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The Relationship Between Transformational Leadership and Attachment Theory Among Field Grade Officers in the U.S. Army

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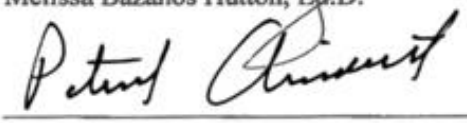

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ABSTRACT

The Relationship Between Transformational Leadership and Attachment Theory Among Field Grade Officers in the U.S. Army

by Rebecca K. Ochs

Purpose: The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to determine what relationship exists between U.S. Army field grade officers' self-reported scores on the five domains of the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) (Kouzes & Posner, 2002) and their self-reported scores on the Experiences in Close Relationships Scale (ECR) (Brennan et al., 1998).

Methodology: This study used a correlational approach to collect quantitative data from U.S. Army field grade officers. Using the LPI, a self-report transformational leadership measurement tool developed by Kouzes and Posner (2002), that measures five domains that include: (a) model the way, (b) inspire a shared vision, (c) challenge the process, (d) encourage the heart, and (e) enable others to act. The U.S. Army field grade officers' LPI scores were then correlated to the ECR scores.

Findings: There were several statistically significant findings as a result of this study as well as incidental findings that suggest future areas of study. The higher scores on the *model the way* domain are associated with lower levels of avoidance. Leaders who scored higher in *enables others to act* domain have lower anxiety and avoidance scores. When the total LPI score increases, scores on the avoidance score tend to decrease. The correlation between rank and anxiety score is statistically significant. Anxiety scores decrease as rank increases.

Conclusion: The data suggest that specific domain scores within the LPI have statistically significant correlations with attachment styles identified using the ECR. Additionally, there were incidental findings. When the total LPI score increases, scores on the avoidance score tend to decrease, suggesting that the leaders with a strong LPI score are less avoidant than their peers and likely possess a secure attachment style. It is concluded that leaders with high levels of attachment anxiety tend to predict lower job satisfaction and higher levels of negative affect among followers. Data shows that as rank increases, anxiety decreases, likely due to gaining experience and confidence. Also, total LPI scores increased with rank.

Recommendations: The following studies provide ways to continue developing this interdisciplinary research: longitudinal studies, cross-cultural, mediating, and moderating factors, organizational context, and leadership effectiveness.

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CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

As society evolves, leadership across all industries must adapt to remain effective and maintain a competitive advantage. While the military is historically an institution that prides itself on tradition, it also has an evolving culture. Although the purpose of Army leadership is to accomplish the mission, leaders' methods and behaviors continue to evolve to meet the changes in expectations (Ulmer, 2010). It is well documented in the literature that focusing on the human aspect of leadership creates opportunities to enhance organizational outcomes and maximize leader effectiveness (U.S. Army, 2019; United States Senate Committee on Armed Services, 2021).

The relationship between transformational leadership and attachment theory is understood by examining seminal research and benchmark studies. The theoretical foundations of transformational leadership and attachment theory explore the significance of personality in leader development and effectiveness. Historically, most attachment theory research focuses on the bonds formed during infancy. However, there is emerging research on attachment theory applied to adult relationships.

John Bowlby and Mary Salter Ainsworth founded and developed attachment theory. According to Ainsworth (1969), in the early years of life, the need for attachment is developed to ensure survival. However, research indicates that attachment style extends beyond childhood and influences behavior, thought, and feelings into adulthood (Briggs, 2017). Hazan and Shaver (1987) were among the first researchers to argue that an individual's adult personality, particularly in intimate relationships with other adults, is influenced by the internal model developed in attachment processes during infancy.

Most research concerning adult attachment style addresses intimate relationships. However, Mikulincer and Shaver's (2007) study supports the emerging idea that attachment theory is relevant in the workplace. Research indicates that attachment styles can be changed through lived experiences. Kouzes and Posner (2002) have examined the relationship between leaders and followers to begin bridging the gap between leadership studies and the psychology of personal relationships. Based on that premise, leaders can take ownership of their attachment style to improve their leadership outcomes.

Most recently, developing research examines attachment style(s) relative to transformational leaders' effectiveness in the corporate industry. Currently, no substantial research focuses on attachment styles and transformational leaders within military organizations, specifically the U.S. Army. Further understanding and developing the relationship between transformational leadership and attachment theory allows leaders to understand better their mindset and behaviors. In addition, increased knowledge about oneself creates opportunities for individual growth that can improve organizational outcomes, remaining relevant in a competitive environment.

Background

The U.S. Army's command and control approach to leadership has evolved to adapt to the mission throughout history without sacrificing the mission. According to Guthrie (2012), the number of dollars spent on technology or other variables becomes irrelevant if Army leaders do not focus on the human factor and establish trust, enabling mission command to flourish. U.S. Army defines mission command as the commander's exercise of authority and direction using mission orders to enable disciplined initiative

within the commander's intent to empower agile and adaptive leaders in the conduct of full-spectrum operations (Department of the Army, 2014).

Army leaders routinely find themselves in dynamic environments. Commanders and leaders must continually assess many operational variables such as the political environment, infrastructure, economy, etc. The sheer nature of a complex environment creates a delicate balance of control without imposing costly limitations that impact the mission's outcome. Although mission command is not a new construct, many commanders are hesitant to rely on decentralized command because it implies inherent trust and assumption of risk.

According to Guthrie (2012), leaders want the space to make decisions and resource missions as they see fit. He states that leaders must be willing to pass that liberty to the next lower echelon; otherwise, mission command is limited in its effectiveness (Guthrie, 2012). Adopting and applying the principles of mission command through trusted relationships is a critical aspect of effective transformational leadership across all echelons of the Army.

Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership is a comprehensive contemporary leadership theory based on the engagement between leader and follower that raises motivation and morality in the relationship (Bass, 1990). It encompasses the emotions, values, ethics, and long-term goals of followers, whether in a one-on-one setting or entire organizations (Northouse, 2016). Transformational leadership distinguishes itself from other leadership models focusing on an exchange between leader and follower. According to Popper et al.

(2000), a substantial body of research depicts the transformational leader as different, oftentimes achieving superior results when compared to other leadership styles.

Transformational Leadership Factors

The transformational leadership framework is structured around four different factors: (a) idealized influence (charisma), (b) inspirational motivation, (c) intellectual stimulation, and (d) individualized consideration (Northouse, 2016). These factors assist in understanding what components are considered when discussing transformational leadership (Britt, 2017).

Idealized Influence

Idealized influence, also referenced as charisma, is the emotional component of transformational leadership (Britt, 2017). Followers want to have someone they are drawn to emulate, and transformational leaders often provide that, along with a clear shared vision. The idealized influence has an attributional component that followers based on their leaders' perceptions and a behavioral component that refers to actual leader behaviors that the follower has observed (Northouse, 2016).

Although charisma cannot necessarily be measured, it has a legitimate and lasting impact on individuals and organizations (Britt, 2017). Idealized leaders serve as role models for their followers, setting high moral standards, putting others' needs before their own, refraining from using their position of authority for personal benefit, and encouraging their subordinates to achieve difficult goals (Popper et al., 2000).

Inspirational Motivation

Inspirational motivation appeals to followers’ emotional desire to contribute to something larger than their self-interest (Britt, 2017). Transformational leaders display

enthusiasm and optimism while involving others and demonstrate this by communicating high expectations and showing commitment to the shared goal (Popper et al., 2000).

Intellectual Stimulation

Intellectual stimulation encourages leaders to challenge followers. According to Popper et al. (2000), transformational leaders foster a climate that allows followers to be creative and innovative when seeking solutions. By encouraging challenge to the status quo, followers are empowered to contribute to the organization without restraints or fear of reprisal (Britt, 2017). When individuals contribute to solutions, ownership is a byproduct, leading to individual and shared accountability.

Individualized Consideration

Individualized consideration is representative of leaders who consider individuals may need different things to self-actualize. The leader focuses on the individual's potential and consistently provides mentorship (Popper et al., 2000). Some people need someone to listen to their fears, concerns, or challenges. Others may require a leader to delegate something that stretches their comfort zone and challenges them in ways they have not been previously challenged (Britt, 2017).

Britt (2017) describes this leadership factor as similar to how parents adapt their parenting techniques to tailor to the child's characteristics. Some children need to be challenged to reach their potential, whereas others are self-starters and only prefer acknowledgment and not accolades. The individualized consideration factor of transformational leadership is a crucial component to individuals becoming the best version of him or themselves. It is the leader's responsibility to consider followers individually and assist them in self-actualization. The development of transformational

leadership underlines the importance of studying the leader's personality characteristics (Popper et al., 2000).

Attachment Theory

According to Finkel and Simpson (2015), attachment theory is an established theory of human relationships and is among the most influential theories in psychology. Attachment theory is an established comprehensive psychological theory that maintains relevance over time. Attachment theory was developed and explored primarily by John Bowlby and Mary Salter Ainsworth. Attachment theory conceptualizes “the propensity of human beings to make strong affectional bonds to particular others” (Bowlby, 1977, p. 201).

Attachment Styles

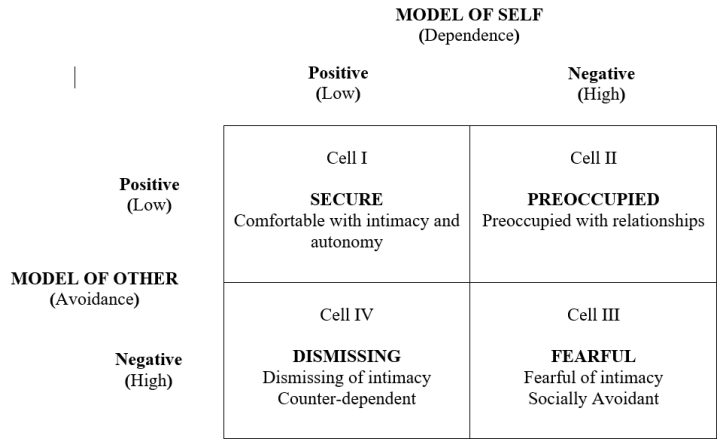
Attachment style links to how an individual emotionally regulates and navigates various psychological and social processes (Troyer & Greitemeyer, 2018). Communication between the child and parent influences how a child understands the environment. When a child signals distress, and the adult responds in an appropriate, sensitive manner, the child feels a sense of security (Cassidy, 1994). Cassidy (1994) proposed that a balanced personality, where one emotion does not dominate another, is not the result of absent negative emotions but instead allows for continued engagement from the adult during negative emotions. Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) identify the four self-reported attachment style prototypes as: (a) secure, (b) dismissive, (c) avoidant/preoccupied, and (d) fearful. Bartholomew and Horowitz provide examples of each self-reported attachment style prototype:

- Secure. *It is relatively easy for me to become emotionally close to others. I am comfortable depending on others and having others depend on me. I don't worry about being alone or having others not accept me.*
- Dismissive. *I am comfortable without close emotional relationships. It is very important to me to feel independent and self-sufficient, and I prefer not to depend on others or have others depend on me.*
- Avoidant/Preoccupied. *I want to be completely emotionally intimate with others, but I often find that others are reluctant to get as close as I would like. I am uncomfortable being without close relationships, but I sometimes worry that others don't value me as much as I value them.*
- Fearful. *I am somewhat uncomfortable getting close to others. I want emotionally close relationships, but I find it difficult to trust others completely or depend on them. I sometimes worry that I will be hurt if I allow myself to become too close to others* (p. 244).

Figure 1 shows the four attachment patterns that are a result of a person's view of self (positive or negative) and their view of others (positive or negative) (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991).

Figure 1

Model of Adult Attachment



Note. Adapted from "Attachment Styles Among Young Adults: A Test of a Four-Category Model," by K. Bartholomew and L. M. Horowitz, 1991. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 61*(2), 226. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.61.2.226

Attachment Theory Applied to Adult Relationships

Most research concerning adult attachment style addresses intimate relationships. However, research during the last several decades acknowledges that significant life transitions involving a substantial shift in social roles (such as leaving for college, getting married, having children, or retiring) create opportunities to modify attachment style behaviors (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991). Research indicates attachment styles can be changed through lived experiences. The internal models formed during infancy and early childhood are dynamic, allowing different interactions over time to modify the attachment style (Troyer & Greitemeyer, 2018). Based on that premise, leaders can take ownership of their attachment style to improve their leadership outcomes. Likewise, Mikulincer and Shaver's (2007) study supports the emerging idea that attachment theory is relevant in the workplace.

Adult Attachment Style in the Workplace

Few working professionals will achieve greatness alone. Relationships with those around us are vital to successfully navigating the workplace. Troyer and Greitemeyer's (2018) research discusses that although the need for security is universal, how individuals express distress is dependent on their attachment style. Nevertheless, present studies show that attachment security fosters perspective-taking, constructive ways of coping with emotions, and lower levels of negative affectivity.

The body of literature on adult attachment style represents a perspective with significant potential to provide leaders insight into how and why employees respond differently to relational leadership behaviors (Boatwright et al., 2010). This outlook strongly indicates benefits at the individual, team, and organizational levels.

Adult attachment styles comprise positive and negative views of self and others, including secure, anxious-preoccupied, avoidant-dismissive, and avoidant-fearful styles (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991). As an individual, identifying your attachment style can provide opportunities for self-growth. Gaining self-awareness offers the chance to learn ways to build stronger, healthier relationships.

Additionally, at the team level, knowing and understanding adult attachment styles assists in predicting how and why employees respond to relational leaders the way they do. According to Boatright et al. (2010), this enables a leader to adapt their behavior to meet the employee's needs. Therefore, employees are more likely to have their needs met. This adaptation is one aspect that improves employee engagement, productivity, and organizational commitment, enabling the organization to perform at its highest ability.

It is concluded, with a fair amount of certainty, the studies to date confirm that understanding adult attachment styles are beneficial at the individual, team, and organizational level. However, this conclusion should be tempered by the limited number of studies focused on a professional environment. Additional research will further refine the complexities and benefits of adult attachment styles in the workplace.

Transformational Leadership and Attachment Theory

Research supports the idea that attachment orientation leads to preferences for leadership behavior. According to Berson et al. (2006), securely attached individuals value sociability and consideration in leaders more than insecurely attached individuals.

One study discovered an indirect connection between cognition-based trust and transformational leadership (Schaubroeck et al., 2011). The research offers a framework for comprehending how leaders can be viewed as attachment figures to their followers. According to additional research, it is quite certain that a leader must have internalized both a positive model of themselves and a positive model of others in order to have the capacity to become a transformational leader who demonstrates a strong interest and emotional investment in the followers (Popper et al., 2000).

To date, organizational research has considered attachment styles in a vacuum, creating a gap in the research. The current research does not examine military leaders within the attachment theory framework. Military leaders are an essential population to study due to the sheer nature of the military's differences from corporate leadership and the high stakes that are at risk due to military leaders' decisions. Ulmer (2010) states that military leaders must be self-aware in the dynamic and complex environment to use

discretion. Understanding their attachment style improves self-awareness and combats individual biases that impact decisions.

It is evident by the increasing research in attachment theory in the workplace and continued research in transformational leadership that both variables can better shape and understand the leadership attributes that differentiate successful organizations from those that do not perform to their potential. Attachment theory has important implications for U.S. Army leaders as military organizations must rely on one another to develop trust, create cohesion, and collaborate for mission success. Therefore, any insight or approach that improves the relationships or increases effectiveness deserves further consideration.

Statement of the Research Problem

The U.S. Army acknowledges that leaders must constantly seek improvement, and change is necessary to maintain a competitive advantage. The Army's People Strategy is a comprehensive strategy focusing on the talent management system that aims to improve the quality of life for individuals serving and their families (U.S. Army, 2019). This initiative developed out of a need to adapt how the Army transforms and builds cohesive teams through leader development.

Leadership approaches steeped in tradition are no longer blindly accepted ways of leading others. Traditions that promote toxic environments, such as exercising a subordinate to the point of physiological responses such as passing out or vomiting and belittling others through bullying behaviors, have been brought to the attention of senior-most ranking individuals and the public. In 2020 the death and subsequent investigation regarding the death of SPC Vanessa Guillen spurred a deeper look into the institution of

the Army and its leadership. This scrutiny has driven a necessary change in strategy that impacts both leaders and soldiers.

In December 2020, the Secretary of the Army established the People First Task Force to assess the findings and recommendations of the Fort Hood Independent Review Committee (FHIRC) and develop options to address critical people issues that eroded public trust in the Army (United States Senate Committee on Armed Services, 2021). The FHIRC identified many systemic failures in developing the Army's leaders (U.S. Army, 2019). Leaders must understand who they are before expecting to lead others successfully.

Attachment theory provides a framework for individuals to learn more about themselves and better understand their thoughts and behaviors. The body of literature on adult attachment style represents a perspective with significant potential to provide leaders insight into how and why employees respond differently to relational leadership behaviors (Boatwright et al., 2010). This outlook strongly indicates individual, team, and organizational level benefits. According to Boatwright et al. (2010), knowing their attachment orientation enables leaders to adapt their behavior to meet the employee's needs. By enhancing their leadership practices, leaders can refine their engagements with other organization members, increasing organizational effectiveness.

There is a lack of research on what makes some transformational leaders more effective than others when they have all received standardized training. There is little understanding of how attachment orientation impacts transformational leaders' effectiveness. Understanding the attachment orientation of leaders can provide valuable insights, helping to better understand the relationship between transformational leaders

and their effectiveness. According to the U.S. Army (2019), the Army must prioritize human capital investment and make people the core of its competitive advantage. Otherwise, it will lose its ability to outmatch potential enemies.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to determine what relationship exists between U.S. Army senior officers' self-reported scores on the five domains of the Leadership Practices Inventory (Kouzes & Posner, 2002) and their self-reported scores on the Experiences in Close Relationships Scale (Brennan et al., 1998).

Research Questions

The study focused on the following research questions:

1. What relationship exists between U.S. Army senior officers' self-reported scores on the *model the way* domain of the Leadership Practices Inventory and their self-reported scores on the Experiences in Close Relationships Scale?
2. What relationship exists between U.S. Army senior officers' self-reported scores on the *inspire a shared vision* domain of the Leadership Practices Inventory and their self-reported scores on the Experiences in Close Relationships Scale?
3. What relationship exists between U.S. Army senior officers' self-reported scores on the *challenge the proc*ess domain of the Leadership Practices Inventory and their self-reported scores on the Experiences in Close Relationships Scale?

4. What relationship exists between U.S. Army senior officers' self-reported scores on the *encourage the heart* domain of the Leadership Practices Inventory and their self-reported scores on the Experiences in Close Relationships Scale?
5. What relationship exists between U.S. Army senior officers' self-reported scores on the *enable others to act* domain of the Leadership Practices Inventory and their self-reported scores on the Experiences in Close Relationships Scale?

Significance of the Problem

Fraley and Brumbaugh (2004) found that attachment styles remain relatively stable across one's lifespan, but that attachment styles may change following exposure to attachment-relevant events or experiences (Gillath et al., 2008). Although most research concerning adult attachment style addresses intimate relationships, Mikulincer and Shaver's (2007) study supports the emerging idea that attachment theory is also relevant in the workplace. Based on the premise that attachment styles are malleable, it is hypothesized that individuals who understand their attachment style are more capable leaders due to becoming aware of their subconscious patterns than individuals who are not.

Ulmer (2010) states that military leaders must be self-aware in a dynamic and complex environment where they must use discretion. In an effort to manage talent and build more cohesive teams, the U.S. Army (2019) is implementing a strategic approach, the *Army People Strategy*. This strategy defines talent management as transformational, increasing organizational agility and focusing on productivity (U.S. Army, 2019).

Furthermore, the U.S. Army strategy also "integrates all people practices, generating a positive effect on organizational outcomes and leveraging each individual's knowledge, skills, behaviors, and preferences for the mutual benefit of the Army and the individual" (p. 4).

The Army's People First Task Force (PFTF), created to lead the Army People Strategy efforts, is conducting pilot programs to measure unit cohesion and trust as well as the effectiveness of various programs (United States Senate Committee on Armed Services, 2021). In addition to soldier interviews and small unit visits, the PFTF is also conducting surveys measuring morale and trust in leadership as well as providing analysis of a unit's operations with regards to trust and cohesion, leader development programs, training, awards, legal actions, and soldier separation programs (United States Senate Committee on Armed Services, 2021). These robust efforts, among other initiatives, demonstrate the Army's willingness to address institutional shortfalls in meaningful ways.

Current research does not examine military leaders within the attachment framework concept. Further research could assist military leaders in better understanding themselves in addition to gaining insight into those they lead. Ideally, this would be parlayed into improved leaders' performance in high-stakes environments and provide an enduring advantage to develop and build cohesive teams.

