

ADULT ATTACHMENT AND WORKPLACE ROMANCE MOTIVES:
AN EXAMINATION OF THE ASSOCIATION BETWEEN ROMANTIC RELATIONSHIP
DYNAMICS AND EMPLOYEE WORK OUTCOMES

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Abstract

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The present research examined the predictive relationships between employees' attachment style, motives for engaging in workplace romances, and five individual-level work outcomes: job performance, job satisfaction, intrinsic job motivation, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). An Amazon Mechanical Turk survey was used to obtain self-report responses to measures of each predictor and outcome. All participants were employed and involved in a romantic relationship at their organization. Results indicated that attachment anxiety was positively related to one's decision to engage in a workplace romance due to an ego or a job-related motive. Attachment avoidance was positively related to one's decision to engage in a workplace romance due to a love motive. In turn, engaging in a workplace romance due to a love or an ego motive was associated with higher levels of job performance, intrinsic job motivation, and individual-directed OCBs (OCB-Is). The love motive was also associated with higher levels of job satisfaction. Engaging in a workplace romance due to a job-related motive was associated with lower levels of job performance,

intrinsic job motivation, and OCB-Is but higher levels of organizational commitment and organization-directed OCBs (OCB-Os). Similarly, attachment anxiety was associated with lower levels of job performance and OCB-Is but higher levels of organizational commitment and OCB-Os. Attachment avoidance was positively associated with all study work outcomes. Results hold implications regarding the need for managers and employees to maintain an awareness of their relationship-oriented goals and behaviors, the utility of fraternization policies, and potential consequences of different types of workplace romances.

Keywords: Attachment style, workplace romance motives, job performance, job satisfaction, intrinsic job motivation, organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior

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Foreword

This thesis is formatted in accordance with the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association (6th Edition). Theses completed by students in Appalachian State University's Department of Psychology are required to be in this format. This writing style will additionally facilitate efforts to publish journal articles based on the present research.

Adult Attachment and Workplace Romance Motives: An Examination of the Association
Between Romantic Relationship Dynamics and Employee Work Outcomes

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Abstract

The present research examined the predictive relationships between employees' attachment style, motives for engaging in workplace romances, and five individual-level work outcomes: job performance, job satisfaction, intrinsic job motivation, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). An Amazon Mechanical Turk survey was used to obtain self-report responses to measures of each predictor and outcome. All participants were employed and involved in a romantic relationship at their organization. Results indicated that attachment anxiety was positively related to one's decision to engage in a workplace romance due to an ego or a job-related motive. Attachment avoidance was positively related to one's decision to engage in a workplace romance due to a love motive. In turn, engaging in a workplace romance due to a love or an ego motive was associated with higher levels of job performance, intrinsic job motivation, and individual-directed OCBs (OCB-Is). The love motive was also associated with higher levels of job satisfaction. Engaging in a workplace romance due to a job-related motive was associated with lower levels of job performance, intrinsic job motivation, and OCB-Is but higher levels of organizational commitment and organization-directed OCBs (OCB-Os). Similarly, attachment anxiety was associated with lower levels of job performance and OCB-Is but higher levels of organizational commitment and OCB-Os. Attachment avoidance was positively associated with all study work outcomes. Results hold implications regarding the need for managers and employees to maintain an awareness of their relationship-oriented goals and behaviors, the utility of fraternization policies, and potential consequences of different types of workplace romances.

Keywords: Attachment style, workplace romance motives, job performance, job satisfaction, intrinsic job motivation, organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior

Adult Attachment and Workplace Romance Motives: An Examination of the Association
Between Romantic Relationship Dynamics and Employee Work Outcomes

Understanding how workplace romance relates to individual, group, and organizational outcomes is becoming increasingly important as women and men approach equivalent proportions of the United States labor force – at 47% and 53%, respectively, as of 2014 (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2015b). General Social Surveys, National Health Interview Surveys, and Gallup Daily Tracking Surveys issued between 2008 and 2014 further suggest that lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender (LGBT) persons represent between 1.7% and 5.6% of the United States population (Gates, 2014), implying that the consequences of workplace romance go beyond those that result from heterosexual relationships. Moreover, employees in the United States spend nearly one third of every weekday at work (i.e., an average of 7.8 hours; U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2015a), often in close contact with their coworkers (Pierce, Byrne, & Aguinis, 1996). When additionally accounting for the fact that organizational behavior is typically the result of the combined effort of multiple persons or teams (Foley & Powell, 1999), the potential impact of romantic relationships in an organizational context can hardly be ignored.

A recent survey conducted by the Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM; 2013) confirmed that employers have begun to recognize this concern, with 42% of 380 human resource professionals indicating that their companies currently embrace fraternization policies. In light of how little empirical research has explored the antecedents and consequences of workplace romance (Foley & Powell, 1999), this 68% increase in affirmative responses regarding the use of fraternization policies – compared to the results of the same survey conducted by SHRM in 2005 – is troublesome. The current research aims to

inform employers and the labor force at large as to how and when workplace romances are likely to promote or hinder personal, group, and organizational success by focusing on the relationships between adult attachment (Hazan & Shaver, 1987, 1990), individuals' motives for engaging in workplace romances (Quinn, 1977), and employee work outcomes.

Workplace romance has long been conceived of as being grounded in sexual attraction (Pierce & Aguinis, 2001, 2003; Quinn, 1977), with sexual attraction recently being recognized as “a defining feature of workplace romance” (Wilson, 2015, p. 1). Similarly, romantic love is thought to be an attachment process (Hazan & Shaver, 1987), and “the development of passionate feelings of love for individuals who are *not* initially targets of sexual desire might eventually *facilitate* the development of sexual desire” (Diamond & Dickenson, 2012, p. 43). Put differently, attachment formation is likely an antecedent of sexual attraction, which often forms the basis of workplace romances. Despite the conceptual link between romantic love and sexual attraction – which are both likely to play a substantial role in the initial formation of workplace romances – the potential connection between adult attachment and one's motives for engaging in a workplace romance has not yet been explored. Recent research on workplace romances has further called for a greater understanding of the impact of workplace romances on relational and work outcomes as perceived by workplace romance participants (Cole, 2009; Riach & Wilson, 2007). Moreover, research on how attachment operates in an organizational context is generally lacking (Harms, 2011). The current research explores the relationships between adult attachment and workplace romance motives, as well as potential consequences of adult attachment and workplace romance motives in an organizational context, from the perspective of workplace romance participants.

The current research proceeds as follows. First, attachment theory is reviewed, followed by a review of Quinn's (1977) framework for workplace romance motives. A general model of the expected predictive relationships between different attachment styles, workplace romance motives, and employee work outcomes is then introduced. The three succeeding sections discuss the proposed relationships between attachment style and workplace romance motives, workplace romance motives and employee work outcomes, and attachment style and employee work outcomes, respectively.

Attachment Theory

John Bowlby unveiled attachment theory via three publications released between 1958 and 1960 (Bretherton, 1992). The theory has been built upon many times since (e.g., Ainsworth & Bowlby, 1991; Bowlby 1982, 1988), with Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters, and Wall's (1978) conceptualization of different styles of attachment (i.e., secure, avoidant, anxious/ambivalent) being the lens through which attachment theory is often viewed (Hazan & Shaver, 1987, 1990; Mikulincer, Shaver, & Pereg, 2003). Broadly speaking, each attachment style is made up of four dimensions (i.e., proximity maintenance, safe haven, separation distress, and secure base) that are representative of the behaviors individuals with a given attachment style are likely to exhibit (Hazan & Diamond, 2000). Proximity maintenance refers to the extent to which one seeks to be close to an attachment figure (e.g., a parent or romantic partner); safe haven refers to the degree to which one seeks comfort or assistance in times of need; separation distress refers to how much distress one experiences when separated from an attachment figure; secure base refers to the extent to which one relies on an attachment figure to feel comfortable engaging in exploratory activities (i.e., activities that are not relationship-oriented; Hazan & Diamond, 2000).

Despite the theoretical significance of Ainsworth et al.'s (1978) three-category (i.e., secure, avoidant, anxious/ambivalent) attachment framework, continuous measures of attachment – with the potential to provide greater statistical power and accuracy – have since been created (Brennan, Clark, & Shaver, 1998). Notably, Brennan et al. devised an attachment measure that consists of two subscales – one for attachment avoidance and one for attachment anxiety – based on Ainsworth et al. (1978) and a review of the attachment literature. Brennan et al.'s (1998) measure of core attachment dimensions – the Experience in Close Relationships Scale (ECR) – was later revised by Fraley, Waller, and Brennan (2000) to create the ECR-R, which has been found to demonstrate high levels of stability and convergent and discriminant validity (Sibley, Fischer, & Liu, 2005). The ECR-R can additionally be used to calculate specific attachment categories (e.g., Geller & Bamberger, 2009). In line with Fraley et al.'s (2000) attachment measure, the current research proceeds based on the notion that attachment operates along two dimensions: avoidance and anxiety. Individuals high in attachment avoidance are said to have an avoidant attachment style; individuals high in attachment anxiety are said to have an anxious/ambivalent attachment style; individuals low in both attachment avoidance and attachment anxiety are said to have a secure attachment style. While secure attachment was not measured in the current study, it is discussed throughout the present research to illustrate the attributes likely held, and the behavioral patterns likely displayed, by individuals low in both attachment avoidance and attachment anxiety.

Persons expressing an avoidant attachment style are preoccupied by a fear of receiving inadequate support from others (Joplin, Nelson, & Quick, 1999), and react to this fear by hardening themselves and abstaining from relying on others (Hazan & Shafer, 1990;

Mikulincer & Shaver, 2005, 2007). Individuals with an anxious/ambivalent attachment style also tend to become unduly concerned that others will be unavailable to them in times of need (Hazan & Shaver, 1990; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2005), but respond to this concern by investing an excessive amount of effort into seeking interpersonal support – even when others would discern that doing so is unnecessary (Joplin et al., 1999). In turn, the avoidant attachment style is associated with a negative view of others, whereas the anxious/ambivalent attachment style is associated with a negative view of oneself (Mikulincer & Nachshon, 1991). Conversely, securely attached individuals “have positive internal working models of both self and others: they are comfortable in relationships, have high self-efficacy in dealing with stress, and believe that others will be available to provide support when needed” (Leiter, Day, & Price, 2015). Put differently, securely attached individuals are flexible and reciprocal in their relationships with others (Ainsworth & Bowlby, 1991) and demonstrate a balance in the extent to which they rely on and provide for others versus engage in explorative activities, such as work (Hazan & Shaver, 1990).

Although attachment theory was initially developed with respect to the relationships that infants and children form with their caregivers, research has provided support that individuals carry out the same attachment behaviors in adulthood as they do in their youth (Hazan & Shaver, 1987, 1990; Mikulincer & Nachshon, 1991), particularly with respect to the mating process (Hazan & Diamond, 2000). A number of studies have further found attachment style to have a significant relationship with several work outcomes, including employee vigor (Little, Nelson, Wallace, & Johnson, 2011), turnover intentions (Richards & Schat, 2011), organizational citizenship behavior (OCB; Desivilya, Sabag, & Ashton, 2006; Little et al., 2011; Richards & Schat, 2011), instrumental helping behavior (Geller &

Bamberger, 2009), and job satisfaction (Hazan & Shaver, 1990; Sumer & Knight, 2001). Relationships between attachment and work outcomes are complex, however, as different relationship outcomes have been shown to result from varying degrees of alignment between romantically involved individuals' attachment styles (Ben-Ari & Lavee, 2005). Interestingly, the same observation has been made regarding the alignment between individuals' motives for becoming romantically involved (Anderson & Fisher, 1991; Dillard, 1987; Dillard, Hale, & Segrin, 1994; Quinn, 1977). Workplace romance motives are discussed in detail below.

Workplace Romance Motives

While relational consequences of attachment style have been well researched, the consequences of romantic attachment specific to a work context are important to examine in detail because of how many individuals are likely to be affected by workplace romances. Attachment style is particularly likely to influence individuals' *motives* for engaging in workplace romances. Such motives can have a substantial impact on the way relationships are perceived and reacted to by managers and employees (Alder & Quist, 2014; Cowan & Horan, 2014; Jones, 1999; Malachowski, Chory, & Claus, 2012), as well as on outcomes pertaining directly to workplace romance participants (e.g., job performance; Dillard, 1987).

The origins of workplace romance can be traced to Quinn (1977), who identified three common motives for engaging in workplace romances (i.e., love, ego, and job-related) that have been embraced by researchers to date (e.g., Dillard, 1987; Dillard & Broetzmann, 1989; Dillard et al., 1994; Malachowski et al., 2012; Pierce et al., 1996). The love motive involves a desire for sincere companionship and long-term relationships; the ego motive pertains to individuals who engage in romantic relationships for excitement, adventure, and sexual experience; the job-related motive is linked to a desire to get ahead at work, such as

by gaining increased power and job security (Quinn, 1977). Quinn initially discerned each motive based on qualitative data collected via interviews with 120 third-party observers of workplace romances. A factor analysis was then conducted as part of a follow-up study using questionnaire data pertaining to the identified motives (Quinn, 1977). Also based on responses from third-party observers of workplace romances ($n = 130$), the factor analysis conducted in the second study confirmed the three-motive structure initially identified via content analysis in the first study (Quinn, 1977). Dillard (1987), Dillard and Broetzmann (1989), and Dillard et al. (1994) have since conducted confirmatory factor analyses using Quinn's (1977) motive components. The authors found that (a) each motive component loaded onto its corresponding motive (e.g., sincere companionship loaded onto the love motive), and (b) all motives were unidimensional.

Collectively, individuals' motives for engaging in workplace romances have been shown to impact job performance (Dillard, 1987), job involvement (Dillard, 1987; Pierce, 1998), absenteeism, and enthusiasm towards work (Dillard & Broetzmann, 1989). The love motive has been found to have the greatest impact on job-related outcomes stemming from workplace romances (Dillard, 1987), but it is important to note that one can have multiple motives (e.g., love and ego) for engaging in a workplace romance (Wilson, 2015).

Unfortunately, research on workplace romance motives has consistently failed to indicate the degree to which third-party observers – or workplace romance participants themselves – perceive workplace romances to be the result of love, ego, or job-related motives.

Taken together, the attachment and workplace romance literatures indicate that both attachment style and workplace romance motives relate to employee work outcomes. However, the form these relationships take has not been explicitly examined, and attachment

style and workplace romance motives have not been examined in the same context.

Employing Bowlby's (1982) definition of attachment behavior – “any form of behavior resulting in a person attaining or maintaining proximity to some other clearly identified individual who is conceived of as better able to cope with the world” (p. 668) – and Pierce and Aguinis' (2001) definition of workplace romances – “mutually desired relationships involving sexual attraction between two employees of the same organization” (p. 206) – the following section explores the expected predictive relationships between attachment style, workplace romance motives, and employee work outcomes.

Attachment Style, Workplace Romance Motives, and Employee Work Outcomes

The underlying connection between attachment style, romance, and work is reinforced by findings that variations in attachment style and one's motives for engaging in a workplace romance are associated with similar work outcomes. Moreover, “attachment patterns are applicable not only to caregiving and romantic relationships but also to relationships in other social contexts, such as work organizations” (Richards & Schat, 2011, p. 177). Specifically, attachment style influences how individuals allocate social and personal resources when responding to interpersonal and environmental demands. Such demands are consistently placed on employees in an organizational context (Richards & Schat, 2011). Not surprisingly, then, behaviors associated with Ainsworth et al.'s (1978) attachment styles tend to predict employees' orientations towards work in the same manner that they predict individuals' orientations towards their romantic partners (Hazan & Shaver, 1990).

Job performance, job satisfaction, intrinsic job motivation, organizational commitment, and OCBs are the employee outcome criteria examined in the current research. With the exception of (a) attachment style and intrinsic job motivation, and (b) workplace

romance motives and OCBs, each of the aforementioned employee outcomes has been investigated separately – but not in a single article – in both the attachment and workplace romance literatures. Based on a review of the attachment and workplace romance literatures, Figure 1 depicts the general predictive relationships expected between attachment style, workplace romance motives, and each of the aforementioned employee work outcomes. The expected direction of each relationship encompassed in Figure 1 is discussed and illustrated by an additional model in the subsequent sections of the current paper. The first section below elaborates upon the expected predictive relationships between attachment style and workplace romance motives (i.e., Hypotheses 1 and 2).

Attachment Style and Workplace Romance Motives

As discussed above, sexual attraction has been found to be a defining feature of workplace romance (Wilson, 2015), and romantic love has been conceived as an attachment process (Hazan & Shaver, 1987) that likely enhances or facilitates the development of sexual desire (Birnbaum, 2015). This implies that there may be a fundamental connection between attachment style and workplace romance motives. This notion is further supported by research which indicates that the attachment style framework can be used to explain individuals' feelings towards work just as it can their feelings towards a romantic partner (Hazan & Shaver, 1990). Also supporting this line of reasoning is research that has found that some of the same regions of the brain that are activated when one experiences sexual desire are also activated when one experiences romantic love (Birnbaum, 2015; Diamond & Dickenson, 2012). The commonality among employee outcomes influenced by attachment style and motives for engaging in workplace romances (e.g., job satisfaction, job performance) further suggests that the potential synergistic and antagonistic relationships

between these two factors warrant exploration. Figure 2 depicts the expected predictive relationships between attachment style and workplace romance motives. Each relationship is expanded upon in the following subsections, beginning with attachment avoidance.

Attachment Avoidance and Workplace Romance Motives

The tendency for individuals with an avoidant attachment style to abstain from interpersonal interaction (Hazan & Shaver, 1990) suggests that they would not initiate a romantic relationship unless they believe that it would result in their reception of some external benefit. In other words, employees with an avoidant attachment style are unlikely to seek a romantic relationship due to an ego motive (e.g., for excitement and adventure) or a love motive (e.g., to gain a long-term companion) because the components of the ego and love motives are inherently associated with a desire for increased interpersonal interaction. The only logical reason for an employee with an avoidant attachment style to become involved in a workplace romance would be to achieve impersonal or materialistic (e.g., job-related) gains.

For instance, Hazan and Shaver (1990) found that individuals with an avoidant attachment style reported choosing work success over relationship success and believing that work is more important than relationships. This makes the idea of a job-related motive leading an employee with an avoidant attachment style to engage in a workplace romance much less far-fetched than their doing so due to a love or an ego motive. That is, if a workplace romance were perceived to be instrumental to an employee with an avoidant attachment style's work success, that employee may make an exception to their interpersonal reclusiveness. Davis, Shaver, and Vernon's (2004) finding that attachment avoidance was positively related to the manipulative use of sex further supports the notion that individuals

with an avoidant attachment style would be willing to engage in a workplace romance to get ahead on the job.

Hypothesis 1. Attachment avoidance is negatively related to engaging in a workplace romance due to (a) a love motive and/or (b) an ego motive, but is positively related to engaging in a workplace romance due to (c) a job-related motive.

Attachment Anxiety and Workplace Romance Motives

Employees with an anxious/ambivalent attachment style should report the inverse of employees with an avoidant attachment style regarding their motives for engaging in workplace romances. Namely, individuals with an anxious/ambivalent attachment style tend to be preoccupied with others' judgments of them and their work (Hazan & Shaver, 1990), and therefore it is unlikely that they would risk damaging their social networks by engaging in a workplace romance to get ahead on the job. The finding that individuals with an anxious/ambivalent attachment style show more romantic interest towards their coworkers than individuals with other attachment styles – and that they tend to be more concerned with love than work (Hazan & Shaver, 1990) – further supports this notion. This finding also suggests that sincere companionship and sexual experience – components of the love and ego motives for engaging in a workplace romance, respectively – are likely to be of interest to employees with an anxious/ambivalent attachment style. For example, it should be easy to conceive of an employee with an anxious/ambivalent attachment style (i.e., an employee who is overly concerned with the availability and responsiveness of their partner; Harms, 2011) engaging in a workplace romance to secure a long-term companion.

Hypothesis 2. Attachment anxiety is positively related to engaging in a workplace romance due to (a) a love motive and/or (b) an ego motive, but is negatively related to engaging in a workplace romance due to (c) a job-related motive.

In line with the general model presented in Figure 1, the next section discusses the expected predictive relationships between (a) workplace romance motives and (b) job performance, job satisfaction, intrinsic job motivation, organizational commitment, and OCBs (i.e., Hypotheses 3-7).

Workplace Romance Motives and Employee Work Outcomes

The attitudes and behaviors that workplace romance participants exhibit in an organizational context are likely to vary depending on their motives for becoming romantically involved. For better or worse, many of these attitudes and behaviors are likely to impact both individual and organizational effectiveness. For example, Pierce (1998) found that the degree of loving feelings one experienced towards their partner was associated with increased intrinsic job motivation, job involvement, and job satisfaction. In general, however, research exploring the relationships between workplace romance motives and employee work outcomes has conveyed mixed results.

The implications of the literature linking workplace romance motives to employee work outcomes are discussed in line with Figures 3-5, which outline the expected predictive relationships between (a) workplace romance motives and (b) job performance, job satisfaction, intrinsic job motivation, organizational commitment, and OCBs. Each expected workplace romance—employee work outcome relationship is subsequently expanded upon in its own subsection, beginning with job performance.

Job Performance

Elements of impression management theory, self-regulation theory, and conservation of resources theory have all been used to argue in favor of a relationship between (a) employees' motives for engaging in a workplace romance and (b) job performance. For instance, Dillard (1987) found that the love motive (but neither the ego nor job-related motives) positively predicted job performance, and offered three possible explanations for these results. Employees who engage in a workplace romance due to a love motive (a) work harder to impress their partners, (b) work harder to prove that their relationship does not impinge upon their work, or (c) have more resources (e.g., time and energy) to devote to work once they are no longer focused on finding a partner. Dillard (1987) further posited that individuals involved in a workplace romance due to an ego motive may be better equipped to keep their work and personal lives separate compared to those with a love or job-related motive, hence offering a potential explanation for why the ego motive failed to bear a relationship with job performance.

Dillard and Broetzmann (1989) later found that the love motive positively predicted enthusiasm towards work, and that the job-related motive positively predicted absenteeism. Conversely, Dillard et al. (1994) found no relationship between the love motive and job performance, and that the relationship between the job-related motive and job performance was only negative for women. However, the majority of research on workplace romance motives points to a positive relationship between the love motive and job performance, and it should not be difficult to picture an employee who engages in a workplace romance due to a job-related motive (e.g., to achieve a more flexible work schedule or easier work) exhibiting decreased job performance regardless of gender.

Other studies investigating the relationship between participation in a workplace romance and job performance have also resulted in mixed findings. Pierce (1998) found a positive relationship between the degree of loving feelings that employees' expressed towards their romantic partner and job performance, but that overall participation in a workplace romance showed no relationship with job performance. In turn, Pierce (1998) proposed that the positive relationship between the degree of loving feelings felt towards one's partner and job performance was the result of affective spillover – the more positive one's experience with their romantic relationship, the more positive their experience at work, thereby leading to increased productivity. Subsequent studies (e.g., Pierce & Aguinis, 2003) have also failed to demonstrate a relationship between participation in a workplace romance and job performance. Taken together, these findings suggest that overall participation in a workplace romance is too simple of a predictor to use when modeling the relationships between workplace romance and employee work outcomes.

In accordance with the notion of affective spillover, it is argued in the current research that the love motive should bear a positive relationship with job performance. Albeit contrary to the results achieved by Dillard (1987), it is also argued that the ego motive will be positively related to job performance, as an employee who is concerned about satisfying their ego is unlikely to allow their performance to waiver in the eyes of a romantic partner. Finally, individuals who engage in a workplace romance due to a job-related motive are inherently cutting corners to get ahead on the job, and therefore it is argued that the job-related motive should be negatively related to job performance.

