000 - \$199,999 I. \$6,000 - \$6,999 U. \$18,000 - \$18,999 GG. \$200,000 - \$299,999
  - J. \$7,000 - \$7,999 V. \$19,000 - \$19,999 HH. \$300,000 - \$499,999
  - K. \$8,000 - \$8,999 W. \$20,000 - \$24,999 II. \$500,000 - \$999,999 L. \$9,000 - \$9,999
  - X. \$25,000 - \$29,999 JJ. \$1,000,000 or more

#### *Witnessing Interparental Violence*

1. How often did (your parents/ the people who raised you) do any of these things (pushed, grabbed or shoved; threw something; slapped or hit) to each other while you were growing up?

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- a. Often (value = 1)
- b. Sometimes (value = 2)
- c. Rarely (value = 3)
- d. Never (value = 4)
- e. Don't know
- f. Refused

### ***Attachment Style***

1. Next, I will read three statements and ask how much each one sounds like you. First, "I find it relatively easy to get close to other people. I am comfortable depending on others and having them depend on me. I don't worry about being abandoned or about someone getting too close to me." How much does this sound like you?
  - a. A lot (value = 1)
  - b. Some (value = 2)
  - c. A little (value = 3)
  - d. Not at all (value = 4)
  - e. Don't know
  - f. Refused
2. Here is the next statement. "I am somewhat uncomfortable being close to others; I find it difficult to trust them completely and difficult to depend on them. I am nervous when anyone get too close to me." How much does this sound like you?
  - a. A lot (value = 1)
  - b. Some (value = 2)
  - c. A little (value = 3)
  - d. Not at all (value = 4)
  - e. Don't know
  - f. Refused
3. Now the third statement. "I find that others are reluctant to get as close as I would like. I often worry that people who I care about do not love me or won't want to stay with me. I want to merge completely with another person, and this desire sometimes scares people away." How much does this sound like you?
  - a. A lot (value = 1)
  - b. Some (value = 2)
  - c. A little (value = 3)
  - d. Not at all (value = 4)
  - e. Don't know
  - f. Refused

### ***Leader Role Occupancy***

1. Do you directly supervise anyone on your job? [Yes; No; Don't know; Refused]

## ROMANTIC RELATIONSHIPS AND LEADERSHIP

### *Subjective Social Status*

**\*DA37.** (RB, PG 62). (Look at page 62 in your booklet.) Think of this ladder as representing where people stand in the United States.

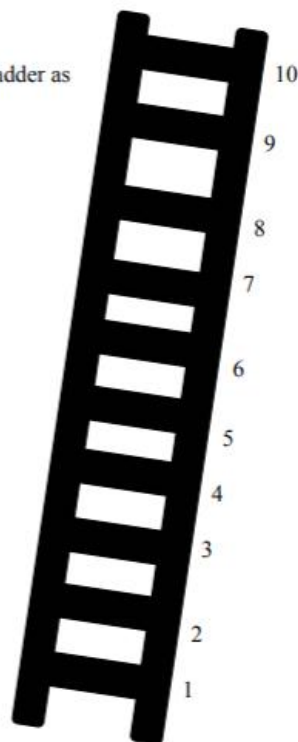
At the **top** of the ladder are the people who are the best off – those who have the most money, the most education and the most respected jobs. At the **bottom** are the people who are the worst off – who have the least money, least education, and the least respected jobs or no job. The higher up you are on the ladder, the closer you are to the people at the very top; the lower you are, the closer you are to the people at the very bottom.

Please place a large “X” on the rung where you think you stand at this time in your life, relative to other people in the (COUNTRY OF INTERVIEW)

What is the number to the right of the rung where you placed the “X”?

\_\_\_\_\_ NUMBER

DON'T KNOW ..... 998  
REFUSED ..... 999



### *Childhood Poverty Status*

1. During your childhood and adolescence, was there ever a period of six months or more when your family received money from government assistance program like welfare, Aid to Families with Dependent Children, General Assistance, or Temporary Assistance for Needy Families? [Yes; No; Don't know; Refused]