This study aims to provide military leaders with insight and knowledge to guide their organizations through uniquely variable environments and improve organizational outcomes. The findings of this study may help U.S. Army senior officers assess the effectiveness of their leadership in how they approach their interactions and relationships

with others. Moreover, the findings may also inform how attachment relationships in U.S. Army senior officers' leadership affect leaders' ability to apply and improve Kouzes and Posner's (2002) five practices of transformational leadership.

Definitions

This section provides definitions of key terms used in this study.

Commissioned officers. According to the U.S. Department of the Army (2019), ADP 6-22 Army Leadership and the Profession, officers command units, establish policy, and manage resources while balancing risks and caring for their people and families. They serve at all levels, from leading tactical unit operations to leading change at strategic levels. Officers have a level of responsibility that differentiates them from other leaders in the Army. Commissioned officers are under a commission or appointment issued by the authority of the President of the United States or the Secretary of the Army.

Transformational leadership theory. Transformational leadership is a comprehensive contemporary leadership theory based on the engagement between leader and follower that raises motivation and morality in the relationship (Bass, 1990). Transformational leadership distinguishes itself from other leadership models focusing on an exchange between leader and follower.

Transformational leadership factors. Transformational leadership factors include (a) idealized influence (charisma), (b) inspirational motivation, (c) intellectual stimulation, and (d) individualized consideration (Northouse, 2016).

Idealized influence. Idealized influence, also referenced as charisma, is the emotional component of transformational leadership (Britt, 2017). Idealized leaders serve as role models for their followers, setting high moral standards, putting others' needs

before their own, not using their position of authority for personal benefit, and encouraging their subordinates to achieve difficult goals (Popper et al., 2000).

Inspirational motivation. Inspirational motivation appeals to followers' emotional desire to contribute to something larger than their self-interest (Britt, 2017). Transformational leaders display enthusiasm and optimism while involving others by communicating high expectations and showing commitment to the shared goal (Popper et al., 2000).

Intellectual stimulation. Intellectual stimulation encourages leaders to challenge followers. By encouraging challenge to the status quo, followers are empowered to contribute to the organization without restraints or fear of reprisal (Britt, 2017).

Individualized consideration. Individualized consideration is representative of leaders who consider that individuals may need different things to self-actualize. The leader focuses on the individual's potential and consistently provides mentorship (Popper et al., 2000).

Attachment theory. According to Finkel and Simpson (2015), attachment theory is an established theory of human relationships and is among the most influential theories in psychology. Attachment theory is an established comprehensive psychological theory that maintains relevance over time. Attachment theory was developed and explored primarily by John Bowlby and Mary Salter Ainsworth. Attachment theory conceptualizes "the propensity of human beings to make strong affectional bonds to particular others" (Bowlby, 1977, p. 201).

Attachment style. Attachment style links to how an individual emotionally regulates and navigates various psychological and social processes (Troyer &

Greitemeyer, 2018). Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) describe the four self-reported attachment style prototypes: (a) secure, (b) dismissive, (c) avoidant/preoccupied, and (d) fearful.

Secure. Secure attachment style links to how an individual emotionally regulates and navigates various psychological and social processes and is illustrated by Bartholomew and Horwitz (1991) as: “It is relatively easy for me to become emotionally close to others. I am comfortable depending on others and having others depend on me. I don't worry about being alone or having others not accept me” (p. 244).

Dismissive. Dismissive attachment style links to how an individual emotionally regulates and navigates various psychological and social processes, and is illustrated by Bartholomew and Horwitz (1991) as: “I am comfortable without close emotional relationships. It is very important to me to feel independent and self-sufficient, and I prefer not to depend on others or have others depend on me” (p. 244).

Avoidant/preoccupied. Avoidant/preoccupied attachment style links to how an individual emotionally regulates and navigates various psychological and social processes and is illustrated by Bartholomew and Horwitz (1991) as:

> I want to be completely emotionally intimate with others, but I often find that others are reluctant to get as close as I would like. I am uncomfortable without close relationships, but I sometimes worry that others don't value me as much as I value them. (p. 244)

Fearful. Fearful attachment style links to how an individual emotionally regulates and navigates various psychological and social processes, and is illustrated by Bartholomew and Horwitz (1991) as:

> I am somewhat uncomfortable getting close to others. I want emotionally close relationships, but I find it difficult to trust others completely or depend on them. I sometimes worry that I will be hurt if I allow myself to become too close to others. (p. 244)

Delimitations

This study focused on commissioned officers in the U.S. Army. For the purposes of this study, only active-duty members with pay grades of O-4 and above were asked to participate. Although this study provides the perspective of field grade officers, it did not include the perspectives of junior officers (O1-O3) or non-commissioned officers of any grade.

This study did not address participants' demographics, including cultural differences, race, gender, or ethnicity. Additional limitations of this study may exist due to the self-reported nature of the data. The data for this study was not longitudinal and was collected at a single point in time.

Summary

This study explored the relationship between transformational leadership and attachment theory among field grade officers in the U.S. Army. Chapter I introduced the background of the study, problem statement, research questions, transformational leadership theory, attachment theory, and attachment theory applied to leadership. Additionally, Chapter I included definitions of key terms and limitations of the study. Chapter II provides a comprehensive and current review of the literature related to transformational leadership and attachment theory. The study focused on the research surrounding the four transformational leadership factors and the four adult attachment

styles. Chapter III includes the methodology used to conduct the study. Chapter IV discusses the statistical results, findings, and analysis of the data collected. The study concludes with Chapter V providing a summary and discussion of the study, including recommendations for further research.

CHAPTER II: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This literature review describes the history of military leadership, transformational leadership, attachment theory, and the evolution of transformational and attachment theories. A comprehensive review of past and present literature was conducted. The historical perspectives are discussed to compare and contrast with current perspectives, identifying gaps in the literature. A synthesis matrix identifies the specific variables included in the research. The synthesis matrix provides a detailed outline of the literature and its relevance to each topic addressed in the study (see Appendix A).

History of Military Leadership Philosophy

Although the purpose of Army leadership is to accomplish the mission, leaders' methods and behaviors continue to evolve to meet the changes in expectations (Ulmer, 2010). Historically, military leadership philosophy was focused on a centralized command with a strict hierarchy. The current literature focuses on the human aspect of leadership, which creates opportunities to enhance organizational outcomes and maximize leader effectiveness (U.S. Army, 2019; United States Senate Committee on Armed Services, 2021).

The foundation of the U.S. Army leadership philosophy reaches back to the War of Independence. Its' influence on the conduct of the mission and how duties were performed is evident in the following guidance of George Washington and Congress to the Continental Army:

> In 1776, American leaders believed that it was not enough to win the war. They also needed to succeed in a way consistent with their society's values and the principles of their cause…It happened in a way that was different from the

> ordinary course of wars in general. American leaders in Congress and the Army resolved that the War of Independence would be conducted with respect for human rights, even for the enemy. (U.S. Department of the Army, 2014, p. 3)

Further examination of military leadership philosophy shows a continued focus on standards and discipline. In 1863 the Commander in Chief, President Abraham Lincoln, issued General Order No. 100, Instructions for the Government of Armies of the United States in the Field, based upon the Lieber Code, to guide the ethical conduct of the Union Army in the Civil War (U.S. Department of the Army, 2014).

Decades later, as the United States entered World War I, General John J. Pershing, who formed the first modern American Army, published guidance concerning the conduct of his officers and soldiers. During the midst of unprecedented times, Pershing stated, "…the morale of our troops, their proper training, and their best strategical use all demanded their concentration into an American Army instead of having a subordinate relation to any others" (as cited in Roberts, 1981, p. 27). Pershing went on to lead the first major offensive in Europe, and his contributions to military training methods and operations carried over to World War II. His influence on Army Generals is considered monumental through the service of General Douglas MacArthur, General George C. Marshall, and General Patton (Roberts, 1981).

General George C. Marshall requested that Brigadier General S.L.A. Marshall write *The Armed Forces Officer* after World War II. Marshall was of the opinion that all branches of the military should build their professional commitment on a shared moral and ethical code that would serve as a standard for behavior and the law (U.S. Department of the Army, 2014). The current edition still instructs all services on the

essential moral and ethical responsibilities of being a member of the U.S. military services. The uniformed forces are united by the idea behind their shared mission of supporting, protecting, and upholding the Constitution. Throughout the last several decades, there has been evidence that recognizes that any amount of tension between mission accomplishment and professional values will stall progress and fall short of what America demands from its military forces. The following key publications indicate the Army's continued interest and focus on military leadership philosophy and professionalism.

In 1986, then Chief of Staff of the Army, General John A. Wickham, Jr., published DA Pam 600-68 – *The Bedrock of Our Profession*, which addressed the "Professional Army Ethic." It was intended to inspire soldiers' shared identity as trusted Army professionals of character, competence, and commitment bound together in a shared moral purpose (U.S. Department of the Army, 2014).

In 1998, then Chief of Staff of the Army General Dennis J. Feimer directed that FM 22-100, *Army Leadership*, includes the essential nature of Army Values in guiding the decisions and actions of Army Professionals (U.S. Department of the Army, 2014). Upon arriving at basic training, all soldiers are trained on the Army's core values of loyalty, duty, respect, selfless service, honor, integrity, and personal courage. Soldiers must hold themselves accountable to live these values and demand the same standards from their leaders.

In December 2010, General Martin E. Dempsey, Training and Doctrine Commander, issued an Army white paper on *The Profession of Arms*. This paper explores the relationship between Army culture and Army ethics with the goal of promoting

discussion. The *Profession of Arms* suggests that we cannot expect the Army ethic and culture to resonate with soldiers if it is not taught and lived by all soldiers across all echelons of the Army. The paper acted as the catalyst for the Profession of Arms Campaign, later known as the Army Profession Campaign (U.S. Department of the Army, 2014).

In June 2015, the U.S. Army published the *Army Doctrine Reference Publication (ADRP) 1: The Army Profession*, which defined and described the Army profession and the Army Ethics. It was published during a period of strategic transition and charged all Army professionals to maintain their military profession. ADRP 1 defines and describes the foundation and essential characteristics of Trust, Honorable Service, Military Expertise, Stewardship of the Profession, and Esprit De Corps. The Army Ethic motivates and guides Army professionals within mission command, in the conduct of every operation, in the performance of duty, and in all aspects of life (U.S. Army, 2015).

Change in Military Leadership Philosophy Drives Change in Leadership Strategies

As society evolves, leadership across all industries must adapt to remain effective and maintain a competitive advantage. While the military is historically an institution that prides itself on tradition, it also has an evolving culture. Throughout history, the command and control style of leadership used by the U.S. Army has adapted as the mission has adapted. The hierarchical leadership styles of the past are not well suited to today's global challenges due to the vast range of complexities.

Army Professional Campaign

The Army Profession Campaign Annual Report (U.S. Army, 2012) outlines the progress made by the Army Profession Campaign, which is an initiative aimed at

reinforcing the identity and values of the Army profession. The report provides an overview of the Army Profession Campaign's efforts to strengthen trust and confidence in the Army as an institution, improve the leadership abilities of Army professionals, and increase the Army's overall ethical standards.

After nearly 10 years of armed combat, the Army lacked a single document defining and describing The Army Ethic. As a result, on June 14, 2013, and June 14, 2015, respectively, a revised version of ADRP 1, The Army Profession, was made available. According to this philosophy, Army culture and Army ethics serve as the cornerstone for helping Army professionals form their moral selves. According to ADRP 1, the foundation of the fundamental quality of trust is the commitment to the Army Ethic in the discharge of Duty and in all facets of life (U.S. Army, 2015).

Army Leader Development Strategy

Leader development is the intentional, ongoing, and progressive process of developing soldiers and Army civilians into capable, devoted, professional leaders of character. This approach is based on Army values. Over the course of an individual's career, a soldier experiences formal and informal education and training. This education and training, combined with vast individual experiences, combine and create exceptional aspects of leader development. All of these occur in and impact the society that the Army is sworn to uphold in accordance with the U.S. Constitution (U.S. Department of the Army, 2014).

Army People Strategy

The Army People Strategy was announced in 2019 by General McConville, the 44th Chief of Staff of the Army. The Army's People Strategy is a comprehensive strategy

focusing on the talent management system that aims to improve the quality of life for individuals serving and their families (U.S. Army, 2019). This initiative developed out of a need to adapt how the Army transforms and builds cohesive teams through leader development.

Mission Command

The United States Army's command and control approach to leadership has evolved to adapt to the mission throughout history without sacrificing the mission. Army leaders routinely find themselves in dynamic environments. Commanders and leaders must continually assess many operational variables, such as the political environment, infrastructure, and the economy. The sheer nature of a complex environment creates a delicate balance of control without imposing costly limitations that impact the mission's outcome.

Before World War II, the U.S. Army's philosophy was described as a "managerial approach" to war relying on a centralized, standardized style with detailed planning (Matzenbacher, 2018; Shamir, 2010). After the Vietnam War, American leaders were searching for an innovative adjustment to the conventional attrition-based doctrine to mitigate the challenges of engaging with the numerically larger Soviet army (Matzenbacher, 2018).

By the early 1980s, nearly 40 years after World War II, the Army's philosophy had evolved into an approach known as mission command. The term *mission command* first came into Army doctrine in 2003 and underwent a significant revision in 2011 (Townsend et al., 2019). The term has since become commonly used in leadership doctrine and discussions across the Army.

The mission command philosophy is the U.S. Army's current approach to command and control. The U.S. Army defines mission command as the exercise of authority and direction by the commander using mission orders to enable disciplined initiative within the commander's intent to empower agile and adaptive leaders in the conduct of full-spectrum operations (Department of the Army, 2014). Although mission command is not a new construct, many commanders are hesitant to rely on decentralized command because it implies inherent trust and assumption of risk.

The Army's approach to mission command is about applying the appropriate level of control so that, given the circumstances and information available, leaders make the best possible decision at the right level and at the right time (Townsend et al., 2019). It empowers subordinate decision-making and decentralized execution, using mission orders to enable disciplined initiative in accomplishing the commander's intent (Townsend et al., 2019).

Current and future operations will be asymmetric, and therefore they will require decentralized command in order to be the most effective (Matzenbacher, 2018). It is widely believed that the U.S. Army must continue to reinvigorate its mission command approach by evolving doctrine, adapting leader development, and refining training (Townsend et al., 2019).

Command Climate

Climate and culture are terms that are frequently used interchangeably. While both terms refer to the setting in which leaders guide their organization, they have very different meanings. Strategic leaders shape an organization's culture, while

organizational leaders shape the climate of their units (Center for the Army Profession and Leadership, 2020).

Leaders must accept the necessity of treating healthy organizational climates as a prerequisite to readiness, given the well-established link between positive command climates and the decline in harmful behaviors. Everyone is responsible for treating people with respect and stepping in to correct inappropriate behavior (Norrie & Wharton, 2022).

The Army's efforts to evolve command climate change must constantly advance. By doing so, leaders are better able to comprehend and promote prevention, and they are given the means to react in a way that will help individuals who are part of their unit (Norrie & Wharton, 2022). People are our greatest asset and the antecedent condition in every preparedness construct. The Army cannot win unless they maintain its focus on people (Norrie & Wharton, 2022).

As former Commandant of the U.S. Army War College, Major General (Ret) Robert Scales pronounced during testimony before the U.S. House Armed Services Committee,

> Today’s junior leaders require a robust ability to understand and effectively influence individual and group dynamics across a wide spectrum of cultures. Army training and education must give them an advanced understanding of human dynamics to arm junior officers and provide the tools needed to succeed as platoon leaders, company commanders, negotiators, and village mayors. (Mallick, 2020, p. 4)

According to Guthrie (2012), the number of dollars spent on technology or other variables becomes irrelevant if Army leaders do not focus on the human factor and

establish trust, enabling mission command to flourish. Leaders want the space to make decisions and resource missions as they see fit. Guthrie states that leaders must be willing to pass that liberty to the next lower echelon; otherwise, mission command is limited in effectiveness. Adopting and applying the principles of mission command through trusted relationships is a critical aspect of effective transformational leadership across all echelons of the Army.

Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership theory is examined. Additionally, the following aspects of transformational leadership are explained and reviewed within the context of military officers' behavior: Transformational leadership and organizational effectiveness, the four factors of transformational leadership, and measuring transformational leadership using the LPI.

Definition

Transformational leadership is a comprehensive contemporary leadership theory based on the engagement between leader and follower that raises motivation and morality in the relationship (Bass, 1990). It encompasses followers' emotions, values, ethics, and long-term goals in a one-on-one setting or entire organizations (Northouse, 2016). Transformational leadership distinguishes itself from other leadership models focusing on an exchange between leader and follower.

Historical Background

The concept of transformational leadership was first introduced by James MacGregor Burns in 1978 in his book *Leadership*. He defined it as a type of leadership

that occurs when leaders and followers work together to advance each other to a higher level of morality and motivation.

Later, Bernard Bass (1990) further developed the theory of transformational leadership, expanding it to include four components: (a) idealized influence, (b) inspirational motivation, (c) intellectual stimulation, and (d) individualized consideration. Idealized influence refers to the leader's ability to act as a role model, while inspirational motivation involves the leader's ability to inspire and motivate followers. Intellectual stimulation involves challenging followers to think creatively and to question assumptions, and individualized consideration involves providing personalized support and coaching to individual followers.

Now, more than four decades after the concept of transformational leadership was introduced, it continues to be identified as the most effective method of influencing the performance and development of subordinates in corporate, military, educational, and religious organizations worldwide (Ihme & Sundstrom, 2021).

Transformational Leadership and Organizational Effectiveness

Transformational leadership is a leadership style that focuses on inspiring and motivating followers to achieve their potential and reach their goals. This type of leadership can have a significant impact on organizational effectiveness by creating a positive work environment that encourages innovation, creativity, and growth.

One of the key aspects of transformational leadership and organizational effectiveness is the emphasis on empowering employees and providing them with the resources they need to be successful. This can lead to increased job satisfaction and commitment, which can result in higher levels of productivity and performance.

In addition, transformational leaders often set a clear vision and communicate it effectively to their team. This can help align the goals and objectives of individual employees with those of the organization, which can lead to improved overall performance and effectiveness. Another aspect of transformational leadership is the focus on developing the skills and abilities of employees, which results in improved organizational effectiveness (Ihme & Sundstrom, 2021).

Overall, the transformational leadership style can be highly effective in improving organizational effectiveness by creating a positive and empowering work environment that encourages innovation, productivity, and growth.

Transformational Leadership in a Military Organization

In a 2018 study, Sosik et al. found that transformational leadership is necessary for officers to exhibit in order to fully develop military members. This type of leadership inspires, models ethics, drives innovation, and develops subordinates.

Leaders dedicated to mission command strike a balance between self-confidence and humility. No one person has exclusive access to all the best concepts or all the knowledge required to make every decision. Self-assured leaders build a culture of cooperation and unity within their units and inspire confidence and trust in each team member. Self-assured and humble leaders invest their time and effort in fostering the initiative of subordinate leaders and enhancing their ability to make decisions and accept risks. Self-development also improves the leaders' self-awareness and interpersonal skills necessary to establish developmental relationships with their subordinates (Townsend Brito et al., 2019).

Transformational Leadership Factors

Transformational leadership entails four behaviors: (a) inspirational motivation-inspiring collective action through the articulation of an evocative vision; (b) idealized influence- modeling high levels of ethics and performance; (c) intellectual stimulation-challenging thinking processes through the questioning of assumptions and consideration of different perspectives; and (d) individualized care-coaching and mentoring subordinates while recognizing and appreciating their unique differences (Sosik et al., 2018). These behaviors build trust among subordinates, empower them to work effectively on missions that require collective action, and enhance their performance and satisfaction with the leader.

Inspirational Motivation

Inspirational motivation appeals to followers' emotional desire to contribute to something larger than their self-interest (Britt, 2017). Transformational leaders display enthusiasm and optimism while involving others by communicating high expectations and showing commitment to the shared goal (Popper et al., 2000).

Leaders that possess social intelligence are better able to recognize and nurture their subordinates' skills and comprehend the thoughts and feelings they are experiencing. When subordinates perceive that they are being appreciated and encouraged, they are motivated to work more to achieve group objectives. A leader can more effectively personify organizational ideals and the high-performance standards demanded of all organizational members by having a thorough awareness of the dynamics of organizational politics (Sosik et al., 2018).

According to accounts from officers, inspirational motivation can aid leaders in reducing egocentric inclinations and understanding the interdependencies among team members. Inspiring group action (Sosik et al., 2018), understanding these interdependencies, and knowing how to inspire a varied collection of people in cultures with complex organizational politics to constitute social intelligence. However, leaders can convey to team members this understanding through inspirational motivation so they can cooperate to complete their purpose. It is essential to pay attention to a group of people's motivations and emotions if you want to motivate them in a socially competent way. Such attention to the needs of others can be achieved through individualized consideration.