Hypothesis 3. Engaging in a workplace romance due to (a) a love motive and/or (b) an ego motive is positively related to job performance; engaging in a workplace romance due to (c) a job-related motive is negatively related to job performance.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is an attitude based on employees' evaluations of job favorability, formed through the comparison of actual versus desired work outcomes (Cranny, Smith, & Stone, 1992). The rationale that past research (e.g., Pierce, 1998; Pierce et al., 1996; Pierce & Aguinis, 2003) has offered for investigating the potential connection between participation in a workplace romance and job satisfaction is that relationship satisfaction is linked to job satisfaction. For example, Pierce et al. (1996) employed equity theory (Adams, 1963) to suggest that the more equitable an employee perceives their romantic relationship with their partner, the more likely they are to be satisfied with their relationship, which in turn should lead to increased job satisfaction. This is a particularly persuasive argument in light of how difficult it may be for romantically involved employees to separate judgments of fairness pertaining to their work and social lives. Moreover, romantic relationship quality has been shown to predict life satisfaction (Gustavson, Roysamb, Borren, Torvik, & Karevold, 2016; Hawkins & Booth, 2005), and life satisfaction has in turn demonstrated a substantial, positive relationship with job satisfaction (e.g., Adams, King, & King, 1996; Reizer, 2015).

Pierce (1998) and Pierce and Aguinis (2003) both tested the relationship between participation in a workplace romance and job satisfaction, arguing that affective spillover from workplace romances should lead to increased job satisfaction. The authors arrived at mixed conclusions. Pierce and Aguinis (2003) found that participation in a workplace romance positively predicted job satisfaction, whereas Pierce (1998) found no association

among these constructs. However, Pierce (1998) did find that the degree of loving feelings one experienced towards their romantic partner was positively associated with job satisfaction, suggesting that a more complex model (e.g., one that accounts for individuals' motives for engaging in workplace romances) is needed to understand how workplace romances influence job satisfaction. Dillard's (1987) finding that the love motive positively predicted job involvement further bolsters this argument, as job involvement typically demonstrates a strong, positive relationship with job satisfaction (e.g., Adams et al., 1996). This is also true of Dillard and Broetzmann's (1989) finding that the love motive positively predicted enthusiasm towards work, as one would be hard-pressed to find an employee who is enthusiastic about work yet dissatisfied with their job.

Due to the connection between life satisfaction and job satisfaction (e.g., Adams et al., 1996; Reizer, 2015), the fact that job satisfaction is an attitudinal measure (e.g., Cranny et al., 1992), and the notion of affective spillover, it is argued that employees with different motives for engaging in workplace romances should experience dissimilar levels of job satisfaction. Consistent with Pierce's (1998) finding that degree of loving feelings experienced towards one's partner was positively related to job satisfaction, the relationship between the love motive and job satisfaction is expected to be positive. Ego satisfaction – which presumably results to some extent when one engages in a romantic relationship due to an ego motive – should also be positively related to life satisfaction. In turn, it is argued that the ego motive will be positively related to job satisfaction. Finally, it is expected that the job-related motive will be negatively related to job satisfaction, as individuals who are willing to use romantic relationships to achieve more favorable job outcomes are unlikely to be satisfied with their current position.

Hypothesis 4. Engaging in a workplace romance due to (a) a love motive and/or (b) an ego motive is positively related to job satisfaction; engaging in a workplace romance due to (c) a job-related motive is negatively related to job satisfaction.

Intrinsic Job Motivation

Intrinsic job motivation is commonly viewed as an employees' motivation to engage in their job simply for the sake of doing so (e.g., because they find their work interesting; Amabile, Hill, Hennessey, & Tighe, 1994). As with job performance and job satisfaction, the idea that intrinsic job motivation may be an outcome associated with participating in a workplace romance is supported by Pierce et al.'s (1996) model of workplace romance. While Pierce (1998) and Pierce and Aguinis (2003) tested this relationship to no avail, Pierce (1998) found a positive relationship between the degree of loving feelings employees felt towards their romantic partner and intrinsic job motivation, and argued that these results were due to affective spillover.

The fact that the love motive has been found to predict both job involvement (Dillard, 1987) and enthusiasm towards work (Dillard & Broetzmann, 1989) offers further support for the link between workplace romance motives and intrinsic job motivation. Namely, enthusiasm towards work is likely associated with increased effort, whereas job involvement is likely associated with increased persistence. Taken together with organization-directed positive affect – which may result due to affective spillover from a love-motivated workplace romance – these components of motivation may contribute to an employee's desire to work for work's sake.

It is argued in the current research that the love motive will be positively related to intrinsic job motivation due to affective spillover. Ego satisfaction, again presumed to be a

result of engaging in a workplace romance due to an ego motive, is also expected to result in affective spillover such that the ego motive will be positively related to intrinsic job motivation. Lastly, because the job-related motive is primarily built upon factors external to oneself (e.g., a desire for increased financial rewards), it is expected that the job-related motive will bear a negative relationship with intrinsic job motivation.

Hypothesis 5. Engaging in a workplace romance due to (a) a love motive and/or (b) an ego motive is positively related to intrinsic job motivation; engaging in a workplace romance due to (c) a job-related motive is negatively related to intrinsic job motivation.

Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment is often conceptualized as comprising affective, continuance, and normative commitment, which respectively represent an employee's desire, need, and perceived obligation to remain with their organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Support for the relationship between (a) participation in a workplace romance and (b) organizational commitment has only been demonstrated by Pierce and Aguinis (2003), who found that participation in a workplace romance positively predicted organizational commitment. Defining organizational commitment as "the extent to which an employee identifies with and is involved in his or her organization" (p. 163), the authors argued that this relationship was the result of impression management. Specifically, Pierce and Aguinis (2003) suggested that workplace romance participants demonstrate greater commitment in order to be perceived as competent or high performers despite their romantic involvement with another worker.

While previous research has not explored the relationship between (a) workplace romance motives and (b) organizational commitment, multiple studies have provided

evidence that such a relationship likely exists. For example, Dillard (1987) found that the love motive positively predicted job involvement, and job involvement and organizational commitment have been shown to bear a strong, positive relationship (e.g., Blau & Boal, 1989; Keller, 1997). Similarly, Dillard and Broetzmann (1989) found that the love motive positively predicted enthusiasm towards work, and it is difficult to conceive of an employee who is enthusiastic about work but who does not identify with, or is not involved in, their organization.

Focusing solely on affective commitment – due to reliability and validity concerns regarding the measurement of normative and continuance commitment (Ko, Price, & Mueller, 1997) – it is argued in the current research that the love motive should be positively related to organizational commitment. This is primarily due to (a) the fact that affective organizational commitment is an attitudinal measure, (b) the notion of affective spillover, and (c) the aforementioned relationship between job involvement – a consequence of workplace romance (Dillard, 1987) – and organizational commitment (e.g., Blau & Boal, 1989; Keller, 1997). Individuals involved in workplace romances for interpersonal reasons, whether related to their ego or a desire for sincere companionship, may also be prone to viewing their organization and their partner as sharing favorable characteristics, as not doing so may lead to feelings of dissonance. Individuals involved in a workplace romance to get ahead on the job, however, would likely be willing to abandon their organization to get ahead elsewhere.

Hypothesis 6. Engaging in a workplace romance due to (a) a love motive and/or (b) an ego motive is positively related to affective organizational commitment; engaging in a workplace romance due to (c) a job-related motive is negatively related to affective organizational commitment.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB)

OCBs are pro-social actions employees engage in that are not formally classified as aspects of their job, are not formally rewarded (Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983), and can be directed towards individual employees (OCB-Is) or one's organization as a whole (OCB-Os; Williams & Anderson, 1991). Distinctions have also been made between different types of OCBs (e.g., altruism versus conscientiousness; Niehoff & Moorman, 1993; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990). Although OCBs have not been examined as an outcome directly influenced by workplace romance motives, several studies point towards a link between these two factors. For example, Dillard (1987), Dillard and Broetzmann (1989), Dillard et al. (1994), and Quinn (1997) demonstrated that employees' motives for engaging in a workplace romance influenced their job performance. Considering the combined effects of workplace romance motives on employees' enthusiasm towards work and job performance (Dillard & Broetzmann, 1989), it is likely that employees' motives for engaging in workplace romances also relate to the pro-social behaviors they display outside of their formal job duties (i.e., OCBs). Pierce's (1998) finding that the degree of loving feelings one experienced towards their partner influenced job involvement further garners support for the relationship between (a) employees' motives for engaging in workplace romances and (b) OCBs.

Embracing Williams and Anderson's (1991) OCB-I/OCB-O framework, it is argued in the current research that the love motive will be positively related to both OCB-I and OCB-Os due to positive affective spillover. The ego motive should also be positively related to both OCB-I and OCB-Os, as going above and beyond for one's organization or members thereof is likely an action that individuals concerned with ego satisfaction would take to achieve increased recognition from their partner. However, the self-centered nature of the

job-related motive implies that individuals involved in workplace romances to achieve outcomes such as easier work would not engage in pro-social actions whatsoever.

Hypothesis 7. Engaging in a workplace romance due to (a) a love motive and/or (b) an ego motive is positively related to OCB-I and OCB-Os; engaging in a workplace romance due to (c) a job-related motive is negatively related to OCB-I and OCB-Os.

Referring back to the model presented in Figure 1, discussion now moves to address the expected predictive relationships between (a) attachment style and (b) job performance, job satisfaction, intrinsic job motivation, organizational commitment, and OCBs (i.e., Hypotheses 8-12). This is done in the same format as for the current section.

Attachment Style and Employee Work Outcomes

Whether a romantic relationship is present or not, seeking and receiving interpersonal attention is an integral component of common work activities. In turn, attachment style may influence an employee's reaction to something as simple as an emotionally-charged email from their supervisor. When romance is introduced, however, attachment style is likely to play an even stronger role in the dynamics of workplace relationships. This may be particularly problematic for employees who have trouble relying, or are overly dependent, on others (Joplin et al., 1999; Little et al., 2011).

Figures 6 and 7 detail the expected predictive relationships between (a) attachment style and (b) job performance, job satisfaction, intrinsic job motivation, organizational commitment, and OCBs. Each expected attachment style—employee work outcome relationship is expanded upon in its own subsection starting with job performance.

Job Performance

Whether or not a relationship exists between attachment style and job performance is unclear based on the current literature. Hazan and Shaver (1990) were the first to investigate this potential connection and found that employees with an anxious/ambivalent attachment style believed that “love concerns often interfere with work performance and that they frequently fear rejection for poor performance” (p. 278). Researchers have since argued that securely attached individuals – who are able to effectively regulate their affective and cognitive reactions (Lopez & Brennan, 2000) – should exhibit greater job performance than insecurely attached (i.e., anxious/ambivalent or avoidant) individuals (e.g., Joplin, Nelson, & Quick, 1999; Neustadt, Chamorro-Premuzic, & Furnham, 2011; Simmons, Gooty, Nelson, & Little, 2009). Such arguments have largely been based on securely attached individuals’ ability to engage in effective self-regulation practices (Neustadt et al., 2011), develop healthy social networks, and work effectively both alone and with others (Simmons et al., 2009).

Perhaps the most promising results supporting a relationship between attachment style and job performance have come from Neustadt et al. (2011). In a study of 211 international business managers whose performance data were collected from their organization rather than through self-report methods, the authors found that secure attachment predicted job performance over and above both conscientiousness and trait emotional intelligence. No relationship was found between insecure attachment – conceptualized as a combination of attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance – and job performance, which has also been the case in earlier studies (e.g., Joplin et al., 1999). In part contradicting these findings, Wu and Parker (2017) demonstrated that both attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance were substantially negatively related to proactive work

behavior. Furthermore, other research seems to suggest that the relationship between attachment style and job performance is indirect, such as Simmons et al. (2009), who found that attachment style influenced job performance through one's trust in their supervisor.

While the existence of a direct connection between attachment style and job performance has received mixed support, it is unlikely that individuals who find that relationships interfere with work (i.e., those with an anxious/ambivalent attachment style; Hazan & Shaver, 1990) or that work interferes with relationships (i.e., those with an avoidant attachment style; Hazan & Shaver, 1990) will perform as well as their counterparts who are better equipped to regulate negative experiences in either domain (i.e., securely attached individuals; Lopez & Brennan, 2000). Moreover, Neudstadt et al.'s (2011) finding that secure attachment not only predicted job performance, but was also positively related to self-esteem, trait emotional intelligence, extraversion, and conscientiousness, offers strong evidence in favor of a positive relationship between secure attachment and job performance.

Hypothesis 8. Both (a) attachment avoidance and (b) attachment anxiety are negatively related to job performance.

Job Satisfaction

The premise that attachment style influences job attitudes has been well supported (Harms, 2011), but exactly how is still in question. Arguments in favor of the attachment style—job satisfaction relationship often cite that insecurely attached individuals undervalue themselves and expect more critical evaluations from their coworkers and supervisors than do securely attached individuals (e.g., Hazan & Shaver, 1990, Lanciano & Zammuner, 2014; Reizer, 2015). In turn, individuals with an anxious/ambivalent or avoidant attachment style are likely to downplay their competence to the extent that they experience dissatisfaction.

Individuals high in attachment anxiety may become dissatisfied when they do not receive constant approval or support from others (Hazan & Shaver, 1990), or read into others' opinions of them. Conversely, individuals high in attachment avoidance may become engrossed in their work as a means to avoid interpersonal interaction (Hazan & Shaver, 1990) to the extent that they become dissatisfied when they don't achieve irrationally high goals. Using work to avoid interaction with others may further lead to communication issues that also result in dissatisfaction. Securely attached individuals, however, should not demonstrate the concerns outlined above. This is in part due to their comparatively high self-efficacy (Neustadt et al., 2011) and capacity for emotion regulation (Lopez & Brennan, 2000) when viewed alongside individuals with an anxious/ambivalent or avoidant attachment style.

As with job performance, the link between attachment style and job satisfaction has received mixed support. For example, Lanciano and Zammuner (2014) and Ronen and Mikulincer (2012) found that attachment avoidance and attachment anxiety both negatively predicted job satisfaction, but the former duo also found a negative relationship between secure attachment and job satisfaction. Moreover, Reizer (2015) found that attachment avoidance, but not attachment anxiety, negatively predicted job satisfaction, and Tziner, Ben-David, Oren, and Sharoni (2014) found that neither attachment anxiety nor attachment avoidance demonstrated any relation to job satisfaction.

Conceptualizing attachment as having four dimensions (i.e., secure, dismissing, preoccupied, and fearful), Sumer and Knight (2001) found that secure attachment was positively associated with job satisfaction, and that the fearful and preoccupied dimensions of attachment were negatively associated with job satisfaction. Similarly, Hazan and Shaver (1990) found that securely attached individuals reported greater job satisfaction than

individuals with anxious/ambivalent or avoidant attachment styles. Finally, Krausz, Bizman, and Braslavsky (2001) found that job satisfaction did not vary between securely attached and avoidant individuals, but that securely attached and avoidant individuals demonstrated greater job satisfaction than individuals with an anxious/ambivalent attachment style.

In the current research, it is argued that both attachment avoidance and attachment anxiety will be negatively related to job satisfaction. Notably, the increased stress associated with insecure individuals' inability to enact effective coping mechanisms (Ronen & Mikulincer, 2012), along with their tendency to view themselves and others negatively or irrationally (Hazan & Shaver, 1990), is likely to lead to dissatisfaction in a work environment. For example, individuals with an anxious/ambivalent attachment style may spend an excessive amount of time ruminating over negative feedback, or misinterpret the intentions of a team member's behavior in a negative light. In turn, individuals with an anxious/ambivalent attachment style may become preoccupied with perceptions of injustice, which could quickly lead to them being dissatisfied with their job. Conversely, securely attached individuals' tendency to experience positive attitudes towards work (Hazan & Shaver, 1990), themselves, and others (Sumer & Knight, 2001) suggests that secure attachment should be positively related to job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 9. Both (a) attachment avoidance and (b) attachment anxiety are negatively related to job satisfaction.

Intrinsic job motivation

An explicit connection between attachment style and intrinsic job motivation has not been made, but research addressing attachment style and motivation in a more general context suggests that testing this relationship will yield significant findings. For example,

securely attached individuals have been shown to express greater self-determination – particularly with respect to intrinsic goals such as personal growth – than individuals with a preoccupied, dismissive, or fearful attachment style (Leak & Cooney, 2001). Hazan and Shaver (1990) further observed that individuals with an avoidant attachment style reported believing that work negatively impacted their health and relationships with others, which implies that such individuals are unlikely to perform their job just for the sake of doing so. The authors also found that individuals with an anxious/ambivalent attachment style were often motivated at work by external factors, such as approval from others, whereas securely attached individuals took a positive approach to work (Hazan & Shaver, 1990).

Taking the connection between attachment style and motivation a step further, Elliot and Reis (2003) suggested that, “secure attachment enables dispositional motivational tendencies to develop in natural, appetitive fashion, and that insecure attachment disrupts this process by reorienting individuals to defend against failure” (p. 319). The authors proceeded to provide evidence for their rationale through results indicating that secure attachment positively predicted need for achievement, whereas anxious/ambivalent and avoidant attachment did not. The inverse of these relationships was found for fear of failure (Elliot & Reis, 2003). Interestingly, and to an extent challenging these findings, Wu and Parker (2017) demonstrated that attachment avoidance negatively predicted autonomous motivation, but that attachment anxiety positively predicted autonomous motivation. Considering that Wu and Parker (2017) defined autonomous motivation as doing one’s job “because it helps them achieve life goals and personal values” (p. 9), their results may be more representative of intrinsic motivation than Elliot and Reis’ (2003) findings using measures of need for achievement and fear of failure.

In the current research, it is argued that attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance will be negatively related to intrinsic job motivation. One reason for this is that individuals with an anxious/ambivalent attachment style have been shown to reduce their efforts after being commended (Hazan & Shaver, 1990), suggesting that they are driven by potential admiration rather than a personal need for achievement. Additionally, Hazan and Shaver (1990) found that individuals with an avoidant attachment style reported being nervous when not working, which implies work motivation that is more compulsive than self-directed. Securely attached individuals, on the other hand, view work positively and are less likely to procrastinate or let work interfere with their wellbeing than insecurely attached individuals (Hazan & Shaver, 1990). Alongside their high self-efficacy (Leiter et al., 2015; Neustadt et al., 2011), securely attached individuals' positive approach to work – and their ability to balance their work and personal lives – serves as probable evidence of a positive relationship between secure attachment and intrinsic job motivation.

Hypothesis 10. Both (a) attachment avoidance and (b) attachment anxiety are negatively related to intrinsic job motivation.

Organizational Commitment

Similar to how romantic attachment can be thought of, in part, as one's affective commitment to their partner, affective commitment to an organization may be thought of as one's emotional attachment to their work. In other words, the more trouble one has regulating their emotions and behaviors in an interpersonal context, the more trouble they are likely to have doing so in a work context, which is likely to influence the degree to which one desires, or feels an obligation to, remain with their organization (Scrima, Di Stefano, Guarnaccia, & Lorito, 2015). Insecurely attached individuals may also perceive the costs associated with

leaving their organization to be particularly high if they view work to be more important than relationships, such as has been found to be the case for individuals with an avoidant attachment style (Hazan & Shaver, 1990).

Past studies have indicated that the relationship between attachment style and organizational commitment depends on one's conceptualization of organizational commitment. For example, Chopik (2015) and Richards and Schat (2011) both assessed the relationships between (a) attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance and (b) overall organizational commitment. While Chopik (2015) found no relationships between these factors, Richards and Schat (2011) found that attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance demonstrated strong, negative relationships with organizational commitment, as did Mikulincer and Shaver (2007).

Scrima et al. (2015), who studied the relationship between attachment style and organizational commitment by breaking organizational commitment into affective, normative, and continuance commitment, achieved different results. The authors found that attachment style correlated with affective organizational commitment as one would expect: negatively for insecurely attached (i.e., anxious/ambivalent and avoidant) individuals and positively for securely attached individuals. However, secure and insecure attachment positively correlated with normative organizational commitment, meaning that employees perceived an obligation to remain with their organization despite their attachment orientation.

Due to methodological concerns associated with scales used to measure normative and continuance commitment (Ko et al., 1997), and the logical connection between attachment and affect, the current research only examines the relationship between attachment style and affective organizational commitment. Namely, it is argued that

employees with an insecure attachment style likely struggle to establish a sense of belonging at work. For individuals with an anxious/ambivalent attachment style, this would likely be due to the perception that others view them more critically than is actually the case (Hazan & Shaver, 1990). Similarly, individuals with an avoidant attachment style may purposefully avoid close ties with their organization in an attempt to defend against the emotional pain they believe could result from being dismissed. Secure attachment, however, should be positively related to organizational commitment. This is in part due to the finding that securely attached individuals are able to form reliable social networks (Simmons et al., 2009), as positive workplace relationships should increase the extent to which an employee identifies with their organization.

Hypothesis 11. Both (a) attachment avoidance and (b) attachment anxiety are negatively related to affective organizational commitment.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Insecure individuals are typically perceived as lacking the cognitive and emotional resources, pro-social predisposition, or caregiving skills and motivation necessary to help others or their organization beyond what is required of them (Desivilya et al., 2006; Geller & Bamberger, 2009; Little et al., 2011; Richards & Schat, 2011; Schusterschitz, Stummer, & Geser, 2014). For example, Geller and Bamberger (2009) argued that individuals with an anxious/ambivalent attachment style, while expected to exert extra effort to gain approval of others and decrease feelings of vulnerability, are likely to expend all of their effort on achieving more intimate relationships outside of work. Moreover, anxious/ambivalent individuals' preoccupation with interpersonal relationships should prevent them from engaging in proactive behaviors on behalf of their organization (Richards & Schat, 2011).

Individuals with an avoidant attachment style are not likely to help others within their organization due to their tendency to dislike and avoid interpersonal interaction (Geller & Bamberger, 2009; Richards & Schat, 2011; Schusterschitz et al., 2014). This tendency also suggests that avoidant individuals lack knowledge of how to provide effective assistance in an interpersonal context (which may prevent them from engaging in proactive behaviors for the benefit of their organization). Securely attached individuals, on the other hand, are likely to have an optimistic view of others and their organization, increasing the probability that they will act in favor of their coworkers, supervisors, organization, etc. (Little et al., 2011).

As with organizational commitment, how OCBs have been measured has had a major impact on findings regarding the relationship between attachment style and OCBs. When OCBs were split into OCB-O and OCB-Is, Richards and Schat (2011) found no relationship between either attachment avoidance or attachment anxiety and OCB-Is, but that attachment anxiety negatively predicted OCB-Os. Little et al. (2011), who also studied the attachment style—OCB relationship using the OCB-I/OCB-O framework, demonstrated the same results. Conversely, Gellar and Bamberger (2009) found that both attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance negatively predicted instrumental helping behavior, whereas Desivilya et al. (2006) and Schusterschitz et al. (2014) found that the significance of the attachment style—OCB relationship depended upon OCB type (e.g., sportsmanship versus altruism).

Measured using Williams and Anderson's (1991) OCB-I/OCB-O framework, it is argued in the current research that attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance should bear a negative relationship with OCB-I and OCB-Os. Individuals with an anxious/ambivalent attachment style may desire to help others in order to satisfy their insecurities, but are unlikely to have the skills or other personal resources necessary to do so (e.g., Schusterschitz

et al., 2014). The same goes for any motivation they have to go above and beyond for their organization. Individuals with an avoidant attachment style are unlikely to engage in pro-social behaviors for others simply because of their preference to avoid interpersonal interaction (Hazan & Shaver, 1990). Similar to individuals with an anxious/ambivalent attachment style, it is expected that individuals with an avoidant attachment style will also lack the personal resources necessary to provide extra-role support for their organization.

Hypothesis 12. Both (a) attachment avoidance and (b) attachment anxiety are negatively related to OCB-I and OCB-Os.

The present research now shifts to discuss the methodology and analytic approach employed to assess the above hypotheses.

Method

Participants and Procedure

A convenience sample of Amazon Mechanical Turk (AMT) workers served as the subject pool for the current research. A total of 1,086 survey responses were collected over a two-month period via 100-participant batches, after which 330 cases were removed due to respondents who (a) failed one or more attention checks, (b) failed to complete the entire survey, or (c) completed the survey more than once. Thus, 756 survey responses (i.e., 69.6%) were retained for analysis. The final, accepted sample size was based on an a-priori statistical power analysis (Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, & Lang, 2009), which indicated that 755 respondents would be needed to detect the predictive relationships found in previous research (i.e., $f = .15$, $\alpha = .05$, $\beta = .10$). Data were treated in accordance with the APA ethical standards, and, after a preliminary evaluation, the current research was deemed exempt from IRB review (approval date: November 4, 2016).

All participants were required to be at least 18 years of age, employed, and involved in a romantic relationship at their work organization. This stipulation was made known to participants via a modified version of Pierce (1998) and Pierce and Aguinis' (2003) measure of participation in a workplace romance, which read as follows: "I am currently romantically involved with (e.g., dating or married to) a member of the organization at which I currently work." Only AMT workers who affirmed that this statement applied to them in full were allowed to participate in the study. An additional item included at both the beginning and end of the survey requested that participants affirm the accuracy of their responses to all items, which has been shown to improve AMT data quality (Rouse, 2015).

Participants were asked to provide demographic information pertaining to both themselves and their current romantic partner. In the case that a participant had multiple romantic partners, they were asked to focus their responses on the partner to which they were closest. Gender was approximately balanced among participants (49.7% female) and participants' romantic partners (51.6% female), with 93.8% of participants reporting being in opposite-sex relationships. The median age for both participants and their partners was 30. A slightly larger proportion of participants reported being in hierarchical (54.9%) as opposed to equal-status relationships at their organization. The median relationship length was two years, and the majority of participants were not married (68.4%). Most participants worked in the private sector (57.5%), worked full-time (89.6%), and were permanent (93.1%) rather than temporary employees. Participants' median length of employment was four years.

The relatively balanced characteristics of the participants in the current study offer support for the notion that AMT can be used to obtain reliable and representative samples (Paolacci & Chandler, 2014; Rouse, 2015). Moreover, several features unique to the current

study warranted this sampling method. First, the study required honest responses to sensitive topics that employees and employers alike would be reluctant to provide given any doubts about anonymity. The primary goal of the study was to assess the generalizability of associations between romantic relationship dynamics and employee work outcomes, and the feasibility of achieving multiple organizations' cooperation in doing so was deemed unlikely due to anticipated liability concerns, such as those regarding sexual harassment claims. Similarly, employee responses to, for example, items inquiring about the structural nature of their workplace romances, were expected to be achieved with the most integrity in the case that participants could be confident that their employers would not be able to directly obtain, or infer, this information. Finally, the cost of collecting data using AMT is modest, allowing researchers to attain "well-powered samples that, *ceteris paribus*, better reflect the available workforce" (Paolacci & Chandler, 2014, p. 187). This was critical to detecting the expected effect sizes among study variables.

Measures

Workplace romance motives. Three scales were used to measure participants' motives for engaging in workplace romances (i.e., one scale for each motive – love, ego, and job-related; see Appendix A). All motive scales were adapted versions of Dillard (1987), Dillard and Broetzmann (1989), and Dillard et al.'s (1994) workplace romance motive scales, which the authors based on Quinn's (1977) breakdown of workplace romance motive components. Specifically, Likert scales ranging from 1 (not at all important) to 5 (very important) were used to ascertain the degree to which various workplace romance motive components (e.g., adventure) contributed to each participant's decision to engage in their current workplace romance. Participants also responded to an ipsative forced-choice measure

comparing comprehensive pairings of the love, ego, and job-related motive items, which served to (a) limit uniform response bias (Bartram, 2007) and (b) confirm results obtained using the continuous measures.

To assess the love motive, participants were asked how important love, companionship, sincere affection, and finding a spouse or long-term partner were as reasons for their decision to engage in their current workplace romance. The ego and job-related motives were assessed in a similar manner, with each scale being comprised of four items. Items on the ego motive scale inquired about entering a relationship for the purpose of excitement, adventure, sexual experience, and thrill; items on the job-related motive scale addressed the importance of job security, increased power, increased prestige, and easier work. For the continuous love, ego, and job-related motive scales, Cronbach's alpha was calculated at .85, .82, and .90, respectively (see Table 1 for an overview of the reliability estimates for all measures included in the current study). When presented with the forced-choice motive comparisons, the majority of participants reported being in their current workplace romance due to a love motive (59.3%; see Table 2).

A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) of the continuous workplace romance motive scales was conducted using the entire study sample. Two models, each with three factors (i.e., love, ego, and job-related), were specified. The items comprising each scale were entered simultaneously in both models. In the first model, the scales were allowed to correlate; in the competing model, the correlations between each factor were set to zero. The model in which the scales were allowed to correlate is depicted in Figure 8. This model demonstrated superior fit, $\chi^2(51) = 156.49, p < .001$, root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = .053, comparative fit index (CFI) = .97, Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) = .96,

relative to the model in which inter-factor correlations were constrained, $\chi^2(54) = 212.31, p < .001$, RMSEA = .063, CFI = .95, TLI = .94, $\Delta\chi^2(3) = 65.30, p < .001$. Both models provided a reasonable absolute fit to the data. When unconstrained, the job-related and ego motive scales were significantly correlated, $r = .33, p < .001$, but the job-related and love motive scales, $r = -.03, p = .538$, and the love and ego motive scales, $r = -.05, p = .263$, were not.

Attachment style. There has been confusion regarding which self-report method for measuring attachment has the greatest utility since Hazan and Shaver (1987) demonstrated that measuring attachment style in this manner is indeed possible (Brennan et al., 1998; Sibley et al., 2005). For example, Hazan and Shaver (1987) used a measure that operationalized Ainsworth et al.'s (1978) attachment styles categorically, but researchers have since suggested that attachment styles do not necessarily operate independently of one another, and that measuring them as if they do results in unnecessary bias (Mallinckrodt, Gantt, & Coble, 1995). Brennan et al. (1998) further demonstrated – through a comprehensive review of 482 items purported to assess 60 discrete attachment constructs – that adult attachment is best captured through the continuous measurement of attachment avoidance and attachment anxiety. Operationalizing attachment using this method, securely attached individuals can be identified as those low in both attachment avoidance and attachment anxiety (Geller & Bamberger, 2009).

Fraley et al.'s (2000) measure of adult attachment (i.e., the Revised Experiences in Close Relationships Questionnaire [ECR-R]), which breaks attachment into its higher-order components of avoidance and anxiety, was employed in the current study. Fraley et al. (2000) reported test-retest correlations of .91 and .94 for the avoidance and anxiety subscales, respectively, and both Fraley et al. (2000) and Sibley et al. (2005) found that the items

employed in the ECR-R loaded onto the avoidance and anxiety subscales as expected. (See Shaver and Mikulincer, 2007, for an in-depth report supporting the ECR-R's construct validity.)

A sample item from the avoidance subscale is "I get uncomfortable when a romantic partner wants to get very close." A sample item from the anxiety subscale is "I often worry that my partner will not want to stay with me." Each subscale is comprised of 18 items, with the comprehensive scale housing 36 items (see Appendix B). Participants in the current study responded to all items included in the ECR-R using a seven-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree), as has been a common method utilized by researchers examining the link between attachment style and employee work outcomes (e.g., Desivilya et al., 2006; Geller & Bamberger, 2009; Richards & Schat, 2011). Cronbach's alpha was calculated at .95 for the attachment anxiety subscale, and .94 for the attachment avoidance subscale.

Participants also responded to an ipsative forced-choice measure comparing comprehensive definitions of the secure, anxious/ambivalent, and avoidant attachment styles provided by Hazan and Shaver (1987, 1990). Specifically, participants were presented with sets of two of the following definitions and asked to choose which was the best descriptor of their orientation towards others in romantic relationships: (a) "I am somewhat uncomfortable being close to others; I find it difficult to trust them completely, difficult to allow myself to depend on them." (b) "I find that others are reluctant to get as close as I would like. I often worry that my partner doesn't really love me or won't want to stay with me." (c) "I find it relatively easy to get close to others and am comfortable depending on them. I don't often worry about being abandoned or about someone getting too close to me."

The first forced-choice item is representative of an avoidant attachment style, the second an anxious/ambivalent attachment style, and the third a secure attachment style (Hazan & Shaver, 1987, 1990). Based on this classification scheme, the majority of participants had a secure attachment style (59.5%), followed by an avoidant attachment style (25.1%) and lastly an anxious/ambivalent attachment style (15.3%; see Table 3). These results are nearly identical to those reported by Hazan and Shaver (1987, 1989). Table 4 presents frequencies for attachment style—workplace romance motive combinations based on the forced-choice measures for each construct (e.g., 39.6% of participants with a secure attachment style reported being in a workplace romance due to a love motive).

Job performance. In accordance with Pierce and Aguinis (2003), Farh, Dobbins, and Cheng's (1991) measure of job performance was adapted to fit a self-report response style and used to assess participants' perceptions of their job performance in the current study (see Appendix C). Specifically, participants responded to three items that inquired about the quality of their work, the efficiency with which they complete their work, and their overall job performance. Responses were obtained using Likert scales ranging from 1 (very low quality, efficiency, or overall performance) to 5 (excellent quality, efficiency, or overall performance), and Cronbach's alpha was calculated at .84.

Job satisfaction. The Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire Job Satisfaction Subscale (MOAQ-JSS; Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, & Klesh, 1979) was used to measure job satisfaction in the current study. The MOAQ-JSS consists of 3 items (see Appendix D) that Bowling and Hammond (2008) reported to have a sample-weighted internal consistency reliability of .84 across 79 studies. The authors additionally demonstrated support for the measure's construct validity by correlating respondents'

aggregate scores on the measure with several predictors of job satisfaction (e.g., feedback, $\rho = .46$; role ambiguity $\rho = -.42$).

As initially intended by Cammann et al. (1979), participants in the current study responded to each MOAQ-JSS item using a Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). The item that reads, “In general, I like working here” (Cammann et al., 1979), was adapted to read, “In general, I like working for my organization” due to the fact that participants were employed by different organizations. Cronbach’s alpha for the adapted MOAQ-JSS was .87. While it would have been feasible to employ a more robust measure of job satisfaction that inquires about different facets of the construct (e.g., Spector, 1985), research (e.g., Judge, Thoreson, Bono, & Patton, 2001) suggests that the relationship between job satisfaction and a given variable is most accurately assessed when a composite score (i.e., overall job satisfaction) is used. Furthermore, previous research investigating the workplace romance—job satisfaction relationship has measured job satisfaction using a single item (e.g., Pierce, 1998; Pierce & Aguinis, 2003).

Intrinsic job motivation. Research that has investigated intrinsic job motivation as a consequence of workplace romance has utilized Warr, Cook, and Wall’s (1979) Intrinsic Job Motivation Scale (IJM Scale; Pierce, 1998; Pierce & Aguinis, 2003). The IJM Scale includes six items that Pierce & Aguinis (2003) found to fit a single-factor model, and was used in the current study with minor changes made to the first two items. The modified items read, “I feel a sense of personal satisfaction when I do my job well” and “My opinion of myself goes down when I do my job badly” (see Appendix E). As instructed by Warr et al. (1979), participants responded to each item on a Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Cronbach’s alpha for the scale was calculated at .84.

Organizational commitment. Organizational commitment has previously been operationalized based on three overarching dimensions of commitment: affective, continuance, and normative (Meyer & Allen, 1991). These dimensions correspond, respectively, to employees' desire, need, and perceived obligation to remain with their organization. Although a recent study investigating the link between attachment style and organizational commitment demonstrated that assessing continuance and normative commitment might yield noteworthy results (Scrima et al., 2015), the scales used to measure these dimensions of commitment have previously demonstrated poor psychometric properties. Specifically, Ko et al. (1997) found Meyer et al.'s (1993) continuance commitment scale to have low reliability, and that both the continuance and normative commitment scales demonstrated questionable construct validity. Thus, only Meyer et al.'s (1993) affective commitment scale was used to measure organizational commitment in the current study (see Appendix F).

In addition to being a highly reliable measure of organizational commitment, Meyer et al.'s (1993) affective commitment scale was used in the current study due to the conceptual link between attachment, romance, and affect. The scale has also been found to bear a strong relationship with job satisfaction ($r = .37$) – supporting the scale's construct validity – and has previously been used in attachment research (e.g., Richards & Schat, 2011). Responses to the scale were collected using a Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree), and Cronbach's alpha for the scale was calculated at .89.

Organizational citizenship behavior. Most OCB scales are formatted for supervisor respondents (i.e., their items inquire about OCBs from a third-person perspective), and therefore exhibit limited utility in context of the current study. Desivilya et al. (2006)

successfully adapted the items of Niehoff and Moorman's (1993) OCB Scale to make it a self-report measure, but Williams and Anderson's (1991) OCB measure – which distinguishes between OCBs directed towards individuals (OCB-Is) and OCBs directed towards one's organization (OCB-Os) – lent itself more kindly to the current study's objectives. Williams and Anderson's OCB measure has also been used to assess OCBs as a consequence of attachment style (e.g., Little et al., 2011; Richards & Schat, 2011). Thus, Williams and Anderson's (1991) OCB measure was adapted to a to fit a self-report response format and used in the current study.

Seven items were used to measure OCB-Is and six items were used to measure OCB-Os (see Appendix G). Consistent with past research (e.g., Little et al., 2011), participants scored each item on a Likert scale ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (very often). Cronbach's alpha was calculated at .89 for the OCB-I subscale, and .72 for the OCB-O subscale.

Analytic Approach

Study hypotheses were tested using hierarchical ordinary least squares (OLS) regression. Three two-step models were specified to assess the relationships between (a) attachment avoidance and anxiety and (b) the love, ego, and job-related workplace romance motives. In each model, the control variables were entered in the first step, and attachment avoidance and anxiety were entered in the second step. Separate models were then created to assess the relationships between (a) each attachment dimension and workplace romance motive and (b) the study's work outcomes. For all models in which the dependent variable was one of the study's work outcomes, the control variables were entered in the first step, attachment dimensions were entered in the second step, and workplace romance motives were entered in the third step.

Exploratory analyses also examined the indirect effects of attachment style on the study's work outcomes through the love, ego, and job-related workplace romance motives. Specifically, Preacher and Hayes' (2008) PROCESS Macro was used to build regression models in which each workplace romance motive was entered as a mediator of the relationship between each attachment dimension and the study's work outcomes. Additional analyses were then conducted using the study's forced-choice measures. First, multinomial logistic regression was used to test the predictive relationships between (a) the forced-choice and continuous attachment measures and (b) the forced-choice workplace romance motive measure. Second, multivariate and univariate analysis of covariance tests were conducted to examine the relationships between (a) the forced-choice attachment style and workplace romance motive measures and (b) the study's work outcomes. Finally, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) tests were used to calculate more precise estimates of how the study's work outcomes varied at different levels of the forced-choice workplace romance motive and attachment style measures.

Results

Table 5 displays the means, standard deviations, reliability estimates, and correlations for all study variables. Notably, attachment avoidance had a significant, positive association with one's decision to engage in a workplace romance due to an ego motive, $r = .08, p = .03$, and a love motive, $r = .41, p < .001$, but was not associated with one's decision to engage in a workplace romance due to a job-related motive, $r = .03, p = .399$. Attachment anxiety had a significant, positive association with one's decision to engage in a workplace romance due to an ego motive, $r = .12, p = .001$, and a job-related motive, $r = .30, p < .001$, but was not associated with one's decision to engage in a workplace romance due to a love motive, $r =$

.01, $p = .901$. The attachment dimensions and workplace romance motives exhibited significant correlations with a majority of the study's work outcomes.

Attachment Style and Workplace Romance Motives

Table 6 presents the standardized regression coefficients for the relationships between (a) attachment avoidance and anxiety and (b) one's decision to engage in a workplace romance due to a love motive, an ego motive, or a job-related motive. Attachment avoidance and anxiety explained an additional 15.2% of the variance in one's decision to engage in a workplace romance due to a love motive, $R^2 = .22$, $F(14, 733) = 14.53$, $p < .001$, after accounting for the variance explained by the study's control variables, $R^2 = .07$, $F(12, 735) = 4.31$, $p < .001$. The attachment dimensions also explained an additional 1.5% of the variance in one's decision to engage in a workplace romance due to an ego motive, $R^2 = .05$, $F(14, 733) = 2.46$, $p = .001$, beyond the variance explained by the study's control variables, $R^2 = .03$, $F(12, 735) = 4.31$, $p = .024$. Finally, the attachment dimensions explained an additional 6.4% of the variance in one's decision to engage in a workplace romance due to a job-related motive, $R^2 = .20$, $F(14, 733) = 12.70$, $p < .001$, again after accounting for the variance explained by the study's control variables, $R^2 = .13$, $F(12, 735) = 9.29$, $p < .001$. The extent to which each attachment dimension contributed to the prediction of each workplace romance motive varied substantially.

Hypothesis 1 addressed the predictive relationships between attachment avoidance and the three workplace romance motives. Attachment avoidance was a significant, positive predictor of engaging in a workplace romance due to a love motive, $\beta = .40$, $t(747) = 11.87$, $p < .001$. The fact that this and other relationships examined in the current study were found to be opposite their hypothesized direction is expanded upon in the discussion section. Also

contrary to the study's hypotheses, attachment avoidance was not a significant predictor of one's decision to engage in a workplace romance due to an ego motive, $\beta = .07$, $t(747) = 1.83$, $p = .067$, or a job-related motive, $\beta = .00$, $t(747) = 0.12$, $p = .901$. Thus, results did not support Hypotheses 1a-c.

Hypothesis 2 addressed the predictive relationships between attachment anxiety and the three workplace romance motives. Attachment anxiety did not predict one's decision to engage in a workplace romance due to a love motive, $\beta = -.02$, $t(747) = -0.48$, $p = .632$. Thus, Hypothesis 2a was not supported. However, in support of Hypothesis 2b, attachment anxiety was a significant, positive predictor of engaging in a workplace romance due to an ego motive, $\beta = .10$, $t(747) = 2.65$, $p = .008$. Attachment anxiety was also a significant, positive predictor of one's decision to engage in a workplace romance to a job-related motive, $\beta = .26$, $t(747) = 7.53$, $p < .001$, but this relationship was opposite its hypothesized direction. Therefore, results did not support Hypothesis 2c.

Workplace Romance Motives and Employee Work Outcomes

Hypotheses 3-7 addressed the predictive relationships between (a) the love, ego, and job-related motives for engaging in a workplace romance and (b) the study's work outcomes. Table 7 presents the standardized regression coefficients for the relationships between each workplace romance motive and job performance, job satisfaction, intrinsic job motivation, affective organizational commitment, OCB-Is, and OCB-Os. Each coefficient represents the relationship between a given workplace romance motive and work outcome after controlling for each attachment dimension and the study's control variables.

Hypothesis 3 addressed the predictive relationships between each workplace romance motive and job performance. Collectively, one's motives for engaging in a workplace

romance accounted for an additional 6.1% of the variance in job performance, $R^2 = .22$, $F(17, 730) = 11.82$, $p < .001$, beyond the variance explained by each attachment dimension and the study's control variables, $R^2 = .16$, $F(14, 733) = 9.62$, $p < .001$. In support of Hypothesis 3a, one's decision to engage in a workplace romance due to a love motive was a significant, positive predictor of job performance, $\beta = .17$, $t(747) = 4.70$, $p < .001$. One's decision to engage in a workplace romance due to an ego motive was also a significant, positive predictor of job performance, $\beta = .13$, $t(747) = 3.68$, $p < .001$, lending support to Hypothesis 3b. Further, one's decision to engage in a workplace romance due to a job-related motive was a significant, negative predictor of job performance, $\beta = -.21$, $t(747) = -5.47$, $p < .001$, supporting Hypothesis 3c. Thus, Hypothesis 3 was fully supported.

Hypothesis 4 addressed the predictive relationships between each workplace romance motive and job satisfaction. One's motives for engaging in a workplace romance did not account for any additional variance in job satisfaction, $R^2 = .09$, $F(17, 730) = 4.43$, $p < .001$, beyond the variance explained by each attachment dimension and the study's control variables, $R^2 = .09$, $F(14, 733) = 4.95$, $p < .001$. However, in support of Hypothesis 4a, one's decision to engage in a workplace romance due to a love motive was a significant, positive predictor of job satisfaction, $\beta = .09$, $t(747) = 2.34$, $p = .019$. Conversely, one's decision to engage in a workplace romance due to an ego motive was not a significant predictor of job satisfaction, $\beta = .01$, $t(747) = 0.37$, $p = .715$, and neither was one's decision to engage in a workplace romance due to a job-related motive $\beta = .01$, $t(747) = 0.32$, $p = .746$. Thus, Hypotheses 4b and 4c were not supported.

Hypothesis 5 addressed the predictive relationships between each workplace romance motive and intrinsic job motivation. Collectively, one's motives for engaging in a workplace

romance accounted for an additional 8% of the variance in intrinsic job motivation, $R^2 = .28$, $F(17, 730) = 17.00$, $p < .001$, beyond the variance explained by each attachment dimension and the study's control variables, $R^2 = .20$, $F(14, 733) = 13.39$, $p < .001$. In support of Hypothesis 5a, one's decision to engage in a workplace romance due to a love motive was a significant, positive predictor of intrinsic job motivation, $\beta = .15$, $t(747) = 4.34$, $p < .001$. One's decision to engage in a workplace romance due to an ego motive was also a significant, positive predictor of intrinsic job motivation, $\beta = .08$, $t(747) = 2.44$, $p = .015$, lending support to Hypothesis 5b. Further, one's decision to engage in a workplace romance due to a job-related motive was a significant, negative predictor of intrinsic job motivation, $\beta = -.29$, $t(747) = -7.99$, $p < .001$, supporting Hypothesis 5c. Thus, Hypothesis 5 was fully supported.

Hypothesis 6 addressed the predictive relationships between each workplace romance motive and affective organizational commitment. Collectively, one's motives for engaging in a workplace romance accounted for an additional 1.9% of the variance in affective organizational commitment, $R^2 = .12$, $F(17, 730) = 6.03$, $p < .001$, beyond the variance explained by each attachment dimension and the study's control variables, $R^2 = .10$, $F(14, 733) = 8.08$, $p < .001$. However, one's decision to engage in a workplace romance due to a love motive was not a significant predictor of affective organizational commitment, $\beta = -.04$, $t(747) = -1.00$, $p = .319$, and neither was one's decision to engage in a workplace romance due to an ego motive $\beta = -.03$, $t(747) = -.68$, $p = .496$. One's decision to engage in a workplace romance due to a job-related motive was a significant, positive predictor of affective organizational commitment, $\beta = .15$, $t(747) = 3.87$, $p < .001$, but this relationship was opposite its hypothesized direction. Thus, results did not support Hypotheses 6a-c.

Hypothesis 7 addressed the predictive relationships between (a) each workplace romance motive and (b) OCB-I and OCB-Os. Collectively, one's motives for engaging in a workplace romance accounted for an additional 4.5% of the variance in OCB-Is, $R^2 = .21$, $F(17, 730) = 11.24$, $p < .001$, beyond the variance explained by each attachment dimension and the study's control variables, $R^2 = .16$, $F(14, 733) = 10.24$, $p < .001$. Workplace romance motives also accounted for an additional 1% of the variance in OCB-Os, $R^2 = .09$, $F(17, 730) = 4.04$, $p < .001$, beyond the variance explained by each attachment dimension and the study's control variables, $R^2 = .08$, $F(14, 733) = 4.30$, $p < .001$.