Idealized Influence

Idealized influence, also referenced as charisma, is the emotional component of transformational leadership (Britt, 2017). Followers want to have someone they are drawn to emulate, and transformational leaders often provide that, along with a clear shared vision. The idealized influence has an attributional component that followers based on their leaders' perceptions and a behavioral component that refers to actual leader behaviors that the follower has observed (Northouse, 2016).

Although charisma cannot necessarily be measured, it has a legitimate and lasting impact on individuals and organizations (Britt, 2017). Idealized leaders model behaviors for their followers, such as considering the needs of others before their personal needs, avoiding the use of power for personal gain, demonstrating high moral standards, and setting challenging goals for their followers (Popper et al., 2000).

Researchers describe integrity as being transmitted through the display of idealized influence behavior. Honesty and authenticity are both components of integrity. The moral obligations of telling the truth and taking responsibility for one's acts are necessary for maintaining integrity. Leaders' integrity can be demonstrated to subordinates through the exhibition of idealized influence to the extent that it reflects the greatest moral values, such as being honest and genuine to oneself and others (Sosik et al., 2018).

According to the findings of Sosik et al. (2018), it is anticipated that behaviors exhibiting idealistic impact and intellectual stimulation will be used to convey bravery. Leadership that is courageous empowers followers to uphold standards and act in accordance with their underlying values and convictions. Subordinates who are brave reevaluate their beliefs and are willing to make sacrifices for the benefit of the group (Sosik et al., 2018).

Leaders should employ idealized influence to convey their followers' idealized versions of bravery, social intelligence, and integrity. Among the four transformational leadership behaviors examined in this research, idealized influence, which emphasizes the moral/ethical aspect of transformational leadership, was the most common. Its widespread application implies that it can be helpful in various scenarios when social intelligence, bravery, and integrity are called for in military settings. Effective approaches to increase one's idealized influence include learning to uphold the institution's basic principles, promoting the use of ethics in actions and decision-making, demanding adherence to ethical guidelines, and holding oneself accountable to high performance and moral standards.

Intellectual Stimulation

While idealized influence emphasizes the moral and ethical dimensions of transformational leadership, intellectual stimulation is more concerned with the logical and cognitive parts of transformational leadership. Intellectual stimulation encourages leaders to challenge followers. According to Popper et al. (2000), transformational leaders foster a climate that allows followers to be creative and innovative when seeking solutions. By encouraging challenge to the status quo, followers are empowered to contribute to the organization without restraints or fear of reprisal (Britt, 2017). Ownership is a byproduct when individuals contribute to solutions, leading to individual and shared accountability.

The idealistic influence and intellectual stimulation activities are used to demonstrate self-control. Self-control involves the ability to understand events and other people's feedback accurately, respond to one's impulses, thoughts, and emotions temperately, and modify one's conduct to conform to social norms. Tempered reactions to one's traits involve mental processes of reconsidering one's responses and psychological states frequently linked to intellectual stimulation (Sosik et al., 2018).

Individualized Consideration

Individualized consideration is representative of leaders who consider individuals may need different things to self-actualize. The leader focuses on the individual’s potential and consistently provides mentorship (Popper et al., 2000). Some people need someone to listen to their fears, concerns, or challenges. Others may require a leader to delegate something that stretches their comfort zone and challenges them in ways they have not been previously challenged (Britt, 2017).

Britt (2017) describes this leadership factor as similar to how parents adapt their parenting techniques to tailor to the child's characteristics. Some children need to be challenged to reach their potential, whereas others are self-starters and only prefer acknowledgment and not accolades. The individualized consideration factor of transformational leadership is crucial to individuals becoming the best version of him or themselves. It is the leader's responsibility to consider followers individually and assist them in self-actualization. Transformational leadership development underlines the importance of studying the leader's personality characteristics (Popper et al., 2000).

Measuring Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership can be measured using various methods, including self-assessment questionnaires, 360-degree feedback, and behavioral observation. Measuring transformational leadership can be challenging, as it involves assessing the leader's ability to inspire, motivate, and empower their followers to achieve their full potential. It is important to note that no single measure is perfect, and multiple measures may be needed to provide a comprehensive understanding of a leader's transformational leadership abilities. Additionally, self-report measures should be interpreted with caution, as leaders may overestimate their transformational leadership behaviors.

Leadership Practices Inventory

As cited in Wyse (2014), the LPI is a self-report transformational leadership measurement tool developed by Kouzes and Posner. The five characteristics it measures are derived from their established research, asking participants "which leadership characteristics or qualities they most look for or admire in a leader, someone whose direction they would willingly follow" (Kouzes & Posner, 2002, p. 24). These five

practices include: (a) model the way, (b) inspire a shared vision, (c) challenge the process, (d) encourage the heart, and (e) enable others to act.

Scoring of the Leadership Practices Inventory. The LPI consists of 30 questions, scored on a Likert scale ranging from 1 (*almost never*) to 10 (*almost always*). The measure has six questions for each of the five practices it measures. A score for each of the five practices is calculated by adding the scores for each of the six questions, with a minimum score of 6 and a maximum score of 60. The LPI total score is calculated by averaging the responses to all 30 questions into a single score (Wyse, 2014).

Reliability and Validity of the Leadership Practices Inventory. McMillan and Schumacher (2010) define an acceptable range of reliability as present when this coefficient falls in the range of .70 to .90; therefore, the LPI's reliability falls within the acceptable range. Kouzes and Posner's (2002) psychometric data provides additional evidence of the validity of the LPI. They assert that "LPI scores have been found, in general, to be unrelated with various demographic characteristics (e.g., age, marital status, years of experience, education level) or organizational features (e.g., size, functional area, line versus staff position)" (Kouzes & Posner, 2002, p. 8). Kouzes and Posner also assert that the LPI has a strong face and discriminant validity in that it measures what it says it measures.

Attachment Theory

Attachment theory has been widely applied in research and clinical settings, helping to explain a range of phenomena, from romantic relationships to mental health disorders. It has also influenced parenting and childcare practices, highlighting the importance of responsive and nurturing caregiving in promoting healthy child

development. Most recently, research has been exploring attachment theory in the workplace. The relationship between leaders and followers in the workplace is, first and foremost, a human connection. The dynamics of the supervisory relationship can be studied and understood using the conceptual framework provided by attachment theory (Andriopoulou & Prowse, 2020).

Definition

According to Finkel and Simpson (2015), attachment theory is an established theory of human relationships and is among the most influential theories in psychology. Attachment theory is an established comprehensive psychological theory that maintains relevance over time. Attachment theory was developed and explored primarily by John Bowlby and Mary Salter Ainsworth. Attachment theory conceptualizes “the propensity of human beings to make strong affectional bonds to particular others” (Bowlby, 1977, p. 201).

With its empirical foundation, Bowlby's attachment theory provides a framework for studying the relationship between the effectiveness of early interactions with primary caregivers and adult mental representations of others (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2015). Specifically, attachment theory proposes that experiences with caregivers in times of need are cognitively encoded, processed, and stored in the form of mental representations of self and others, which in turn provide the skeleton of a person’s attachment style (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007, p. 149; Thompson et al., 2018).

Historical Background

Bowlby (1977) first proposed that human newborns form a mental representation of themselves and others in the context of their interactions with their primary caregivers

(or attachment figures), which serve as patterns of relating across the lifespan. Infants build a secure internal working model when attachment figures are responsive and available in times of need or distress. On the other hand, insecure internal working models arise when attachment figures are unresponsive or indifferent to the infants' demands. According to attachment theory, the internal working models developed early on in life continue to significantly impact how people behave in social situations, even though they develop and expand as people interact with new people throughout their lives (Andriopoulou & Prowse, 2020; Collins, 1996).

Bowlby's primary collaborator, Mary Ainsworth, developed an experimental technique called the "Strange Situation" that allowed her to categorize infants' actions when they were isolated from their primary caregiver (Ainsworth et al., 1969; Andriopoulou & Prowse, 2020). Ainsworth (1978) divided newborns into three attachment types based on this laboratory assessment procedure: (a) secure, (b) anxious, and (c) avoidant (the latter two categories were initially referred to as insecure-ambivalent/resistant and insecure-avoidant, respectively) (Andriopoulou & Prowse, 2020).

Since then, there has been abundant research on attachment theory, and it is currently thought of as an orthogonal entity with two dimensions: Attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007). High attachment anxiety individuals have unfavorable internal working models of themselves, a fear of abandonment and rejection, and convictions that they are unlovable and that others will not consistently provide for their emotional needs. Those with high avoidance scores find

proximity unsettling because they have negative internal working models of people they see as unreliable and untrustworthy.

In contrast, securely attached individuals have positive internal working models of themselves and others. They feel at ease with intimacy and reliance on others because they are confident that those people will be there for them when needed. Importantly, internal working models affect a person's emotional regulation methods, relational styles, and the cognitions that accompany them. Accordingly, anxious people tend to hyperactivate their attachment systems by looking for cues of others' unavailability or rejection and amplifying their negative emotions. In contrast, avoidant people use deactivating strategies that involve repressing their emotions and compulsive self-reliance. On the other side, securely bonded people use adaptive emotion control techniques like problem resolution, cognitive reappraisal, and support seeking (Andriopoulou & Prowse, 2020; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007; Mikulincer et al., 2003).

It is a common misperception that children have one attachment relationship with their mother that continues to have an impact long into adulthood. As children acquire different internal working models for significant persons in their lives, such as siblings, peers, teachers, extended family members, etc., Bowlby (1982) was the first to hypothesize that there is a hierarchy of attachment figures. It is generally acknowledged among attachment specialists that people have many attachments to various romantic partners and that these connections' attachment representations are arranged hierarchically (Andriopoulou & Prowse, 2020; Collins, 1996; Sibley & Overall, 2008).

The concept of supervisory connections as attachment relationships was initially introduced in the early 1990s, primarily in the context of clinical supervision, and since

then, the field of study has expanded. Although this relationship has the capacity to develop into an attachment bond over time, it does not mean that all supervisory relationships will inevitably exhibit the characteristics of an attachment bond. Several academics have argued that individuals should use caution when defining the supervisory connection as a "full-blown attachment" (Watkins & Riggs, 2012). Nevertheless, there is ample evidence coming from the fields of clinical supervision and leadership/ management which shows that attachment dynamics are activated, and attachment processes are enacted in a context-specific fashion (Andriopoulou & Prowse, 2020; Bennett et al., 2008; Rogers et al., 2019; Yip et al., 2018).

Evidence suggests that a variety of significant supervisory outcomes are influenced by the general and supervision-specific attachment types of supervisees. Research has demonstrated that, in contrast to their secure counterparts, supervisees with an insecure attachment style have a more negative opinion of the supervisory working partnership. Interestingly, the attachment to supervision-specific duties predicts the perceived quality of the working alliance more strongly than one might expect (Bennett et al., 2008; Wrape et al., 2017).

A more recent study has confirmed this finding, discovering that people who expressed anxious or avoidant attachment to their supervisors experienced a less favorable assessment of the supervisory relationship (McKibben & Webber, 2017). Like supervisees, insecurely connected will likely give less favorable evaluations of the supervising alliance at the conclusion of the semester. This is because they tend to approach the partnership with negative assumptions and anticipate a bad supervisory relationship (Andriopoulou & Prowse, 2020; Wrape et al., 2017).

According to research by Rogers et al. (2019), various cognitive distortions were significantly correlated with high levels of attachment anxiety and avoidance. The finding that anxious supervisees find it difficult to receive constructive criticism is a consistent finding as it relates to attachment theory, which contends that anxious persons have negative internal working models of themselves and fear rejection. Hence, it stands to reason that the attachment system may be activated by the supervisors' corrective feedback as well as unfavorable emotions and mental images, making it challenging for anxious people to accept or utilize feedback.

Unsurprisingly, the study of the dynamics of leader-follower relationships in leadership has produced comparable evidence. For instance, firmly connected followers have been found to trust their leaders and their intentions. In contrast, high avoidance scores have been linked to a lack of confidence in leaders and a poor assessment of their benevolence (Frazier et al., 2015). Contrarily, anxious people frequently over-rely on other people's opinions because they worry excessively about their skills and performance due to the negative internal working models they hold about themselves. (Andriopoulou & Prowse, 2020; Wu et al., 2014).

Further support for the relevance and applicability of attachment theory in the context of supervisory relationships comes from research demonstrating the role of supervisors' attachment patterns in predicting supervisees' evaluations of their professional success. For instance, Foster et al. (2006) discovered that anxious attachment-type supervisors give poorer ratings for their supervisees' professional progress than supervisors with other attachment styles. The authors argued that because

nervous supervisors have unfavorable perceptions of themselves, their competence and expertise may be threatened by the supervisees' talents (Foster et al., 2006).

In a subsequent study, the same research team selected supervisor-supervisee pairs with varied professional backgrounds to look at the impact of the nature of the supervisory relationship on the professional development of the supervisees (Foster et al., 2007). The results showed a significant correlation between supervisees' general attachment style and their supervisor-specific attachment, and supervisees who reported a secure attachment relationship with their supervisor rated their overall professional development more favorably than those who reported an insecure relationship.

Similarly, White and Queener (2003) have shown that greater ratings of the supervisory partnership as perceived by both supervisors and supervisees were predicted by supervisors' levels of attachment security. It has also been demonstrated that rates of the working alliance are connected to supervisees' perceptions of their supervisors' attachment type. More specifically, supervisees who believed their superiors to be secure in their attachment rated the supervisory partnership higher than supervisees who thought their superiors to be insecure (Andriopoulou & Prowse, 2020; Dickson et al., 2011; Riggs & Bretz, 2006).

Attachment Styles

Attachment style is defined as "an individual's patterns of expectations, needs, emotions, and social behavior that result from a particular history of attachment experiences, usually beginning in relationships with parents" (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2015, p. 23). Attachment style links to how an individual emotionally regulates and navigates various psychological and social processes (Troyer & Greitemeyer, 2018).

Communication between the child and parent influences how a child understands the environment. When a child signals distress and the adult respond in an appropriate, sensitive manner, the child feels a sense of security (Cassidy,1994). He continues that a balanced personality, where one emotion does not dominate another, is not the result of absent negative emotions but instead allows for continued engagement from the adult during negative emotions (Cassidy, 1994). Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) identify the four self-reported attachment style prototypes as: (a) secure, (b) dismissive, (c) avoidant, and (d) fearful and illustrate them as:

- Secure. *It is relatively easy for me to become emotionally close to others. I am comfortable depending on others and having others depend on me. I don't worry about being alone or having others not accept me*.
- Dismissive. *I am comfortable without close emotional relationships. It is very important to me to feel independent and self-sufficient, and I prefer not to depend on others or have others depend on me*.
- Avoidant/Preoccupied. *I want to be completely emotionally intimate with others, but I often find that others are reluctant to get as close as I would like. I am uncomfortable being without close relationships, but I sometimes worry that others don't value me as much as I value them*. Avoidant attachment style is characterized by feeling uncomfortable when others want to get emotionally close, and individuals with this attachment style often express the need for independence. When avoidant individuals face threats or distress, they draw attention away from the threat or suppress thoughts and mental images likely

to activate the attachment system (i.e., deactivating strategies) (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2015, p. 39; Thompson et al., 2018).

- Fearful. *I am somewhat uncomfortable getting close to others. I want emotionally close relationships, but I find it difficult to trust others completely or depend on them. I sometimes worry that I will be hurt if I allow myself to become too close to others.* (p. 244)

Attachment Theory Applied to Adult Relationships

Among the various conceptualizations of attachment, a consensus has emerged that the two-dimensional model consisting of attachment anxiety and avoidance best captures the underlying structure of attachment styles (Brennan et al., 1998; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007). Avoidance and anxiety are two different manifestations of relationship insecurity. Particularly, anxiously attached people are overly concerned with risks to their relationship status (hyperactivating attachment system encountering threat), worrying excessively that the "attachment object" will not be there when they need it (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2015).

Another form of insecurity, attachment avoidance, refers to a deep-seated distrust of the attachment object that leads to defensive psychological withdrawal and emotional/behavioral independence (an engaged deactivating attachment system) (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2015). When people believe their bond with the attachment object is in jeopardy, their hyperactivating or deactivating attachment system is triggered. When both types of insecurity (anxiety and avoidance) are low, attachment security is implied as opposed to essentially insecure people (Brennan et al., 1998; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007). Therefore, those who are firmly attached frequently have faith that their

attachment objects will be helpful in times of need and more adaptable and helpful when resolving interpersonal conflicts (Jing et al., 2022; Mikulincer et al., 2003).

It is important to note that most recent conceptualizations (Gillath & Karantzas, 2019; Mikulincer et al., 2011) view attachment styles as flexible schemas rather than set, unchangeable personality traits. According to research in the fields of personality and social psychology, depending on the current situation's relational experiences, attachment styles can alter subtly or dramatically. In fact, even short-term manipulations during experiments have been shown to momentarily bring people closer to attachment security (Andriopoulou & Prowse, 2020; Gillath et al., 2010).

Adult Attachment Style in the Workplace

Attachment theory has only recently been applied to workplace relationships (Yip et al., 2018). We have long known that people often anthropomorphize their organizations with human qualities such as support (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002), trustworthiness (Robinson, 1996), or as an attachment object not unlike a nurturing caregiver (Feeney et al., 2020; Jing et al., 2022; Yip et al., 2018).

Researchers propose that the two attachment patterns that show up in how employees relate to the organization—anxious attachment and avoidant attachment—are pertinent for understanding how social undermining influences organizational commitment, drawing on the attachment theory (Bowlby, 1969; Jing et al., 2022). Social undermining describes actions carried out with the specific objective of degrading the target's reputation and social standing within a group, impeding the target's performance at work, or both (Jing et al., 2022). Each individual has a particular attachment style, which explains why individuals may process and respond to social undermining

differently. A growing amount of research now demonstrates that innate attachment types explain workplace behavior more effectively than other dispositional variables, like personality traits (Harms, 2011; Jing et al., 2022; Richards & Schat, 2011).

By definition, employees who are nervously attached should become more fixated on the attachment object than less anxious employees. Researchers anticipate their hyper-activating system to be fully engaged in the presence of a real or perceived threat, as would be the case if exposed to social undermining occurrences (Jing et al., 2022). As a result, these employees may feel pressure to strengthen their bond with the company. We anticipate that one's self-regulatory concentration will be impacted by this overreaction to the threat. Increased efforts to match personal goals with those of the organization should result from the urge to reassure one's position and reestablish contact with the attachment object (i.e., the organization). This pattern is consistent with a promotion focus. When feeling threatened, anxiously connected people become fixated on bolstering and increasing their emotional ties and sense of commitment to the organization (Jing et al., 2022).

Employees who resist connection should be more wary and distrustful, preferring to maintain their psychological and emotional independence from the attachment object. People who exhibit a high avoidant attachment should view social undermining as proof that others are unreliable and cannot be trusted rather than becoming consumed with the relationship like their anxiously attached counterparts (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2015). This emotional and social deactivation hastens the decoupling of individual and corporate goals. It decreases emotions of commitment to the organization, making the employee

even more independent and disengaged from the attachment object than before the threat. (Jing et al., 2022; Mikulincer & Florian, 1995).

Employees preoccupied with their relationship's status (i.e., who exhibit elevated levels of attachment anxiety) may also be more sensitive to anything threatening the status quo. These ongoing concerns may trigger a general self-regulatory drive to limit personal losses and uphold sentiments of safety and security (Jing et al., 2022).

Leadership research has also produced similar results. For instance, it has been discovered that leaders and followers who are insecurely attached tend to adversely assess their connection (Richards & Hackett, 2012). Conversely, it has been discovered that leaders with high levels of attachment anxiety tend to predict lower job satisfaction and higher levels of negative affect among followers. This is significant because avoidant attachment style leaders are viewed by their followers as unavailable and judgmental, which is associated with lower follower functioning and mental health (Davidovitz et al., 2007; Kafetsios et al., 2014). Additionally, fearful leaders appear to lack confidence in their capacity to establish and keep fruitful relationships, which is linked to abusive monitoring (Robertson et al., 2018). In contrast, attachment security in leaders is predictive of charismatic and transformational leadership (Mayseless & Popper, 2019; Popper et al., 2000) and high levels of well-being for followers (Andriopoulou & Prowse, 2020; Davidovitz et al., 2007; Mayseless & Popper, 2019).

Attachment Theory and Military Leadership

Attachment theory has important implications for U.S. Army leaders as military organizations must rely on one another to develop trust, create cohesion, and collaborate

for mission success. Therefore, any insight or approach that improves the relationships or increases effectiveness deserves further consideration.