One's decision to engage in a workplace romance due to a love motive was a significant, positive predictor of OCB-Is, $\beta = .17$, $t(747) = 4.42$, $p < .001$, but did not predict OCB-Os, $\beta = -.01$, $t(747) = -.34$, $p = .731$. Similarly, one's decision to engage in a workplace romance due to an ego motive was a significant, positive predictor of OCB-Is, $\beta = .15$, $t(747) = 4.17$, $p < .001$, but did not predict OCB-Os, $\beta = .05$, $t(747) = 1.37$, $p = .172$. Engaging in a workplace romance due to a job-related motive was a significant, negative predictor of OCB-Is, $\beta = -.13$, $t(747) = -3.35$, $p = .001$, but a significant, positive predictor of OCB-Os, $\beta = .08$, $t(747) = 2.06$, $p = .040$. In sum, the pattern of relationships observed between workplace romance motives and OCB-Is was as expected, but the pattern of relationships observed between workplace romance motives and OCB-Os was not. In turn, Hypothesis 7 received partial support.

Attachment Style and Employee Work Outcomes

Hypotheses 8-12 addressed the predictive relationships between (a) attachment avoidance and anxiety and (b) the study's work outcomes. Table 7 presents the standardized regression coefficients for the relationships between each attachment dimension and job

performance, job satisfaction, intrinsic job motivation, affective organizational commitment, OCB-Is, and OCB-Os. Each coefficient represents the relationship between one of the attachment dimensions and a given work outcome after accounting for the variance in that work outcome explained by one's motives for engaging in a workplace romance and the study's control variables. Although not shown in Table 7, regression analyses were repeated with the workplace romance motives entered in Step 2, and the attachment dimensions entered in Step 3, in order to determine the incremental variance in each employee work outcome that was explained by attachment style.

Hypothesis 8 addressed the predictive relationships between each attachment dimension and job performance. After accounting for the variance explained by one's motives for engaging a workplace romance and the study's control variables, $R^2 = .17$, $F(15, 732) = 9.90$, $p < .001$, attachment avoidance and anxiety accounted for an additional 4.7% of the variance in job performance. Attachment avoidance was a significant, positive predictor of job performance, $\beta = .17$, $t(747) = 4.63$, $p < .001$, but this relationship was opposite its hypothesized direction. Thus, Hypothesis 8a was not supported. However, attachment anxiety was a significant, negative predictor of job performance, $\beta = -.19$, $t(747) = -5.25$, supporting Hypothesis 8b.

Hypothesis 9 addressed the predictive relationships between each attachment dimension and job satisfaction. After accounting for the variance explained by one's motives for engaging a workplace romance and the study's control variables, $R^2 = .06$, $F(15, 732) = 2.95$, $p < .001$, attachment avoidance and anxiety accounted for an additional 3.7% of the variance in job satisfaction. Attachment avoidance was a significant, positive predictor of job satisfaction, $\beta = .21$, $t(747) = 5.42$, $p < .001$, but this relationship was opposite its

hypothesized direction. Thus, Hypothesis 9a was not supported. Hypothesis 9b also did not receive support, as attachment anxiety was not a significant predictor of job satisfaction, $\beta = -.01$, $t(747) = -0.34$, $p = .734$.

Hypothesis 10 addressed the predictive relationships between each attachment dimension and intrinsic job motivation. After accounting for the variance explained by one's motives for engaging a workplace romance and the study's control variables, $R^2 = .23$, $F(15, 732) = 14.71$, $p < .001$, attachment avoidance and anxiety accounted for an additional 5.2% of the variance in intrinsic job motivation. Attachment avoidance was a significant, positive predictor of intrinsic job motivation, $\beta = .24$, $t(747) = 6.92$, $p < .001$. This relationship was opposite its expected direction, and thus Hypothesis 10a was not supported. Hypothesis 10b also did not receive support, as attachment anxiety was not a significant predictor of intrinsic job motivation, $\beta = .05$, $t(747) = 1.46$, $p = .144$.

Hypothesis 11 addressed the predictive relationships between each attachment dimension and affective organizational commitment. After accounting for the variance explained by one's motives for engaging a workplace romance and the study's control variables, $R^2 = .09$, $F(15, 732) = 4.63$, $p < .001$, attachment avoidance and anxiety accounted for an additional 3.7% of the variance in affective organizational commitment. Attachment avoidance was a significant, positive predictor of intrinsic job motivation, $\beta = .10$, $t(747) = 2.51$, $p = .012$, as was attachment anxiety, $\beta = .17$, $t(747) = 4.59$, $p < .001$. Thus, neither Hypothesis 11a nor 11b were supported. The relationships between each attachment dimension and affective organizational commitment were opposite their hypothesized direction.

Hypothesis 12 addressed the predictive relationships between (a) each attachment dimension and (b) OCB-I and OCB-Os. After accounting for the variance explained by one's motives for engaging a workplace romance and the study's control variables, $R^2 = .16$, $F(15, 732) = 9.43$, $p < .001$, attachment avoidance and anxiety accounted for an additional 4.5% of the variance in OCB-Is. The attachment dimensions also accounted for an additional 3.6% of the variance in OCB-Os, again after accounting for the variance explained by one's motives for engaging in a workplace romance and the study's control variables, $R^2 = .05$, $F(15, 732) = 2.59$, $p = .001$. Attachment avoidance was a significant, positive predictor of OCB-I, $\beta = .23$, $t(747) = 6.14$, $p < .001$, and OCB-Os, $\beta = .11$, $t(747) = 2.89$, $p = .004$. Thus, the relationships between attachment avoidance and the OCB dimensions were opposite their hypothesized direction. Attachment anxiety was a significant, negative predictor of OCB-Is, $\beta = -.10$, $t(747) = -2.74$, $p = .006$, but a significant, positive predictor of OCB-Os, $\beta = .16$, $t(747) = 4.11$, $p < .001$. The negative relationship between attachment anxiety and OCB-Is was as expected, but the relationship between attachment anxiety and OCB-Os was opposite its hypothesized direction. Thus, Hypothesis 12 received partial support.

Exploratory Analyses

Mediation Analysis

Preacher and Hayes' (2008) PROCESS Macro was used to build regression models in which each workplace romance motive was entered as a mediator of the relationship between each attachment dimension and the study's work outcomes. All study controls were included as covariates. The total indirect effects of each attachment dimension on the study's work outcomes, through the collective set of workplace romance motives, are reported in Table 8. Specific indirect effects are reported in Table 9. The bias-corrected accelerated (BCA)

bootstrapped 95% confidence intervals for the total and specific indirect effects presented below mirror those reported in Tables 8 and 9, which show that some confidence intervals that appear to include zero, when reported to two decimal points, in fact do not include zero.

Results indicated that attachment anxiety had a significant total indirect effect on intrinsic job motivation, 95% $CI_{BCA} = -.09, -.02$, affective organizational commitment, 95% $CI_{BCA} = .01, .07$, and OCB-Os, 95% $CI_{BCA} = .00, .06$. However, attachment anxiety did not have a significant total indirect effect on job performance, 95% $CI_{BCA} = -.06, .00$, job satisfaction, 95% $CI_{BCA} = -.02, .04$, or OCB-Is, 95% $CI_{BCA} = -.04, .03$. Nearly the exact opposite pattern of results was observed for attachment avoidance. Specifically, attachment avoidance had a significant total indirect effect on job performance, 95% $CI_{BCA} = .03, .11$, job satisfaction, 95% $CI_{BCA} = .00, .08$, intrinsic job motivation, 95% $CI_{BCA} = .01, .10$, and OCB-Is, 95% $CI_{BCA} = .04, .11$, but not OCB-Os, 95% $CI_{BCA} = -.03, .04$. Thus, the only total indirect effect that was significant for both attachment anxiety and avoidance was on intrinsic job motivation. However, the specific indirect effects of each attachment dimension on each employee work outcome, through the individual workplace romance motives, show that the indirect effects of attachment style are more nuanced.

While attachment anxiety did not have a significant total indirect effect on job performance, the significance of the specific indirect effects of attachment anxiety on job performance was found to vary depending on the workplace romance motive that served as the mediating mechanism. That is, attachment anxiety did not have a significant indirect effect on job performance through the love motive, 95% $CI_{BCA} = -.01, .03$, but had a positive indirect effect on job performance through the ego motive, 95% $CI_{BCA} = .00, .03$, and a negative indirect effect on job performance through the job-related motive, 95% $CI_{BCA} = -$

.08, -.03. However, in line with the total indirect effect of attachment anxiety on job satisfaction, attachment anxiety did not have a specific indirect effect on job satisfaction through any of the individual workplace romance motives. As with job performance, the direction of the indirect effects of attachment anxiety on intrinsic job motivation varied depending on the workplace romance motive that served as the mediating mechanism. Specifically, attachment anxiety did not have a significant indirect effect on intrinsic job motivation through the love motive, 95% $CI_{BCA} = -.01, .03$, but had a positive indirect effect through the ego motive, 95% $CI_{BCA} = .00, .03$, and a negative indirect effect through the job-related motive, 95% $CI_{BCA} = -.11, -.05$.

Attachment anxiety did not have a significant indirect effect on affective organizational commitment through the love motive, 95% $CI_{BCA} = .00, .00$, or the ego motive, 95% $CI_{BCA} = -.01, .01$, but had a significant, positive indirect effect through the job-related motive, 95% $CI_{BCA} = .01, .07$. While there was no total indirect effect of attachment anxiety on OCB-Is, the specific indirect effects of attachment anxiety on OCB-Is displayed the same pattern of significance and were in the same direction as the specific indirect effects of attachment anxiety on job performance and intrinsic job motivation. That is, attachment anxiety did not have a significant indirect effect on job performance through the love motive, 95% $CI_{BCA} = -.01, .03$, but had a positive indirect effect on job performance through the ego motive, 95% $CI_{BCA} = .01, .04$, and a negative indirect effect on job performance through the job-related motive, 95% $CI_{BCA} = -.06, -.01$. Finally, contrary to the total indirect effect of attachment anxiety on OCB-Os, attachment anxiety did not have a specific indirect effect on OCB-Os through any of the individual workplace romance motives.

The specific indirect effects of attachment avoidance on the study's work outcomes aligned with the total indirect effects of attachment avoidance in terms of both significance and direction. However, the indirect effects of attachment avoidance varied in magnitude depending on the workplace romance motive that served as the mediating mechanism. Attachment avoidance had a significant, positive indirect effect on job performance through both the love motive, 95% $CI_{BCA} = .04, .11$, and the ego motive, 95% $CI_{BCA} = .00, .02$, but did not have a significant indirect effect on job performance through the job-related motive, 95% $CI_{BCA} = -.04, .01$. The only significant indirect effect of attachment avoidance on job satisfaction was through the love motive, 95% $CI_{BCA} = .00, .08$. That is, there were no significant indirect effects of attachment avoidance on job satisfaction through the ego motive, 95% $CI_{BCA} = -.01, .01$, or the job-related motive, 95% $CI_{BCA} = .00, .01$. Similar to the indirect effects of attachment avoidance on job performance, attachment avoidance had a significant, positive indirect effect on intrinsic job motivation through the love motive, 95% $CI_{BCA} = .03, .10$, and the ego motive, 95% $CI_{BCA} = .00, .02$, but not the job related motive, 95% $CI_{BCA} = -.04, .02$.

In line with the total indirect effect of attachment avoidance on affective organizational commitment, there were no significant indirect effects of attachment avoidance on affective organizational commitment. The specific indirect effects of attachment avoidance on OCB-Is displayed the same pattern of significance and were in the same direction as the specific indirect effects of attachment avoidance on job performance and intrinsic job motivation. That is, attachment avoidance had a significant, positive indirect effect on OCB-Is through both the love motive, 95% $CI_{BCA} = .03, .11$, and the ego motive, 95% $CI_{BCA} = .00, .03$, but did not have a significant indirect effect on OCB-Is through the

job-related motive, 95% $CI_{BCA} = -.02, .01$. As with attachment anxiety, attachment avoidance did not have a specific indirect effect on OCB-Os through any of the individual workplace romance motives.

Logistic Regression Analysis

Multinomial logistic regression analysis was conducted to determine the relationship between the forced-choice attachment style measure and the forced-choice workplace romance motive measure (see Table 10). The forced-choice attachment style measure was entered as a predictor with secure attachment as the reference group; the study controls were modeled as covariates. The love motive served as the reference group for the workplace romance motive measure. Secure attachment and the love motive were selected as reference groups because participants identified with these categories more frequently than the other attachment and workplace romance motive categories. The model in which attachment style served as a predictor of one's motive for engaging in their workplace romance provided a significantly better fit to the data than the intercept-only model, $\Delta\chi^2(28) = 128.47, p < .001$, Nagelkerke's $R^2 = .19$, indicating that the model predictors (i.e., attachment style and the control variables) were moderately informative regarding when a participant was more likely to engage in a workplace romance due to one motive (e.g., love) rather than another (e.g., ego).

Results demonstrated that, when forced to identify as having an anxious/ambivalent, avoidant, or secure attachment style, participants with an avoidant attachment style were nearly 2.5 times as likely to engage in a workplace romance due to an ego motive, rather than a love motive, relative to participants with a secure attachment style, odds ratio (OR) = 2.49, $p < .001$. However, participants with an anxious/ambivalent attachment style were no more

or less likely than those with a secure attachment style to engage in a workplace romance due to an ego motive rather than a love motive, $OR = 1.48, p = .117$. The opposite pattern of relationships was observed when contrasting participants' decisions to engage in a workplace romance due to a job-related motive versus a love motive. That is, participants with an avoidant attachment style were no more or less likely than those with a secure attachment style to engage in a workplace romance due to a job-related motive versus a love motive, $OR = 1.46, p = .349$. Conversely, participants with an anxious/ambivalent attachment style were over 3.5 times more likely to engage in a workplace romance due to a job-related motive, rather than a love motive, relative to participants with a secure attachment style, $OR = 3.70, p < .001$.

Interestingly, different results were obtained when the continuous measures of attachment avoidance and anxiety were used to predict participants' responses to the forced-choice workplace romance motive measure, $\Delta\chi^2(28) = 150.60, p < .001$, Nagelkerke's $R^2 = .22$ (see Table 11). Again modeling the study's control variables as covariates, a one unit increase in attachment avoidance resulted in the likelihood of a given participant engaging in a workplace romance due to an ego motive, rather than a love motive, reducing to almost half, $B = -.75, OR = 0.47, p < .001$. The direction of this relationship is opposite that observed when attachment style was modeled as a categorical predictor. However, as with the avoidant attachment style in the categorical attachment measure, the continuous measure of attachment avoidance did not predict one's decision to engage in a workplace romance due to an ego motive rather than a love motive.

Results also varied when using the continuous attachment dimensions to predict the likelihood of participants' entering a workplace romance due to a job-related motive rather

than a love motive. A one unit increase in attachment avoidance resulted in the likelihood of a given participant engaging in a workplace romance due to a job-related motive, rather than a love motive, dropping to less than half, $B = -.93$, $OR = 0.40$, $p < .001$. No such relationship was observed when using the categorical attachment style measure to predict participants' decisions between the job-related motive and the love motive. However, as with the anxious/ambivalent attachment style in the categorical attachment measure, the continuous measure of attachment anxiety was a positive predictor of one's decision to engage in a workplace romance due to a job-related motive rather than a love motive. Specifically, participants were nearly twice as likely to engage in a workplace romance due to a job-related motive, rather than a love motive, with a one unit increase in attachment anxiety, $B = .68$, $OR = 1.97$, $p < .001$.

Multivariate and Univariate Analysis of Variance

Following the logistic regression analyses, multivariate and univariate analysis of covariance tests were performed to determine the relationships between (a) the forced choice workplace romance motive and attachment style measures and (b) the study's work outcomes. Accounting for attachment style, the study's control variables, and the relationships between the study's work outcomes, the multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) test indicated that the motive participants selected as the primary driver of their decision to engage in their current workplace romance had a significant, multivariate main effect, $F(12, 1,444) = 5.63$, $p < .001$, Wilkes' $\lambda = .91$, $\eta^2_p = .05$ (see Table 12). The attachment style that participants selected as most representative of how they approach romantic relationships also had a significant, multivariate main effect, $F(12, 1,444) = 2.81$, $p = .001$, Wilkes' $\lambda = .96$, $\eta^2_p = .02$.

Analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) tests were conducted to distinguish between the effects that the forced-choice workplace romance motive and attachment style measures had on different work outcomes (see Table 13). All ANCOVA tests included the same controls as the MANCOVA. Results indicated that workplace romance motives had a significant main effect on all of the study's work outcomes except OCB-Os. Specifically, workplace romance motives had a significant main effect on job performance, $F(2, 727) = 13.61, p < .001, \eta^2_p = .04$, job satisfaction, $F(2, 727) = 3.22, p = .040, \eta^2_p = .01$, intrinsic job motivation, $F(2, 727) = 20.01, p < .001, \eta^2_p = .05$, affective organizational commitment, $F(2, 727) = 4.63, p = .010, \eta^2_p = .01$, and OCB-Is, $F(2, 727) = 9.24, p < .001, \eta^2_p = .02$. However, workplace romance motives did not have a significant main effect on OCB-Os, $F(2, 727) = 0.48, p = .616, \eta^2_p = .00$.

Similarly, attachment style had a significant main effect on all of the study's work outcomes except intrinsic job motivation and OCB-Os. That is, attachment style had a significant main effect on job performance, $F(2, 727) = 3.23, p = .001, \eta^2_p = .02$, job satisfaction, $F(2, 727) = 3.50, p = .001, \eta^2_p = .02$, affective organizational commitment, $F(2, 727) = 4.02, p = .001, \eta^2_p = .02$, and OCB-Is, $F(2, 727) = 4.88, p = .001, \eta^2_p = .02$. However, attachment style did not have a significant main effect on intrinsic job motivation, $F(2, 727) = 1.72, p = .180, \eta^2_p = .00$, or OCB-Os, $F(2, 727) = 1.64, p = .194, \eta^2_p = .00$.

Lastly, ANOVA tests were performed to determine the extent to which the study's work outcomes varied at different levels of the forced-choice workplace romance motive and attachment style measures. Tukey's HSD tests were conducted to assess the significance and direction of mean differences. Due to the number of mean differences that were calculated, post-hoc test results are summarized in Table 14, but not in text. The following discussion

focuses primarily on the results related to the study's hypotheses and the mediation analysis, which were attained using the study's continuous predictor and outcome measures.

Discussion

The primary objective of the present research was to examine the association between romantic relationship dynamics and employee work outcomes from the perspective of workplace romance participants. Romantic relationship dynamics were operationalized as one's attachment style and motives for becoming romantically involved with another member (i.e., a peer, subordinate, or superior) of their current work organization. In turn, study hypotheses posited that one's attachment style and motives for engaging in a workplace romance should have a significant effect on job performance (i.e., task performance and OCBs), job attitudes (i.e., job satisfaction and affective organizational commitment), and intrinsic job motivation. Hypotheses were developed based on the notion that attachment style and workplace romance motives are probable indicators of how an employee will approach, experience, and remove themselves from interpersonal relationships, garner social resources, and process contextual demands, all of which are integral aspects of how work is conducted in modern organizations.

Secondary objectives of the present research were to (a) confirm the factor structure of a subset of Quinn's (1977) workplace romance motive components, (b) determine if the relationships between attachment style and employee work outcomes operate through workplace romance motives, and (c) compare how employee work outcomes vary when predicted by categorical versus continuous measures of attachment style and workplace romance motives. Workplace romance motives were expected to mediate the relationships between attachment style and employee work outcomes for three reasons. First, there is a

strong, conceptual link between attachment behavior (e.g., proximity maintenance) and the motives (e.g., a desire for sincere companionship) that individuals often report for engaging in workplace romances. Second, attachment style develops in infancy and may change gradually, but tends to remain relatively stable and persist into adulthood (Harms, 2011; Hazan & Shaver, 1987, 1990; Mikulincer & Nacheson, 1991). Thus, one's decision to pursue employment and become romantically involved with another individual naturally follows the development of attachment patterns. Third, research has found attachment style (e.g., Richards & Schat, 2011) and workplace romance motives (e.g., Pierce, 1998) to bear significant relationships with a majority of the current study's work outcomes. Workplace romance motives were therefore deemed likely enablers of the relationships between patterns of attachment behavior (i.e., attachment style) and the employee work outcomes examined in the present research.

Results Summary and Theoretical Framework

Results provided little support for the hypothesized relationships between attachment style and workplace romance motives, strong support for the hypothesized relationships between workplace romance motives and employee work outcomes, and moderate support for the hypothesized relationships between attachment style and employee work outcomes. Contrary to study hypotheses, attachment avoidance was positively associated with one's decision to engage in a workplace romance due to a love motive, and attachment anxiety was positively associated with one's decision to engage in a workplace romance due to an ego or a job-related motive. Attachment avoidance and the love and ego motives for engaging in a workplace romance generally displayed positive relationships with the study work outcomes. Attachment anxiety and the job-related motive for engaging in a workplace romance were

negatively associated with job performance, intrinsic job motivation, and OCB-Is but positively associated with affective organizational commitment and OCB-Os. On average and relative to other employee work outcomes, the attachment dimensions and workplace romance motives examined in the current research were most strongly associated with job performance, intrinsic job motivation, and OCB-Is.

The positive association between attachment avoidance and employees' decisions to engage in a workplace romance due to a love motive may have resulted because sincere, loving relationships help avoidant employees combat their compulsive self-reliance (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2005; Mikulincer et al., 2003). Specifically, sincere relationships are posited to create a situation in which avoidant employees may be able to overcome their distrust of others and benefit from the social and emotional support of a loving romantic partner, such as by developing a greater capacity for self-regulation. On the other hand, the positive relationships found between attachment anxiety and employees' decisions to engage in a workplace romance due to an ego or a job-related motive may have been a function of anxious/ambivalent employees' low self-image (Mikulincer & Nachschon, 1991; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2005; Mikulincer et al., 2003). That is, employees high in attachment anxiety may form romantic relationships with high performers, their superiors, or coworkers whom they believe can help them boost their ego or improve their self-image.

Collectively, self-reliance, self-regulation, social and emotional support, and self-image may also explain the observed relationships between (a) attachment style and workplace romance motives and (b) the employee work outcomes examined in the present research. That is, self-reliance, self-regulation, social and emotional support, and self-image are factors that can be used to make fundamental distinctions between the two categories of

predictors outlined above (i.e., attachment avoidance and the love and ego motives versus attachment anxiety and the job-related motive), which had opposing relationships with the current study's work outcomes. For example, employees high in attachment avoidance may be better performers than employees low in attachment avoidance because of their tendency to be self-reliant, whereas employees high in attachment anxiety may perform worse than employees low in attachment anxiety because of their tendency to be highly dependent on others. A detailed explanation of the relationships between (a) attachment style and workplace romance motives and (b) the study's work outcomes is presented after an in-depth discussion of the relationships between attachment style and workplace romance motives.

Attachment Style and Workplace Romance Motives

Attachment avoidance and workplace romance motives. Hypothesis 1 addressed the relationships between attachment avoidance and the love, ego, and job-related motives for engaging in a workplace romance. Employees high in attachment avoidance were posited to be more likely than employees low in attachment avoidance to engage a workplace romance due to a job-related motive, but less likely than employees low in attachment avoidance to engage in a workplace romance due to a love or an ego motive. Specifically, employees high in attachment avoidance were expected to only engage in workplace romances given the belief that participating in a workplace romance would lead to instrumental gains, such as fewer task assignments or increased power and prestige (i.e., components of the job-related motive). This rationale was based on past research, which suggests that individuals with an avoidant attachment style find work more important than love (Hazan & Shaver, 1990) and distrust and abstain from becoming involved in close interpersonal relationships (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2005; Mikulincer et al., 2003).

However, Hypothesis 1 was not supported. Attachment avoidance was positively related to one's decision to engage in a workplace romance due to a love motive and did not predict one's decision to engage in a workplace romance due to an ego or a job-related motive. Regarding the positive relationship between attachment avoidance and the love motive, it may be the case that employees high in attachment avoidance are uncomfortable relying on others, but are not necessarily opposed to engaging in sincere (i.e., love-driven) romantic relationships. Further, once trust is established, employees high in attachment avoidance may value sincere romantic relationships more than others.

For example, employees high in attachment avoidance might find that sincere romantic relationships form a situation in which they can comfortably rely on another individual, but that workplace romances formed around an ego or a job-related motive – which are likely less stable than those formed around a love motive – are not worth their time. That is, because romantic relationships often entail sacrificing some degree of control, employees high in attachment avoidance should be more concerned that their workplace romance is reliable. Workplace romances grounded in a love motive, rather than an ego or a job-related motive, have the greatest capacity to provide this source of reliability.

Additionally, all of the employees who participated in the present research were involved in ongoing workplace romances, and thus employees high in attachment avoidance, as with other participants, likely perceived the benefits of being in a workplace romance to outweigh the costs. One such benefit perceived by employees high in attachment avoidance might be that sincere, romantic partners can help them engage in effective self-regulation strategies, maintain social resources, and prevent burnout. For instance, employees high in attachment avoidance may experience above average feelings of accomplishment after

forming a trusting, romantic relationship with a coworker, especially given their tendency to distrust and avoid intimate relationships (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2005; Mikulincer et al., 2003). In turn, these feelings of accomplishment may translate into higher levels of job satisfaction, motivation, and performance when attributed to one's workplace romance.

In sum, employees high in attachment avoidance may prefer to become involved in a workplace romance due to a love motive, once they have established trust in a coworker to whom they are attracted, to combat their compulsive self-reliance (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2005; Mikulincer et al., 2003). Results from the current study's mediation analysis further suggest that being in a love-driven workplace romance permits attachment avoidance to indirectly increase employees' job performance, job satisfaction, intrinsic job motivation, and OCB-Is. In addition to results indicating that employees who are involved in a workplace romance and are high in attachment avoidance are better performers, attachment avoidance may have additional positive effects on employee work outcomes when workplace romances are grounded in love. Such relationships likely serve as a source of interpersonal energy and self-regulatory capacity for avoidant employees, who otherwise tend to refrain from relying on others (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2005; Mikulincer et al., 2003; Richards & Schat, 2011).

Attachment anxiety and workplace romance motives. Employees high in attachment anxiety were expected to report the opposite of employees high in attachment avoidance regarding their motives for engaging in workplace romances. Specifically, Hypothesis 2 posited that employees high in attachment anxiety would be more likely than employees low in attachment anxiety to engage in a workplace romance due to a love or an ego motive, but less likely than employees low in attachment anxiety to engage in a workplace romance due to a job-related motive. Research suggests that individuals with an

anxious/ambivalent attachment style find love more important than work (Hazan & Shaver, 1990) and become excessively concerned that others will not be available to them in times of need (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2005). Employees high in attachment anxiety were therefore expected to go to greater lengths than employees low in attachment anxiety to find a romantic partner at work *unless* this would reduce their status in the social networks upon which they rely for social and emotional support and approval. That is, employees high in attachment anxiety were expected to perceive participating in a workplace romance due to a job-related motive to involve potential negative consequences (e.g., a reduced support network) too great to warrant the pursuit of this type of relationship.

However, little support was received for Hypothesis 2, as attachment anxiety was positively related to one's decision to engage in a workplace romance due to an ego or a job-related motive, and did not predict one's decision to engage in a workplace romance due to a love motive. One potential explanation for the positive relationship between attachment anxiety and the job-related motive might be that anxiously attached employees attempt to boost their self-image by engaging in romantic relationships with high-performing or high-status employees. Put differently, employees high in attachment anxiety are more concerned with how they are perceived by others than being in a sincere, dependable relationship. Moreover, romantic flings – which are presumably associated with the ego motive for engaging in a workplace romance – are neither likely to improve anxiously attached employees' self-image nor satisfy anxiously attached employees' need for interpersonal proximity (Hazan & Shaver, 1990; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2005; Mikulincer et al., 2003).

The current research further suggests that the positive association between attachment anxiety and one's decision to engage in a workplace romance due to a job-related motive

may be particularly problematic for employers. Specifically, results from the current study's mediation analysis suggest that being in a workplace romance due to a job-related motive permits attachment anxiety to indirectly decrease employees' job performance, job satisfaction, intrinsic job motivation, and OCB-Is while also increasing their organizational commitment. One may speculate that employees who participate in workplace romances due to a job-related motive likely experience dissonance when engaging in intimate behaviors directed towards a coworker whom they do not feel or think about passionately. It is also likely that employees who engage in workplace romances due to a job-related motive do not receive the emotional or social support, or have the same positive interpersonal experiences, as do employees who engage in a workplace due to a love or an ego motive. Thus, job-motivated workplace romances provide an alternative path through which anxiously attached employees' interpersonal dependency and low self-image (Hazan & Shaver, 1990; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2005; Mikulincer et al., 2003) can decrease their job performance, intrinsic job motivation, etc.

Workplace Romance Motives and Employee Work Outcomes

The love motive and employee work outcomes. Component (a) of Hypotheses 3-7 addressed the relationships between the love motive for engaging in a workplace romance and the current study's work outcomes. Specifically, the extent to which employees reported being in a workplace romance due to a love motive was expected to be positively associated with job performance, job satisfaction, intrinsic job motivation, affective organizational commitment, OCB-Is, and OCB-Os. Hypotheses regarding love motive—employee work outcome relationships were largely based on the notion of affective spillover and Dillard's (1987) workplace romance motive research. Affective spillover refers to the potential for

emotions experienced in one life domain, such as one's personal life, to influence emotions experienced in another life domain, such as work (Pierce & Aguinis, 2003). In the current study, being in a love-driven workplace romance was expected to promote positive emotions among workplace romance participants, which were in turn expected to lead to more positive emotions at work. Experiencing positive emotions at work was further posited to facilitate increased employee motivation, performance, and positive job attitudes.

Results fully supported all hypotheses that addressed the relationships between the love motive and employee work outcomes except Hypotheses 5a (affective organizational commitment) and 7a (OCB), the latter of which received partial support. Consistent with Dillard (1987), engaging in a workplace romance due to a love motive was positively related to job performance. Moreover, the positive effect of the love motive on job performance ($\beta = .17$) was equal to the average of the effects reported by Dillard (1987) for women ($\beta = .20$) and men ($\beta = .14$). The love motive was also positively related to job satisfaction, intrinsic job motivation, and OCB-Is, providing support for the notion that sincere romantic relationships can facilitate positive job attitudes and higher levels of motivation and performance. However, engaging in a workplace romance due to a love motive did not predict affective organizational commitment or OCB-Os. This may be because employees who engage in love-motivated workplace romances devote too much time to relational demands to contribute to their organization beyond their traditional job tasks.

In addition to positive affective spillover, the observed relationships between the love motive and employee motivation and performance may also be explained using impression management theory, self-regulation theory, or conservation of resources theory. For example, Dillard (1987) suggested that the love motive might be positively related to job performance

because employees in love-driven workplace romances work harder to ensure they are perceived as competent despite their relational demands, or have more time and energy to devote to work once no longer searching for a romantic partner. The first example draws on impression management theory and self-regulation theory, and the second draws on conservation of resources theory. However, with respect to conservation of resources theory, additional social resources available to participants of love-motivated workplace romances are more likely to result from positive interpersonal experiences and receipt of social and emotional support – which should facilitate work-life balance – than not having to search for a significant other. Thus, the positive relationships between engaging in a workplace romance due to a love motive and employee work outcomes may best be explained by integrating conservation of resources theory with the notion of affective spillover.

The ego motive and employee work outcomes. Component (b) of Hypotheses 3-7 addressed the relationships between the ego motive for engaging in a workplace romance and the current study's work outcomes. As with the love motive, the extent to which employees reported being in a workplace romance due to an ego motive was expected to be positively associated with all employee work outcomes (i.e., job performance, job satisfaction, intrinsic job motivation, affective organizational commitment, OCB-Is, and OCB-Os). The hypothesized relationships between participating in a workplace romance due to an ego motive and employee work outcomes were based on the notion that employees who experience ego satisfaction as a result of their workplace romance will also experience positive emotions that carry over to the work environment. Again drawing on impression management theory, employees involved in an ego-motivated workplace romance were further posited to have an extensive desire to perform well when working for the same

organization as their romantic partner, but for the purpose of satisfying their ego rather than attaining increased job security or a more stable romantic relationship.

With the exception of the null relationship between the ego motive and job satisfaction (discounting Hypothesis 4b), the ego motive displayed the same pattern of relationships with employee work outcomes as the love motive. Specifically, the ego motive was positively related to job performance, intrinsic job motivation, and OCB-Is but did not demonstrate a significant relationship with job satisfaction, affective organizational commitment, or OCB-Os. Consistent with the love motive and a-priori theorizing, it is argued that the positive relationships between (a) the ego motive and (b) job performance, intrinsic job motivation, and OCB-Is resulted from a combination of positive affective spillover, impression management, enhanced self-regulation capacity, and heightened levels of social and emotional resources. Notably, the positive relationships between (a) the ego motive and (b) job performance, intrinsic job motivation, and OCB-Is were not as strong as the relationships between the love motive and these work outcomes. One potential explanation for these findings is that changes in employee performance that result from an employee's decision to participate in a workplace romance vary in magnitude and direction as a function of relationship sincerity. That is, lower levels of employee performance may result when the drivers of an employee's decision to participate in a workplace romance shift from sincere (love), to cordial (ego), to instrumental (job-related).

The job-related motive and employee work outcomes. Component (c) of Hypotheses 3-7 addressed the relationships between the job-related motive for engaging in a workplace romance and the current study's work outcomes. Opposite the love and ego motives, the extent to which employees reported being in a workplace romance due to a job-

related motive was expected to be negatively associated with all employee work outcomes (i.e., job performance, job satisfaction, intrinsic job motivation, affective organizational commitment, OCB-Is, and OCB-Os). Employees who engage in workplace romances due to a job-related motive are inherently dissatisfied with the status quo of their current job and are pursuing instrumental gains (e.g., increased flextime or a promotion) at the potential cost of another worker's wellbeing. This creates an ethical dilemma that may also lead to misalignment between employees' relationship-oriented affect (e.g., I do not have intimate feelings for my romantic partner), cognition (e.g., I do not like my romantic partner), and behavior (e.g., flirting, sex), fueling dissonance that depletes employees' social and emotional resources. Based on this rationale, as well as on research which suggests that merely participating in a workplace romance does not necessarily facilitate positive work outcomes (e.g., Pierce, 1998), it was posited that engaging in a workplace romance due to a job-related motive would be associated with lower levels of employee motivation, performance, and positive job attitudes.

Results indicated a negative relationship between (a) the job-related motive and (b) job performance, intrinsic job motivation, and OCB-Is, providing full support for Hypotheses 3c and 5c and partial support for Hypothesis 7c. However, the job-related motive was positively associated with affective organizational commitment (discounting Hypothesis 6c) and OCB-Os (limiting the support for Hypothesis 7c). One potential explanation for the positive relationships between (a) the job-related motive and (b) affective organizational commitment and OCB-Os is that employees who are concerned with getting ahead on the job to the extent that they engage in a romantic relationship with a coworker depend heavily on their organization to establish a positive self-image. It may also be that employees in job-

motivated workplace romances exhibit higher levels of OCB-Os because they experience dissonance over disingenuous motives towards self-advancement. That is, OCB-Os performed by employees in job-motivated workplace romances might be a form of compensatory behavior. Unfortunately for employers, OCB-Os are likely to be of little benefit when employees exhibit low levels of job performance. Moreover, the positive relationship between the job-related motive and affective organizational commitment implies that employees who participate in workplace romances for reasons that are negatively related to job performance, and which at face value have the greatest potential to result in sexual harassment, are more likely than other workplace romance participants to remain committed to their organization.

Notably, the job-related motive for engaging in a workplace romance exhibited the strongest relationship with job performance ($\beta = -.21$) and intrinsic job motivation ($\beta = -.29$) relative to the other workplace romance motives examined in the present research. Whereas the positive relationships between engaging in a workplace romance due to a love or an ego motive and job performance suggest that employers should not strictly prohibit romantic relationships between coworkers, the negative relationship between engaging in a workplace romance due to a job-related motive and job performance may have greater consequences for employees than employers. That is, although workplace romances grounded in job-related motives may lead to heightened liability concerns, the low frequency with which employees report engaging in workplace romances due to a job-related motive suggests that the aggregate effects of this type of relationship on organizational performance are not likely to prove problematic for employers. However, employees who engage in workplace romances due to a job-related motive might suffer negative employment and relational consequences as

a result of reduced task performance, visibly low levels of intrinsic job motivation, and a failure to lend a helping hand to others when doing so is not a formal job requirement (i.e., reduced OCB-Is).

It may also be the case that the negative relationships between (a) the job-related motive and (b) job performance, intrinsic job motivation, and OCB-Is resulted because unmotivated and poorly performing employees engage in job-motivated workplace romances to save their careers. Indeed, the temporal order of the job-related motive—employee work outcome relationships examined in the present research cannot be confirmed due to the study's cross-sectional design. Notably, however, job-motivated workplace romances may stem from *and* facilitate poor performance, as well as other negative work outcomes.

Attachment Style and Employee Work Outcomes

Attachment avoidance and employee work outcomes. Component (a) of Hypotheses 8-12 addressed the relationships between attachment avoidance and the current study's work outcomes. Specifically, attachment avoidance was expected to be negatively associated with all employee work outcomes (i.e., job performance, job satisfaction, intrinsic job motivation, affective organizational commitment, OCB-Is, and OCB-Os). The hypothesized relationships between attachment avoidance and employee work outcomes were based on research that suggests that individuals high in attachment avoidance are uncomfortable in and distrust close interpersonal relationships (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2005; Mikulincer et al., 2003) and have a tendency to become overly involved in their work (Hazan & Shaver, 1990). That is, attachment avoidance was deemed an obstacle to employee motivation, performance, and positive job attitudes due to the increasing rate at which organizations are structured around teamwork (Foley & Powell, 1999), which contradicts

avoidant employees' desire to abstain from close interpersonal interaction. Moreover, insecure (i.e., anxious and avoidant) individuals often struggle to employ effective coping mechanisms (Ronen & Mikulincer, 2012), suggesting that avoidant employees' tendency to become overly involved in their work may quickly result in burnout.

Results indicated that attachment avoidance was positively related to all employee work outcomes examined in the present research, contradicting the current study's hypotheses, and also findings of previous research. For instance, Wu and Parker (2017) found that attachment avoidance and anxiety were negatively related to proactive work behavior, and that attachment avoidance was negatively related to autonomous work motivation. Moreover, Richards and Schat (2011) observed negative relationships between employee levels of (a) attachment avoidance and anxiety and (b) affective organizational commitment and supervisor reports of employee OCB-I and OCB-Os. Lanciano and Zammuner (2014) and Ronen and Mikulincer (2012) further reported negative relationships between (a) attachment avoidance and anxiety and (b) job satisfaction.

However, there are several potential explanations for the present study's results. First, responses to all measures included in the current study were obtained using a self-report response format. Alternatively, Wu and Parker (2017) assessed proactive work behavior, and Richards and Schat (2011) measured OCB-I and OCB-Os, using supervisor respondents (i.e., dyads). Thus, employees high in attachment avoidance, who typically report choosing work success over relationship success (Hazan & Shaver, 1990), may perceive (a) that they are performing well when a third-party observer (e.g., one's supervisor) would disagree or (b) that the valence of their relationships with other workers does not matter as long as they are effectively completing their work activities. In short, it is possible that employees high in

attachment avoidance are actually better performers than employees low in attachment avoidance when performance is measured objectively.

It is also possible that employees high in attachment avoidance have difficulty recognizing when they are underperforming. For example, employees high in attachment avoidance might discount the importance of effective relational behaviors because they prefer not to rely on others (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2005; Mikulincer et al., 2003; Richards & Schat, 2011). Avoidant employees may therefore be particularly likely to develop misconceptions of their performance in team settings. For instance, an avoidant employee who works on a team might believe that they have performed just as well, if not at a higher level, if they quickly complete a team project without consulting their team members rather than keeping open lines of communication and working on the project collectively. In this scenario, the same objective outcome (i.e., project completion) is achieved, but team functioning might be inhibited due to negative emotions and interpersonal tension, leading to reduced individual, team, and ultimately organizational performance. Thus, there may be times when employees high in attachment avoidance believe that their tendency to be self-reliant (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2005; Mikulincer et al., 2003; Richards & Schat, 2011) makes them a better worker, but in reality this tendency detracts from goal attainment at the individual, team, and organizational levels.

The positive relationships between (a) attachment avoidance and (b) intrinsic job motivation, job satisfaction, and affective organizational commitment are perhaps easier to understand due to avoidant employees' tendency to become absorbed in their work and prefer work success to relationship success (Hazan & Shaver, 1990). Employees with an avoidant attachment style may go to greater lengths than those with an anxious/ambivalent or

secure attachment style to segregate their work life from their romantic life (Sumer & Knight, 2001), and may even use the former as an escape from the latter. In turn, employees high in attachment avoidance may experience relational issues without experiencing negative affective spillover in the work domain. Put differently, whereas Hazan and Shaver (1990) found that employees with an anxious/ambivalent attachment style believe that work interferes with relationships, employees high in attachment avoidance may use work as a means to avoid relationship conflict altogether. It follows that, when work is instrumental to achieving balance in a romantic relationship in particular or life in general, employees might be more satisfied with their job, motivated to work, and committed to their organization.

Attachment anxiety and employee work outcomes. Component (b) of Hypotheses 8-12 addressed the relationships between attachment anxiety and the current study's work outcomes. As with attachment avoidance, attachment anxiety was expected to be negatively associated with all employee work outcomes (i.e., job performance, job satisfaction, intrinsic job motivation, affective organizational commitment, OCB-Is, and OCB-Os). The hypothesized relationships between attachment anxiety and employee work outcomes were based on the notion that employees' high in attachment anxiety tend to perceive themselves negatively (Mikulincer & Nachshon, 1991), find that love interferes with work, are overly concerned with achieving approval from others, and slack off upon achieving approval (Hazan & Shaver, 1990). Put simply, whereas employees high in attachment avoidance were expected to be less productive due to their tendency to abstain from close interpersonal interaction, employees high in attachment anxiety were expected to become preoccupied with relationships and the views of others to the extent that they would consistently experience high levels of stress and struggle to accomplish work tasks.

Collectively, the relationships between attachment anxiety and the study's work outcomes demonstrated greater alignment with study hypotheses than attachment avoidance. Specifically, attachment anxiety was negatively related to job performance and OCB-Is, providing full and partial support for Hypotheses 8b and 12b, respectively. However, attachment anxiety was positively related to affective organizational commitment and OCB-Os, and was not associated with job satisfaction or intrinsic job motivation.

The negative relationship between attachment anxiety and OCB-Is aligns with the argument presented by Richards and Schat (2011) that, "anxious individuals tend to display dysfunctional interaction patterns by being less likely to display pro-social behavior" (p. 179). Moreover, anxiously attached individuals commonly have a negative self-image that translates into high interpersonal dependency (Sumer & Knight, 2001), suggesting that they may struggle to make work decisions independently. This dependency also implies low levels of social resources, offering a potential explanation for why OCB-Is (e.g., individual-directed instrumental helping behaviors) were found to be limited among employees high in attachment anxiety, both in the current study and in others (Geller & Bamberger, 2009).

However, results from the current study suggest that employees high in attachment anxiety may display higher levels of commitment to their organization, and perform more extra-role behaviors in favor of their organization (i.e., OCB-Os), than employees low in this attachment dimension. The positive relationships between (a) attachment anxiety and (b) affective organizational commitment and OCB-Os found in the present research were unexpected, but again, are perhaps understandable. An employee who is romantically involved with a member of their organization, and who has a tendency to become overly concerned that others will not be available to them in times of need (Hazan & Shaver, 1990),

may become emotionally attached to their organization. That is, employees who are involved in a workplace romance and are high in attachment anxiety may believe that separating themselves from their organization would be equivalent to separating themselves from their romantic relationship. Thus, employees high in attachment anxiety might project their relationship dependency onto their organization. In turn, this could explain why employees high in attachment anxiety would be more likely than employees low in attachment anxiety to engage in OCB-Os. Specifically, employees high in attachment anxiety may believe that going above and beyond for their organization will increase their job security, and therefore the stability of their workplace romance.

As with the ego and job-related motives for engaging in a workplace romance, the current research found no relationship between attachment anxiety and job satisfaction. Attachment anxiety also failed to predict intrinsic job motivation. Whereas previous studies have found a negative relationship between attachment anxiety and job satisfaction (e.g., Lanciano & Zammuner, 2014), other studies (e.g., Tziner et al., 2014) have failed observe a relationship between these constructs. The current study lends support to the notion that there is no appreciable relationship between attachment anxiety and job satisfaction. This may be because employees high in attachment anxiety, who tend to choose relationship success over work success (Hazan & Shaver, 1990), might not recognize work as a potential source of satisfaction (Tziner et al., 2014). Similarly, employees high in attachment anxiety may not believe that work has the capacity to be inherently motivating. Other factors not accounted for in the present research, such as employees' fit with their job, organization, or occupation, might also be confounding the current study's results pertaining to the relationships between (a) attachment anxiety and (b) job satisfaction and intrinsic job motivation.

Practical Implications

Given that the workplace has essentially become “the new singles bar” (Kolesnikova & Analoui, 2013, p. 37), far greater concern should be given to developing managers’ sensitivity to the consequences likely to result from different types of workplace romances. In addition to results from the current study, findings illustrating that work and relationship outcomes may be influenced by the degree of alignment between individuals’ attachment styles (Ben-Ari & Lavee, 2005) and motives for engaging in workplace romances (Anderson & Fisher, 1991; Dillard, 1987; Dillard et al., 1994; Quinn, 1977) make this abundantly clear. For example, if an employee with an avoidant attachment style and an employee with an anxious/ambivalent attachment style engage in a romantic relationship, but the former individual does so to get ahead on the job while the latter does so with the goal of gaining a long-term companion, negative relational and work outcomes are likely to result. Knowledge of the relationships between attachment style and motives for engaging in workplace romances should therefore make it a less ambiguous task for managers and employees to recognize when to participate – or recommend that other romantically involved individuals participate – in counseling or health and wellness programs.

While approaches to workplace romance intervention have been highly debated, it is largely agreed upon that an organization’s failure to recognize the potential impact of workplace romances is a costly mistake (Boyd, 2010; Kolesnikova & Analoui, 2013; Lickey, Berry, & Whelan-Berry, 2009). Collectively, the literature on workplace romances contends that organizations should employ some type of workplace romance policy (Pierce & Aguinis, 2009), with recommendations ranging from the absolute barring of workplace romances (e.g., Tyler, 2008) to their encouragement (e.g., Boyd, 2010). Perspectives tend to diverge in

that workplace romances are either viewed as a risk or an opportunity, with researchers who argue either side of this dichotomy often citing the same consequences (e.g., changes in fairness perceptions, productivity, and information sharing) as likely to result from enacting a workplace romance policy. The dynamic nature of romantic relationships, however, suggests that employers must account for both the positive and negative consequences of workplace romances before deciding upon how they should be treated (Kolesnikova & Analoui, 2013).