Measuring Adult Attachment

Measuring adult attachment most commonly involves using self-report questionnaires that assess an individual's thoughts, feelings, and behaviors in close relationships. It is important to note that these measures are not diagnostic tools and should be used in conjunction with other information to fully understand an individual's attachment style. Additionally, it is important to remember that attachment styles can vary across different relationships and situations and may change over time as a result of life experiences and personal growth.

Experiences in Close Relationships Scale. Brennan et al. (1998) created the ECR as a self-report attachment evaluation tool. The ECR is intended to be used to assess several aspects of close, intimate relationships, including romantic partnerships. Mikulincer and Shaver (2007) state that the ECR's instructions can be "slightly altered to apply to a particular relationship, to one's general orientation in romantic relationships, or one's general or global 'attachment style' in various kinds of relationships" (p. 91). This study's interest was to capture Army officers' general or global attachment style. Therefore, the instructions were modified to read, "The following statements concern how you generally feel in close relationships (e.g., with close friends, family members, or colleagues at work)."

Scoring of the Experiences in Close Relationship Scale. The ECR scale consists of 36 items, each of which asks for a response on a 7-point Likert scale in response to a statement. Half of the statements (18) are used to measure attachment

anxiety, while the other half (18) are used to measure avoidant attachment. Each response receives corresponding points, ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*) with each statement.

Reliability and Validity of the Experiences in Close Relationships

Mikulincer and Shaver (2007) state that the ECR "has been used in hundreds of studies since 1998, always with high reliability" (p. 91). The test re-test coefficients fall in the range of .5 and .7, which shows reasonable stability over time. According to McMillan and Schumacher (2010), when this coefficient has the range of .70 to .90, it is considered an acceptable range of reliability; in addition, they state that "a personality instrument reporting a reliability coefficient of 0.90 would be judged to have excellent reliability" (p. 188). Therefore, the ECR satisfies the qualifications for reliability.

The ECR has high predictive, construct, and discriminant validity (Crowell et al., 1999; Shaver & Mikulincer, 2010). Predictive validity refers to the measure representing a future behavior. "Construct validity is a judgment about the extent to which interventions and measured variables represent targeted, theoretical, underlying psychological constructs and elements" (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010, p. 134). Discriminant validity refers to the idea that what is being measured is not related to another construct.

Transformational Leadership and Attachment Theory

Research supports the idea that attachment orientation leads to preferences for leadership behavior. According to Berson et al. (2006), securely attached individuals valued sociability and consideration in leaders more than insecurely attached individuals.

One study found an indirect link between transformational leadership and cognition-based trust (Schaubroeck et al., 2011; as cited by Wyse, 2014). The study provides a basis for understanding how leaders can be understood as attachment figures to their followers. Additional research suggests with a fair amount of certainty, to have the capacity to become a transformational leader who shows a keen interest and emotional investment in the followers, the leader must have internalized both a positive model of self and a positive model of others (Popper et al., 2000).

To date, organizational research has considered attachment styles in a vacuum, creating a gap in the research. The current research does not examine military leaders within the attachment theory framework. Military leaders are an essential population to study due to the sheer nature of the military's differences from corporate leadership and the high stakes that are at risk due to military leaders' decisions. Ulmer (2010) states that military leaders must be self-aware in the dynamic and complex environment to use discretion. Understanding their attachment style improves their self-awareness and combats individual biases that impact decisions.

Conclusion

It is evident by the increasing research on attachment theory in the workplace and continued research on transformational leadership that both variables can better shape and understand the leadership attributes that differentiate successful organizations from those that do not perform to their potential. Attachment theory has important implications for U.S. Army leaders as military organizations must rely on one another to develop trust, create cohesion, and collaborate for mission success. Therefore, any insight or approach that improves the relationships or increases effectiveness deserves further consideration.

CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This study focuses on transformational leadership factors and their relationship with leaders' attachment styles. This chapter describes the research methods and research design used for this study. This chapter includes the purpose of the study, a restatement of the research questions, research design, population, and sample description. Additionally, the instruments used to collect the data are described, and their scoring, reliability, and validity are examined. The chapter includes data collection procedures, analysis, and study limitations.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to determine what relationship exists between U.S. Army senior officers' self-reported scores on the five domains of the Leadership Practices Inventory (Kouzes & Posner, 2002) and their self-reported scores on the Experiences in Close Relationships Scale (Brennan et al., 1998).

Research Questions

The study focused on the following research questions:

1. What relationship exists between U.S. Army senior officers' self-reported scores on the *model the way* domain of the Leadership Practices Inventory and their self-reported scores on the Experiences in Close Relationships Scale?
2. What relationship exists between U.S. Army senior officers' self-reported scores on the *inspire a shared vision* domain of the leadership practices inventory and their self-reported scores on the Experiences in Close Relationships Scale?

3. What relationship exists between U.S. Army senior officers' self-reported scores on the *challenge the process* domain of the Leadership Practices Inventory and their self-reported scores on the Experiences in Close Relationships Scale?
4. What relationship exists between U.S. Army senior officers' self-reported scores on the *encourage the heart* domain of the Leadership Practices Inventory and their self-reported scores on the Experiences in Close Relationships Scale?
5. What relationship exists between U.S. Army senior officers' self-reported scores on the *enable others to act* domain of the Leadership Practices Inventory and their self-reported scores on the Experiences in Close Relationships Scale?

Research Design

Pan and Lopez (2016) describe correlation coefficients as the strength and direction of a relationship between two sets of scores. This study explored participants' scores on the LPI (Kouzes & Posner, 2002) and scores on the ECR scale (Brennan et al., 1998). For correlational studies, a minimum of 30 responses is needed (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010).

The rationale for selecting a quantitative correlational research method is that the quantitative method provides a structured approach to generalizing a representative sample from a large population. According to Pan and Lopez (2016), measures such as questionnaires and attitude scales have questions with choices and therefore lend themselves to be administered to large samples simplistically. Additionally, the

quantitative method is most appropriate because there is an established view or existing theory (Patten & Newhart, 2018).

Population and Sample

Patten and Newhart (2018) defined a population as the group in which the researcher was interested. The population for this study includes U.S. Army senior officers in the ranks of major (O-4), lieutenant colonel (O-5), and colonel (O-6). At the time of this study, there were approximately 16,000 majors, 8,900 lieutenant colonels, and 3,700 colonels (as cited in Congressional Research Service, 2022).

Sampling Frame

The list of actual cases from which the sample will be selected is referred to as a sampling frame (Taherdoost, 2016). Additionally, the group for which the study's data and conclusions can be applied is generally referred to as the sampling frame. The sampling frame for this study focuses specifically on field grade officers currently serving on active duty in the United States Army. This study defined field grade officers as major (O-4) through colonel (O-6).

For this study, in order for the research to produce results that represent the specified population, the selected sampling method was probability sampling. Pan and Lopez (2016) define a probability sample as an approach in which each member of a population has an equal probability, or chance, of being selected to be part of the sample.

According to McMillan and Schumacher (2010), the systemic sampling approach can be easier than simple random sampling because not every member of the population needs to be numbered. Systematic sampling selects participants at regular intervals. For

example, a randomly selected number is identified as a starting point from the first 10 numbers, and then the same number proceeds through the listed population.

Sample Selection Process

The researcher utilized preestablished email distribution lists to invite individuals who met the aforementioned study criteria. Individuals who chose to participate returned their self-reported scores on the five domains of the LPI (Kouzes & Posner, 2002) and their self-reported scores on the ECR scale (Brennan et al., 1998). From the completed surveys, a minimum of 30 responses were randomly chosen for analysis.

All U.S. Army active duty field grade officers were identified as potential participants in this quantitative study. There were approximately 30,000 officers stationed from multiple disciplines operating within the continental United States. Sixty-five officers were chosen to participate in the study. The rationale for selecting 65 participants for the sample was correlational statistics require 30 or more participants for valid and reliable calculations using inferential statistics. By selecting a large number of participants, the researcher had an opportunity for attrition and validation within statistical results. The sample for this study was 65 officers selected as follows:

1. The researcher obtained permission to conduct the study from the Department of the Army's Information Management Control Office (see Appendix B).
2. The researcher obtained a list of all field officers holding the ranks of major (O-4) through colonel (O-6) from various disciplines, including Military Intelligence Corps, Signal Corps, and Adjunct General Corps.
3. A description of the study and a request to participate was sent via email to all service members identified field grade officers holding the ranks of major (O-

4) through colonel (O-6) from across various disciplines, including Military Intelligence Corps, Signal Corps, and Adjunct General Corps (see Appendix C).

4. From the officers who indicated a willingness to participate in the study, each participant was sent an informed consent document to review prior to participation, including the Participant's Bill of Rights prior to beginning the self-reporting inventories (see Appendix D and E).
5. Each willing participant was sent an LPI and an ECR scale to complete online (see Appendix F and G).
6. From the officers who completed both the LPI and ECR, data was collected by the researcher for analysis.

Instrumentation

To date, there are no measures of adult attachment specific to workplace relationships (Leiter et al., 2015). Although most attachment theory research focuses on intimate relationships or family dynamics, there are established instruments that provide statistical feedback within the professional context. The two instruments selected for use in this study are the LPI to measure transformational leadership (Kouzes & Posner, 2002) and the ECR scale to measure attachment style (Brennan et al., 1998). The tools selected and each instrument's scoring, reliability, and validity are described below.

Leadership Practices Inventory

The LPI is a self-report transformational leadership measurement tool developed by Kouzes and Posner (2002). The five characteristics it measures are derived from their established research, asking participants "which leadership characteristics or qualities

they most look for or admire in a leader, someone whose direction they would willingly follow" (Kouzes & Posner, 2002, p. 24). These five practices include: (a) model the way, (b) inspire a shared vision, (c) challenge the process, (d) encourage the heart, and (e) enable others to act.

Scoring of the Leadership Practices Inventory

The LPI consists of 30 items, each of which is assessed on a Likert scale from 1 (*nearly never*) to 10 (*almost always*). Each of the five practices that the survey measures were covered by six questions. The scores for each of the six questions were added to get a score for each of the five practices, with a minimum score of 6 and a maximum score of 60. By averaging the answers to all 30 questions, the LPI total score is determined.

Reliability and Validity of the Leadership Practices Inventory

McMillan and Schumacher (2010) define an acceptable range of reliability is present when this coefficient falls in the range of .70 to .90; therefore, the LPI's reliability falls within the acceptable range. Kouzes and Posner's (2002) psychometric data provides additional evidence of the validity of the LPI. According to Wyse (2014), "LPI scores have been found, in general, to be unrelated with various demographic characteristics (e.g., age, marital status, years of experience, education level) or organizational features (e.g., size, functional area, line versus staff position)" (p. 8). Kouzes and Posner also assert that the LPI has a strong face and discriminant validity in that it measures what it says it measures.

Experiences in Close Relationships Scale

Brennan et al. (1998) created the ECR scale as a self-report attachment evaluation tool. The ECR is intended to be used to assess several aspects of close, intimate

relationships, including romantic partnerships. Mikulincer and Shaver (2007) state that the ECR's instructions can be "slightly altered to apply to a particular relationship, to one's general orientation in romantic relationships, or one's general or global 'attachment style' in various kinds of relationships" (p. 91). This study's interest was to capture Army officers' general or global attachment style. Therefore, the instructions were modified to read, "the following statements concern how you generally feel in close relationships (e.g., with close friends, family members, or colleagues at work)."

Scoring of the Experiences in Close Relationships Scale

The ECR scale consists of 36 items, each of which asks for a response on a 7-point Likert scale in response to a statement. Half of the statements (18) are used to measure attachment anxiety, while the other half (18) are used to measure avoidant attachment. Each response receives corresponding points, ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*) with each statement.

Reliability and Validity of the Experiences in Close Relationships

Mikulincer and Shaver (2007) state that the ECR "has been used in hundreds of studies since 1998, always with high reliability" (p. 91). The test re-test coefficients fall in the range of .5 and .7, which shows reasonable stability over time. According to McMillan and Schumacher (2010), when this coefficient has the range of .70 to .90, it is considered an acceptable range of reliability; in addition, they state that "a personality instrument reporting a reliability coefficient of 0.90 would be judged to have excellent reliability" (p. 188). Therefore, the ECR satisfies the qualifications for reliability.

The ECR has high predictive, construct, and discriminant validity (Crowell et al., 1999; Shaver & Mikulincer, 2010). Predictive validity refers to the measure representing

a future behavior. “Construct validity is a judgment about the extent to which interventions and measured variables actually represent targeted, theoretical, underlying psychological constructs and elements” (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010, p. 134). Discriminant validity refers to the idea that what is being measured is not related to another construct.

Data Collection Procedures

Prior to any data being collected, the researcher obtained approval from the UMass Global University Institutional Review Board to conduct the study (see Appendix H). To protect all human participants, the researcher completed an additional training course provided by the Collaborative Institutional Training Initiative (CITI) (see Appendix I). The rights and privacy of all participants were protected throughout the study. Additionally, approval was required and obtained from the Army’s Information Management Control Officer due to the study’s sample population being active duty service members.

Proprietary approval and survey tokens were obtained to administer the LPI (see Appendix J). Participants were provided the opportunity to participate in the surveys online by using the token provided by the researcher.

The surveys were distributed to U.S. Army commissioned officers across various disciplines, including Military Intelligence Corps, Signal Corps, and Adjunct General Corps. The research presented in the study as focusing on active-duty Army senior officers and their experiences managing the social environments of the workplace and contributing to the advancement of knowledge in the discipline to address contemporary issues in leadership.

Data Analysis

Data was collected using the instruments previously introduced. The Pearson product-moment coefficient for individual comparisons was used to determine the correlation between variables. Each instrument has variables along continuous scales; therefore, the Pearson product-moment was the most appropriate method (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). The strength of the correlation between multiple variables was examined through multiple regression analysis.

Limitations

This study has several limitations. The research focused on current active duty Army commissioned officers in the ranks of major through colonel. Although this sample provided information that is likely shared with other ranks with similar characteristics, the need remains for similar research across other ranks and branches of the Department of Defense.

This study does not include participants' individual demographics, such as race or gender. Additionally, there is no information provided by supervisors or subordinates; therefore, the study is limited to self-reported data collected at a single point in time.

Summary

This research study examined the relationship between the self-reported leadership style and the attachment style of field grade officers currently serving on active duty in the U.S. Army. The research expands the limited available research correlating attachment theory with transformational leadership factors. The LPI (Kouzes & Posner, 2002) and the ECR scale (Brennan et al., 1998) were used to examine any

correlation between senior field grade officer attachment style and transformational leadership factors.

CHAPTER IV: RESULTS

This chapter reviews the research that was conducted to determine what relationship, if any, exists between U.S. Army senior officers' self-reported scores on the five domains of the LPI (Kouzes & Posner, 2002) and their self-reported scores on the ECR (Brennan et al., 1998). It also presents the findings from the quantitative analysis of the data collected through both self-reported online surveys. The results of the analysis are shared in an effort to answer the research questions that were posed in this study regarding the senior officers' leadership practices and their attachment style, as well as the relationship between those variables. The chapter begins with a review of the purpose of the study, the research questions, and the study methodology. This is followed by the presentation of findings by the research question, and the chapter concludes with a summary of overall findings.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to determine what relationship exists between U.S. Army senior officers' self-reported scores on the five domains of the Leadership Practices Inventory (Kouzes & Posner, 2002) and their self-reported scores on the Experiences in Close Relationships Scale (Brennan et al., 1998).

Research Questions

The study focused on the following research questions:

1. What relationship exists between U.S. Army senior officers' self-reported scores on the *model the way* domain of the Leadership Practices Inventory and their self-reported scores on the Experiences in Close Relationships Scale?

2. What relationship exists between U.S. Army senior officers' self-reported scores on the *inspire a shared vision* domain of the Leadership Practices Inventory and their self-reported scores on the Experiences in Close Relationships Scale?
3. What relationship exists between U.S. Army senior officers' self-reported scores on the *challenge the proc*ess domain of the Leadership Practices Inventory and their self-reported scores on the Experiences in Close Relationships Scale?
4. What relationship exists between U.S. Army senior officers' self-reported scores on the *encourage the heart* domain of the Leadership Practices Inventory and their self-reported scores on the Experiences in Close Relationships Scale?
5. What relationship exists between U.S. Army senior officers' self-reported scores on the *enable others to act* domain of the Leadership Practices Inventory and their self-reported scores on the Experiences in Close Relationships Scale?

Research Methods and Data Collection Procedures

To collect data from U.S. Army senior officers regarding their leadership practices and their attachment style, two online surveys were administered through the Microsoft Forms application. When the researcher was granted permission to begin data collection by the UMass Institutional Review Board, the online survey link was immediately emailed to senior officers who met the predetermined criteria. Additionally, the survey link urged participants who knew or had contact information for their

qualifying peers to forward the survey to provide an opportunity for other senior officers to participate in the study. Doing so garnered a wider range of participants.

The data collection process progressed until 30 U.S. Army senior officers participated in the study. The researcher, who populated Microsoft Forms with the surveys, was able to view the number of survey responses directly on the Microsoft Forms application. After 14 days of hosting the survey, the minimum number of participants was reached. At that time, the data collected through the Microsoft Forms application was sent to a professional statistician to perform the quantitative analysis of the study. The quantitative analysis was conducted through the use of Statistical Package for Social Science software, and the results were reported to the researcher.

Population

Patten and Newhart (2018) defined a population as the group in which the researcher was interested. The population for this study includes U.S. Army senior officers in the ranks of major (O-4), lieutenant colonel (O-5), and colonel (O-6). At the time of this study, there were approximately 16,000 majors, 8,900 lieutenant colonels, and 3,700 colonels (as cited in Congressional Research Service, 2022).

Sample

The group to which the study's data and conclusions can be applied generally is referred to as the sampling frame. The sampling frame for this study focused specifically on U.S. Army senior officers in the ranks of major (O-4), lieutenant colonel (O-5), and colonel (O-6). For this study, in order for the research to produce results that represent the specified population, 65 officers were chosen to participate in the study. The rationale for selecting 65 participants for the sample was correlational statistics requiring 30 or

more participants for valid and reliable calculations using inferential statistics. By selecting a large number of participants, the researcher had an opportunity for attrition and validation within statistical results.

Demographic Data

Several demographic questions were included in the survey link prior to the start of the survey questions. The demographic data collected through the survey responses include gender, race, rank, and commissioned branch. Table 1 displays the descriptive statistic for selected variables.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics for Selected Variables

Variable	*n*	Percent
Rank		
Major	18	58%
Lieutenant colonel	8	26%
Colonel	5	24%
Race		
Asian/Pacific Islander	2	6%
Black	7	23%
Hispanic/Latino	1	3%
White	20	65%
Prefer not to answer	1	3%
Branch Commissioned		
Combat arms	8	26%
Combat support	16	52%
Services		
Combat support	7	23%
Gender		
Male	22	71%
Female	9	29%

Note. $n = 31$.

Presentation and Analysis of Data

The following sections present the results of the quantitative analysis of the data that was collected through the online surveys. The findings for each of the research questions are discussed separately and sequentially.

Findings for Research Question 1

Research Question 1 asked: *What relationship exists between U.S. Army senior officers' self-reported scores on the model the way domain of the Leadership Practices Inventory and their self-reported scores on the Experiences in Close Relationships Scale?*

Model the Way

Anxiety Score. A Pearson correlation was performed to determine if there is a correlation between variables model the way domain and anxiety score. There is a low, negative correlation between variables models the way domain and anxiety score with $r = -0.21$. Thus, there is a low, negative association between model the way domain and anxiety score in this sample. The result of the Pearson correlation showed that there was no significant correlation between model the way domain and anxiety score, $r(29) = -0.21$, $p = .247$.

Avoidance Score. A Pearson correlation was performed to determine if there is a correlation between variables model the way domain and avoidance score. There is a high, negative correlation between variables model the way domain and avoidance score with $r = -0.51$. Thus, there is a high, negative association between model the way domain and avoidance score in this sample. The result of the Pearson correlation showed that there was a significant correlation between model the way domain and avoidance score, $r(29) = -0.51$, $p = .003$.

Table 2 displays the statistical data for model the way domain.

Table 2

Model the Way Domain and Experiences in Close Relationships Scale

Leadership score	Attachment anxiety	Avoidant attachment
LPI model the way	r = -0.21* p = .247	r = -0.51*** p = .003**

Note. LPI = Leadership Practices Inventory.
*p < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .0005. **** p < .0001. *r = 0.1 < 0.3. **r = 0.3 < 0.5. ***r = 0.5 < 0.7. ****r = 0.7< 1.

Findings for Research Question 2

Research Question 2 asked: *What relationship exists between U.S. Army senior officers' self-reported scores on the inspire a shared vision domain of the Leadership Practices Inventory and their self-reported scores on the Experiences in Close Relationships Scale?*

Inspire a Shared Vision

Anxiety Score. A Pearson correlation was performed to determine if there is a correlation between variables inspire a shared vision domain and anxiety score. There is no significant, negative correlation between variables inspire a shared vision domain and anxiety score with r = -0.03. Thus, there is no significant, negative association between inspire a shared vision domain and anxiety score in this sample. The result of the Pearson correlation showed that there was no significant correlation between inspire a shared vision domain and anxiety score, $r(29) = -0.03$, $p = .853$.

Avoidance Score. A Pearson correlation was performed to determine if there is a correlation between variables inspire a shared vision domain and avoidance score. There is a low, negative correlation between variables inspire a shared vision domain and avoidance score with r = -0.26. Thus, there is a low, negative association between inspire

a shared vision domain and avoidance score in this sample. The result of the Pearson correlation showed that there was no significant correlation between inspire a shared vision domain and avoidance score, $r(29) = -0.26$, $p = .153$.

Table 3 displays the statistical data for inspire a shared vision domain.

Table 3

Inspire a Shared Vision Domain and Experiences in Close Relationships Scale

Leadership score	Attachment anxiety	Avoidant attachment
LPI inspire a shared vision	$r = -0.03$* $p = .853$	$r = -0.26$* $p = 153$

Note. LPI = Leadership Practices Inventory.
*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .0005$. ****$p < .0001$. *$r = 0.1 < 0.3$. **$r = 0.3 < 0.5$. ***$r = 0.5 < 0.7$. ****$r = 0.7 < 1$.

Findings for Research Question 3

Research Question 3 asked: *What relationship exists between U.S. Army senior officers' self-reported scores on the challenge the process domain of the Leadership Practices Inventory and their self-reported scores on the Experiences in Close Relationships Scale?*

Challenge the Process

Anxiety Score. A Pearson correlation was performed to determine if there is a correlation between variables challenge the process domain and anxiety score. There is no significant, negative correlation between variables challenge the process domain and anxiety score with $r = -0.02$. Thus, there is no significant, negative association between challenge the process domain and anxiety score in this sample. The result of the Pearson correlation showed that there was no significant correlation between challenge the process domain and anxiety score, $r(29) = -0.02$, $p = .909$.

Avoidance Score. A Pearson correlation was performed to determine if there is a correlation between variables challenge the process domain and avoidance score. There is a low, negative correlation between variables challenge the process domain and avoidance score with r = -0.21. Thus, there is a low, negative association between challenge the process domain and avoidance score in this sample. The result of the Pearson correlation showed that there was no significant correlation between challenge the process domain and avoidance score, $r(29) = -0.21$, $p = .263$.

Table 4 displays the statistical data for challenge the process domain.

Table 4

Challenge the Process Domain and Experiences in Close Relationships Scale

Leadership score	Attachment anxiety	Avoidant attachment
LPI challenge the process	r = -0.02** p = .909	r = -0.21* p = .263

Note. LPI = Leadership Practices Inventory.
*p < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .0005. ****p < .0001. *r = 0.1 < 0.3. **r = 0.3 < 0.5. ***r = 0.5 < 0.7. ****r = 0.7< 1.

Findings for Research Question 4

Research Question 4 asked: *What relationship exists between U.S. Army senior officers' self-reported scores on the encourage the heart domain of the Leadership Practices Inventory and their self-reported scores on the Experiences in Close Relationships Scale?*

Encourage the Heart

Anxiety Score. A Pearson correlation was performed to determine if there is a correlation between variables encourage the heart domain and anxiety score. There is a low, negative correlation between variables encourage the heart domain and anxiety score with r = -0.18. Thus, there is a low, negative association between encourage the heart

domain and anxiety score in this sample. The result of the Pearson correlation showed that there was no significant correlation between encourage the heart domain and anxiety score, $r(29) = -0.18$, $p = .327$.

Avoidance Score. A Pearson correlation was performed to determine if there is a correlation between variables encourage the heart domain and avoidance score. There is a low, negative correlation between variables encourage the heart domain and avoidance score with $r = -0.29$. Thus, there is a low, negative association between encourage the heart domain and avoidance score in this sample. The result of the Pearson correlation showed that there was no significant correlation between encourage the heart domain and avoidance score, $r(29) = -0.29$, $p = .116$.

Table 5 displays the statistical data for encourage the heart domain.

Table 5

Encourage the Heart Domain and Experiences in Close Relationships Scale

Leadership score	Attachment anxiety	Avoidant attachment
LPI encourage the heart	$r = -0.18$*	$r = -0.29$
	$p = .327$	$p = .116$

Note. LPI = Leadership Practices Inventory.
*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .0005$. ****$p < .0001$. *$r = 0.1 < 0.3$. **$r = 0.3 < 0.5$. ***$r = 0.5 < 0.7$. ****$r = 0.7 < 1$.

Findings for Research Question 5

Research Question 5 asked: *What relationship exists between U.S. Army senior officers' self-reported scores on the enable others to act domain of the Leadership Practices Inventory and their self-reported scores on the Experiences in Close Relationships Scale?*

Enable Others to Act

Anxiety Score. A Pearson correlation was performed to determine if there is a correlation between variables enable others to act domain and anxiety score. There is a medium, negative correlation between variables enable others to act domain and anxiety score with $r = -0.42$. Thus, there is a medium, negative association between enable others to act domain and anxiety score in this sample. The result of the Pearson correlation showed that there was a significant correlation between enable others to act domain and anxiety score, $r(29) = -0.42$, $p = .02$.

Avoidance Score. A Pearson correlation was performed to determine if there is a correlation between variables enable others to act domain and avoidance score. There is a medium, negative correlation between variables enable others to act domain and avoidance score with $r = -0.36$. Thus, there is a medium, negative association between enable others to act domain and avoidance score in this sample. The result of the Pearson correlation showed that there was a significant correlation between enable others to act domain and avoidance score, $r(29) = -0.36$, $p = .044$.

Table 6 displays the statistical data for enable others to act domain.

Table 6

Enable Others to Act Domain and Experiences in Close Relationships Scale

Leadership score	Attachment anxiety	Avoidant attachment
LPI enable others to act	$r = -0.42$** $p = .02$*	$r = -0.36$** $p = .44$*

Note. LPI = Leadership Practices Inventory.
*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .0005$. ****$p < .0001$. *$r = 0.1 < 0.3$. **$r = 0.3 < 0.5$. ***$r = 0.5 < 0.7$. ****$r = 0.7 < 1$.

Incidental Findings

There were several notable incidental findings as a result of the research. Incidental findings are findings that were discovered while answering one of the established research questions. The incidental findings are discussed below.

Total Leadership Practice Inventory Score Compared to Total Anxiety Score and Total Avoidance Score

Anxiety Score. A Pearson correlation was performed to determine if there is a correlation between variables SUM and anxiety score. There is a low, negative correlation between variables SUM and anxiety score with r = -0.21. Thus, there is a low, negative association between SUM and anxiety score in this sample. The result of the Pearson correlation showed that there was no significant correlation between SUM and anxiety score, $r(29) = -0.21$, $p = .247$.

Avoidance Score. A Pearson correlation was performed to determine if there is a correlation between variables SUM and avoidance score. There is a medium, negative correlation between variables SUM and avoidance score with r = -0.39. Thus, there is a medium, negative association between SUM and avoidance score in this sample. The result of the Pearson correlation showed that there was a significant correlation between SUM and avoidance score, $r(29) = -0.39$, $p = .03$.

Rank and Total Anxiety Score

The results of the descriptive statistics show that the rank of major has statistically higher values for the variable anxiety score (M = 3.69, SD = 0.67) when compared to lieutenant colonel (M = 3, SD = 0.61). The rank of lieutenant colonel has higher values for the variable anxiety score when compared to the rank of colonel (M = 2.93, SD =

0.63); however, the difference is not statistically significant. A point-biserial correlation was run to determine the relationship between rank and anxiety score. There was a negative correlation between rank and anxiety score, which was statistically significant $p = 0.035$, indicating that as rank increases, anxiety scores decrease.

A two-tailed *t*-test for independent samples shows that the difference between the ranks of major and lieutenant colonel with respect to the variable anxiety score was statistically significant $t(24) = 2.47$, = .021, 95% confidence interval.

Major Compared to Colonel. A two-tailed *t*-test for independent samples shows that the difference between major and colonel with respect to the dependent variable anxiety score was statistically significant, $t(21) = 2.25$, $p = .035$, 95% confidence interval.

Lieutenant Colonel Compared to Colonel. A two-tailed t-test for independent samples showed that the difference between lieutenant colonel and colonel with respect to the dependent variable anxiety score was not statistically significant, $t(11) = 0.19$, $p = .853$, 95% confidence interval.

Major and Anxiety Score. Logistic regression analysis was performed to examine the influence of anxiety score on the variable rank to predict the rank of major. Logistic regression analysis shows that the model as a whole is significant (Chi2(1) = 8.7, $p = .003$, $n = 31$). The coefficient of the variable anxiety score and the rank of major = 1.89, which is positive. This means that an increase in anxiety score is associated with an increase in the probability of the rank of major. The *p*-value of .016 indicates that this influence is statistically significant. The odds ratio of 6.6 indicates that one unit increase of the variable anxiety score will increase the odds that the rank of major by 6.6 times.

Lieutenant Colonel and Anxiety Score. Logistic regression analysis was performed to examine the influence of anxiety score on the variable rank to predict the rank of lieutenant colonel. Logistic regression analysis shows that the model as a whole is not significant (Chi2(1) = 0.04, p = .837, n = 13). The coefficient of the variable anxiety score is b = -1.16, which is negative. This means that an increase in anxiety score is associated with a decrease in the probability of the rank of lieutenant colonel. However, the p-value of .0.088 indicates that this influence is not statistically significant. The odds ratio of 0.31 indicates that one unit increase in the variable anxiety score will increase the odds that the rank is lieutenant colonel by 0.31 times.

Colonel and Anxiety Score. Logistic regression analysis was performed to examine the influence of anxiety score on the variable rank to predict the rank of colonel. Logistic regression analysis shows that the model as a whole is not significant (p = .853, n = 5). The coefficient of the variable anxiety score is b = -1.18. This means that an increase in anxiety score is associated with a decrease in the probability of the rank of colonel. The p-value of .134 indicates that this influence is not statistically significant. The odds ratio of 0.31 indicates that one unit increase of the variable anxiety score will increase the odds that the dependent variable is colonel by 0.31 times.

Rank and Total Leadership Practices Inventory Score

The results of the descriptive statistics show that the rank of major as a lower value for the variable total LPI score (M = 3.69, SD = 0.67) when compared to lieutenant colonel (M = 3, SD = 0.61). The rank of lieutenant colonel has lower values for the variable Total LPI Score when compared to the rank of colonel (M = 2.93, SD = 0.63). However, the difference is not statistically significant. A point-biserial correlation

was run to determine the relationship between rank and anxiety score. There was a positive correlation between rank and anxiety score, indicating that as rank increases, total LPI scores increase. This correlation was not statistically significant, $p = 0.058$.

Significant Difference in the Total Leadership Practices Inventory Score Between Major and Lieutenant Colonel

A one-factor analysis of variance has shown that there is no significant difference between the categorical variable job and the variable SUM F = 2.54, $p = .097$. Thus, with the available data, the null hypothesis is not rejected. The ANOVA showed that there was no significant difference, so it is not reasonably possible to compute a post hoc test. A multiple linear regression analysis was performed to examine the influence of variables B and C on the variable SUM.

The regression model showed that the variables B and C explained 15.35% of the variance from the variable SUM. An ANOVA was used to test whether this value was significantly different from zero. Using the present sample, it was found that the effect was not significantly different from zero, $F = 2.54$, $p = .095$, $R2 = 0.15$.

The following regression model is obtained: SUM = 258.2 -30.89 · B -15.92 · C
When all independent variables are zero, the value of the variable SUM is 258.2.
If the value of the variable B changes by one unit, the value of the variable SUM changes by -30.89.

If the value of the variable C changes by one unit, the value of the variable SUM changes by -15.92.

The standardized coefficients beta are independent of the measured variable and are always between -1 and 1. The larger the amount of beta, the greater the contribution

of the respective independent variable to explain the dependent variable SUM. In this model, variable B has the greatest influence on the variable SUM.

The calculated regression coefficients refer to the sample used for the calculation of the regression analysis; therefore, it is of interest whether the individual coefficients only deviate from zero by chance or whether they also deviate from zero in the population. To test this, the null hypothesis is made for each coefficient that it is equal to zero in the population.

The standard error now indicates how much the respective coefficient will scatter on average when the regression analysis is calculated for a further sample.

Summary

This study identified the extent to which adult attachment as measured by the ECR was related, if at all, with transformational leadership characteristics as measured by the LPI among 31 active duty U.S. Army senior commissioned officers. Concerning all five research questions, three of the 10 resulting correlations were statistically significant. However, all five individual scores for the LPI score showed were negatively correlated to attachment anxiety and avoidant attachment.

When considering the correlations between the overall total LPI score and the anxious attachment scores, no significant correlation ($p = .247$; $r = -0.21$) was determined. When examining the avoidant attachment score with the overall LPI score, a significant correlation ($p = 0.03$; $r = -0.39$), medium negative association, and a medium negative correlation are made, indicating a significant correlation.

Also of interest is the multiple linear regression analysis that was performed to determine a significant correlation between rank of major and high anxiety. Additionally,

the significant difference in total LPI scores between major, lieutenant colonel, and colonel was determined to be of interest.

A detailed interpretation of the findings, conclusions, and implications for action, proposed ideas for future studies, and the researcher's concluding remarks and reflections are discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER V: FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Chapter V provides a concise yet comprehensive summary of the study's purpose, findings, conclusions, implications for action, recommendations for future research, and closing remarks from the researcher.

Summary of the Study

Purpose Statement and Research Questions

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to determine what relationship exists between U.S. Army senior officers' self-reported scores on the five domains of the Leadership Practices Inventory (Kouzes & Posner, 2002) and their self-reported scores on the Experiences in Close Relationships Scale (Brennan et al., 1998).

This study focused on the following research questions:

1. What relationship exists between U.S. Army senior officers' self-reported scores on the *model the way* domain of the Leadership Practices Inventory and their self-reported scores on the Experiences in Close Relationships Scale?
2. What relationship exists between U.S. Army senior officers' self-reported scores on the *inspire a shared vision* domain of the Leadership Practices Inventory and their self-reported scores on the Experiences in Close Relationships Scale?
3. What relationship exists between U.S. Army senior officers' self-reported scores on the *challenge the proc*ess domain of the Leadership Practices Inventory and their self-reported scores on the Experiences in Close Relationships Scale?

4. What relationship exists between U.S. Army senior officers' self-reported scores on the *encourage the heart* domain of the Leadership Practices Inventory and their self-reported scores on the Experiences in Close Relationships Scale?
5. What relationship exists between U.S. Army senior officers' self-reported scores on the *enable others to act* domain of the Leadership Practices Inventory and their self-reported scores on the Experiences in Close Relationships Scale?

Population and Sample

The population for this study included U.S. Army senior officers in the ranks of major (O-4), lieutenant colonel (O-5), and colonel (O)-6). At the time of this study there were approximately 16,000 majors, 8,900 lieutenant colonels, and 3,700 colonels (as cited in Congressional Research Service, 2022). The participants varied in demographic characteristics, as well as gender and work industries.

When the data collection was complete, 31 participated in the surveys. The quantitative data from the respondents were analyzed to determine the results of the study.

Major Findings

Several major findings were discovered as a result of the quantitative analysis discussed in the previous chapter. These findings are addressed according to each of the research questions that formed the purpose of the study.

Model the Way

There is no significant association between model the way domain and anxiety score. Based on the results of the Pearson correlation analysis, there is a high, negative correlation between model the way domain and the avoidance score in the data collected, and this correlation is statistically significant. This indicates a meaningful relationship between the variables, suggesting that higher scores on model the way domain are associated with lower levels of avoidance.

Inspire a Shared Vision

There is no significant association between inspire a shared vision domain and anxiety score. There is a low, negative association between inspire a shared vision domain and avoidance score which suggests that as scores on the inspire a shared vision variable increase, scores on the avoidance score variable tend to decrease, but the association is relatively weak and not statistically significant. The lack of significance suggests that the observed correlation may be due to chance.

Challenge the Process

There is no significant correlation between challenge the process and anxiety score in the data collected. There is a low, negative association between challenge the process domain and avoidance score, which suggests that as scores on the challenge the process variable increase, scores on the avoidance score variable tend to decrease. However, the association is relatively weak, and this correlation is not statistically significant. The lack of significance suggests that the observed correlation may be due to chance.

Encourage the Heart

There is a low, negative association between encourage the heart domain and anxiety score as well as encourage the heart and avoidance score, which suggests that as scores on the encourage the heart variable increase, anxiety and avoidance scores tend to decrease. However, the association is relatively weak and not statistically significant, meaning that the observed correlations could have occurred by chance and may not reflect true relationships between the variables in the population.

Enable Others to Act

The data collected indicates a medium, negative correlation between the enable others to act domain and anxiety score. The relationship between enable others to act domain and anxiety score suggests that as scores on the enable others to act variable increase, anxiety scores tend to decrease. The association between the two variables is of moderate strength. Furthermore, analysis indicates that the correlation between enable others to act and anxiety score is statistically significant. This finding indicates a meaningful relationship between the variables, suggesting that higher scores on enable others to act are associated with lower levels of anxiety.

There is a medium, negative association between enable others to act domain and avoidance score which suggests that as scores on the enable others to act variable increase, scores on the avoidance score variable tend to decrease. The association between the two variables is of moderate strength. Furthermore, analysis indicates that the correlation is statistically significant. This finding indicates a meaningful relationship between the variables, suggesting that higher scores on enable others to act are associated with lower levels of avoidance.

Incidental Findings

There were several notable incidental findings as a result of the research. Incidental findings are findings that were discovered while answering one of the established research questions. The incidental findings are discussed below.

Total Leadership Practices Inventory Score and Avoidance Score

A Pearson correlation was conducted to assess the relationship between all five LPI domains (total LPI score) and anxiety scores. There was a low, negative correlation between the two variables, and it was not statistically significant. However, there is a medium, negative association between total LPI score and avoidance score which suggests that as total LPI scores increase, scores on the avoidance score tend to decrease. The association between the two variables is of moderate strength. The observed correlation is unlikely to have occurred by chance and is likely to reflect a true relationship between the variables in the population.

Rank and Anxiety Score

A regression model was used to examine the relationship between the independent variable of rank and the dependent variable, anxiety score. The relationship between the ranks of major, lieutenant colonel, and colonel and their anxiety scores are shared below.

Major and Anxiety Score

A regression model was used to examine the relationship between the independent variable of rank and the dependent variable anxiety score. The correlation between the rank of major and the anxiety score is statistically significant, whereas the ranks of lieutenant colonel and colonel show no statistically significant correlations.

Lieutenant Colonel and Anxiety Score

A regression model was used to examine the relationship between the independent variable of rank and the dependent variable anxiety score. The correlation between the rank of lieutenant colonel and the anxiety score was not statistically significant. However, the data does show overall lower anxiety scores for lieutenant colonel when compared to that of majors.

Colonel and Anxiety Score

A regression model was used to examine the relationship between the independent variable of rank and the dependent variable anxiety score. The correlation between the rank of colonel and the anxiety score was not statistically significant. However, the data does show overall lower anxiety scores for colonels when compared to that of majors and lieutenant colonels.

Rank and Total Leadership Practices Inventory Score

A regression model was used to examine the relationship between the independent variable of rank and the dependent variable total LPI score. The relationship between the ranks of major, lieutenant colonel, and colonel and their total LPI scores are shared below.

Total Leadership Practices Inventory Score between Major and Lieutenant Colonel

A regression model was used to examine the relationship between the independent variable of rank and the dependent variable total LPI score. There is a statistically significant difference in total LPI scores when comparing majors and lieutenant colonels, which shows that majors have lower total LPI scores when compared to lieutenant colonels.

Lieutenant Colonel and Total Leadership Practices Inventory Score

A regression model was used to examine the relationship between the independent variable of rank and the dependent variable total LPI score. The correlation between the rank of lieutenant colonel and total LPI score was not statistically significant. However, the data does show overall higher total LPI scores for lieutenant colonel when compared to that of majors.

Colonel and Total Leadership Practices Inventory Score

A regression model was used to examine the relationship between the independent variable of rank and the dependent variable total LPI score. The correlation between the rank of colonel and total LPI score was not statistically significant. However, the data does show overall higher total LPI scores for colonels when compared to that of majors and lieutenant colonels.

Greater Variability by Gender

Males Have Greater Variability in Anxiety Scores

The descriptive statistics from this study show that males have greater variability in their anxiety scores than their female counterparts.

Females Have Greater Variability in Avoidance Scores

The descriptive statistics from this study show that males have greater variability in their anxiety scores than their female counterparts.

Conclusions

There were several conclusions drawn from the results of the study, which both answered the research questions and provided insight into the incidental findings. The

conclusions from the research questions are addressed first, followed by incidental findings.

The LPI measures five characteristics derived from established research, asking participants “which leadership characteristics or qualities they most look for or admire in a leader, someone whose direction they would willingly follow” (Kouzes & Posner, 2002, p. 24). These five practices include: (a) model the way, (b) inspire a shared vision, (c) challenge the process, (d) encourage the heart, and (e) enable others to act.

The ECR is a self-report attachment evaluation tool that is intended to be used to assess several aspects of close, intimate relationships, including family members or colleagues at work. It assesses individuals' thoughts, feelings, and behaviors in relationships based on two dimensions: attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance. The absence of anxious or avoidance behaviors indicates a secure attachment style.

Major Findings and Associated Conclusions by Domain

Several major findings were discovered as a result of the quantitative analysis discussed in the previous chapter. These findings are addressed according to each of the research questions that formed the purpose of the study.

Conclusions: Model the Way

The model the way domain of the LPI focuses on the leader's ability to establish and exemplify clear values and standards of behavior. This domain emphasizes the leader's role in setting a positive example and acting as a role model for others. Leaders who excel in this domain are seen as credible, trustworthy, and influential role models within their organizations.

According to Popper et al. (2000), a leader must have internalized both a positive model of themselves and a positive model of others in order to have the capacity to become a transformational leader who demonstrates a strong interest and emotional investment in the followers. Based on the findings of this study, it is concluded that leaders who scored lower in this domain have higher avoidance scores. This suggests that individuals who do not feel confident acting as a role model display greater avoidant tendencies when compared to those with higher model the way scores.

Conclusions: Inspire a Shared Vision

The inspire a shared vision domain of the LPI focuses on the leader's ability to create and communicate a compelling vision for the future. It involves inspiring and motivating others by painting a clear picture of what can be achieved and rallying individuals to work towards a shared goal. Leaders who excel in this domain have a clear and inspiring vision of what the future could be. They are forward-thinking and can imagine possibilities that others may not see.

Based on the findings of this study, there is no significant correlation between inspire a shared vision and anxiety score. Even though this study showed a low, negative correlation between inspire a shared vision and avoidance score, the correlation is not statistically significant.

Based on these findings, it is concluded that U.S. Army senior officers do not self-report increased anxiety and avoidance scores. This is likely due to the Army's mission and vision being developed at the strategic level. Whereas the ranks of senior leaders who are represented by the participants in this study mirror the aforementioned vision, they do not typically create it. Their role is to support the predetermined shared

vision that is prescribed by higher headquarters. As a result, this removes many of the feelings of vulnerability that typically accompany the creation of a shared vision, thus reducing potential anxiety and avoidance for senior leaders.

Conclusions: Challenge the Process

The challenge the process domain of the LPI focuses on a leader's ability to question the status quo, seek new opportunities, and drive innovation and improvement. This domain emphasizes the leader's role in encouraging change, experimentation, and continuous improvement within the organization. Leaders who excel in the challenge the process encourage their team members to think outside the box, take calculated risks, and challenge existing norms.

Based on the results of this study, there is no correlation between their challenge the process score and anxiety score. Even though this study showed a low, negative correlation between challenge the process and avoidance score, the correlation is not statistically significant. Based on these findings, it is concluded that these results are likely influenced by the Army culture that was in place as the current senior leadership progressed through the ranks. Historically, the Army's leadership has supported a hierarchal structure in which challenging the process was not encouraged. As a result, this removes many of the feelings of vulnerability that are typically present when challenging a process, thus reducing potential anxiety and avoidance for senior leaders.

Also, based on these findings, it is further concluded that traditional leadership techniques and practices simply will not suffice in years to come. While Army leadership will remain formally hierarchical in responsibility and accountability, its practice is becoming more collective. According to Mallick (2020), senior officers must therefore be

able to take the initiative, encourage divergent thinking, and create innovative solutions to address complex and dynamic processes.

Conclusions: Encourage the Heart

The encourage the heart domain of the LPI focuses on the leader's ability to recognize and appreciate the contributions of others, create a positive and supportive work environment, and foster a sense of belonging and camaraderie. This domain emphasizes the importance of valuing and uplifting team members, celebrating successes, and showing appreciation for their efforts. Leaders who excel in the encourage the heart domain are able to create a positive work environment where individuals feel appreciated, motivated, and supported. They understand the power of recognition, celebration, and positive feedback in fostering engagement and loyalty. By encouraging the heart, leaders inspire their team members to go above and beyond, resulting in increased morale, productivity, and overall team performance.

Based on the results of this study, there is a low, negative correlation between encourage the heart and anxiety score as well as encourage the heart and avoidance score. However, this correlation is not statistically significant. The lack of significance suggests that the observed correlation may be due to chance. Based upon these findings, it is concluded that these results are likely due to the Army culture that was in place as the current senior leadership progressed through the ranks. As a result, this removes many of the feelings of vulnerability that typically present when emotionally engaging with others, thus reducing potential anxiety and avoidance for senior leaders.

Historically, the Army’s leadership has supported a hierarchal structure in which encouraging the heart domain was not prioritized. Contrary to the Army’s approach,

current research indicates that when subordinates perceive that they are being appreciated and encouraged, they are motivated to work more to achieve group objectives. Therefore, based on these findings and the literature, it is concluded that an Army leader can more effectively personify organizational ideals and the high-performance standards demanded of all organizational members by having a thorough awareness of the dynamics of organizational politics (Sosik et al., 2018).

Conclusions: Enable Others to Act

The enable others to act domain of the LPI focuses on a leader's ability to foster collaboration, build trust, and empower team members to achieve their full potential. It emphasizes creating an environment where individuals feel supported, encouraged, and able to contribute their unique skills and perspectives. Leaders who excel in the enable others to act domain create opportunities for growth, support individual and collective development, and trust their team members to make meaningful contributions. By doing so, they build strong and cohesive teams, enhance individual capabilities, and maximize overall organizational effectiveness.

Based on the findings of this study, leaders who scored higher in this domain have lower Anxiety and Avoidance scores. This suggests that individuals who enable others to act display fewer anxious and avoidant tendencies when compared to those with lower enable others to act scores.

One of the key aspects of transformational leadership and organizational effectiveness is the emphasis on empowering employees and providing them with the resources they need to be successful. This can lead to increased job satisfaction and commitment, which can result in higher levels of productivity and performance (Ihme &

Sundstrom, 2021). Specifically in the Army, leaders want room to make decisions and resource missions as they see fit. Guthrie (2012) states that leaders must be willing to pass that liberty to the next lower echelon; otherwise, mission command is limited in effectiveness. Therefore, based on these findings and the literature, it is concluded that adopting and applying the principles of mission command through trusted relationships is a critical aspect of effective transformational leadership across all echelons of the Army.

Incidental Findings and Conclusions

There were several notable incidental findings as a result of the research. Incidental findings are findings that were discovered while answering one of the established research questions. The incidental findings are discussed below.

Total Leadership Practices Inventory Score and Avoidance Score

Based on this study, there was a low, negative correlation between all five LPI domains (total LPI score) and anxiety score, but it was not statistically significant. However, there is a moderate correlation between the total LPI score and avoidance score. When the total LPI score increases, scores on the avoidance score tend to decrease. This correlation suggests that the leaders with a strong LPI score are less avoidant than their peers and likely possess a secure attachment style.

Based upon these findings and support from the literature, it is concluded that leaders with high levels of attachment anxiety tend to predict lower job satisfaction and higher levels of negative affect among followers. This is significant because avoidant attachment style leaders are viewed by their followers as unavailable and judgmental, which is associated with lower follower functioning and mental health (Davidovitz et al., 2007; Kafetsios et al., 2014). Additionally, fearful leaders appear to lack confidence in

their capacity to establish and keep fruitful relationships, which is linked to abusive monitoring (Robertson et al., 2018). In contrast, attachment security in leaders is predictive of charismatic and transformational leadership (Mayseless & Popper, 2019; Popper et al., 2000) and high levels of well-being for followers (Andriopoulou & Prowse, 2020; Davidovitz et al., 2007; Mayseless & Popper, 2019).

Rank and Anxiety Score

Major and Anxiety Score. A regression model was used to examine the relationship between the independent variable of rank and the dependent variable anxiety score. The correlation between the rank of major and the anxiety score is statistically significant, whereas the ranks of lieutenant colonel and colonel show no statistically significant correlations.

Overall, the rank of major in the Army demands a combination of leadership skills, operational expertise, adaptability, and the ability to manage complex responsibilities. It serves as an important career milestone and prepares officers for higher leadership positions within the military hierarchy. As a major, individuals are typically assigned higher-level leadership positions, which come with greater responsibilities. The rank of major marks a transition from junior officer ranks to middle management. Majors are expected to effectively bridge the gap between higher-ranking officers and junior personnel, ensuring the successful execution of orders. They must make crucial decisions under pressure, balancing mission objectives and adhering to military regulations and protocols. However, they lack the authority that is typically held by a lieutenant colonel or colonel. The data shows that majors have higher anxiety than

other more senior ranks. This data leads to the conclusion that increased responsibility but without authority is anxiety-producing.

Lieutenant Colonel and Anxiety Score. A regression model was used to examine the relationship between the independent variable of rank and the dependent variable anxiety score. The correlation between the rank of lieutenant colonel and the Anxiety score is not statistically significant. However, the data does show that anxiety scores for lieutenant colonels are lower than majors yet slightly higher than colonels.

It is important to note that specific roles and responsibilities can vary based on the Army branch, the type of unit, and the operational context. Lieutenant colonels typically have a wide range of experiences with a broad scope of responsibilities that shape them for increased responsibilities. The data leads to the conclusion that lieutenant colonels continue to gain more experience as their careers progress, and they become less anxious with their increased responsibility.

Colonel and Anxiety Score. A regression model was used to examine the relationship between the independent variable of rank and the dependent variable anxiety score. The correlation between the rank of colonel and the anxiety score is not statistically significant. However, the data does show that anxiety scores are lower for colonels than majors, and lieutenant colonels.

Colonels have typically served in the military for a long period and have demonstrated exceptional leadership skills and performance. Their experience and expertise make them well-suited for senior leadership positions and complex operational challenges. The data leads to the conclusion that colonels are seasoned and experienced at

handling the pressures that come with their level of responsibilities and, as a result, are less likely to experience anxiety frequently, as seen in officers with less experience.

Rank and Total Leadership Practices Inventory Score

Total Leadership Practices Inventory Score between Major and Lieutenant Colonel. A regression model was used to examine the relationship between the independent variable of rank and the dependent variable total LPI score. There is a statistically significant difference in total LPI score when comparing majors and lieutenant colonels which shows that majors have lower total LPI scores when compared to lieutenant colonels.

Advancement beyond the rank of major becomes increasingly competitive. Many officers aspire to higher ranks, such as lieutenant colonel and beyond, which require outstanding performance, demonstrated leadership abilities, and a competitive selection process. The rank of major often coincides with increased expectations for professional development. Majors are encouraged to pursue advanced military education, attend leadership courses, and broaden their expertise in specific areas such as tactics, logistics, or administration. Majors are involved in operational planning, including mission analysis, resource allocation, and coordination with other units or agencies. They must possess strong analytical and strategic thinking skills to develop effective plans and contingencies. The data leads to the conclusion that majors who are experiencing field grade officer pressure for the first time are not as secure as lieutenant colonels and colonels who have gained more experience and may require more initial support as they assume the duties and responsibilities of the rank of major.

Total Leadership Practices Inventory Scores in Lieutenant Colonels. A regression model was used to examine the relationship between the independent variable of rank and the dependent variable total LPI score. The data indicate that lieutenant colonels scored higher total LPI scores than majors yet lower total LPI scores than colonels.

A lieutenant colonel typically commands a battalion, which consists of several hundred soldiers. They are responsible for leading and managing the operations, training, and welfare of their assigned unit. Promotion to lieutenant colonel generally requires a combination of time in service, completion of required professional military education, demonstrated leadership abilities, and strong performance evaluations. The data leads to the conclusion that lieutenant colonels have gained more experience since their time as majors and become increasingly comfortable and confident in their leadership practices as they assume greater responsibility.

Total Leadership Practices Inventory Scores in Colonels. A regression model was used to examine the relationship between the independent variable of rank and the dependent variable total LPI score. The data shows that colonels score highest on total LPI scores than majors and lieutenant colonels.

Colonels typically command larger units, such as a brigade or group, which can consist of several thousand soldiers. Colonels have broader responsibilities and oversee multiple subordinate units. The influence of a colonel often extends further due to their larger span of control and higher position in the military hierarchy. Colonels often have a greater impact on policy implementation, resource allocation, and strategic decision-

making. The data leads to the conclusion that colonels are experienced across a broad spectrum of responsibilities, and they are confident in their own leadership practices.

Greater Variability by Gender

Males Have Greater Variability in Anxiety Scores. The descriptive statistics from this study show that males have greater variability in their anxiety scores than their female counterparts. Both male and female officers in the military can face high levels of stress and anxiety due to the nature of their roles, which often involve challenging responsibilities, deployments, combat situations, and separation from loved ones. Additionally, military culture and the unique demands of military life can contribute to stress and anxiety for both genders. Anxiety levels can be influenced by various factors such as personal disposition, past experiences, coping mechanisms, and the demands and stressors of military service. The data suggests there may be more to learn regarding gender and its role in anxious behaviors.

Females have Greater Variability in Avoidance Scores. The descriptive statistics from this study show that females have greater variability in their avoidance scores compared to their male counterparts. Avoidant behaviors can manifest differently in individuals and are influenced by various factors, including personality traits, upbringing, personal experiences, and coping mechanisms.

In military settings, both male and female officers may display avoidant behaviors as a response to stress, trauma, or overwhelming situations. The nature of military service, with its high-pressure environments, demanding responsibilities, and exposure to potentially traumatic events, can lead individuals to develop coping strategies that may

include avoidance. The data suggests there may be more to learn regarding gender and its role in avoidant behaviors.

Implications for Action

The study findings suggest that there is a relationship between the self-assessed attachment orientation between U.S. Army senior officers' self-reported scores on the LPI and their self-reported scores on the ECR scale. This indicates that an individual's attachment orientation may influence their leadership style.

Based on the findings and conclusions from the study, several implications for action were suggested:

Implication 1

The study proposes that including assessments of attachment orientation and leadership styles in the promotion board selection for leadership positions could be beneficial. By considering these factors alongside other qualifications and experience, centralized selection boards may have a better understanding of a candidate's potential to demonstrate desired leadership approaches.

Implication 2

Including assessments of attachment orientation and leadership styles in the promotion process could provide additional insights into a candidate's potential fit for the role and their ability to exhibit transformational leadership behaviors. This information can be valuable in making more informed assignment decisions. However, it is important to note that the inclusion of these assessments should be done carefully and with proper consideration of their validity, reliability, and ethical implications. Additionally, it is

essential to consider other relevant factors and qualifications when making selection decisions to ensure a comprehensive and fair evaluation of eligible personnel.

Implication 3

Developing and evaluating interventions or training programs that target attachment orientations and leadership styles can have practical implications for leadership development. Investigating the effectiveness of interventions, such as coaching or mentoring programs, that aim to enhance leaders' self-awareness, emotional intelligence, and attachment security could provide insights into promoting more effective leadership styles. Including attachment and leadership assessment in the selection process could strengthen attempts to find the best candidate for these leadership roles.

Implication 4

The study suggests that if U.S. Army senior officer identifies their attachment orientation as leaning towards a less secure style, they have the opportunity to pursue a positive change in their attachment orientation and subsequently improve their interactions with followers. Leader development is the intentional, ongoing, and progressive process of developing soldiers and Army civilians into capable, devoted, professional leaders of character. Over the course of an individual’s career, a soldier experiences formal and informal education and training. This education and training combined with vast individual experiences combine and create exceptional aspects of leader development. Furthermore, by gaining self-awareness and taking intentional steps to address any attachment orientation or leadership style issues through appropriate interventions, the officer can enhance their performance by improving their relationships

with followers. Improved relationships can lead to increased trust, collaboration, and engagement among team members, ultimately benefiting the organization and its mission.

Implication 5

It is important for leaders to recognize that personal growth and development can positively impact their leadership effectiveness. By actively working on improving their attachment orientation or leadership style, officers can contribute to system improvements within their organizations. Ultimately, these improvements can have a positive impact on members of the organization by enhancing the fulfillment of the organization's mission and improving overall performance. Overall, the study suggests that assessments of attachment orientation and leadership styles could be valuable tools to support the selection of leaders who are more likely to exhibit desired leadership approaches in the context of the U.S. Army.

Recommendations for Future Research

The current study serves as a valuable contribution to this field by exploring the relationship between attachment orientation and transformational leadership characteristics in a specific group of organizational leaders. By focusing on this specific relationship, the study sheds light on the dynamics between leaders and followers. It adds to our understanding of how attachment orientations, which are deeply rooted in an individual's personality, can influence their leadership style and approach. Additionally, it highlights the importance of transformational leadership, which has been associated with positive organizational outcomes and follower engagement.

While the study represents a small step in unraveling these complexities, it serves as a building block for future research and inquiry. By expanding our knowledge in this

area, we can gain deeper insights into effective leadership practices, follower perceptions and responses, and the impact of individual differences on leadership effectiveness. This understanding can contribute to the development of more comprehensive theories and practical interventions in leadership and organizational contexts.

There are several avenues for future research that can continue to expand our knowledge regarding leadership practices and attachment orientation. The following studies provide ways to continue developing this interdisciplinary research:

Longitudinal studies: Conducting longitudinal studies can provide valuable insights into how attachment orientations and leadership styles develop and change over time. By following individuals from their early adulthood into their professional careers, researchers can examine how attachment patterns established in childhood influence leadership styles and behaviors over the course of an individual's career.

Cross-cultural studies: Investigating attachment orientations and leadership styles across different cultures can shed light on the universality or cultural specificity of these relationships. Comparing findings across diverse cultural contexts can help identify the influence of cultural norms, values, and socialization processes on attachment orientations and their manifestation in leadership behaviors.

Mediating and moderating factors: Exploring the mediating and moderating factors that influence the relationship between attachment orientations and leadership styles can enhance our understanding of the underlying mechanisms. Factors such as self-esteem, emotional intelligence, organizational culture, and gender roles could potentially mediate or moderate the impact of attachment orientations on leadership style.

Organizational context: Investigating the role of the organizational context in shaping the attachment-leadership relationship is essential. Examining how organizational factors, such as leadership development programs, organizational structures, and support systems, interact with attachment orientations to influence leadership styles can provide practical insights for leadership training and organizational development initiatives.

Leadership effectiveness: Exploring the relationship between attachment orientations, leadership styles, and leadership effectiveness is crucial. Understanding how different attachment orientations relate to leadership effectiveness, as measured by various outcomes such as employee satisfaction, team performance, and organizational success, can help identify optimal leadership styles in different contexts.

Gender and leadership context: Exploring the relationship between attachment orientations and leadership styles with a focus on the leaders' gender may help identify commonalities and differences to further understand leader effectiveness. While there might be individual variations, further research could determine any significant gender-based differences in attachment patterns.

Job placement: Investigating the relationship between leaders' attachment orientations and their performance within different duty positions may provide insight into how attachment styles may influence leadership behaviors and effectiveness. The findings from such research could have practical implications for talent management and leadership development. By understanding how attachment orientations might influence leadership behaviors, organizations can make more informed decisions about individual

placements, leadership training, and coaching. It may also aid in creating more successful and cohesive teams by ensuring the right fit between leaders and their roles.

The studies listed above are just a few examples of potential areas for future research. By delving into these topics, researchers can further contribute to our understanding of the complex relationship between attachment orientation and leadership style, ultimately enhancing leadership theories, practices, and organizational outcomes.

Concluding Remarks and Reflections

This study aimed to provide military leaders with insight and knowledge to guide their organizations through uniquely variable environments and improve organizational outcomes. The findings of this study may help U.S. Army senior officers assess the effectiveness of their leadership in how they approach their interactions and relationships with others. Moreover, the findings may also inform how attachment relationships in U.S. Army senior officers' leadership affect leaders' ability to apply and improve Kouzes and Posner's (2002) five practices of transformational leadership.

Analyzing leadership as a relationship is an approach that combines concepts from leadership theory and psychology to understand the dynamics between leaders and followers. This perspective recognizes that leadership is not solely about individual leaders but also about the interactions and connections between leaders and their followers.

Leadership theory provides frameworks and models that explain how leaders influence and guide their followers. These theories examine various aspects of leadership, such as traits, behaviors, situational factors, and the effectiveness of different leadership

styles. However, by focusing solely on the leader, these theories often overlook the significance of the relationship between leaders and followers.

Psychology, including attachment theory, delve into the thoughts, emotions, motivations, and behaviors of individuals. Applying psychological concepts to leadership helps shed light on how leaders and followers perceive each other, communicate, collaborate, and develop trust. It emphasizes the impact of psychological factors on the leader-follower relationship and how they influence the overall effectiveness of leadership.

Analyzing leadership as a relationship recognizes that leaders and followers are interdependent and that their interactions shape the success or failure of leadership endeavors. It highlights that effective leadership involves understanding and responding to the needs, aspirations, and concerns of followers. Leaders who cultivate positive relationships with their followers are more likely to inspire commitment, motivation, and loyalty, ultimately enhancing individual and collective performance.

By integrating leadership theory and psychology, the analysis of leadership as a relationship provides a more holistic understanding of leadership dynamics. It emphasizes the importance of considering both the leader's and the follower's perspectives and the reciprocal influence they have on each other. This approach encourages leaders to be mindful of the relational aspects of leadership, fostering open communication, empathy, collaboration, and mutual respect to create productive and meaningful interactions with their followers.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Synthesis Matrix

References	Themes	Military Leadership	Transformational Leadership History and Definitions	Measuring Transformational Leadership	Attachment Theory History and Definitions	Attachment Styles/Domains	Adult Attachment	Measuring Adult Attachment	TL and Adult Attachment	Attachment Theory and the Workplace
Ainsworth, M. D. S. (1969). Object relations, dependency, and attachment: A theoretical review of the infant-mother relationship. *Child Development, 40,* 969-1025. https://doi:10.2307/1127008	[redacted]				X	X				
Andriopoulou, P., & Prowse, A. (2020). "Towards an effective supervisory relationship in research degree supervision: insights from attachment theory." *Teaching in Higher Education*, *25*(5), 648–661. https://doi-org.umassglobal.idm.oclc.org/10.1080/13562517.2020.1731449							A			X
Army Active, Guard, Reserve, and Civilian Personnel Programs: The Subcommittee on Personnel Senate Armed Services Committee United States Senate, 117th Cong. (2021) (Testimony of LTG Gary Brito). https://www.armedservices.senate.gov/download/brito51221		A								
Bartholomew, K., & Horowitz, L. M. (1991). Attachment styles among young adults: a test of a four-category model. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, *61*(2), 226. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.61.2.226						X	A	X		
Bass, B. M. (1990). From transactional to transformational leadership: Learning to share the vision. *Organizational Dynamics, 18*, 19-31. https://doi.org/10.1016/0090-2616(90)90061-S			X	A						
Bennett, S., Mohr, J., BrintzenhofeSzoc, K., & Saks, L. V. (2008). General and supervision-specific attachment styles: Relations to student perceptions of field supervisors. *Journal of Social Work Education*, *44*(2), 75-94. https://doi.org/10.5175/JSWE.200800016						X	A			X

References	Themes	Military Leadership	Transformational Leadership History and Definitions	Measuring Transformational Leadership	Attachment Theory History and Definitions	Attachment Styles/Domains	Adult Attachment	Measuring Adult Attachment	TL and Adult Attachment	Attachment Theory and the Workplace
Berson, Y., Dan, O., & Yammarino, F. (2006). Attachment style and individual differences in leadership perceptions and emergence. *Journal of Social Psychology, 146*,165−182. https://doi.org/10.3200/SOCP.146.2.165-182						X			X	
Boatwright, K. J., Lopez, F. G., Sauer, E. M., VanDerWege, A., & Huber, D. M. (2010). The influence of adult attachment styles on workers' preferences for relational leadership behaviors. *The Psychologist-Manager Journal*, *13*(1), 1-14. https://doi.org/10.1080/10887150903316271						X			X	X
Bowlby, J. (1977). The making and breaking of affectional bonds. *British Journal of Psychiatry, 130*, 201-210. https://doi.org/10.1192/bjp.130.3.201					X	X				
Brennan, K.A., Clark, C.L., & Shaver, P.R. (1998). Self-report measurement of adult attachment: An integrative overview. In J. A. Simpson & W. S. Rholes (Eds.), *Attachment theory and close relationships* (pp. 46-76). Guilford Press.					X	X	A	X		
Briggs, I. D. (2017). *The Influence of Attachment Styles on Employee Engagement* (Doctoral dissertation, Walden University).						X	A	X	X	X
Britt, R.O. (2017). *Organizational leadership: The roots* [Unpublished capstone paper]. Brandman University.			X	A						
Cassidy, J. (1994). Emotion regulation: Influences of attachment relationships. *Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development, 59*, 228-249. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-5834.1994.tb01287.x						X	A			
Center for the Army Profession and Leadership. (2020). *Building and Maintaining a Positive Climate Handbook*. https://caplalacaplpfwstorprod01.blob.core.usgovcloudapi.net/web/repository/pdf-		A	X	A						

References	Themes	Military Leadership	Tranformational Leadership History and Definitions	Measuring Transformational Leadership	Attachment Theory History and Definitions	Attachment Styles/Domains	Adult Attachment	Measuring Adult Attachment	TL and Adult Attachment	Attachment Theory and the Workplace
Crowell, J. A., Fraley, R., & Shaver, P. R. (1999). Measurement of individual differences in adolescent and adult attachment. In J. Cassidy & P. R. Shaver (Eds.), *Handbook of attachment: Theory, research, and clinical applications* (pp. 434-465). Guilford Press.					X	X	X	X		
Davidovitz, R., Mikulincer, M., Shaver, P. R., Izsak, R., & Popper, M. (2007). Leaders as attachment figures: leaders' attachment orientations predict leadership-related mental representations and followers' performance and mental health. *Journal of Personality and social Psychology*, *93*(4), 632. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.93.4.632						X	X	X	X	
Dickson, J. M., Moberly, N. J., Marshall, Y., & Reilly, J. (2011). Attachment style and its relationship to working alliance in the supervision of British clinical psychology trainees. *Clinical psychology & psychotherapy*, *18*(4), 322-330. https://doi.org/10.1002/cpp.715						X	X			X
Finkel, E., & Simpson, J. (2015). Editorial overview: Relationship science. *Current Opinion in Psychology, 1*, 5–9. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.copsyc.2015.01.012					X					X
Fraley, R. C., & Brumbaugh, C. C. (2004). A Dynamical Systems Approach to Conceptualizing and Studying Stability and Change in Attachment Security. In W. S. Rholes & J. A. Simpson (Eds.), *Adult attachment: Theory, research, and clinical implications* (pp. 86–132). Guilford Publications.					X	X	X		X	
Frazier, M. L., Gooty, J., Little, L. M., & Nelson, D. L. (2015). Employee attachment: Implications for supervisor trustworthiness and trust. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, *30*, 373-386. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-014-9367-4							X	X	X	X

References	Themes	Military Leadership	Transformational Leadership History and Definitions	Measuring Transformational Leadership	Attachment Theory History and Definitions	Attachment Styles/Domains	Adult Attachment	Measuring Adult Attachment	TL and Adult Attachment	Attachment Theory and the Workplace
Foster, J. T., Heinen, A. D., Lichtenberg, J. W., & Gomez, A. D. (2006). Supervisor attachment as a predictor of developmental ratings of supervisees. *American Journal of Psychological Research*, *2*(1), 28-39. https://www.mcneese.edu/wp-content/uploads/2020/08/AJPR-06-08-Foster-et-al.pdf							^	X	X	X
Foster, J. T., Lichtenberg, J. W., & Peyton, V. (2007). The supervisory attachment relationship as a predictor of the professional development of the supervisee. *Psychotherapy research, 17*(3), 343-350. https://doi.org/10.1080/10503300600823202							^	X	X	X
Gillath, O., Sesko, A., Shaver, P., & Chun, D. (2010). Attachment, authenticity, and honesty: Dispositional and experimentally induced security can reduce self- and other-deception. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology,98*, 841–855. https://www.scinapse.io/papers/2047884642						X	^	X		
Guthrie, T. (2012). Mission command: Do we have the stomach for what is really required? *Army Magazine*, *26*. https://www.ausa.org/sites/default/files/FC_Guthrie_0612.pdf		^	X							
Harms, P. D. (2011). Adult attachment styles in the workplace. *Human Resource Management Review*, *21*(4), 285-296. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hrmr.2010.10.006							^	X	X	X
Hazan, C, & Shaver, P. (1987). Romantic love conceptualized as an attachment process. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 52*, 511-524. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.52.3.511					X	X	^			
Ihme, K. R. M., & Sundstrom, P. (2021). The mindful shield: The effects of mindfulness training on resilience and leadership in military leaders. *Perspectives in Psychiatric Care, 57*(2), 675–688.		^	X							

References	Themes	Military Leadership	Transformational Leadership History and Definitions	Measuring Transformational Leadership	Attachment Theory History and Definitions	Attachment Styles/Domains	Adult Attachment	Measuring Adult Attachment	TL and Adult Attachment	Attachment Theory and the Workplace
Jing, E. L., Gellatly, I. R., Feeney, J. R., & Inness, M. (2022). Social Undermining and Three Forms of Organizational Commitment: The Moderating Role of Employees' Attachment Style. *Journal of Personnel Psychology*. http://dx.doi.org/10.1027/1866-5888/a000307	[redacted]						A	X	X	X
Leiter, M. P., Day, A., & Price, L. (2015). Attachment styles at work: Measurement, collegial relationships, and burnout. *Burnout research*, *2*(1), 25-35. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.burn.2015.02.003						X	A	X	X	X
Kafetsios, K., Athanasiadou, M., & Dimou, N. (2014). Leaders' and subordinates' attachment orientations, emotion regulation capabilities and affect at work: A multilevel analysis. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *25*(3), 512-527. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2013.11.010						X	A		X	X
Kouzes, J. M., & Posner, B. Z. (2002). The leadership practices inventory: Theory and evidence behind the five practices of exemplary leaders. Retrieved from http://www.leadershipchallenge.com/UserFiles/lc_jb_psychometric_properti.pdf			X	A						
Mallick, P.K., (2020). *Military Leadership Changing Paradigm.* The Centre for Land Warfare. https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Pk-Mallick3/publication/344325989_MILITARY_LEADERSHIP-THE_CHANGING_PARADIGM/links/5f682b88299bf1b53ee76450/MILITARY-LEADERSHIP-THE-CHANGING-PARADIGM.pdf?origin=publication_detail		A	X							
Matzenbacher, B. (2015). The U.S. Army and mission command: An espoused philosophy versus a philosophy in practice. Master's thesis, Naval War College. https://www.armyupress.army.mil/Journals/Military-Review/English-Edition-		A	X							

References	Themes	Military Leadership	Transformational Leadership History and Definitions	Measuring Transformational Leadership	Attachment Theory History and Definitions	Attachment Styles/Domains	Adult Attachment	Measuring Adult Attachment	TL and Adult Attachment	Attachment Theory and the Workplace
McMillan, J. H. & Schumacher, S. (2010). *Research in education: Evidence-based Inquiry* (7th ed.). Pearson.	[redacted]		X							
McKibben, W. B., & Webber, W. B. (2017). Investigating the impact of supervisee attachment system activation on the supervisory relationship. *The Clinical Supervisor*, *36*(2), 324-339. https://doi.org/10.1080/07325223.2017.1345340							X	X	X	X
Mikulincer, M., & Florian, V. (1995). Appraisal of and coping with a real-life stressful situation: The contribution of attachment styles. *Personality and social psychology bulletin*, *21*(4), 406-414. https://doi.org/10.1177/0146167295214011					X	X			X	
Mikulincer, M., Shaver, P. R., & Pereg, D. (2003). Attachment theory and affect regulation: The dynamics, development, and cognitive consequences of attachment-related strategies. *Motivation and emotion*, *27*, 77-102. https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1024515519160					X	X			X	
Mikulincer, M., & Shaver, P. (2007). Attachment in adulthood: Structure, dynamics, and change. Guilford.					X	X			X	
Mikulincer, M., & Shaver, P. R. (2015). The psychological effects of the contextual activation of security-enhancing mental representations in adulthood. *Current Opinion in Psychology*, *1*, 18-21. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.copsyc.2015.01.008					X	X			X	
Northouse, P. G. (2016). *Leadership: Theory and practice*. (7th ed.). Sage.			X							
Norrie, C.R., Wharton, J.S. (2022). *Embracing the Need for Command Climate.* Military Review Online Exclusive. *https://www.armyupress.army.mil/Portals/7/military-review/Archives/English/Online-Exclusive/2022/Command-Climate-Change/Wharton-2022-UA.pdf*		A								

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Pan, M. L., & Lopez, M. (2016). *Preparing literature reviews: Qualitative and quantitative approaches* (5th ed.). Pyrczak Publications.				A				X		
Patten, M.L. & Newhart, M. (2018). *Understanding research methods: an overview of the essentials* (10th ed.). Routledge.				A				X		
Popper, M., Mayseless, O., & Castelnovo, O. (2000). Transformational leadership and attachment. *Leadership Quarterly, 11(2),* 267-289. https://doi:10.1016/S1048-9843(00)00038-2			X						X	X
Richards, D. A., & Schat, A. C. (2011). Attachment at (not to) work: applying attachment theory to explain individual behavior in organizations. *Journal of applied psychology*, *96*(1), 169. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0020372							A		X	X
Riggs, S. A., & Bretz, K. M. (2006). Attachment processes in the supervisory relationship: An exploratory investigation. *Professional Psychology: Research and Practice*, *37*(5), 558. https://doi.org/10.1037/0735-7028.37.5.558							A		X	X
Roberts, J.W. (1981). General John J. Pershing and his contributions to the American military success in World War II. Masters Theses. http://fau.digital.flvc.org/islandora/object/fau%3A10897		A								
Robertson, J., Dionisi, A., & Barling, J. (2018). Linking attachment theory to abusive supervision. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *33*(2), 214-228. https://doi.org/10.1108/JMP-11-2017-0399							A		X	X

References	Themes	Military Leadership	Transformational Leadership History and Definitions	Measuring Transformational Leadership	Attachment Theory History and Definitions	Attachment Styles/Domains	Adult Attachment	Measuring Adult Attachment	TL and Adult Attachment	Attachment Theory and the Workplace
Rogers, J. L., Luke, M., Gilbride, D. D., & Goodrich, K. M. (2019). Supervisee attachment, cognitive distortions, and difficulty with corrective feedback. *Counselor Education and Supervision*, *58*(1), 18-32. https://doi.org/10.1002/ceas.12121							A		X	X
Schaubroeck, J., Lam, S.S., & Peng, A.C. (2011). Cognition-based and affect-based trust as mediators of leader behavior influences on team performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 96*(4), 863-871. https://doi:10.1037/a0022625						X	A	X	X	X
Shamir, E. (2010). The long and winding road: the US Army managerial approach to command and the adoption of Mission Command (Auftragstaktik). *The Journal of Strategic Studies*, *33*(5), 645-672. https://doi.org/10.1080/01402390.2010.498244		A	X							
Sibley, C. G., & Overall, N. C. (2008). Modeling the hierarchical structure of attachment representations: A test of domain differentiation. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *44*(1), 238-249. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2007.08.003							A	X		
Sosik, J. J., Arenas, F. J., Jae Uk Chun, & Ete, Z. (2018). Character into Action: How Officers Demonstrate Strengths with Transformational Leadership. *Air & Space Power Journal*, *32*(3), 4–25. https://doi.org/10.5465/AMBPP.2018.56		A	X							
Taherdoost, H. (2016). Sampling methods in research methodology; how to choose a sampling technique for research. *How to choose a sampling technique for research.* https://doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.3205035				A				X		

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Thompson, P.M.M., Glasø, L., & Matthiesen, S. B. (2018). The way I see you. Implicit followership theories explored through the lens of attachment. *The Psychologist-Manager Journal*, *21*(2), 85–105. https://doi-org.umassglobal.idm.oclc.org/10.1037/mgr0000069			X				A			
Townsend, S., Crissman, D., & McCoy, K. (2019). *Reinvigorating the Army's Approach to Mission Command It's Okay to Run with Scissors (Part 1).* https://www.armyupress.army.mil/Portals/7/Army-Press-Online-Journal/documents/2019/Townsend-online.pdf		A	X							
Townsend, S., Brito, G., Crissman, D., & McCoy, K. (2019). *Reinvigorating the Army's Approach to Command and Control Leading by Mission Command (Part 2).* https://www.armyupress.army.mil/Journals/Military-Review/Online-Exclusive/2019-OLE/May/Reinvigorating-pt2/		A	X							
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Troyer, D. & Greitemeyer, T. (2018). The impact of attachment orientations on empathy in adults: Considering the mediating role of emotion regulation strategies and negative affectivity. *Personality and Individual Differences, 122,* 198–205. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2017.10.033						X	A			
Ulmer, W.F. (2010). Military leadership into the 21st century: Another "bridge too far?". *The US Army War College Quarterly: Parameters 40*(4). https://doi.org/10.55540/0031-1723.2562		A	X							

References	Themes	Military Leadership	Transformational Leadership History and Definitions	Measuring Transformational Leadership	Attachment Theory History and Definitions	Attachment Styles/Domains	Adult Attachment	Measuring Adult Attachment	TL and Adult Attachment	Attachment Theory and the Workplace
U.S. Department of the Army, The Army Profession, Army Doctrine Reference Publications (ADRP) 1. (2013). https://irp.fas.org/doddir/army/adrp1.pdf	[redacted]	^	X							
U.S. Department of the Army, Mission Command, Army Doctrine Reference Publications (ADRP) 6-0. (2014). https://armypubs.army.mil/epubs/DR_pubs/DR_a/ARN18314-ADP_6-0-000-WEB-3.pdf		^	X							
U.S. Department of the Army Publication and Doctrine (APD), Army Leadership and the Profession, 6-22. (2019). https://armypubs.army.mil/epubs/DR_pubs/DR_a/ARN20039-ADP_6-22-001-WEB-0.pdf		^	X							
U.S. Department of the Army (2014). The Army Ethic White Paper. *Center for the Army Profession and Ethics*. https://www.army. mil/e2/c/downloads/356486. pdf.		^	X							
U.S. Department of the Army. (2019). *The Army people strategy*. https://www.army.mil/e2/downloads/rv7/the_army_people_strategy_2019_10_11_signed_final.pdf		^	X							
Watkins Jr, C. E., & Riggs, S. A. (2012). Psychotherapy supervision and attachment theory: Review, reflections, and recommendations. *The Clinical Supervisor*, *31*(2), 256-289. https://doi.org/10.1080/07325223.2012.743319					X	X	^			
White, V. E., & Queener, J. (2003). Supervisor and supervisee attachments and social provisions related to the supervisory working alliance. *Counselor Education and Supervision*, *42*(3), 203-218. https://doi.org/10.1002/j.1556-6978.2003.tb01812.x							^			X

References	Themes	Military Leadership	Transformational Leadership History and Definitions	Measuring Transformational Leadership	Attachment Theory History and Definitions	Attachment Styles/Domains	Adult Attachment	Measuring Adult Attachment	TL and Adult Attachment	Attachment Theory and the Workplace
Wrape, E. R., Callahan, J. L., Rieck, T., & Watkins Jr, C. E. (2017). Attachment theory within clinical supervision: Application of the conceptual to the empirical. *Psychoanalytic Psychotherapy*, *31*(1), 37-54. https://doi.org/10.1080/02668734.2016.1261927	[redacted]				X	X				
Wu, C. H., Parker, S. K., & De Jong, J. P. (2014). Feedback seeking from peers: A positive strategy for insecurely attached team-workers. *Human relations*, *67*(4), 441-464. https://doi.org/10.1177/0018726713496124								X	X	X
Yip, J., Ehrhardt, K., Black, H., & Walker, D. O. (2018). Attachment theory at work: A review and directions for future research. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *39*(2), 185-198. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.2204							^			X

APPENDIX B

Army's Information Management Control Officer Approval Conduct Research

SCN for the Collection Collated under the Titles "Leadership Practices Inventory & Experiences in Close Relationships"

Hedberg, Kurt Ernest CIV USARMY HQDA CIO (USA) <kurt.e.hedberg.civ@army.mil>
Fri 4/14/2023 2:25 PM
To: Ochs, Rebecca K 1SG USARMY 706 MI GRP (USA) <rebecca.k.ochs.mil@army.mil>

3 attachments (1 MB)
Ochs_Revised_Draft Army Internal Survey Guidance (v8) 13DECV22.docx; LPI and ECR Surveys.pdf; OCHS_Sponsorship Letter_signed.pdf;

Ma'am,

The two information collections collated under the title "Leadership Practices Inventory &Experiences in Close Relationships" have been approved IAW AR 25-98 by the Army IMCO. You may begin data collection activities as soon as you receive this memo, pending any other necessary approvals. If you plan to make any changes to the approved protocol, please consult with an Army IMCO at usarmy.belvoir.hqda-rmd.mbx.information-collections-certificatio@army.mil to determine whether the proposed changes alter the status of the project and thus potentially require an amendment or a new application. The SCN should be put within the body of any recruitment materials and on the top margin of any materials the participants will receive. The Survey Control Number information (SCN) is provided below.

SURVEY CONTROL NUMBER:
AAES-RMC-23-112 (Leadership Practices Inventory)
AAES-RMC-23-113 (Experiences in Close Relationships)
AGENCY IDENTIFIER: Academic
Expiration Date: 04/14/24

APPENDIX C

Invitation to Participate

STUDY: The Relationship Between Transformational Leadership and Attachment Theory Among Field Grade Officers in the U.S. Army

Date:
Dear Prospective Study Participant,

You are invited to participate in a quantitative research study to investigate the correlation between transformational leadership practices and attachment styles among field grade officers in the U.S. Army. The research study focuses on active-duty field grade officers and their experiences managing the social environments of the workplace and contribute to the advancement of knowledge in the discipline to address contemporary issues in leadership.

The main investigator of this study is Rebecca K. Ochs, a Doctoral Candidate in UMass Global's Doctor of Education in Organizational Leadership program. You were chosen to participate in this study because you are an active duty and commissioned field grade officer in the U.S. Army. Additionally, the Army's survey licensing authority for internal Army surveys, the Records Management Directorate (RMD), has approved this study.

The study consists of two self-reporting electronic surveys. Participation in the electronic survey alone will be 10-15 minutes, while archival data collection will be the responsibility of the researcher. Your participation is entirely voluntary, and you may withdraw from the study at any time without consequences.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY: This study is being conducted for a dissertation for the Doctor of Education in Organizational Leadership program at UMass Global University. The purpose of this quantitative correlational study is to determine what relationship exists between U.S. Army field grade officers' self-reported scores on the five domains of the Leadership Practices Inventory (Kouzes & Posner, 2002) and their self-reported scores on the Experiences in Close Relationships Scale (Brennan et al., 1998).

PROCEDURES: In participating in this research study, I agree to partake in two electronic surveys. During the electronic surveys, I will be asked to rate my leadership practices and experiences in close relationships by answering fixed-choice questions.

RISKS, INCONVENIENCES, AND DISCOMFORTS: There are minimal risks to your participation in this research study. It may be inconvenient to spend up to 30 minutes completing an online survey. However, the survey will be administered digitally to minimize this inconvenience. There is no cost to you for participating, and you will not be compensated in any way for your participation.

POTENTIAL BENEFITS: There are no major benefits to you for participation, however, your input and feedback could help add to the research regarding transformational leadership practices in field grade officers and possible implications for leader success. The information from this study is intended to inform researchers, policymakers, and educators. Additionally, the findings and recommendations from this study will be made available to all participants.

ANONYMITY: All surveys and research data collected will be stored securely and confidentially on a password-protected server. Records of information that you provide for the research study, and any personal information you provide, will not be linked in any way. It will not be possible to identify you as the person who provided any specific information for the study. Only the research team may have access to study records to protect participants' safety and welfare.

You are encouraged to ask questions at any time that will help you understand how this study will be performed and/or how it will affect you. You may contact me at [redacted] or by email at [redacted]. You can also contact Dr. Phil Pendley by email at pendley@umassglobal.edu. If you have any further questions or concerns about this study or your rights as a study participant, you may write or call the Office of the Executive Vice Chancellor of Academic Affairs, UMass Global, 16355 Laguna Canyon Road, Irvine, CA 92618 (949) 341-7641.

Respectfully,

Rebecca K. Ochs
Doctoral Candidate

APPENDIX D

Informed Consent

RESEARCH STUDY TITLE: The Relationship Between Transformational Leadership and Attachment Theory Among Field Grade Officers in the U.S. Army

RESPONSIBLE INVESTIGATOR: Rebecca K. Ochs, Doctoral Candidate

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY: This study is being conducted for a dissertation for the Doctor of Education in Organizational Leadership program at UMass Global University. The purpose of this quantitative correlational study is to determine what relationship exists between U.S. Army field grade officers' self-reported scores on the five domains of the Leadership Practices Inventory (Kouzes & Posner, 2002) and their self-reported scores on the Experiences in Close Relationships Scale (Brennan et al., 1998).

PROCEDURES: In participating in this research study, I agree to partake in two electronic surveys. During the electronic surveys, I will be asked to rate my leadership practices and experiences in close relationships by answering fixed-choice questions.

I understand that:

a) There are minimal risks associated with participating in this research. I understand that the investigator will protect my confidentiality by keeping and identifying codes in research materials and locked drawer and/or secure electronic format that is only available to the researcher.

b) I will not be compensated for my participation in this study. However, the information including the findings and recommendations generated from your participation will help to add to the body of literature associated with transformational leadership in the U.S. Army. The findings and recommendations from this study will be made available to all participants.

c) The possible personal benefit of this study is that my input will add to the ongoing research within the field of transformational leadership in the U.S. Army.

d) Any questions I have concerning my participation in this study will be answered by Rebecca K. Ochs, UMass Global Doctoral Candidate. I understand that Ms. Ochs may be contacted by phone at [redacted] or by email at [redacted]. The dissertation chairperson may also answer questions: Dr. Phil Pendley at pendley@umassglobal.edu.

e) I understand that my participation in this study is voluntary. I may refuse to participate or withdraw from this study at any time without any negative consequences. I also understand that the investigator may stop the study at any time.

f) The study will utilize electronic surveys. All surveys and research data collected will be stored securely and confidentially on a password-protected server.

g) No information that identifies me will be released without my separate consent, and all identifiable information will be protected to the limits allowed by law. If the study design or the use of the data is to be changed, I will be informed, and my consent re- obtained. If I have any questions, comments, or concerns about the study or the informed consent process, I may contact: the Office of Vice Chancellor of Academic Affairs, UMass Global, 16355 Laguna Canyon Road, Irvine, CA 92618 (949) 341-7641

ELECTRONIC CONSENT: Please select your choice below. Clicking on the "agree" button indicates that you have read the informed consent form and the information in this document and that you voluntarily agree to participate. If you do not wish to participate in this electronic survey, you may decline participation by clicking on the "disagree" button.

The survey will not open for responses unless you agree to participate.

□ AGREE: I acknowledge receipt of the complete Informed Consent packet and "Bill of Rights." I have read the materials and give my consent to participate in the study.

□ DISAGREE: I do not wish to participate in this electronic survey

APPENDIX E

Research Participant's Bill of Rights

UMASS GLOBAL
A nonprofit affiliate of the University of Massachusetts

UMASS GLOBAL INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD

Any person who is requested to consent to participate as a subject in an experiment, or who is requested to consent on behalf of another, has the following rights:

1. To be told what the study is attempting to discover.
2. To be told what will happen in the study and whether any of the procedures, drugs or devices are different from what would be used in standard practice.
3. To be told about the risks, side effects or discomforts of the things that may happen to him/her.
4. To be told if he/she can expect any benefit from participating and, if so, what the benefits might be.
5. To be told what other choices he/she has and how they may be better or worse than being in the study.
6. To be allowed to ask any questions concerning the study both before agreeing to be involved and during the course of the study.
7. To be told what sort of medical treatment is available if any complications arise.
8. To refuse to participate at all before or after the study is started without any adverse effects.
9. To receive a copy of the signed and dated consent form.
10. To be free of pressures when considering whether he/she wishes to agree to be in the study.

If at any time you have questions regarding a research study, you should ask the researchers to answer them. You also may contact the UMASS GLOBAL Institutional Review Board, which is concerned with the protection of volunteers in research projects. The UMass Global Institutional Review Board may be contacted either by telephoning the Office of Academic Affairs at (949) 341-9937 or by writing to the Vice Chancellor of Academic Affairs, UMASS GLOBAL, 16355 Laguna Canyon Road, Irvine, CA, 92618.

UMass Global IRB Adopted 2021

APPENDIX F

Leadership Practices Inventory Experiences in Close Relationships (LPI) Scale

THE LEADERSHIP CHALLENGE® A Wiley Brand

BY JAMES M. KOUZES & BARRY Z. POSNER

INSTRUCTIONS:

Write your name in the space provided at the top of the next page. Below your name, you will find thirty statements describing various leadership behaviors. Please read each statement carefully, and using the rating scale on the right, ask yourself:

"How frequently do I engage in the behavior described?"

When selecting your response to each statement:

- Be realistic about the extent to which you actually engage in the behavior.
- Be as honest and accurate as you can be.
- DO NOT answer in terms of how you would like to behave or in terms of how you think you should behave.
- DO answer in terms of how you typically behave on most days, on most projects, and with most people.
- Be thoughtful about your responses. For example, giving yourself 10s on all items is most likely not an accurate description of your behavior. Similarly, giving yourself all 1s or all 5s is most likely not an accurate description either. Most people will do some things more or less often than they do other things.
- If you feel that a statement does not apply to you, it's probably because you don't frequently engage in the behavior. In that case, assign a rating of 3 or lower.

For each statement, decide on a response and then record the corresponding number in the box to the right of the statement. After you have responded to all thirty statements, go back through the LPI one more time to make sure you have responded to each statement. *Every* statement *must* have a rating.

The Rating Scale runs from 1 to 10. Choose the number that best applies to each statement.

RATING SCALE	1–Almost Never 2–Rarely	3–Seldom 4–Once in a While	5–Occasionally 6–Sometimes	7–Fairly Often 8–Usually	9–Very Frequently 10–Almost Always

When you have completed the LPI-Self, please return it to:

Thank you.

LPI: LEADERSHIP PRACTICES INVENTORY SELF

Your name: _____

To what extent do you engage in the following behaviors? Choose the response number that best applies to each statement and record it in the box to the right of that statement.

1.	I set a personal example of what I expect of others.	
2.	I talk about future trends that will influence how our work gets done.	
3.	I seek out challenging opportunities that test my own skills and abilities.	
4.	I develop cooperative relationships among the people I work with.	
5.	I praise people for a job well done.	
6.	I make certain that people adhere to the principles and standards that have been agreed upon.	
7.	I describe a compelling image of what our future could be like.	
8.	I challenge people to try out new and innovative ways to do their work.	
9.	I actively listen to diverse points of view.	
10.	I make it a point to let people know about my confidence in their abilities.	
11.	I follow through on the promises and commitments that I make.	
12.	I appeal to others to share an exciting dream of the future.	
13.	I actively search for innovative ways to improve what we do.	
14.	I treat others with dignity and respect.	
15.	I make sure that people are creatively recognized for their contributions to the success of our projects.	
16.	I ask for feedback on how my actions affect other people's performance.	
17.	I show others how their long-term interests can be realized by enlisting in a common vision.	
18.	I ask "What can we learn?" when things don't go as expected.	
19.	I involve people in the decisions that directly impact their job performance.	
20.	I publicly recognize people who exemplify commitment to shared values.	
21.	I build consensus around a common set of values for running our organization.	
22.	I paint the "big picture" of what we aspire to accomplish.	
23.	I identify measurable milestones that keep projects moving forward.	
24.	I give people a great deal of freedom and choice in deciding how to do their work.	
25.	I tell stories of encouragement about the good work of others.	
26.	I am clear about my philosophy of leadership.	
27.	I speak with genuine conviction about the higher meaning and purpose of our work.	
28.	I take initiative in anticipating and responding to change.	
29.	I ensure that people grow in their jobs by learning new skills and developing themselves.	
30.	I get personally involved in recognizing people and celebrating accomplishments.	

LPI: LEADERSHIP PRACTICES INVENTORY SELF

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LPI: LEADERSHIP PRACTICES INVENTORY SELF

Self-Response Sheet for Hand Scoring

INSTRUCTIONS

1. Transfer your ratings from the statements on the questionnaire to the blanks below. Please notice that the numbers of the statements are listed from left to right. Make certain that the number you assigned to each statement is transferred to the appropriate blank.
2. Add the columns and fill in the totals.

1. _____	2. _____	3. _____	4. _____	5. _____
6. _____	7. _____	8. _____	9. _____	10. _____
11. _____	12. _____	13. _____	14. _____	15. _____
16. _____	17. _____	18. _____	19. _____	20. _____
21. _____	22. _____	23. _____	24. _____	25. _____
26. _____	27. _____	28. _____	29. _____	30. _____
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
TOTAL	TOTAL	TOTAL	TOTAL	TOTAL

APPENDIX G

Experiences in Close Relationships (ECR) Scale

The Experiences in Close Relationship Scale (ECR), developed by Brennan, Clark, and Shaver (1998) and slightly re-worded by Mikulincer and Shaver (2007) is presented below. For this study, one additional re-wording in the instruction was included, listing examples as close friends, family members, or close colleagues at work instead of romantic partners, close friends, or family members. The internet survey will allow for participants to click on the Likert-type scale responses.

The following statements concern how you generally feel in close relationships (e.g., with close friends, family members, or close colleagues at work). Respond to each statement by indicating how much you agree or disagree with it. Use the following rating scale: Disagree Strongly, Disagree, Disagree Slightly, Neutral/mixed, Agree Slightly, Agree, Strongly Agree.

	Disagree Strongly	Disagree	Disagree Slightly	Neutral/mixed	Agree Slightly	Agree	Strongly Agree
a. I prefer not to show others how I feel deep down.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
b. I worry about being rejected or abandoned.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
c. I am very comfortable being close to other people.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
d. I worry a lot about my relationships.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
e. Just when someone starts to get close to me I find myself pulling away.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
f. I worry that others won't care about me as much as I care about them.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
g. I get uncomfortable when someone wants to be very close to me.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
h. I worry a fair amount about losing my close relationship partners.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
i. I don't feel comfortable opening up to others.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
j. I often wish that close relationships partners' feelings for me were as strong as my feelings for them.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

The following statements concern how you generally feel in close relationships (e.g., with close friends, family members, or close colleagues at work). Respond to each statement by indicating how much you agree or disagree with it. Use the following rating scale: Disagree Strongly, Disagree, Disagree Slightly, Neutral/mixed, Agree Slightly, Agree, Strongly Agree.

	Disagree Strongly	Disagree	Disagree Slightly	Neutral/mixed	Agree Slightly	Agree	Strongly Agree
a. I want to get close to others, but I keep pulling back.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
b. I want to get very close to others, and this sometimes scares them away.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
c. I am nervous when another person gets close to me.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
d. I worry about being alone.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
e. I feel comfortable sharing my private thoughts and feelings with others.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
f. My desire to be very close sometimes scares people away.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
g. I try to avoid getting too close to others.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
h. I need a lot of reassurance that close relationship partners really care about me.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
i. I find it relatively easy to get close to others.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
j. Sometimes I feel that I try to force others to show more feeling, more commitment to our relationship than they otherwise would.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

The following statements concern how you generally feel in close relationships (e.g., with close friends, family members, or close colleagues at work). Respond to each statement by indicating how much you agree or disagree with it. Use the following rating scale: Disagree Strongly, Disagree, Disagree Slightly, Neutral/mixed, Agree Slightly, Agree, Strongly Agree.

	Disagree Strongly	Disagree	Disagree Slightly	Neutral/mixed	Agree Slightly	Agree	Strongly Agree
a. I find it difficult to allow myself to depend on close relationship partners.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
b. I do not often worry about being abandoned.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
c. I prefer not to be too close to others.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
d. If I can't get a relationship partner to show interest in me, I get upset or angry.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
e. I tell close relationship partners just about everything.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
f. I find that my partners don't want to get as close as I would like.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
g. I usually discuss my problems and concerns with close others.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
h. When I don't have close others around, I feel somewhat anxious and insecure.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
i. I feel comfortable depending on others.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
j. I get frustrated when my close relationship partners are not around as much as I would like.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

The following statements concern how you generally feel in close relationships (e.g., with close friends, family members, or close colleagues at work). Respond to each statement by indicating how much you agree or disagree with it. Use the following rating scale: Disagree Strongly, Disagree, Disagree Slightly, Neutral/mixed, Agree Slightly, Agree, Strongly Agree.

	Disagree Strongly	Disagree	Disagree Slightly	Neutral/mixed	Agree Slightly	Agree	Strongly Agree
a. I don't mind asking close others for comfort, advice, or help.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
b. I get frustrated if relationship partners are not available when I need them.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
c. It helps to turn to close others in times of need.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
d. When other people disapprove of me, I feel really bad about myself.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
e. I turn to close relationship partners for many things, including comfort and reassurance.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
f. I resent it when my relationship partners spend time away from me.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

APPENDIX H

University of Massachusetts Global University Institutional Review Board

Dear Rebecca K Ochs,

Congratulations! Your IRB application to conduct research has been approved by the UMass Global Institutional Review Board. Please keep this email for your records, as it will need to be included in your research appendix.

If you need to modify your IRB application for any reason, please fill out the "Application Modification Form" before proceeding with your research. The Modification form can be found at IRB.umassglobal.edu

Best wishes for a successful completion of your study.

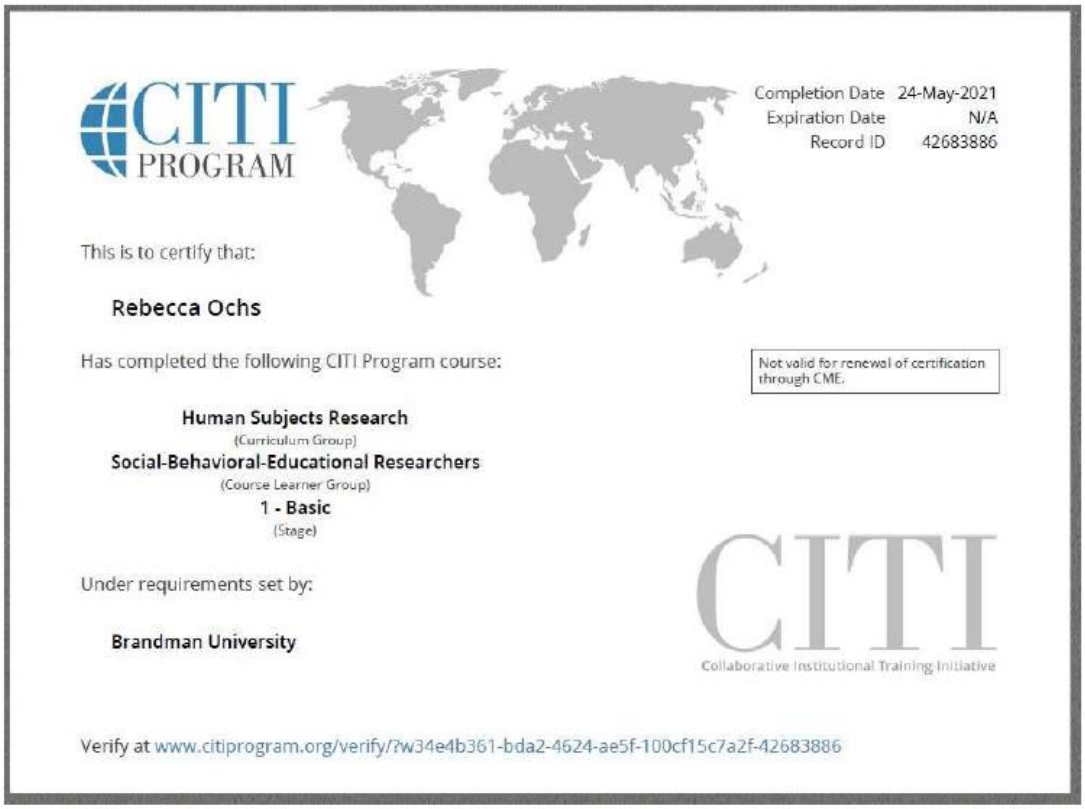
Thank You,

IRB
Academic Affairs
UMass Global
16355 Laguna Canyon Road
Irvine, CA 92618
irb@umassglobal.edu
www.umassglobal.edu

This email is an automated notification. If you have questions please email us at irb@umassglobal.edu.

APPENDIX I

Collaborative Institutional Training Initiative Certificate



APPENDIX J

Permission to Use Leadership Practices Inventory

WILEY

July 29, 2022

Rebecca Ochs
UMass Global
2658 Gilpin Rd.
Thomson, Georgia, 30824

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If you are in agreement with the terms and conditions of this letter agreement, please sign below and return an executed copy to my attention at the address below.

Best wishes for every success with your research project.

Cordially,