Workplace romance policies should also incorporate organizational values, be supported by the organization's performance management system (Pierce & Aguinis, 2009), and be highlighted during employee orientation (Lickey et al., 2009). Put differently, employers must stop viewing intimacy in the workplace solely as a potential liability and shift their focus to consider how workplace romances influence their overall business strategy. For instance, "sexual harassment training has evolved to become an ornate administrative display which has the appearance of concern to protect employees from harm, but which at the core is expedient in that it mitigates employer liabilities in any future court cases" (Boyd, 2010, p. 332). This not only leaves managers ill-equipped to resolve the complex interpersonal dilemmas that may result from dissolved workplace romances, but it also implies that the organization is more concerned about protecting itself than its employees. Even more unfortunate is that sexual harassment training likely comprises the total amount of training, if any, that most managers receive in dealing with intimate workplace relationships.

Whereas the content of workplace romance policies, how those policies are justified, and how they are enforced are important topics regarding the practical management of workplace romances, more proactive measures must also be considered. For example,

recruitment outcomes (e.g., organizational attractiveness perceptions) may be directly impacted by common knowledge of how a company has historically managed workplace romances. Moreover, United States companies that operate internationally will be putting themselves at a disadvantage if they fail to account for how employees in countries with more collectivist values are likely to react to organizational involvement in workplace romances. Organizations that operate globally are therefore even more likely to benefit from a well-communicated, clearly justified workplace romance policy. In turn, contemplating the nature of employees' romantic interactions – as well as the motives underlying the initial formation of workplace romances – should facilitate the construction of workplace romance policies that are perceived of as fair, increase productivity, reduce litigation concerns, and ultimately align with organizational objectives.

Although the individualized assessment of workplace romances may not be possible, the evidence of the relationships between workplace romance motives, attachment style, and employee work outcomes found in the current research should help managers address interpersonal relationship concerns while minimizing employee backlash. It may even be reasonable to have employees who have had rewarding workplace romances serve as mentors for those who are new to the dating scene at their organization (Pierce & Aguinis, 2009). The point with which employers must walk away, however, is that workplace romances cannot be eliminated – even with policies that prohibit them. Sexual attraction and love are biologically (Birnbaum, 2015; Diamond & Dickenson, 2012) and culturally (e.g., Boyd, 2010) engrained in human beings, and policies addressing workplace romances will only be effective if they are flexible enough (i.e., account for situational differences) to respect this. A majority of

workplace romances may further benefit employers via increased employee performance, higher levels of employee motivation, and more positive employee job attitudes.

Limitations

The use of a convenience sample and self-report measures are the primary limitations of the present research, the latter of which likely resulted in common method variance. However, recent research has called for a greater understanding of how workplace romances impact relational and work outcomes as perceived by workplace romance participants (Cole, 2009; Riach & Wilson, 2007), and the use of self-report measures may be justified by the fact that most of the outcomes included in the current study were either attitude- or perception-based. Data were nonetheless cross-sectional and retrieved from a sample that consisted solely of individuals who are currently involved in workplace romances, which limits the generalizability of study results and the inferences that can be made about causality. Also, the effect sizes for the current study's hypothesized relationships were small yet statistically significant, making it difficult to interpret their practical significance.

Another limitation of the present research is that the components of workplace romance motives outlined by Quinn (1977) might be outdated (Wilson, 2015). Notably, workplace romance motives were originally employed to gauge third party, rather than first person, perceptions of why employees engage in workplace romances (Quinn, 1977). Additionally, many of the current study's hypotheses were in part based on the notion of affective spillover, on which no data were collected.

Lastly, no data were collected on the industries and occupations in which participants were employed when they completed the study survey. This again limits the generalizability of the current study's findings. Moreover, although an attempt was made to control for

extraneous factors such as disparities in organizational status between study participants and their romantic partners, many confounds recognized in the workplace romance and attachment literatures were inevitably overlooked. The sensitive nature of the information sought in the present research may also have resulted in socially desirable responding. Fortunately, AMT survey software likely provided the anonymity needed to attain accurate responses.

Directions for Future Research

Results from the present study and gaps in the workplace romance, attachment, and organizational behavior literatures point to several future research opportunities. For instance, research has previously examined how attachment style relates to work-life balance (Sumer & Knight, 2001), but has not investigated the potential link between workplace romance motives and work-life balance. Future research might study whether (a) there is a direct relationship between workplace romance motives and work-life balance or conflict and (b) whether workplace romance motives mediate the relationship between attachment style and work-life balance or conflict.

Network studies relating to attachment and workplace romances might also be warranted. For example, networks might be used to examine whether employee intimacy or attractiveness networks influence work outcomes at the individual, team, and organizational levels. Employees' meta-perceptions of their attractiveness and intimacy networks may also have a substantial effect on how they approach and work with others in the workplace. This in turn points to the need to examine how intimacy and attraction in general, and romance in particular, influence work outcomes at the team level.

Finally, qualitative and longitudinal research on workplace romances is needed, with qualitative research being particularly important to understanding whether individuals' motives for engaging in, and general perceptions of, workplace romances can still be effectively assessed using Quinn's (1977) workplace romance motive framework. While the current study found a subset of Quinn's (1977) workplace romance motives to load onto a single factor, the fundamental reasons driving employees' decisions to engage in workplace romances have likely changed over the last 40 years. How society views workplace romances is also likely to have changed over the past four decades.

Conclusion

In the present research, employee attachment style and workplace romance motives were found to predict intrinsic job motivation, job satisfaction, affective organizational commitment, and multiple dimensions of job performance. Attachment style was also found to relate to employee work outcomes indirectly, through workplace romance motives. Results indicated that employees are likely to benefit from love- and ego-driven workplace romances – which were found to be the most prevalent types of workplace romances – in the form of increased employee motivation and performance. Workplace romances formed due to job-related motives were associated with decreased employee motivation and performance and an increase in employees' commitment to their organization. Attachment avoidance positively predicted employee motivation, performance, and job attitudes, and attachment anxiety displayed a similar pattern of relationships with the study's work outcomes relative to the job-related motive for engaging in a workplace romance. Collectively, results suggest that the majority of workplace romances are likely to positively contribute to organizational performance. In turn, it is argued that workplace romance policies should be lenient, well

communicated, and involve individualized consideration of romantic relationship dynamics to the extent possible.

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Table 1
Scale Reliabilities

| Scale | α | α (standardized items) | n of items |
|--------------------------|----------|-------------------------------|--------------|
| Attachment anxiety | .95 | .95 | 18 |
| Attachment avoidance | .94 | .94 | 18 |
| Love motive | .85 | .86 | 4 |
| Ego motive | .82 | .82 | 4 |
| Job-related motive | .90 | .91 | 4 |
| Job performance | .84 | .84 | 3 |
| Job satisfaction | .87 | .88 | 3 |
| Intrinsic job motivation | .84 | .86 | 6 |
| Affective org commitment | .89 | .89 | 6 |
| OCB-I | .89 | .89 | 7 |
| OCB-O | .72 | .72 | 6 |

Note. $n = 756$; OCB-I = organizational citizenship behavior directed toward and individual; OCB-O = organizational citizenship behavior directed toward the organization

Table 2

Frequencies and Percentages for Forced-Choice Workplace Romance Motive Items

| | <i>n</i> | Percent |
|--------------------|----------|---------|
| Love motive | 448 | 59.3% |
| Ego motive | 244 | 32.3% |
| Job-related motive | 64 | 8.5% |

Table 3
Frequencies and Percentages for Forced-Choice Attachment Style Items

| | <i>n</i> | Percent |
|----------|----------|---------|
| Anxious | 116 | 15.3% |
| Avoidant | 190 | 25.1% |
| Secure | 450 | 59.5% |

Table 4
Frequencies and Percentages for Forced-Choice Workplace Romance Motive Items by Forced-Choice Attachment Style Items

| | Anxious | | Avoidant | | Secure | |
|--------------------|----------|---------|----------|---------|----------|---------|
| | <i>n</i> | Percent | <i>n</i> | Percent | <i>n</i> | Percent |
| Love motive | 56 | 7.4% | 93 | 12.3% | 299 | 39.6% |
| Ego motive | 37 | 4.9% | 87 | 11.5% | 120 | 15.9% |
| Job-related motive | 23 | 3.0% | 10 | 1.3% | 31 | 4.1% |

ADULT ATTACHMENT AND WORKPLACE ROMANCE MOTIVES

Table 5
Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations Among Study Variables

| Variable | M | SD | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 |
|------------------------------|-------|------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|------|--------|-------|-------|-------|--------|
| 1. Age (self) | 32.04 | 9.06 | (na) | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2. Age (partner) | 32.32 | 9.26 | .70** | (na) | | | | | | | | | |
| 3. Gender (self) | 1.50 | 0.50 | -.03 | .28** | (na) | | | | | | | | |
| 4. Gender (partner) | 1.52 | 0.50 | .03 | -.30** | -.90** | (na) | | | | | | | |
| 5. Partner org status | 1.45 | 0.50 | .02 | -.01 | .00 | -.01 | (na) | | | | | | |
| 6. Same sex couple | 1.05 | 0.22 | .01 | .03 | .08* | .07 | -.04 | (na) | | | | | |
| 7. Marital status | 1.68 | 0.47 | -.24** | -.19** | -.01 | .04 | .09* | .02 | (na) | | | | |
| 8. Years relationship | 3.37 | 6.65 | .17** | .18** | .04 | -.07* | -.07 | .07 | -.30** | (na) | | | |
| 9. Years employment | 6.08 | 8.43 | .27** | .24** | .01 | -.01 | -.12** | .00 | -.19** | .57** | (na) | | |
| 10. Fulltime-parttime | 1.10 | 0.31 | -.10** | -.06 | .09** | -.10** | -.06 | .04 | .00 | .00 | -.02 | (na) | |
| 11. Permanent-temporary | 1.07 | 0.25 | -.13** | -.10** | .05 | -.05 | -.08* | .01 | .08* | -.05 | -.08* | .16** | (na) |
| 12. Public-private | 1.58 | 0.50 | .07* | .05 | -.04 | .04 | .06 | -.04 | .00 | -.01 | .02 | -.05 | -.05 |
| 13. Attachment anxiety | 3.20 | 1.21 | -.10** | -.08* | -.04 | .03 | -.12** | -.02 | .07 | -.01 | .06 | .11** | .07 |
| 14. Attachment avoidance | 4.47 | 0.60 | .05 | .06 | .07* | -.08* | -.03 | -.06 | -.03 | .08* | .06 | -.01 | -.07 |
| 15. Love motive | 3.81 | 0.97 | .01 | .05 | .18** | -.18** | .08* | -.07 | -.06 | .07 | -.04 | -.02 | -.06 |
| 16. Ego motive | 3.29 | 0.99 | .00 | -.01 | -.09* | .06 | -.10** | .02 | .02 | -.04 | .03 | -.01 | -.06 |
| 17. Job-related motive | 1.86 | 1.09 | -.12** | -.08* | -.09* | .08* | -.25** | .07* | -.07 | .14** | .14** | .02 | .10** |
| 18. Job performance | 3.97 | 0.73 | .11** | .08* | .11** | -.11** | .12** | -.02 | .02 | .00 | .00 | -.06 | -.12** |
| 19. Job satisfaction | 4.48 | 0.70 | .08* | .06 | -.01 | -.01 | -.05 | -.02 | -.09* | .12** | .07* | -.03 | -.03 |
| 20. Intrinsic job motivation | 5.45 | 1.05 | .16** | .15** | .19** | -.19** | .08* | -.04 | .02 | .00 | -.06 | -.04 | -.16** |
| 21. Affective org commitment | 3.88 | 0.66 | .04 | -.02 | -.09* | .10** | -.10** | .01 | -.05 | .12** | .14** | -.06 | .06 |
| 22. OCB-I | 3.69 | 0.76 | .10** | .10** | .16** | -.16** | -.01 | -.02 | -.03 | .02 | .02 | -.04 | -.17** |
| 23. OCB-O | 3.05 | 0.48 | -.04 | -.05 | -.03 | .05 | -.04 | -.04 | -.04 | .05 | .07* | -.09* | -.02 |

Note. *n* ranged from 748 to 756. Gender is coded 1 for male and 2 for female; Partner org status is coded 1 for unequal in seniority and 2 for equal in seniority; Same sex couple is coded 1 for opposite sex and 2 for same sex. Fulltime-parttime is coded 1 for fulltime employment and 2 for parttime employment; Permanent-temporary is coded 1 for permanent employment and 2 for temporary employment; Public-private is coded 1 for public sector employment and 2 for private sector employment; OCB-I = organizational citizenship behaviors directed at individuals; OCB-O = organizational citizenship behaviors directed at the organization; na = not available. Alpha coefficients are reported in parentheses along the diagonal

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

(Continued)

ADULT ATTACHMENT AND WORKPLACE ROMANCE MOTIVES

| Variable | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 | 19 | 20 | 21 | 22 | 23 |
|------------------------------|--------|--------|-------|-------|-------|--------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| 1. Age (self) | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2. Age (partner) | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 3. Gender (self) | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 4. Gender (partner) | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 5. Partner org status | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 6. Same sex couple | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 7. Marital status | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 8. Years relationship | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 9. Years employment | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 10. Fulltime-parttime | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 11. Permanent-temporary | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 12. Public-private | (na) | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 13. Attachment anxiety | -.12** | (.95) | | | | | | | | | | |
| 14. Attachment avoidance | .01 | .11** | (.94) | | | | | | | | | |
| 15. Love motive | .00 | .01 | .41** | (.86) | | | | | | | | |
| 16. Ego motive | -.03 | .12** | .08* | -.02 | (.82) | | | | | | | |
| 17. Job-related motive | -.06 | .30** | .03 | -.02 | .27** | (.91) | | | | | | |
| 18. Job performance | .05 | -.22** | .23** | .26** | .05 | -.26** | (.84) | | | | | |
| 19. Job satisfaction | .04 | .01 | .26** | .18** | .03 | .04 | .29** | (.89) | | | | |
| 20. Intrinsic job motivation | .04 | -.03 | .33** | .30** | .02 | -.30** | .55** | .27** | (.72) | | | |
| 21. Affective org commitment | -.01 | .22** | .10** | -.02 | .04 | .23** | -.08* | .19** | .00 | (.86) | | |
| 22. OCB-I | .02 | -.10** | .31** | .28** | .11** | -.13** | .52** | .30** | .55** | -.02 | (.88) | |
| 23. OCB-O | .02 | .19** | .13** | .03 | .10** | .16** | .14** | .11** | .14** | .21** | .19** | (.89) |

Table 6
Results from Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Workplace Romance Motive Scales

| Predictor | Love motive | Ego motive | Job-related motive |
|-------------------------|-------------|------------|--------------------|
| Step 1 | | | |
| Age (self) | .04 | -.01 | -.20*** |
| Age (partner) | -.04 | .02 | .06 |
| Gender (self) | .22* | -.22* | -.15 |
| Gender (partner) | .01 | -.14 | -.03 |
| Partner org status | .06 | -.10** | -.21*** |
| Same sex couple | -.09* | .04 | .07* |
| Marital status | -.04 | .03 | -.05 |
| Years relationship | .13** | -.08 | .07 |
| Years employment | -.12* | .07 | .12** |
| Fulltime-parttime | -.03 | -.01 | -.02 |
| Permanent-temporary | -.05 | -.06 | .08* |
| Public-private | .00 | -.04 | -.03 |
| R^2 for Step 1 | .07*** | .03* | .13*** |
| Step 2 | | | |
| Age (self) | .02 | -.01 | -.18*** |
| Age (partner) | -.03 | .02 | .06 |
| Gender (self) | .18* | -.21* | -.12 |
| Gender (partner) | .01 | -.14 | -.01 |
| Partner org status | .07* | -.09* | -.19*** |
| Same sex couple | -.06 | .05 | .08* |
| Marital status | -.04 | .02 | -.06 |
| Years relationship | .10* | -.08 | .08 |
| Years employment | -.12** | .05 | .09* |
| Fulltime-parttime | -.02 | -.02 | -.05 |
| Permanent-temporary | -.03 | -.06 | .08* |
| Public-private | .00 | -.03 | .00 |
| Attachment anxiety | -.02 | .10** | .26*** |
| Attachment avoidance | .40*** | .07 | .00 |
| ΔR^2 for Step 2 | .15*** | .02** | .06*** |

Note. $n = 748$; all values are betas

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Table 7

Results from Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Work Outcomes (Continued on Next Page)

| Predictor | Job performance | Job satisfaction | Intrinsic job motivation | Affective org commitment | OCB-I | OCB-O |
|----------------------------|-----------------|------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|---------|---------|
| Step 1 | | | | | | |
| Age (self) | .18** | .05 | .21*** | .03 | .15** | -.08 |
| Age (partner) | -.09 | .00 | -.04 | -.05 | -.09 | -.01 |
| Gender (self) | .11 | -.01 | .18* | .03 | .13 | .10 |
| Gender (partner) | -.05 | -.01 | -.04 | .12 | -.08 | .13 |
| Partner org status | .09* | -.05 | .04 | -.08* | -.04 | -.04 |
| Same sex couple | -.02 | -.02 | -.05 | -.01 | -.03 | -.06 |
| Marital status | .05 | -.04 | .07 | -.02 | .01 | -.04 |
| Years relationship | .01 | .11* | .06 | .08 | .01 | .02 |
| Years employment | -.02 | -.01 | -.14** | .09* | -.02 | .07 |
| Fulltime-parttime | -.04 | -.03 | -.01 | -.06 | -.01 | -.08* |
| Permanent-temporary | -.10** | -.01 | -.15*** | .08* | -.17*** | -.01 |
| Public-private | .04 | .04 | .03 | .00 | .02 | .02 |
| R ² for Step 1 | .06*** | .03 | .11*** | .05*** | .07*** | .03 |
| Step 2 | | | | | | |
| Age (self) | .14** | .03 | .19*** | .04 | .12* | -.07 |
| Age (partner) | -.09 | .00 | -.03 | -.04 | -.08 | -.01 |
| Gender (self) | .06 | -.03 | .15 | .05 | .08 | .11 |
| Gender (partner) | -.06 | -.01 | -.04 | .14 | -.09 | .15 |
| Partner org status | .08* | -.04 | .05 | -.06 | -.04 | -.01 |
| Same sex couple | .00 | .00 | -.03 | .00 | -.01 | -.05 |
| Marital status | .06 | -.04 | .07 | -.03 | .02 | -.06 |
| Years relationship | -.02 | .09* | .04 | .08 | -.02 | .02 |
| Years employment | .01 | -.01 | -.14** | .07 | -.01 | .05 |
| Fulltime-parttime | -.02 | -.03 | .00 | -.08* | .00 | -.10** |
| Permanent-temporary | -.08* | .01 | -.13*** | .08 | -.15*** | -.01 |
| Public-private | .02 | .04 | .03 | .02 | .00 | .04 |
| Attachment anxiety | -.23*** | -.01 | -.02 | .21*** | -.12** | .18*** |
| Attachment avoidance | .25*** | .25*** | .31*** | .08* | .30*** | .11** |
| ΔR ² for Step 2 | .10*** | .06*** | .09*** | .05*** | .09*** | .05*** |
| Step 3 | | | | | | |
| Age (self) | .10* | .03 | .14** | .07 | .10 | -.05 |
| Age (partner) | -.07 | .00 | -.01 | -.05 | -.07 | -.02 |
| Gender (self) | .03 | -.04 | .11 | .07 | .07 | .14 |
| Gender (partner) | -.05 | -.01 | -.04 | .13 | -.07 | .16 |
| Partner org status | .04 | -.05 | -.01 | -.03 | -.07 | .01 |
| Same sex couple | .02 | .00 | .00 | -.02 | .01 | -.06 |
| Marital status | .05 | -.03 | .06 | -.02 | .02 | -.05 |
| Years relationship | -.01 | .08 | .05 | .07 | -.01 | .02 |
| Years employment | .04 | .00 | -.10* | .05 | .02 | .03 |
| Fulltime-parttime | -.02 | -.03 | -.01 | -.08* | .00 | -.09* |
| Permanent-temporary | -.05 | .01 | -.10** | .07 | -.12*** | -.02 |
| Public-private | .02 | .04 | .03 | .02 | .01 | .04 |
| Attachment anxiety | -.19*** | -.01 | .05 | .17*** | -.10** | 0.16*** |
| Attachment avoidance | .17*** | .21*** | .24*** | .10* | .23*** | 0.11** |
| Love motive | .17*** | .09* | .15*** | -.04 | .17*** | -.01 |
| Ego motive | .13*** | .01 | .08* | -.03 | .15*** | .05 |
| Job-related motive | -.21*** | .01 | -.29*** | .15*** | -.13** | 0.08* |
| ΔR ² for Step 3 | .06*** | .01 | .08*** | .02** | .05*** | .01* |

Table 7 (Continued)

Note. $n = 748$; all values are betas; OCB-I = organizational citizenship behavior directed toward and individual; OCB-O = organizational citizenship behavior directed toward the organization

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Table 8

Total Indirect Effects of Attachment Anxiety and Attachment Avoidance on Work Outcomes

| Dependent Variables | Independent Variables | | | |
|--------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|----------------------|-----------------------|
| | Attachment anxiety | | Attachment avoidance | |
| | Indirect effects | 95% CI _{BCA} | Indirect effects | 95% CI _{BCA} |
| Job performance | -.03 | [-.06, .00] | .07 | [-.03, .11] |
| Job satisfaction | .01 | [-.02, .04] | .04 | [.00, .08] |
| Intrinsic job motivation | -.06 | [-.09, -.02] | .06 | [.01, .10] |
| Affective org commitment | .04 | [.01, .07] | -.01 | [-.05, .03] |
| OCB-I | -.01 | [-.04, .03] | .07 | [.04, .11] |
| OCB-O | .03 | [.00, .06] | .00 | [-.03, .04] |

Note. n = 748; all 3 mediators were entered simultaneously with all 12 covariates for each DV; 95% CI_{BCA} = bias-corrected accelerated bootstrapped 95% confidence intervals resulting from 10,000 bootstrapped samples; Indirect effects are completely standardized; bold results had a 95% CI_{BCA} that did not span 0

Table 9

Specific Indirect Effects of Attachment Anxiety and Attachment Avoidance on Work Outcomes

| Dependent Variables | Independent Variables | | | |
|---|-----------------------|-----------------------|----------------------|-----------------------|
| | Attachment anxiety | | Attachment avoidance | |
| | Indirect effects | 95% CI _{BCA} | Indirect effects | 95% CI _{BCA} |
| <i>Job performance</i> | | | | |
| Specific indirect effect → love motive | .01 | [-.01, .03] | .07 | [.04, .11] |
| Specific indirect effect → ego motive | .02 | [.00, .03] | .01 | [.00, .02] |
| Specific indirect effect → job-related motive | -.05 | [-.08, -.03] | -.01 | [-.04, .01] |
| <i>Job satisfaction</i> | | | | |
| Specific indirect effect → love motive | .01 | [-.01, .02] | .04 | [.00, .08] |
| Specific indirect effect → ego motive | .00 | [.00, .01] | .00 | [-.01, .01] |
| Specific indirect effect → job-related motive | .00 | [-.02, .03] | .00 | [.00, .01] |
| <i>Intrinsic job motivation</i> | | | | |
| Specific indirect effect → love motive | .01 | [-.01, .03] | .06 | [.03, .10] |
| Specific indirect effect → ego motive | .01 | [.00, .03] | .01 | [.00, .02] |
| Specific indirect effect → job-related motive | -.08 | [-.11, -.05] | -.01 | [-.04, .02] |
| <i>Affective org commitment</i> | | | | |
| Specific indirect effect → love motive | .00 | [.00, .00] | -.02 | [-.05, .02] |
| Specific indirect effect → ego motive | .00 | [-.01, .01] | .00 | [-.01, .00] |
| Specific indirect effect → job-related motive | .04 | [.01, .07] | .00 | [-.01, .03] |
| <i>OCB-I</i> | | | | |
| Specific indirect effect → love motive | .01 | [-.01, .03] | .07 | [.03, .11] |
| Specific indirect effect → ego motive | .02 | [.01, .04] | .01 | [.00, .03] |
| Specific indirect effect → job-related motive | -.03 | [-.06, -.01] | -.01 | [-.02, .01] |
| <i>OCB-O</i> | | | | |
| Specific indirect effect → love motive | .00 | [.00, .01] | -.01 | [-.04, .03] |
| Specific indirect effect → ego motive | .01 | [.00, .02] | .00 | [.00, .01] |
| Specific indirect effect → job-related motive | .02 | [-.01, .05] | .00 | [-.01, .02] |

Note. $n = 748$; all 3 mediators were entered simultaneously with all 12 covariates for each DV 95% CI_{BCA} = bias-corrected accelerated bootstrapped 95% confidence intervals resulting from 10,000 bootstrapped samples; indirect effects are completely standardized; bold results had a 95% CI_{BCA} that did not span 0

Table 10

Results from Multinomial Logistic Regression Analysis of Effects of Forced-Choice Attachment Style Decisions on Forced-Choice Workplace Romance Motive Decisions

| | Ego motive | | | Job-related motive | | |
|---------------------|-------------|-----------------|--------------|--------------------|-----------------|--------------|
| | <i>B</i> | Exp(<i>B</i>) | 95% CI | <i>B</i> | Exp(<i>B</i>) | 95% CI |
| Control variables | | | | | | |
| Age (self) | .00 | 1.00 | [.97, 1.02] | -.06 | .94 | [.89, .99] |
| Age (partner) | .00 | 1.00 | [.97, 1.03] | .02 | 1.02 | [.98, 1.07] |
| Gender (self) | -.72 | .49 | [.22, 1.08] | -.26 | .77 | [.24, 2.51] |
| Gender (partner) | -.17 | .85 | [.38, 1.89] | .71 | 2.03 | [.60, 6.85] |
| Partner org status | -.39 | .68 | [.49, .95] | -1.61 | .20 | [.10, .42] |
| Same sex couple | .84 | 2.31 | [1.04, 5.12] | 1.18 | 3.27 | [.99, 10.79] |
| Marital status | .03 | 1.03 | [.70, 1.52] | -.59 | .56 | [.03, 1.05] |
| Years relationship | -.05 | .95 | [.91, .99] | .02 | 1.02 | [.98, 1.06] |
| Years employment | .03 | 1.03 | [1.00, 1.05] | .01 | 1.01 | [.97, 1.05] |
| Fulltime-parttime | .37 | 1.44 | [.85, 2.44] | -1.03 | .36 | [.11, 1.14] |
| Permanent-temporary | .14 | 1.15 | [.58, 2.27] | 1.32 | 3.74 | [1.51, 9.27] |
| Public-private | -.14 | .87 | [.62, 1.21] | -.12 | .89 | [.49, 1.60] |
| Predictor | | | | | | |
| Anxious/ambivalent | .39 | 1.48 | [.91, 2.40] | 1.31 | 3.70 | [1.87, 7.33] |
| Avoidant | .91 | 2.49 | [1.71, 3.63] | .38 | 1.46 | [.66, 3.21] |

Note. $n = 748$; DVs (workplace romance motive categories) are contrasted with the the love motive; coefficients for attachment style are contrasted with secure attachment; bold results had a 95% CI that did not span 1

Table 11

Results from Multinomial Logistic Regression Analysis of Effects of Continuous Attachment Dimensions on Forced-Choice Workplace Romance Motive Decisions

| | Ego motive | | | Job-related motive | | |
|--------------------------|-------------|-----------------|--------------|--------------------|-----------------|---------------|
| | <i>B</i> | Exp(<i>B</i>) | 95% CI | <i>B</i> | Exp(<i>B</i>) | 95% CI |
| Control variables | | | | | | |
| Age (self) | .00 | 1.00 | [.97, 1.03] | -.06 | .94 | [.90, .99] |
| Age (partner) | .00 | 1.00 | [.97, 1.03] | .03 | 1.03 | [.98, 1.07] |
| Gender (self) | -.63 | .53 | [.24, 1.20] | -.15 | .86 | [.27, 2.78] |
| Gender (partner) | -.22 | .80 | [.35, 1.81] | .73 | 2.07 | [.62, 6.89] |
| Partner org status | -.43 | .65 | [.47, .91] | -1.60 | .20 | [.09, .43] |
| Same sex couple | .68 | 1.97 | [.88, 4.23] | 1.26 | 3.51 | [1.08, 11.43] |
| Marital status | .08 | 1.09 | [.73, 1.61] | -.70 | .50 | [.26, .96] |
| Years relationship | -.05 | .95 | [.91, 1.00] | .04 | 1.04 | [1.00, 1.08] |
| Years employment | .02 | 1.02 | [1.00, 1.05] | -.01 | 1.00 | [.96, 1.04] |
| Fulltime-parttime | .35 | 1.41 | [.83, 2.40] | -1.20 | .30 | [.09, .97] |
| Permanent-temporary | .03 | 1.03 | [.52, 2.03] | 1.06 | 2.90 | [1.16, 7.22] |
| Public-private | -.17 | .84 | [.60, 1.18] | -.17 | .84 | [.47, 1.51] |
| Predictors | | | | | | |
| Attachment anxiety | .09 | 1.09 | [.95, 1.26] | .68 | 1.97 | [1.51, 2.56] |
| Attachment avoidance | -.75 | .47 | [.36, .63] | -.93 | .40 | [.25, .64] |

Note. $n = 748$; DVs (workplace romance motive categories) are contrasted with the love motive; bold results had a 95% CI that did not span 1

Table 12

Results from Multivariate Analysis of Covariance for Work Outcomes

| Source | df _{btwn} | df _{error} | <i>F</i> | Wilke's λ | η^2_{partial} | <i>p</i> |
|------------------------------|--------------------|---------------------|----------|-------------------|---------------------------|----------|
| <i>Independent variable</i> | | | | | | |
| 1. Attachment style | 12 | 1444 | 2.81 | .96 | .02 | .00 |
| 2. Workplace romance motives | 12 | 1444 | 5.63* | .91 | .05 | .00 |
| <i>Control variable</i> | | | | | | |
| 1. Age (self) | 6 | 722 | 3.19 | .97 | .03 | .00 |
| 2. Age (partner) | 6 | 722 | .78 | .99 | .01 | .59 |
| 3. Gender (self) | 6 | 722 | .99 | .99 | .01 | .43 |
| 4. Gender (partner) | 6 | 722 | .85 | .99 | .01 | .54 |
| 5. Partner org status | 6 | 722 | 2.90 | .98 | .02 | .01 |
| 6. Same sex couple | 6 | 722 | .49 | 1.00 | .00 | .82 |
| 7. Marital status | 6 | 722 | .85 | .99 | .01 | .53 |
| 8. Years relationship | 6 | 722 | 1.27 | .99 | .01 | .27 |
| 9. Years employment | 6 | 722 | 3.58 | .97 | .03 | .00 |
| 10. Fulltime-parttime | 6 | 722 | 1.40 | .99 | .01 | .21 |
| 11. Permanent-temporary | 6 | 722 | 4.85* | .96 | .04 | .00 |
| 12. Public-private | 6 | 722 | .31 | 1.00 | .00 | .93 |

Note. $n = 748$; btwn = between subjects* $p < .001$

Table 13
Results from Analysis of Covariance for Work Outcomes

| Source | Dependent variable | df | MS | <i>F</i> | η^2_{partial} | <i>p</i> |
|---------------------------|--------------------------|-----|-------|----------|---------------------------|----------|
| Attachment style | Job performance | 2 | 1.55 | 3.23 | .01 | .04 |
| | Job satisfaction | 2 | 1.64 | 3.50 | .01 | .03 |
| | Intrinsic job motivation | 2 | 1.63 | 1.72 | .00 | .18 |
| | Affective org commitment | 2 | 1.66 | 4.02 | .01 | .02 |
| | OCB-I | 2 | 2.53 | 4.88 | .01 | .01 |
| | OCB-O | 2 | .38 | 1.64 | .00 | .19 |
| Workplace romance motives | Job performance | 2 | 6.55 | 13.61* | .04 | .00 |
| | Job satisfaction | 2 | 1.51 | 3.22 | .01 | .04 |
| | Intrinsic job motivation | 2 | 18.95 | 20.01* | .05 | .00 |
| | Affective org commitment | 2 | 1.91 | 4.63 | .01 | .01 |
| | OCB-I | 2 | 4.79 | 9.24* | .02 | .00 |
| | OCB-O | 2 | .11 | .48 | .00 | .62 |
| Error | Job performance | 727 | .48 | | | |
| | Job satisfaction | 727 | .47 | | | |
| | Intrinsic job motivation | 727 | .95 | | | |
| | Affective org commitment | 727 | .41 | | | |
| | OCB-I | 727 | .51 | | | |
| | OCB-O | 727 | .23 | | | |

Note. $n = 748$

* $p < .001$

Table 14

Mean Differences in Work Outcomes by Workplace Romance Motive and Attachment Style Category

| Workplace romance motives | |
|----------------------------------|--|
| Dependent variables | |
| Job performance | Participants who entered their workplace romance due to a love motive ($M = 4.07$) reported higher levels of job performance than participants who entered their workplace romance due to an ego motive ($M = 3.93$) or a job-related motive ($M = 3.41$). All mean differences were significant at $p < .05$. |
| Job satisfaction | Participants who entered their workplace romance due to a love motive ($M = 4.55$) reported higher levels of job satisfaction than participants who entered their workplace romance due to an ego motive ($M = 4.36$) ($p < .05$), but job satisfaction did not differ significantly for individuals who entered their workplace romance due to a job-related motive ($M = 4.49$) versus a love motive or an ego motive. |
| Intrinsic job motivation | Participants who entered their workplace romance due to a love motive reported higher levels of intrinsic job motivation ($M = 5.62$) than participants who entered their workplace romance due to an ego motive ($M = 5.38$) or a job-related motive ($M = 4.56$). All mean differences were significant at $p < .05$. |
| Affective org commitment | Participants who entered their workplace romance due to a love motive ($M = 3.81$) or an ego motive ($M = 3.92$) reported lower levels of affective organizational commitment than participants who entered their workplace romance due to a job-related motive ($M = 4.15$) ($p < .05$), but affective organizational commitment did not differ significantly for participants who entered their workplace romance due to a love motive versus an ego motive. |
| OCB-I | Participants who entered their workplace romance due to a love motive reported higher levels of OCB-Is ($M = 3.80$) than participants who entered their workplace romance due to an ego motive ($M = 3.60$) or a job-related motive ($M = 3.30$). All mean differences were significant at $p < .05$. |
| OCB-O | There were no significant differences in the average level of OCB-Os reported by participants who engaged in their workplace romance due to a love motive ($M = 3.05$), an ego motive ($M = 3.04$), or a job-related motive ($M = 3.11$). |
| Attachment Style | |
| Dependent variables | |
| Job performance | Participants with a secure attachment style ($M = 4.00$) or an avoidant attachment style ($M = 4.05$) reported higher levels of job performance than participants with an anxious/ambivalent attachment style ($M = 3.72$) ($p < .05$), but job performance did not differ significantly for participants with a secure attachment style versus an avoidant attachment style. |
| Job satisfaction | Participants with a secure attachment style ($M = 4.56$) reported higher levels of job satisfaction than participants with an avoidant attachment style ($M = 4.31$) ($p < .05$), but job satisfaction did not differ significantly for individuals with an anxious/ambivalent attachment style ($M = 4.47$) versus a secure attachment style or an avoidant attachment style. |
| Intrinsic job motivation | Participants with a secure attachment style ($M = 5.46$) or an avoidant attachment style ($M = 5.60$) reported higher levels of intrinsic job motivation than participants with an anxious/ambivalent attachment style ($M = 5.19$) ($p < .05$), but intrinsic job motivation did not differ significantly for participants with a secure attachment style versus an avoidant attachment style. |
| Affective org commitment | Participants with a secure attachment style ($M = 3.86$) or an avoidant attachment style ($M = 3.82$) reported lower levels of affective organizational commitment than participants with an anxious/ambivalent attachment style ($M = 4.05$) ($p < .05$), but affective organizational commitment did not differ significantly for participants with a secure attachment style versus an avoidant attachment style. |
| OCB-I | Participants with a secure attachment style ($M = 3.76$) reported higher levels of OCB-Is than participants with an anxious/ambivalent attachment style ($M = 3.47$) ($p < .05$), but OCB-Is did not differ significantly for individuals with an avoidant attachment style ($M = 3.67$) versus a secure attachment style or an anxious/ambivalent attachment style. |
| OCB-O | There were no significant differences in the average level of OCB-Os reported by participants with a secure attachment style ($M = 3.04$), an avoidant attachment style ($M = 3.05$), or an anxious/ambivalent attachment style ($M = 3.06$). |

Note. $n = 748$; results are based on analysis of variance tests with the study's forced-choice measures

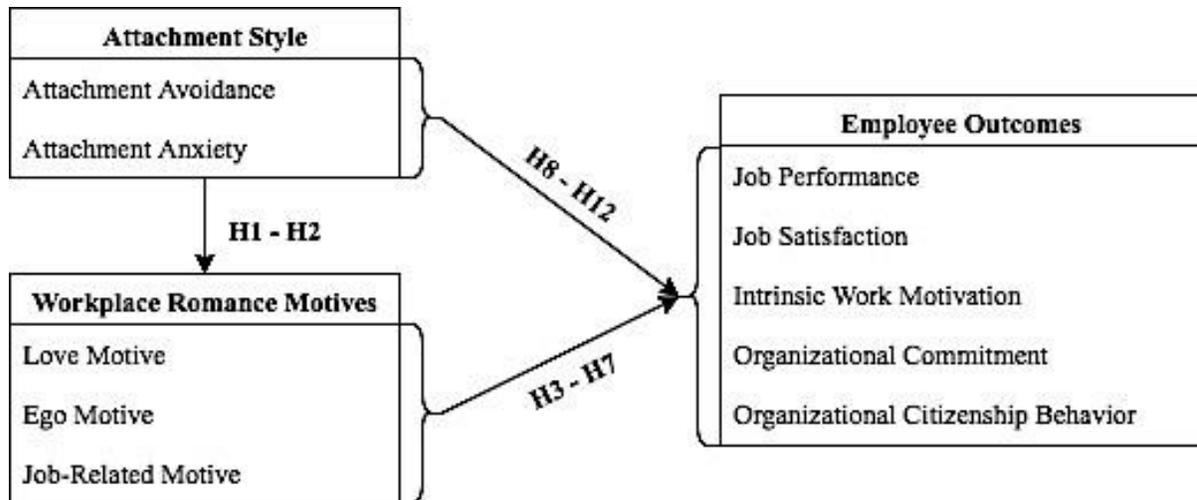


Figure 1. General model of hypothesized predictive relationships between attachment style, workplace romance motives, and employee outcomes.

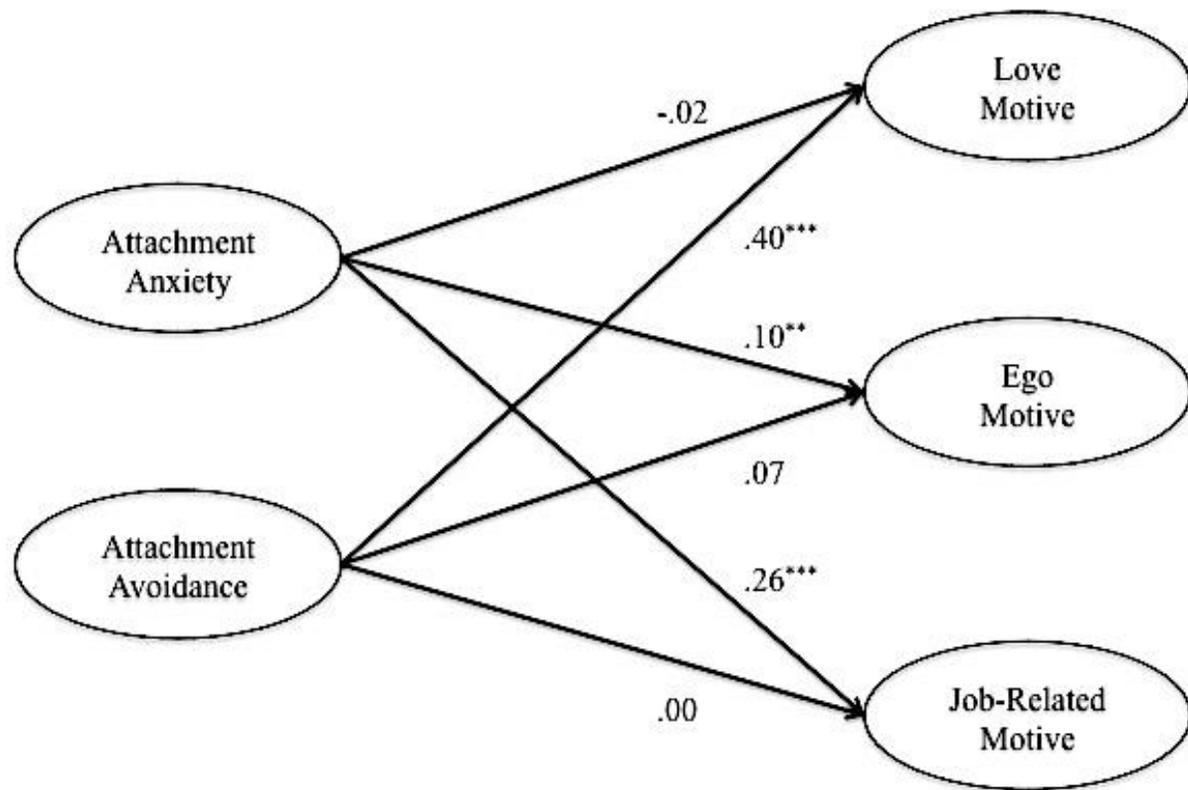


Figure 2. Model of hypothesized relationships between (a) attachment avoidance and attachment anxiety and (b) workplace romance motives with standardized regression coefficients. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

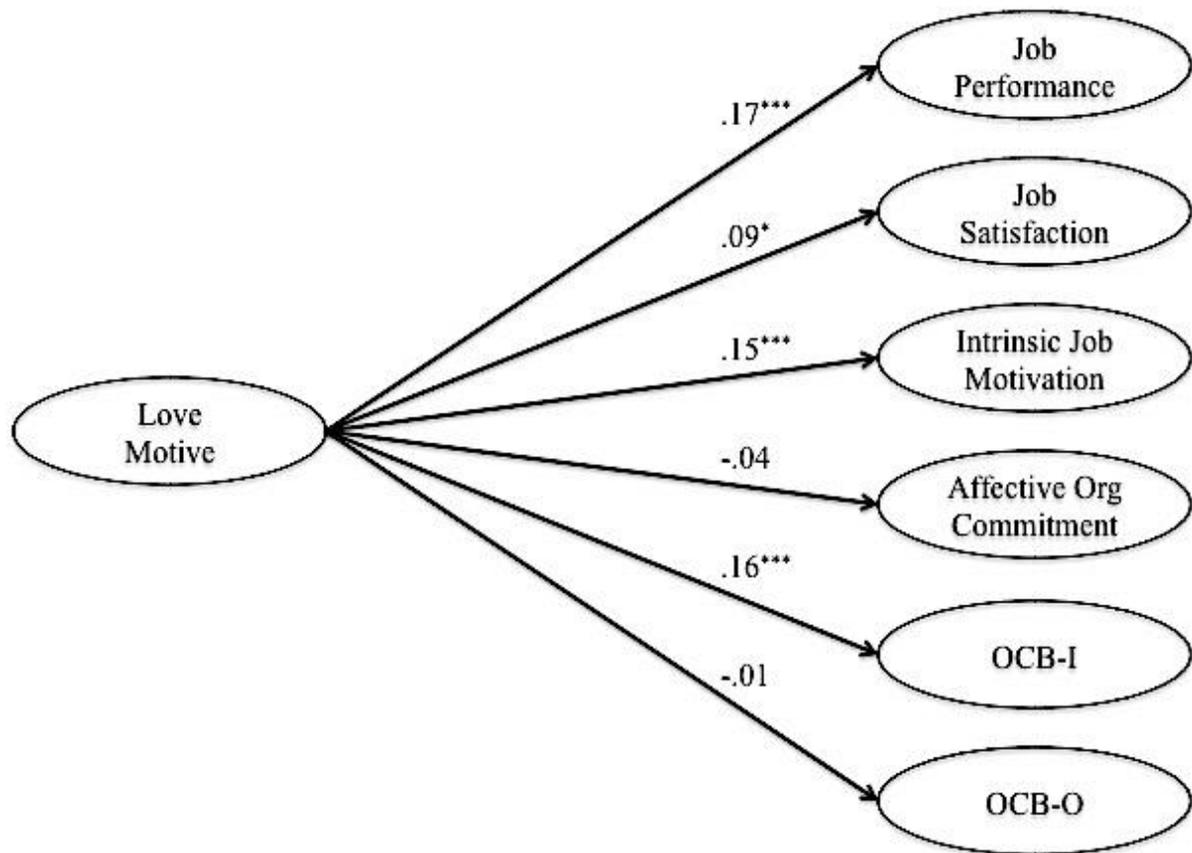


Figure 3. Model of hypothesized relationships between (a) engaging in a workplace romance due to a love motive and (b) employee work outcomes with standardized regression coefficients. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

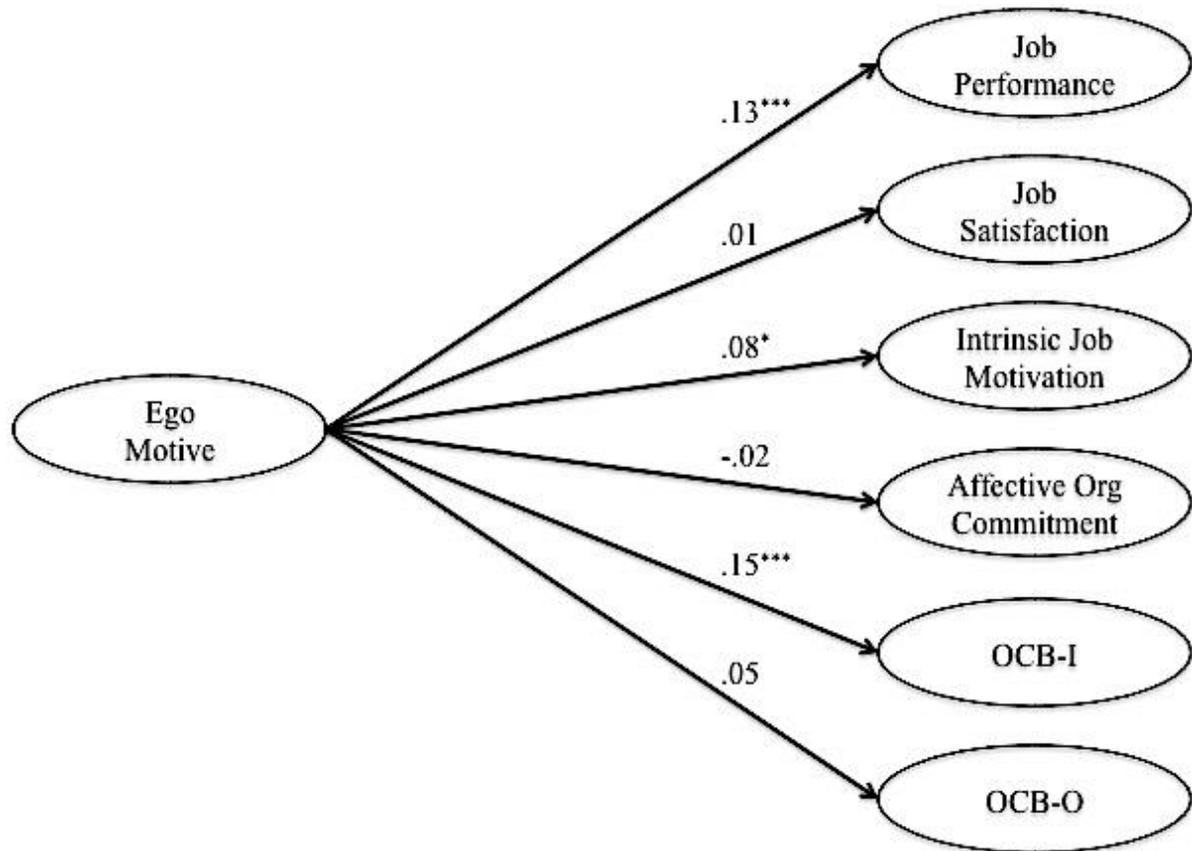


Figure 4. Model of hypothesized relationships between (a) engaging in a workplace romance due to an ego motive and (b) employee work outcomes with standardized regression coefficients. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

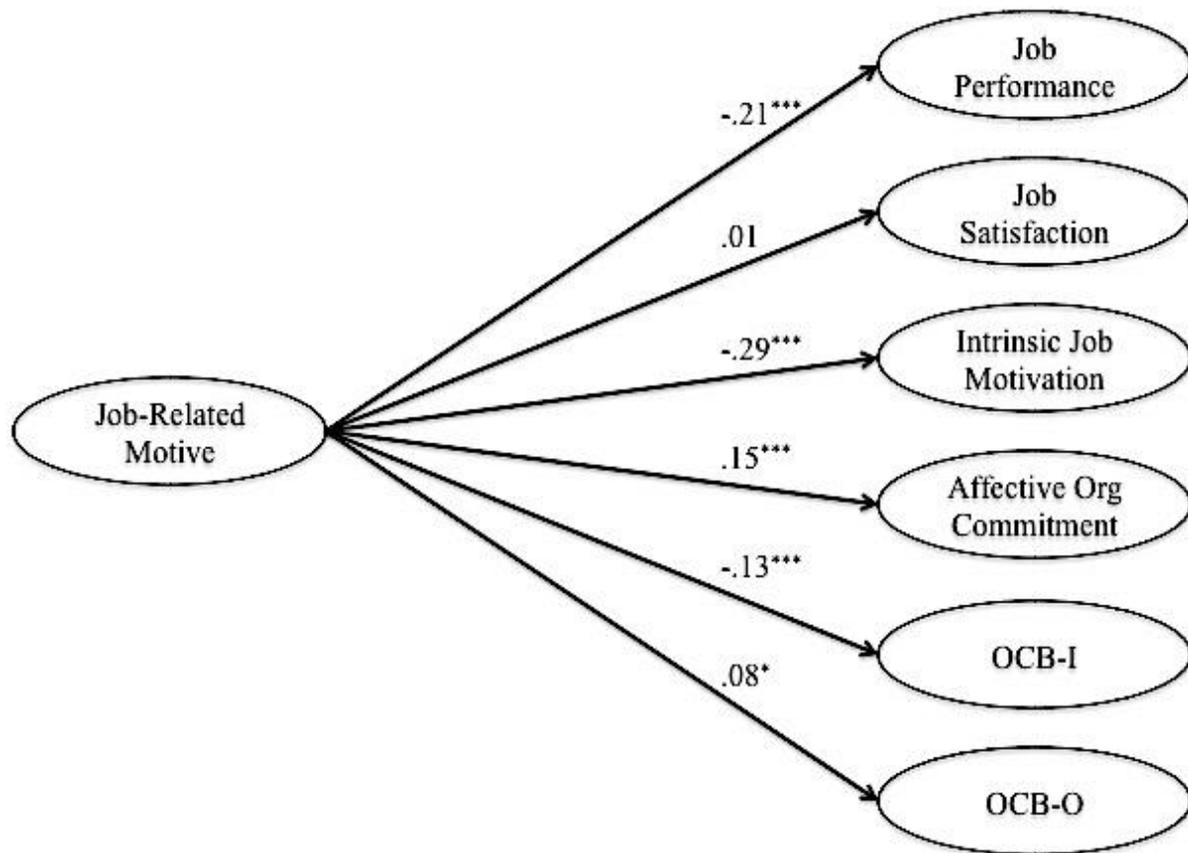


Figure 5. Model of hypothesized relationships between (a) engaging in a workplace romance due to a job-related motive and (b) employee work outcomes with standardized regression coefficients. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

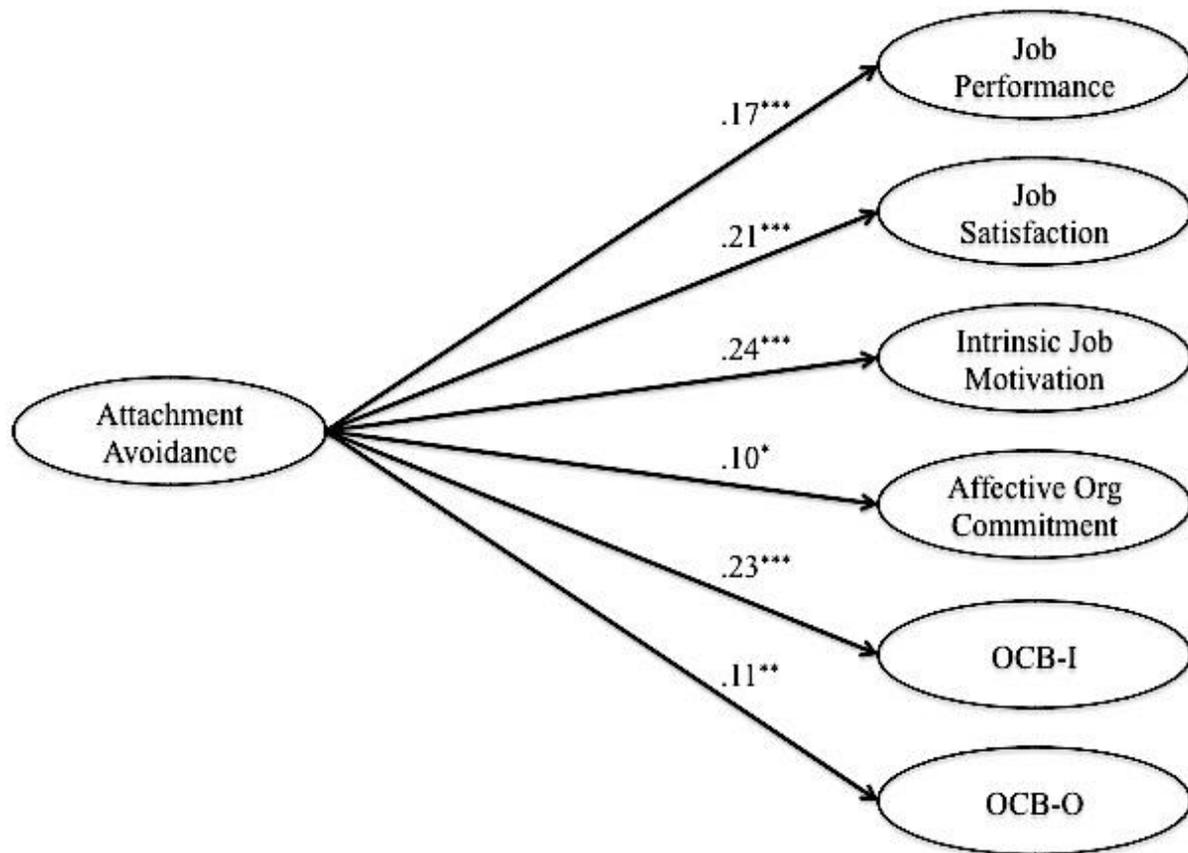


Figure 6. Model of hypothesized relationships between (a) attachment avoidance and (b) employee work outcomes with standardized regression coefficients. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

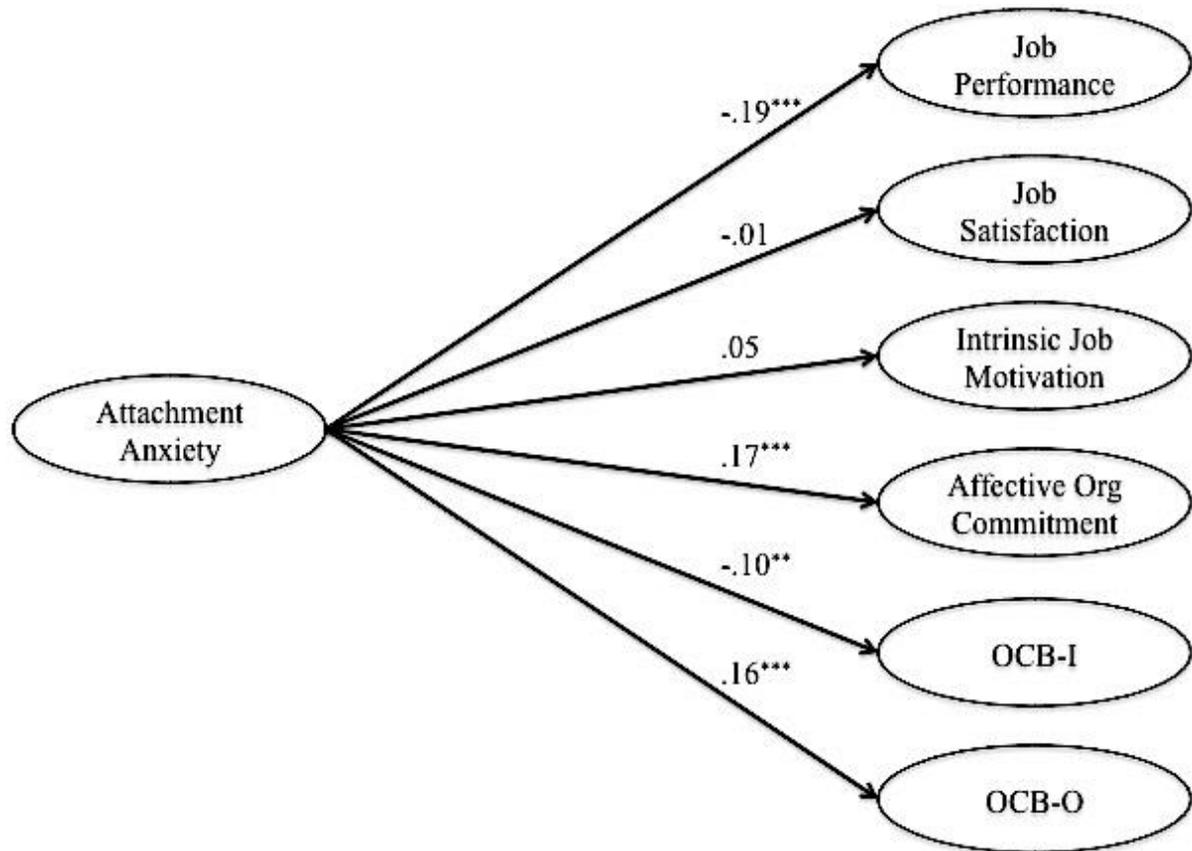


Figure 7. Model of hypothesized relationships between (a) attachment anxiety and (b) employee work outcomes with standardized regression coefficients. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

ADULT ATTACHMENT AND WORKPLACE ROMANCE MOTIVES

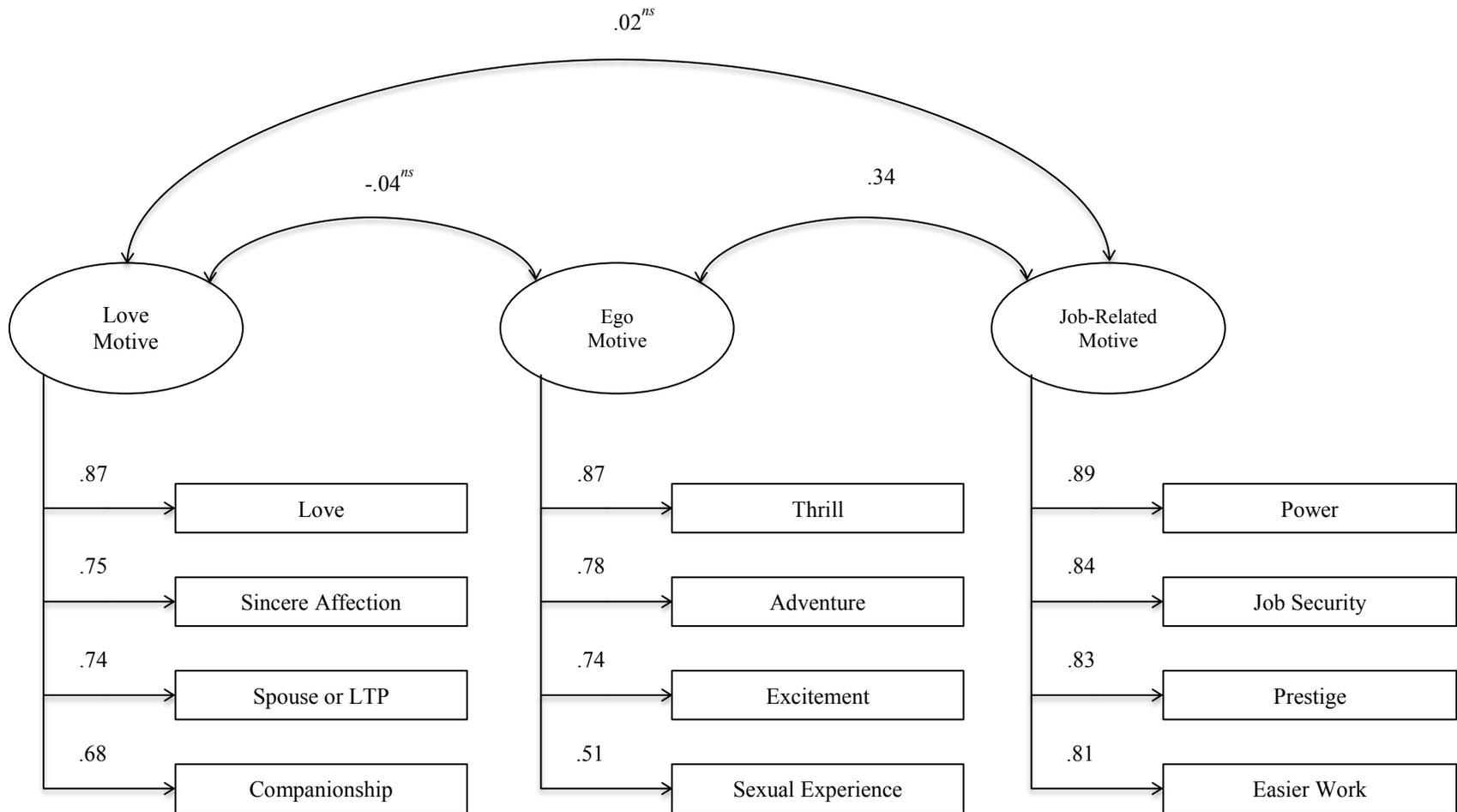


Figure 8. Results of confirmatory factor analysis of the workplace romance motive scales ($n = 756$). All coefficients are standardized and significant at $p < .001$ unless otherwise noted. Spouse or LTP = searching for a spouse or long-term partner; ns = not significant.

Appendix A

Adapted Workplace Romance Motive Scales (Quinn, 1977)

Love Motive ($\alpha = .85$)

Indicate the importance of the following as a reason for entering your current relationship.

1. Love
2. Companionship
3. Sincere affection
4. Finding a long-term spouse or companion

Ego Motive ($\alpha = .82$)

Indicate the importance of the following as a reason for entering your current relationship.

1. Thrill
2. Adventure
3. Excitement
4. Sexual experience

Job-Related Motive ($\alpha = .90$)

Indicate the importance of the following as a reason for entering your current relationship.

1. Easier work
2. Job security
3. Increased power
4. Increased prestige

Appendix B

ECR-R Attachment Scale (Fraley et al., 2000)

Anxiety ($\alpha = .95$)

1. I'm afraid that I will lose my partner's love.
2. I often worry that my partner will not want to stay with me.
3. I often worry that my partner doesn't really love me.
4. I worry that romantic partners won't care about me as much as I care about them.
5. I often wish that my partner's feelings for me were as strong as my feelings for him or her.
6. I worry a lot about my relationships.
7. When my partner is out of sight, I worry that he or she might become interested in someone else.
8. When I show my feelings for romantic partners I'm afraid they will not feel the same about me.
9. I rarely worry about my partner leaving me. (R)
10. My romantic partner makes me doubt myself.
11. I do not often worry about being abandoned. (R)
12. I find that my partner(s) don't want to get as close as I would like.
13. Sometimes romantic partners change their feelings about me for no apparent reason.
14. My desire to be very close sometimes scares people away.
15. I'm afraid that once a romantic partner gets to know me, he or she won't like who I really am.
16. It makes me mad that I don't get the affection and support I need from my partner.

Appendix B (Cont'd)

17. I worry that I won't measure up to other people.

18. My partner only seems to notice me when I'm angry.

Avoidance ($\alpha = .94$)

19. I prefer not to show a partner how I feel deep down.

20. I feel comfortable sharing my private thoughts and feelings with my partner. (R)

21. I find it difficult to allow myself to depend on romantic partners.

22. I am very comfortable being close to romantic partners. (R)

23. I don't feel comfortable opening up to romantic partners.

24. I prefer not to be too close to romantic partners.

25. I get uncomfortable when a romantic partner wants to be very close.

26. I find it relatively easy to get close to my partner. (R)

27. It's not difficult for me to get close to my partner. (R)

28. I usually discuss my problems and concerns with my partner. (R)

29. It helps to turn to my romantic partner in times of need. (R)

30. I tell my partner just about everything. (R)

31. I talk things over with my partner. (R)

32. I am nervous when partners get too close to me.

33. I feel comfortable depending on romantic partners. (R)

34. I find it easy to depend on romantic partners. (R)

35. It's easy for me to be affectionate with my partner. (R)

36. My partner really understands me and my needs. (R)

Appendix C

Adapted Job Performance Scale (Farh et al., 1991)

Job Performance ($\alpha = .84$)

1. What do you think of the quality of your work? In other words, are your job outcomes perfect, free of error, and of high accuracy?
2. What do you think of your work efficiency with respect to your job? In other words, what is your assessment of your work speed or quantity of work?
3. What do you think of your job performance? In other words, are you able to complete quality work on time for your job?

Appendix D

Adapted Job Satisfaction Scale (MOAQ-JSS; Cammann et al., 1979)

Job Satisfaction ($\alpha = .87$)

1. All in all I am satisfied with my job.
2. In general, I don't like my job. (R)
3. In general, I like working for my organization.

Appendix E

Adapted IJM Scale (Warr et al., 1979)

Intrinsic Job Motivation ($\alpha = .84$)

1. I feel a sense of personal satisfaction when I do my job well.
2. My opinion of myself goes down when I do my job badly.
3. I take pride in doing my job as well as I can.
4. I feel unhappy when my work is not up to my usual standard.
5. I like to look back on the day's work with a sense of a job well done.
6. I try to think of ways of doing my job effectively.

Appendix F

Adapted Organizational Commitment Scales (Meyer et al., 1993)

Affective Organizational Commitment ($\alpha = .89$)

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with my organization.
2. I really feel as if my organization's problems are my own.
3. I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organization. (R)
4. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to my organization. (R)
5. I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization. (R)
6. My organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.

Appendix G

Adapted OCB Scale (Williams & Anderson, 1991)

OCB-I ($\alpha = .89$)

1. I help others who have been absent from work.
2. I help others who have heavy workloads.
3. I assist my supervisor with his/her work (when not asked).
4. I take time to listen to my coworkers' problems and worries.
5. I go out of my way to help new employees.
6. I take a personal interest in other employees.
7. I pass information along to my coworkers.

OCB-O ($\alpha = .72$)

8. My attendance at work is above the norm.
9. I give advanced notice when I am unable to come to work.
10. I take undeserved work breaks. (R)
11. I spend a great deal of time with personal phone conversations at work. (R)
12. I complain about insignificant things at work. (R)
13. I adhere to informal rules devised to maintain order at work.

Appendix H

Institutional Review Board (IRB) Approval

IRB <irb@appstate.edu>

To: belindacd@appstate.edu

Cc: bazzinidg@appstate.edu, bergmanjz@appstate.edu, webbrm@appstate.edu, westermanjw@appstate.edu

To: Casher Belinda

Psychology 323 Charlotte Ann Ln, Apt G24

CAMPUS EMAIL

From: Monica Molina, IRB Associate Administrator

Date: 11/04/2016

RE: Notice of IRB Exemption

STUDY #: 17-0124

STUDY TITLE: Adult Attachment and Workplace Romance Motives: An Examination of How Romantic Relationship Dynamics Impact Employee Outcomes

Exemption Category: (2) Anonymous Educational Tests; Surveys, Interviews or Observations

This study involves minimal risk and meets the exemption category cited above. In accordance with 45 CFR 46.101(b) and University policy and procedures, the research activities described in the study materials are exempt from further IRB review.

Appendix I

Consent Form for Human Subjects

Consent to Participate in Research
Information to Consider About this Research**Romantic Relationships at Work**

Principal Investigator: Casher Belinda

Department: Psychology

Contact Information:

Casher Belinda (PI) – Appalachian State University, 287 Rivers St, Boone, NC 28608

- Email: belindacd@appstate.edu

James Westerman (FA) – Appalachian State University, 287 Rivers St, Boone, NC 28608

- Email: westermanjw@appstate.edu

You are being invited to take part in a research study about romantic relationships in the workplace. If you take part in this study, you will be one of about 600 people to do so. By doing this study we hope to learn about the dynamics of workplace romances.

The research procedures will be conducted at Appalachian State University, Boone, NC 28608.

You will be asked to respond to a survey inquiring about your personal characteristics, various job-related factors, and the dynamics of your current workplace romance. Please answer all survey questions honestly and to the best of your ability.

You cannot volunteer for this study if are under 18 years of age.

What are possible harms or discomforts that I might experience during the research?

To the best of our knowledge, the risk of harm for participating in this research study is no more than you would experience in everyday life.

What are the possible benefits of this research?

There may be no personal benefit from your participation but the information gained by doing this research may help others in the future by suggesting what best practice employees and organizations can engage in to maintain a healthy workplace environment.

Will I be paid for taking part in the research?

You will be paid \$.50 for your participation in this study.

How will you keep my private information confidential?

This study is anonymous. That means that no one, not even members of the research team, will know that the information you gave came from you. The data will be kept indefinitely.

Who can I contact if I have questions?

The individuals conducting this study will be available to answer any questions concerning this research, now or in the future. You may contact the Principal Investigator at 814-360-1316. If you have questions about your rights as someone taking part in research, contact the Appalachian Institutional Review Board Administrator at 828-262-2692 (days), through email at irb@appstate.edu or at Appalachian State University, Office of Research and Sponsored Programs, IRB Administrator, Boone, NC 28608.

Do I have to participate? What else should I know?

Your participation in this research is completely voluntary. If you choose not to volunteer, there will be no penalty and you will not lose any benefits or rights you would normally have. If you decide to take part in the study you still have the right to decide at any time that you no longer want to continue. There will be no penalty and no loss of benefits or rights if you decide at any time to stop participating in the study. If you decide to participate in this study, let the research personnel know. A copy of this consent form is yours to keep.

Vita

Casher Belinda was born in Pittsburgh, PA, to Christine and Robert Belinda. He graduated from the Pennsylvania State University, University Park with a Bachelor of Science in June 2015. In the fall of 2015, Casher began to pursue his Master of Arts in Industrial-Organizational Psychology and Human Resource Management at Appalachian State University. He received his degree in May 2017. In the fall of 2017, Casher will be commencing his work towards his Ph.D. in Organizational Behavior at the University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill.