

Who wants to lead?
The role of romantic and parental relationship quality on motivation to lead

by

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Abstract

Although organizational leadership is widely studied, research on antecedents of leadership, including motivation to lead, has largely escaped empirical attention. This research includes two studies that aim to address this empirical gap, by examining relationship quality as an antecedent to motivation to lead. Study 1 focuses on parent-child relationship quality, while Study 2 focuses on romantic relationship quality. Results indicate that parent-child relationship quality is associated with both social-normative and non-calculative motivation to lead. Moreover, parental identification moderated the association between parent-child relationship quality and non-calculative motivation to lead, while parent leadership role occupancy moderated the association between parent-child relationship quality and affective-identity motivation to lead. Results also suggest that self-esteem and leader self-efficacy mediate the relationship between romantic relationship quality and the three sub-types of motivation to lead. Understanding antecedents to motivation to lead is important, as it predicts leadership outcomes and has implications for individual and employee development.

Keywords: motivation to lead, parent-child relationship quality, romantic-relationship quality, young adults

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Who wants to lead?

The role of romantic and parental relationship quality on motivation to lead

Leadership, the act of leading a group of people or an organization, is among the most studied topics in management (e.g., Barling, 2014), largely because leadership implicates all levels of the organization. Yet, research on predictors of leadership, including who is motivated to lead, has largely escaped empirical attention. Motivation to lead refers to one's desire to attain leadership roles and expend effort to fulfill leader role requirements (Chan & Drasgow, 2001). This construct consists of three correlated but theoretically distinct subtypes, including affective-identity, social-normative, and non-calculative motivation to lead (Chan & Drasgow, 2001). Understanding the antecedents to motivation to lead is important, as it predicts leader emergence and leader effectiveness (e.g., Chan & Drasgow, 2011; Hong et al., 2011). The prediction of leader emergence and effectiveness is important not only because organizations are often in search of capable employees to take on leadership responsibilities, but also because understanding how leadership experiences, individual differences, and interpersonal relationships influence motivation to lead may also help individuals reach and strive for leadership roles. Thus, understanding the antecedents of motivation to lead may aid in the development of leadership, specifically motivation to lead. Moreover, although existing research has examined motivation to lead as an antecedent to several leadership outcomes including leader emergence, leadership styles, and leadership performance (e.g., Badura et al., 2020), the predictors of motivation to lead are far less clear.

The role of interpersonal relationships as predictors of motivation to lead is of significant interest; decades of research have supported the interconnections between one's personal life and the work domain, focusing in particular on how individuals are influenced by others who are

important to them (e.g., Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Heller & Watson, 2005). Moreover, a substantial body of research has focused on how early experiences influence later workplace leadership (see Barling, 2014; Murphy & Reichard, 2012), as well as the importance of strong organizational leadership (e.g., Avolio et al., 2009), while neglecting to fully understand what early experiences drive individuals to pursue leadership opportunities. Interpersonal relationships have the power to influence a variety of individual outcomes (e.g., Kim & Cicchetti, 2004; Marchand-Reilly, 2009). Two salient and highly influential interpersonal relationships are the parent-child and romantic relationship. The relationship between parents and their children is associated with child outcomes such as temperament, both antisocial and externalizing behaviours, as well as academic engagement and success (e.g., Gordan, 2017; Kim & Cicchetti, 2004; Malczyk & Lawson, 2017). Among other outcomes, romantic relationships are associated with health and wellness, and when these relationships are negative, they are associated with depression and self-harm and lower self-esteem than those with positive relationship quality (e.g., Levesque et al., 2010; Marchand-Reilly, 2009). Therefore, the current studies focused on parent-child and romantic relationship quality as predictors of motivation to lead, as decades of research have supported the influence these relationships have on individual outcomes, the interconnections between one's personal life and the work domain (e.g., Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Heller & Watson, 2005), as well as the importance of strong organizational leadership (e.g., Barling, 2014); while neglecting to fully understand what drives individuals to pursue leadership opportunities.

The purpose of this research was to conduct two similar, yet distinct, studies designed to examine how salient interpersonal relationships, specifically romantic partner and parent-child, are related to young adults' motivation to lead. In Study 1, I examined the association between

parent-child relationship quality and motivation to lead, while Study 2 focused on the association between romantic relationship quality and motivation to lead. More specifically, Study 1 investigated the moderating influence of parental identification and parent leadership role occupancy on the association between parent-child relationship quality and motivation to lead. Although I assessed parent/guardian relationships throughout Study 1, I refer to parent only in this thesis for simplicity. Study 2 focused on the association between romantic relationship quality and motivation to lead via the mediating roles of self-esteem and leader self-efficacy. Taken together, these studies have the potential to contribute to the understanding of what influences an individual's motivation to lead; helping us to understand how individuals develop into leaders, and what obstacles or bolstering factors are involved in this process.

These studies also make a unique contribution to the literature as they focus on young workers, often defined as those between 15 and 24 years old (e.g., Breslin et al., 2007; Salminen, 2004). According to a recent report, in 2021 an estimated 67.3% of young adult workers were a part of the workforce in Canada (Morissette, 2021). Despite their proportion in the workforce, young workers are a relatively understudied demographic within organizational research in comparison to other cohorts of workers (Pek et al., 2017). Moreover, research on young workers has implications for the future of the workplace given that individuals learn about work through early work experiences (Kelloway & Watts, 1994), and is relevant for the proposed studies as young adults tend to be impressionable, and more highly influenced by their interpersonal relationships than their younger and older counterparts (Krosnick & Alwin, 1989). Given all of these factors, understanding the development of leadership and what may impact young adults' motivation to lead is highly important as young adults, who may eventually emerge as the next generation of organizational leaders, are the future of the world of work. Thus, understanding

early factors that contribute to their leadership development and motivation is important to both research and practice.

Motivation to Lead

Motivation to lead can be defined as an individual's willingness or desire to engage in leadership activities and assume leadership roles and responsibilities (Chan & Drasgow, 2001). In other words, motivation to lead refers to an individual's level of effort in obtaining a leadership role, as well as their persistence as a leader. Motivation to lead differs from leader emergence, as leader emergence refers to one's likelihood to emerge as a leader (e.g., Brunell et al., 2008), while motivation to lead focuses on what motivates or drives people to want to become leaders in the first place. Although sometimes examined as one construct, motivation to lead can be broken into three subtypes, affective identity, social-normative, and non-calculative, which are further described below. Examining each subtype allows for a more complete understanding of how factors may individually influence each component of motivation to lead. Investigating each subtype is also important as some motivators to lead may be stronger, and more beneficial, than others. For example, it may be beneficial to seek out those who have high affective identity motivation to lead as they are more intrinsically motivated to lead, and truly enjoy and want to become leaders, in comparison to those with high social-normative motivation to lead who may just be pursuing a leadership role because they feel like they have to, not necessarily because they actually want to. In other cases, other subtypes may be more relevant and potentially have preferable organizational outcomes.

As previously stated, although existing research has examined motivation to lead as an antecedent to several leadership outcomes, the predictors of motivation to lead have largely escaped empirical attention. Understanding the antecedents to motivation to lead is important, as

it predicts outcomes such as leader emergence and leader effectiveness (e.g., Chan & Drasgow, 2011; Hong et al., 2011), and all types of organizations are often seeking capable employees to take on leadership responsibilities. Leader emergence refers to one's likelihood to emerge as a leader (e.g., Brunell et al., 2008) while leader effectiveness refers to using one's personal influence to successfully accomplish a shared objective in a way that satisfies all involved (e.g., Hogan et al., 1994) and is associated with positive organizational change (Gilley et al., 2009). Understanding what predicts motivation to lead is also important as it extends our overall knowledge of leader development amongst young adults. These antecedents may be especially important for young adults' leadership development; understanding how early predictors such as interpersonal relationship quality guide individuals into leadership roles may provide an opportunity to use these factors (e.g., create role models and leadership mentor opportunities, relationship counselling, and so on) to potentially increase motivation to lead.

Subtypes of Motivation to Lead

As mentioned above, there are three subtypes of motivation to lead: (a) affective-identity, (b) social-normative, and (c) non-calculative (Chan & Drasgow, 2001). Affective identity refers to the idea that some individuals are simply more inclined to lead than others, as well as the degree to which one enjoys leadership roles and sees oneself as a leader (Chan & Drasgow, 2001). In other words, affective-identity motivation to lead can be thought of as how intrinsically motivated one is to lead. One study specifically investigating affective-identity motivation to lead found that leader self-efficacy mediated the relationship between past leadership experiences and affective identity motivation to lead (Yosua & Panggabean, 2021). Thus, those who have previously held a leadership position and have higher leader self-efficacy, are more

likely to have an internal desire to lead/want to lead than those who have not had experience in this type of role and who have lower leader self-efficacy.

The social-normative subtype of motivation to lead, refers to the idea that individuals are motivated to lead due to an internal sense of duty and responsibility (Chan & Drasgow, 2001). For example, an individual who was taught that it is their duty to lead or follow in their parents' footsteps as a leader, may have higher social-normative motivation to lead than an individual who was not conveyed this messaging. A study by Hong et al. (2011) found that individuals high in social-normative motivation to lead were more likely to assume leadership roles in long-term team projects, while those high in affective-identity motivation to lead were more likely to become leaders in leaderless discussions. Thus, both subtypes were differentially associated with short-term and long-term leader emergence and those who felt a sense of responsibility to lead ended up in longer-term leadership positions.

The third subtype of motivation to lead, non-calculative, states that people may only lead if they are non-calculative about the costs of leading compared to the benefits of leading (Chan & Drasgow, 2001). In other words, they are motivated by how positively they view potential leadership opportunities despite the potential costs to accepting this role. For example, an individual in a romantic relationship who feels inclined to pursue a leadership role, even though this means less time with their partner and potentially increased relational conflict, would be considered to have a non-calculative subtype of motivation to lead. A study investigating the association between emotion perception ability and motivation to lead found that, although positively associated with the overall construct of motivation to lead, that this association was strongest with non-calculative motivation to lead and was not positively associated with the social-normative subtype (Krishnakumar & Hopkins, 2014).

In any research examining correlates of motivation to lead, although findings may be associated with the overall construct of motivation to lead, they may not necessarily be significant within each subtype. Moreover, although some researchers conceptualize and measure motivation to lead as one unique construct, (e.g., Chan & Drasgow, 2001), most studies examine the three subtypes individually (e.g., Badura, 2020; Hong et al., 2011; Krishnakumar & Hopkins, 2014), to gain a better understanding of the role of each subtype. For the purposes of this research, I examined the three subtypes of motivation to lead individually to obtain a more complete understanding of how each of these subtypes may be associated with both parent-child and romantic relationship quality.

Antecedents of Motivation to Lead

Existing studies that have investigated potential antecedents to motivation to lead have focused largely on personality and values that shape motivation to lead (e.g., Bandura et al., 2020; Chan & Drasgow, 2001; Elprana et al., 2015; Kark & Van Dijk, 2007; Rosch et al., 2015). For example, Chan and Drasgow (2001) investigated personality and leader self-efficacy as antecedents to motivation to lead and found a direct positive relationship between extraversion, agreeableness and conscientiousness and motivation to lead, as well as between leader self-efficacy and motivation to lead. In line with these findings, Elprana et al. (2015) found a significant positive relationship between personality, sociocultural values, self-efficacy, and motivation to lead. More recently, research has focused on both distal and proximal antecedents of motivation to lead and, in line with Chan and Drasgow (2001), found that extraversion, openness, conscientiousness, agreeableness and general self-efficacy were positively related to all subtypes of motivation to lead (Bandura et al., 2020).

Moving away from personality as an antecedent, research has shown that self-exemplar and self-prototype comparisons are positively related to motivation to lead when mediated through an individual's self-efficacy perception (Guillen et al., 2015). Moreover, when individuals compare themselves to influential leaders (e.g., president or other historical figure) or more general representations of leaders (e.g., the CEO of an organization) they see themselves as a capable leader and are more motivated to lead, as they see themselves as sharing similar qualities to these figures (Guillien et al., 2015). Another study by Elprana et al. (2015) examined the role of gender in motivation to lead and found that women have lower motivation to lead compared to their male counterparts and that this association was partially explained by both traditional gender role beliefs and lack of same-sex (female) role models. Vocational interest, past leadership experience, and success within these roles have also been investigated as antecedents to motivation to lead (Bergner et al., 2018). Results of this study showed that strong vocational interest was associated with increased motivation to lead and that past leadership experiences, and high perceived success in these roles, positively mediated this relationship. Another study found that perceived work environment (e.g., assessment of pay, promotion opportunities, and recognition) was positively associated with all subtypes of motivation to lead (Porter et al., 2016). Thus, factors within the organizational environment also play a role in determining an individual's level of motivation to lead.

Although there appears to be consistency within research on personality and values as antecedents to motivation to lead, research in the area of antecedents to motivation to lead remains understudied and further research is required. More specifically, the quality of interpersonal relationships has yet to be explored as possible antecedents to motivation to lead. As previously mentioned, both parent-child and romantic relationships are among the most

salient of interpersonal relationships and have a strong influence on individual outcomes (e.g., Kim & Cicchetti, 2004; Marchand-Reilly, 2009). Both relationships influence various aspects of individuals lives, in both personal and professional ways (e.g., Dionisi & Barling, 2019; Finchman, 2003). For example, a study conducted by Dionisi and Barling (2019) examined the association between romantic relationship conflict and both abusive supervision and passive leadership and found that relational conflict was indirectly related to abusive supervision. Another study by Popper and Amit (2009) found a positive association between secure attachment and children's leader emergence. Both studies highlight the impact romantic and parent-child relationships can have on leadership outcomes, which may extend into one's motivation to lead. Thus, the purpose of this research is to examine the association between both parent-child and romantic partner relationship quality and motivation to lead, as well as factors that may moderate this association or explain the process through which the association occurs. Further understanding of these possible antecedents is important as young adult workers are highly impressionable, and at a critical stage in their career where they are beginning to develop into leaders and form opinions around the desirability of leadership roles. These studies are also important as they may extend existing theories to aid in the explanation of the development of motivation to lead.

Study 1- Parental-Child Relationship Quality and Motivation to Lead

The purpose of Study 1 was to examine the relationship between parent-child relationship quality and motivation to lead and is guided by social learning theory (Bandura, 1978). This study is further supported by the spillover-crossover model (e.g., Bakker & Demerouti, 2013; Bakker & Demerouti, 2009; Bolger, 1989). The spillover-crossover model explains that stress and other events that happen at work have the potential to spillover to the personal domain, and

through crossover can affect others at home such as one's partner or children (e.g., Bakker & Demerouti, 2013; Bakker & Demerouti, 2009; Bolger, 1989). For example, a recent study found that parent's work-family conflict was associated with parenting irritability, and in turn increased both parent and adolescent reported externalizing behavioural issues (Vahedi et al., 2019).

Another study found that parental work was negatively associated with parental self-efficacy and perceived quality of parent-child relationships (Gali et al., 2007). Thus, things that happen in a parent's life can be associated with relationship quality and can impact child outcomes, which may then be related to their future work behaviours including their motivation to lead.

Specifically, young adults who have a high-quality relationship with their parents may learn that they also want to have positive and fulfilling interpersonal relationship in other domains of their life as well, like the workplace, which may increase affective-identity motivation to lead.

Additionally, young adults who have a high quality and fulfilling relationship with their parent may learn that having positive interpersonal relationships is normal, and that they should also have these types of relationships at work, which could translate into high social-normative motivation to lead. In terms of the positive association between relationship quality and non-calculative motivation to lead, young adults who have a high parent-child relationship quality and who learn from parents who are non-calculative about decisions may learn to view leadership in a similar way.

While the spillover-crossover model helps explain how events in the life of a parent influence children, this study is mainly guided by social learning theory (Bandura, 1978).

According to social learning theory, individuals learn by observing another's behaviour (Bandura, 1978). Parents and guardians are primary sources of information for children, and children can be influenced by the mood, behaviours, interactions, words and attitudes of their

parents and guardians (e.g., Alonso & Kok, 2021; Barling et al., 1999). Although this theory is typically focused on learning through behaviour, it can also extend to learned perceptions and expectations and supports the association between parent-child relationship quality and motivation to lead; Children learn from their relationship with their parents, which may spillover to their motivation to lead. Therefore, in line with social learning theory (Bandura, 1978), individuals are likely to learn about the world of work including leadership perceptions and attitudes from their parents. For example, if a child's parent conveyed the importance of striving for leadership positions and embodied leadership behaviours, one may be more likely to engage in these behaviours and value leadership roles themselves. Going further, the primary leadership models for young adults are likely to be their parent(s) or guardian(s) (e.g., Zacharatos et al., 2000). Therefore, young adults exposed to a parent or guardian in a leadership role, in theory, would learn that being in a leadership position is typical and may be more highly motivated to lead, whereas young adults exposed to parents who are not in a leadership position may not consider this as a future option, and may be less motivated to lead.

While having a parent or guardian in a leadership role may further strengthen the association between a child's relationship quality with their parent and their motivation to lead, this association may also be influenced by how closely one identifies with their parent or guardian, as this plays a role in how much influence this figure has on their attitudes (see Barling et al., 1998, 1999; Steele & Barling, 1996). Thus, this study investigated the moderation of parental leadership and parental identification on the association between parent-child relationship quality and motivation to lead.

Parent-Child Relationship Quality

In accordance with social learning theory (Bandura, 1978), children learn about the world through their parents, including the world of work and their place in it. Research findings support the notion that children's attitudes and beliefs towards work are significantly influenced by their parents' own attitudes and beliefs towards work (Kelloway & Watts, 1994). In addition, research suggests young adults are particularly susceptible to attitudinal changes as attitudes formed during this developmental period persist into adulthood (Krosnick & Alwin, 1989). Young adults' attitudes and beliefs about work, including their motivation to lead, may be particularly influenced by their parent during this time, especially when they have a positive relationship with them. That is, the strength of the relationship quality between children and their parents may be associated with the degree to which parents influence their children.

The relationship quality between parents and children influences children's developmental and educational outcomes. For example, a study by Kim and Cicchetti (2004) found that high/secure parent-child relationship quality was associated with increased self-esteem and social competence, which in turn was associated with fewer internalizing and externalizing behaviours. Thus, young adults who have a high-quality relationship with their parent tend to have a more positive self-view, better social skills, and fewer behavioural problems as compared to their peers with lower parent-child relationship quality. In terms of academic achievement, research found that secondary school students who have high quality relationships with their parents have higher academic achievement than students who report having lower quality relationships with their parents (Toor, 2018). In line with these findings, a study by Gordan (2017) found that adolescents' perceived relationship quality with their fathers mediated the association between fathers' involvement and academic achievement. Similarly, Malczyk and Lawson (2017) found that for children of single mothers, both observed relationship quality and

parental monitoring predicted academic engagement and success. Overall, these studies suggest that high parent-child relationship quality is associated with better outcomes across various facets of life among children and may extend to young adults' success in the workplace and drive to take on leadership responsibilities.

Aside from developmental and educational outcomes, the relationship between parents and children can also influence leadership development and outcomes. For example, a longitudinal study found that family supportive environments, including high parental relationship quality, and exposure to transformational leadership predicted youth leadership emergence (Oliver et al., 2011). This study lends support to the notion that exposure to positive leadership models and supportive parenting, paired with high relationship quality, positively influences young adult leadership development. High parent-child relationship quality is also associated with greater time spent together (Fang et al., 2021), which may result in greater exposure to parents work behaviours and attitudes than for children who have a lower relationship quality and thus spend less time with their parents.

There is also a growing amount of research on the effects of parenting and attachment style on children's leadership development (e.g., Berson et al., 2006; Kudo et al., 2012; Liu et al., 2019; Popper & Amit, 2009). For example, research has shown that 'helicopter parenting,' characterized by those who consistently hover over their child and who take an overprotective or excessive interest in their child's life, has been linked to decreased self-esteem and leader self-efficacy and is negatively related to leader emergence (e.g., Liu et al., 2019). Studies have also found that secure attachment and authoritative parenting is positively related to leader emergence and other positive leadership qualities and outcomes (e.g., Berson et al., 2006; Kudo et al., 2012; Popper & Amit, 2009).

Taken together, this body of literature suggests that parent-child relationship quality has the potential to influence children's leadership development; The relationship one has with their parents can have important consequences for their future views of the workplace and their role in it. Overall, this body of research suggests that the relationship quality between children and their parents can have a critical influence on children, including their attitudes and beliefs towards work and leadership development, and likely extends to motivation to lead. Given that parents/guardians affect children's outcomes in various ways and given the positive associations among the three subtypes of motivation to lead – namely affective-identity, social-normative, and non-calculative – it is therefore reasonable to assume that parent relationship quality is associated with all subtypes of motivation to lead. Thus, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H1: Parent-child relationship quality will be positively associated with young adults (a) affective-identity motivation to lead, (b) social-normative motivation to lead, and (c) non-calculative motivation to lead.

Parental Identification

Parental identification refers to how strongly one identifies with their parent (e.g., Barling et al., 1998). The extent to which children identify with their parent(s) can affect the influence that parents have on children (e.g., Bell, 1979; Kelloway et al., 2006; Knafo, 2004); this aligns with the ideas presented in social learning theory (Bandura, 1978), since individuals are more influenced by others when they more strongly identify with them (Bandura, 1969). For example, research has found that parental union attitudes and involvement were stronger predictors of children's union attitudes when parental identification was high (Kelloway et al., 1996). Parental identification may also influence the association between parent-child relationship quality and children's behaviours. Research on parental leadership influences on university students suggests

that the extent to which a child identifies with a parent significantly influences young adults' leadership styles (Hartman & Harris, 1992). This study also found that relationship quality was highly correlated with parental identification. Thus, the association between parent and child leadership behaviours was further amplified when parental identification was high. A study by Barling et al. (1998) found that undergraduate student's identification with fathers positively moderated the association between perceived parental job insecurity and children's humanistic work beliefs. Similarly, another study by Barling et al. (1999) found that children's identification with parents moderated the association between perceptions of parent's job insecurity and cognitive difficulties. Thus, the extent to which a child identifies with their parent can influence how strongly they are affected by their parents.

Although the studies presented above have not been extended to the motivation to lead literature, they lend support to the importance of parental identification as a factor influencing young adult work outcomes. Taken together, previous research supports the idea that the extent to which a child identifies with their parent, can influence child outcomes that are associated with parents. Therefore, it is likely that parental identification may play an important role in influencing the association between parent-child relationship quality and child leadership outcomes as well, including a young adult's motivation to lead. More specifically, it is expected that when young adults identify with their parent, this will strengthen the association between parent-child relationship quality and motivation to lead.

H2: The relationship between parent-child relationship quality and (a) affective-identity motivation to lead, (b) social-normative motivation to lead, and (c) non-calculative motivation to lead, will be moderated by parental identification, such that these relationships will be stronger when parental identification is higher.

Parental Leadership Role

Research has shown that family plays an important role in the socialization of children to work, and that parents affect children's career expectations by serving as role models and encouraging career-related conversations, which is especially influential when relationship quality is high (e.g., Bryant et al., 2006; Liu et al., 2015; Oliveria et al., 2020). For example, a study by Oliveria et al. (2020) found that children's job expectations and expected job prestige was positively associated with their parent's career status and reported job prestige, especially when relationship quality was high. This may extend to children's motivation and expectations to pursue a leadership position, if their parent also holds a leadership position.

As previously discussed, children's attitudes and beliefs towards work are also significantly influenced by their parents' own attitudes and beliefs towards work (Kelloway & Watts, 1994). Thus, seeing a parent in a leadership position may influence how capable children feel about becoming a leader, and if becoming a leader is even an option for them to pursue. For instance, studies have shown that children whose parents are doctors or lawyers are more likely to enter these professions themselves, known as intergenerational success, because they grew up seeing their parental figures in this role, and thus believed it was possible and became more motivated to achieve this as well (e.g., Friedman & Laurison, 2020; Laband & Lentz, 1992). Similarly, other studies show that children whose parents attended university are more likely to strive for this and attend university themselves, as compared to individuals whose parents did not attend university (e.g., Alexander et al., 1994). Thus, children growing up seeing their parent figures succeed and take on leadership positions are more likely to follow in their footsteps compared to children whose parents are not in these roles.

The influence of parents' leadership roles on their children's leadership outcomes aligns with the ideas presented in social learning theory (Bandura, 1978), since children learn from observing the behaviours of their parents/guardians and from listening to and knowing their parents' perceptions and attitudes towards work. A study by Lee and Kim (2019) found that daughters of mothers who are nurses, were more likely to go into nursing themselves and that having mothers who were passionate about their role made their children more satisfied in this career. Interestingly, another study found that adult daughters of employed mothers were more likely to be employed and were more likely to hold supervisory roles, work more hours, and earn higher incomes than their peers whose mothers were not employed (McGinn et al., 2019). In terms of leadership, seeing one's parent in a leadership position or hearing about their leadership experiences may influence children to see leadership as something that is more attainable or desirable and thus may be more motivated to lead. Therefore, as supported by social learning theory (Bandura, 1978), it is expected that having and observing a parent or guardian in a leadership position will strengthen the association between parent-child relationship quality and all subtypes of motivation to lead.

H3: The relationship between parent-child relationship quality and (a) affective-identity motivation to lead, (b) social-normative motivation to lead, and (c) non-calculative motivation to lead will be moderated by parental leadership role, such that these relationships will be stronger when parents hold a leadership position.

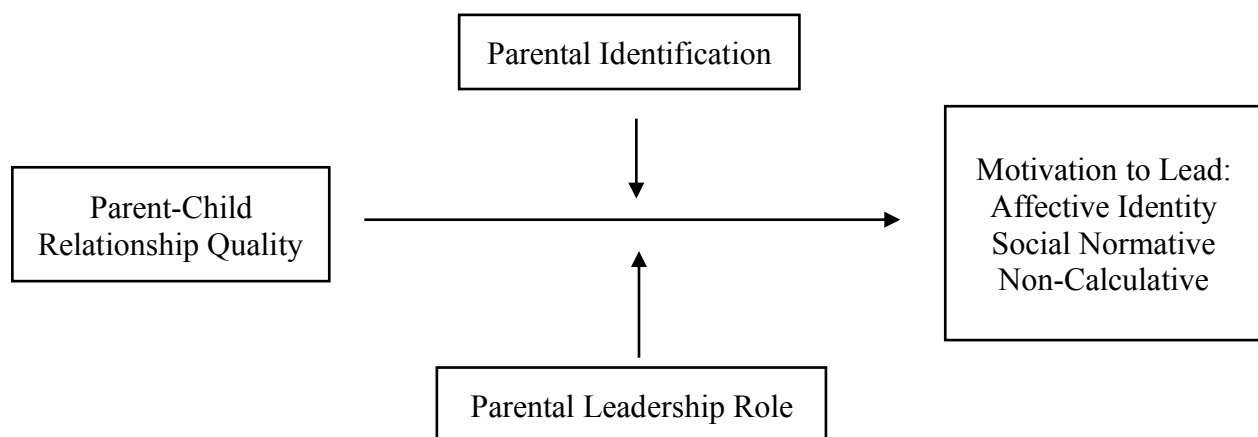
Current Study

There is considerable research focussing on the association between parental work attitudes and the work attitudes and outcomes of children, including leader emergence and leadership behaviours. However, despite recognizing parent-child relationship quality as vital to

children's outcomes, no research has examined the association between parent-child relationship quality and children's motivation to lead. In addition, little research has examined the moderating influence that parental identification and parental leadership role occupancy may have on the association between parent-child relationship quality and motivation to lead. Therefore, the purpose of Study 1 was to better understand the association between parent-child relationship quality and young adults' motivation to lead (see Figure 1 for all proposed relationships). Understanding the factors that may strengthen the association between parent-child romantic relationship and motivation to lead is especially important given previous research that highlights the impact parental factors have on various children's outcomes. It was important to control for gender and child leadership experience given that research suggests males may be more motivated to take on leadership roles, and that previous leadership experience may impact one's motivation to lead (e.g., Bergner et al., 2019; Elprana et al., 2015).

Figure 1

Proposed Study 1 Relationships: The Moderating Effects of Parental Identification and Parental Leadership Role on the Association Between Parent-Child Relationship Quality and a) Social-Normative Motivation to Lead, b) Social-Normative Motivation to Lead, and c) Non-Calculative Motivation to Lead



Methods

Data was collected from undergraduate students taking introductory psychology classes, where students had the opportunity to participate in research studies to earn research participation credits that count toward their final grade or as bonus points. To be eligible to participate, students must have had one parent or guardian who they were willing to answer questions about. Data for this study was collected online using the online survey tool, Qualtrics. Students who agreed to participate in this study via an online informed consent, were asked to complete an online survey containing items on their relationship with one of their parent's/guardian's, their identification with this parent, and this parent's leadership role status. For the purpose of this study, participants were asked to identify one parent or guardian and were instructed to think about this individual when answering survey items. Participants were also asked to respond to items addressing their leadership status and motivation to lead as well as demographic questions (see Appendix A.3 for the full survey).

Questionnaires

Parental Leadership Role

To measure parental leadership role, participants were asked if their chosen parent was in a work leadership role (for the purpose of this study, we define a leadership position as a managerial role, or role in which your parent oversees the work of others in their organization). Participants responded to this question using the options 'yes' or 'no'.

Parent-Child Relationship Quality

The Unidimensional Relationship Closeness Scale (Dibble et al., 2012) was used to measure parent-child relationship quality. This scale contains 12 items on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*. Example of items include “*When we are apart,*

I miss my parent a great deal”, “*My relationship with my parent is important in my life*” and “*My parent and I want to spend time together*”. Participants were asked to identify one parent and to think of this identified individual while answering these questions. This scale was found to be highly reliable ($\alpha = .96$).

Parental Identification

To measure how closely students identify with their parent, a 4-item measure, revised by Barling, Dupré, and Hepburn (1998) from a scale developed by MacEwen (1991) assessing the extent to which a child identifies with their parent as a person, was used. Participants were asked to answer these questions with the parent they chose to answer questions about for this survey in mind. This scale includes items like, “*My personality is like my parent’s*” and “*My attitudes and beliefs are like my parent’s*” and is assessed on a 7-point scale, ranging from 1 = *not at all true* to 7 = *very true*. This revised scale was found to have high reliability ($\alpha = .86$).

Motivation to Lead

The Motivation to Lead Scale (Chan & Drasgow, 2001) was used to measure motivation to lead. This scale contains 27 items on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*. Of these items, nine are included for affective-identity motivation to lead (i.e., “*I am the type of person who is interested in leading others*” and “*I usually want to be the leader in groups I work with*”), nine for non-calculative motivation to lead (i.e., “*I am only interested in leading a group if there are clear advantages for me*”), and nine for social-normative motivation to lead (i.e., “*I feel I have a duty to lead others if I am asked*” and “*I was taught to believe in the value of leading others*”). For the purpose of this study, I will be examining each subtype of motivation to lead as opposed to one overall score. The affective-identity ($\alpha = .86$), non-calculative ($\alpha = .84$), and social-normative ($\alpha = .81$) subscale was found to be reliable.

Demographics

Participants completed information on their age, education, gender, and the extent to which they identified with a parent. Participants also indicated whether they were currently employed, how much time they spent with their workplace supervisor, and whether they were currently in either a workplace or other type of leadership role (i.e., volunteer, sports team, school committee). Lastly, participants completed information about their chosen parent's demographic information, including their leadership status. Pertinent demographic information is included Table 1.

Table 1*Study 1 Means and Standard Deviations of Demographic Characteristics*

Variable	N	Range	M	SD
Participant Age	435	17-32	19.20	1.90
Parent Age	442	25-84	50.20	8.20
Participant Leadership Status			<i>Percentage</i>	
Yes	310		70.10	
No	132		29.90	
Parent Leadership Status				
Yes	201		45.50	
No	241		54.50	
Participant Gender				
Male	130		29.40	
Female	298		67.40	
Nonbinary	10		2.30	
Prefer not to specify	1		0.20	
Parent Gender				
Male	76		17.20	
Female	365		82.60	
Nonbinary	1		0.20	
Identified Parent				
Mother	366		82.2	
Father	69		15.6	
Stepmother	1		0.2	
Other	6		1.4	

Participants

Data was collected from 442 individuals ($M_{\text{age}} = 20$, $SD = 1.9$). Almost three quarters of the participants were female (67.4%; $n = 298$), and about three-quarters of the participants had experience in a non-work leadership role (70.1%; $n = 310$). Participants were asked to indicate which parent they were thinking of when completing the survey, and most participants identified with their mother (83%, $n = 365$). The average parent age fell between the age bracket of 45-45 and most parents/guardians identified were female (82.6%, $n = 365$). About half of the identified

parents/guardians are currently in a work-work leadership role (45.5%, $n = 201$) and over half of the identified parents have experience in a non-work leadership role (65.4%, $n = 289$). See Table 1 for means and standard deviations of pertinent demographic variables.

Statistical Analysis

Moderation hypotheses were assessed using the Process macro (Hayes, 2022) and regression analyses were conducted to estimate moderation with bootstrapping and confidence intervals. This model allows for the estimation of direct effects and moderation, which were appropriate for testing direct effects and moderation hypotheses proposed in this research. Six separate statistical analyses were performed in Study 1 to determine whether parental identification and parental leadership role moderated the relationship between parent-child relationship quality and each subtype of motivation to lead. Statistical significance of both the direct effects and moderation was decided using bias corrected 95% confidence intervals, based on 5,000 bootstrapped resamples (MacKinnon et al., 2004). The direct effect and moderating effects were deemed significant at $p < 0.05$ if the bias-corrected CIs did not include zero. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported for all analyses in Tables 3 and 4. As previously mentioned, gender and leadership experience were controlled for.

Results

Outliers

Potential outliers were examined by standardizing all variables, where values greater than 3.29 or below -3.29 were deemed to be outliers. Although two standardized values on the measure of relationship quality ($z = -3.38$), three standardized values on the measures of parental identification ($z = -3.88$) and social-normative motivation to lead ($z = -3.54$) were found to be outliers, the participants were included in further analyses given that the sample size was

sufficiently large and corresponding scores for other measures were not outliers (e.g., Field, 2016; Harris, 1995).

Missing Data

Of the 488 cases collected, 46 (9.4%) had missing data on one or more measure. All cases with missing data were excluded from analysis resulting in 442 cases included in the final analysis.

Assumption Testing

Tests of assumptions of ordinary least squares regression were conducted. Plots of *zpred* vs *zresid* were created to test assumptions of linearity and homoscedasticity. Normal Q-Q plots and boxplots were generated, and z-tests of skew and kurtosis were conducted to test the assumption of normality. Assumptions of linearity, homoscedasticity, and normality for regression were met.

Correlation Analysis

Prior to testing study hypotheses, correlations among study variables were assessed. Parent-child relationship quality was significantly correlated with all three subtypes of motivation to lead. Consistent with previous research, (a) affective-identity, (b) social-normative, and (c) non-calculative motivation to lead were also highly correlated with one another. Parental-identification was significantly correlated with both (a) affective-identity and (b) social-normative motivation to lead, as well as with parent-child relationship quality. Furthermore, parental work leadership role was significantly correlated with both (a) affective-identity and (b) social-normative motivation to lead. See Table 2 for means, standard deviations and correlations among study variables.

Table 2*Study 1 Correlations and Descriptive Statistics of Study Variables*

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Relationship Quality	5.4	1.3	-					
2. Parental Identification	2.9	.50	.21**	-				
3. AI MTL	4.4	1.1	.15**	.25**	-			
4. NC MTL	4.8	1.0	.15**	.09	.21**	-		
5. SN MTL	4.6	.80	.30**	.16**	.52**	.29**	-	
6. Parent Leadership Role	.50	.50	.07	-.02	.16**	-.04	.13**	-
7. Participant Leadership Role	0.7	.50	.01	.11*	.29**	.21**	.28**	.10*

*** $p < 0.001$; ** $p < 0.01$ (2-tailed); * $p < .05$; $N = 442$

Note: AI MTL= Affective Identity Motivation to Lead; NC MTL= Non-Calculative Motivation to Lead; SN MTL= Social Normative Motivation to Lead

Main Analyses

To determine the moderating effects of parental identification and parental leadership role on the relationship between romantic relationship quality and each subtype of motivation to lead, six separate moderation models were conducted using the PROCESS macro (Hayes, 2022, Model 1) in SPSS. Confidence intervals were computed based on 5,000 bootstrap samples and both participant gender and child non-work leadership role were controlled for in all analyses.

Table 3 shows the direct and moderating effects of the relationship between parent-child relationship quality and (a) affective-identity motivation to lead, (b) social-normative motivation to lead, and (c) non-calculative motivation to lead, moderated by parental identification. There was no significant association between parent-child relationship quality and affective-identity motivation to lead ($b = 0.14$, CI [-0.27, 0.55]), thus hypothesis 1a was not supported. However, there was a significant positive relation between parent-child relationship quality and social-normative motivation to lead ($b = 0.41$, CI [0.09, 0.73]), supporting hypothesis 1b. Parent-child relationship quality was also positively associated with non-calculative motivation to lead ($b = -0.58$, CI [-0.98, -0.19]), supporting hypothesis 1c.

Hypothesis 2a was not supported, given that parent-child relationship quality and parental identification did not interact to predict affective-identity motivation to lead ($b = -0.00$, CI [-0.15, 0.14]). Similarly, parent-child relationship quality and parental identification did not interact to predict social-normative motivation to lead ($b = -0.07$, CI [-0.19, 0.04]), thus hypothesis 2b was not supported. However, parent-child relationship quality and parental identification did interact ($b = 0.25$, CI [0.10, 0.39]; see Figure 2) to predict non-calculative motivation to lead, supporting hypothesis 2c. Specifically, the association between parent-child relationship quality and motivation to lead was strongest when parental identification was high.

Table 3

Moderation of Parental Identification on the Association between Parent-Child Relationship Quality and a) Affective-Identity Motivation to Lead, b) Social-Normative Motivation to Lead, and c) Non-Calculative Motivation to Lead

Effects	<i>b</i>	SE	p	95% CI	
				Lower	Upper
Outcome: Affective-Identity Motivation to Lead					
Relationship Quality	0.14	0.21	0.50	-0.27	0.55
PI	0.43	0.43	0.31	-0.41	1.28
Relationship Quality X PI	0.00	0.07	0.96	-0.15	0.14
Outcome: Social-Normative Motivation to Lead					
Relationship Quality	0.41	0.16	<.01	0.09	0.73
PI	0.53	0.33	0.11	-0.13	1.18
Relationship Quality X PI	0.16	0.06	0.19	-0.01	0.34
Outcome: Non-Calculative Motivation to Lead					
Relationship Quality	-0.58	0.20	<.01	-0.98	-0.19
PI	-1.31	0.41	<.001	-2.12	-0.50
Relationship Quality X PI	0.25	0.07	<.001	0.11	0.39

Note. All covariates (gender and non-work leadership role) were controlled; PI= Parental Identification

Figure 1

Parental Identification as a Moderator in the Association between Parent-Child Relationship Quality and Non-Calculative Motivation to Lead.

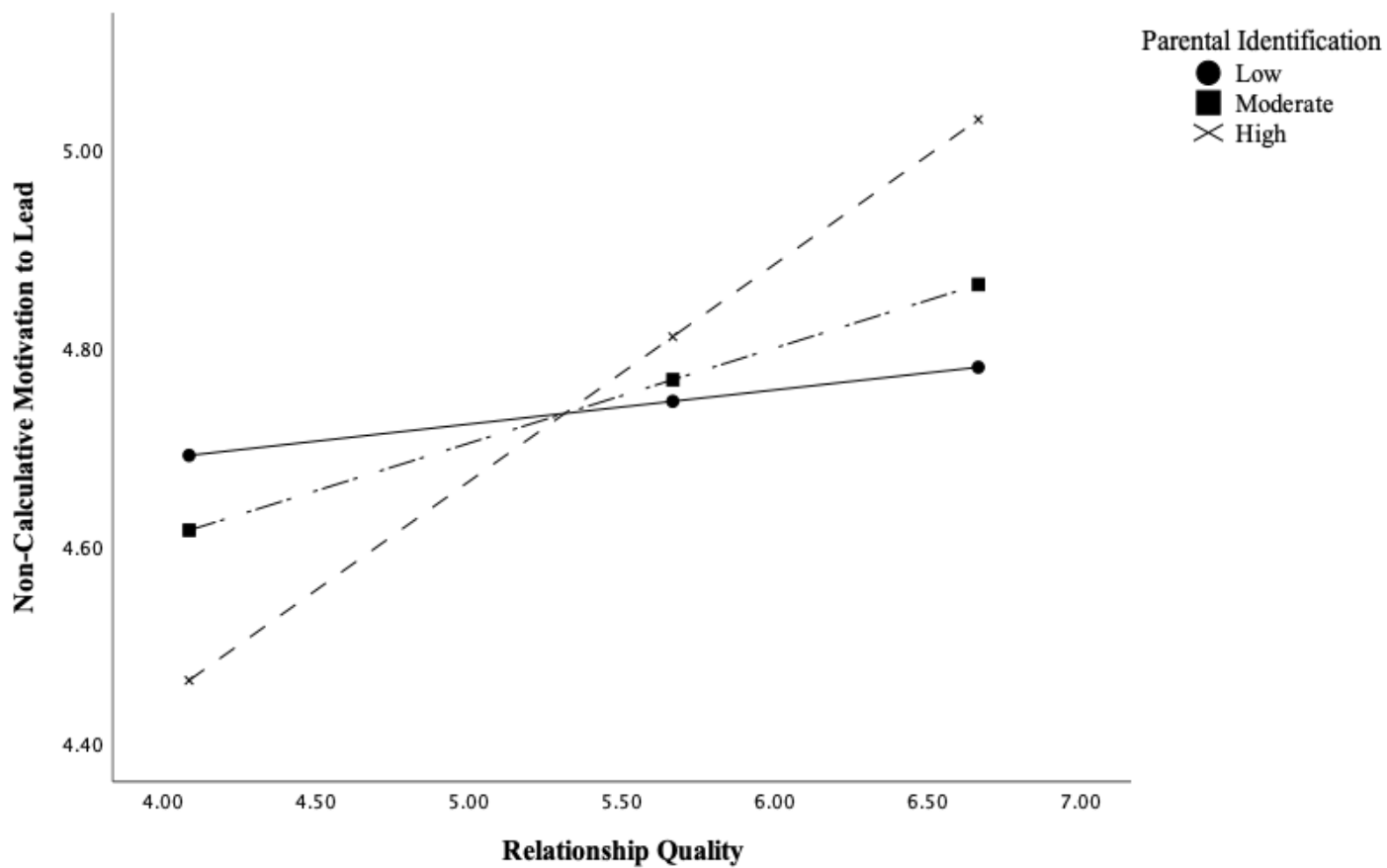


Table 4 shows the direct and moderating effects of the relationship between parent-child relationship quality and (a) affective-identity motivation to lead, (b) social-normative motivation to lead, and (c) non-calculative motivation to lead, moderated by parental leadership role. As seen in Table 3, parent-child relationship quality was not associated with (a) affective-identity motivation to lead but was positively associated with (b) social-normative, and (c) non-calculative motivation to lead. Parent-child relationship quality and parent work leadership role interacted to predict (a) affective-identity motivation to lead ($b = 0.16$, CI [0.01, 0.31]; See Figure 3), supporting hypothesis 3a such that the association between parent-child relationship quality and affective-identity motivation to lead was strongest when parents were in a work leadership role. Parent-child relationship quality and parent work leadership role did not interact to predict (b) social-normative motivation to lead ($b = 0.03$, CI [-0.08, 0.22]), failing to support hypothesis 3b. Parent-child relationship quality and parent work leadership role also did not interact to predict (c) non-calculative motivation to lead ($b = -0.02$, CI [-0.16, 0.13]) failing to support hypothesis 3c.

Table 4

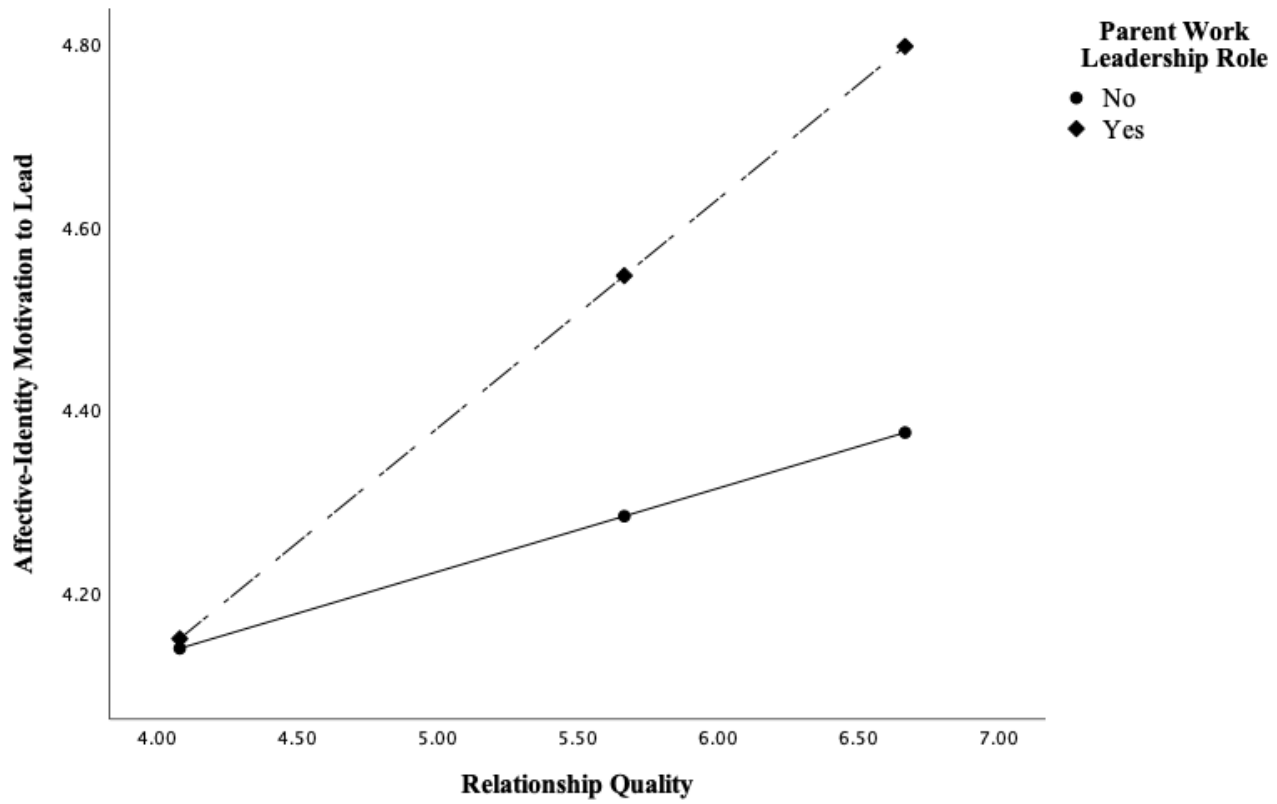
Moderation of Parental Leadership Role on the Association between Parent-Child Relationship Quality and a) Affective-Identity Motivation to Lead, b) Social-Normative Motivation to Lead, and c) Non-Calculative Motivation to Lead

Effects	<i>b</i>	SE	p	95% CI	
				Lower	Upper
Outcome: Affective-Identity Motivation to Lead					
Relationship Quality	0.09	0.05	0.09	-0.01	0.19
PLR	-0.61	0.43	0.15	-1.45	0.22
Relationship Quality X PLR	0.16	0.08	0.04	0.01	0.31
Outcome: Social-Normative Motivation to Lead					
Relationship Quality	0.19	0.04	<.001	0.11	0.27
PLR	-0.05	0.33	0.88	-0.69	0.59
Relationship Quality X PLR	0.03	0.06	0.56	-0.08	0.15
Outcome: Non-Calculative Motivation to Lead					
Relationship Quality	0.13	0.05	<.01	0.03	0.23
PLR	-0.07	0.41	0.87	-0.87	0.74
Relationship Quality X PLR	-0.02	0.07	0.81	-0.16	0.13

Note. All covariates (gender and non-work leadership role) were controlled; PLR= Parent Leadership Role

Figure 2

Parent Work Leadership Role as a Moderator in the Association between Parent-Child Relationship Quality and Affective-Identity Motivation to Lead.



Study 1 Discussion

The goal of this study was to provide a better understanding of factors related to motivation to lead. In this study, I proposed and tested hypotheses designed to address this gap in the literature by examining the association between parent-child relationship quality and motivation to lead and the moderating roles of parental identification and parental leadership role. Utilizing all three subscales of motivation to lead, the association between parent-child relationship quality and (a) affective-identity, (b) social-normative, and (c) non-calculative motivation to lead were assessed. The extent to which parental identification and parental leadership role moderated the association between parent-child relationship quality and each subtype of motivation to lead were also assessed. Overall, results from Study 1 have the potential to expand our understanding of antecedents to motivation to lead, as well as factors that may influence this association.

Parent-Child Relationship Quality

Drawing on social learning theory (Bandura, 1978) and spillover-crossover theory (e.g., Bakker & Demerouti, 2013; Bakker & Demerouti, 2009; Bolger, 1989), I hypothesized that parent-child relationship quality would be positively associated with young adults (a) affective-identity motivation to lead, (b) social-normative motivation to lead, and (c) non-calculative motivation to lead. The results of this study partially supported this hypothesis as parent-child relationship quality was significantly associated with both (b) social-normative and (c) non-calculative motivation. Young adults who have a high quality and fulfilling relationship at home may learn that having these types of relationships is normal, and that they should also have these types of relationships at work, which could translate into high social-normative motivation to lead. In terms of the positive association between relationship quality and non-calculative

motivation to lead, young adults who have a high parent-child relationship quality and who learn from parents who are non-calculative about decisions may learn to view leadership in a similar way. However, parent-child relationship quality was not associated with (a) affective-identity motivation to lead. Given that affective-identity motivation to lead refers to the amount one enjoys leadership roles and sees themselves as a leader (Chan & Drasgow, 2001), this subtype may focus more on an individual's intrinsic motivation to lead in comparison to the other subtypes. Thus, it is possible that affective-identity motivation to lead is less influenced by relationship quality, since it is more focused on one's internal desires to lead. Future research should further investigate why these subtypes may theoretically differ from one another, specifically affective-identity motivation to lead, as little research has been done in this area. Future studies could investigate the proposed associations using a sample of adolescent participants (e.g., ages 12-18), as a younger group of participants may be more highly influenced by their parents since they are more often living at with their parents (whereas most participants in the current study were not), and thus spend more immediate/physical time around their parent. Further, this study was conducted via the perceptions of young adults only, and findings may differ if parents reported on parent-child relationship quality and other experiences of their own. Future studies should use parent-child dyadic data to replicate these findings.

Parental Identification

Further, drawing on social learning theory (Bandura, 1978) as well as previous research that suggests that the extent to which one closely identifies with their parent is associated with parental relationship quality (Hartman & Harris, 1992) I hypothesised that the relationship between parent-child relationship quality and (a) affective-identity motivation to lead, (b) social-normative motivation to lead, and (c) non-calculative motivation to lead, would be moderated by

parental identification. Specifically, given that parental identification may strengthen the influence parents have on their children's outcomes (e.g., Bell, 1979; Knafo, 2004), it was hypothesised that these relationships would be stronger when parental identification was high. Although supported by previous research, parental identification did not moderate the association between parent-child relationship quality and (a) affective identity or (b) social normative motivation to lead. However, parental identification did moderate the association between parent-child relationship quality and (c) non-calculative motivation to lead, such that this association was strongest at high and moderate levels of parental identification and did not differ when parental identification was low. As such, young adults with high parent-child relationship quality had greater levels of non-calculative motivation to lead and this association was strongest when they also highly identified with their chosen parent. The moderating role of parental identification may be significant for this sub-type of motivation to lead if young adults are learning from a parent who is non-calculative about decisions they make, and who focus on the positives rather than the negatives of their choices. Thus, results partially supported this hypothesis.

Again, it is possible that parental identification did not have a strong impact on the association between parent-child relationship quality and (a) affective-identity motivation to lead, as this subtype may be more influenced by individual differences, such as personality traits or self-efficacy, and less so by their relationships with others as it encompasses a more intrinsic desire to lead. Despite support from previous research, parental identification also did not moderate the association between parent-child relationship quality and (b) social-normative motivation to lead. It is possible that if a child closely identifies with a parent who does not view leadership as a responsibility or duty, that this may not influence or may even mitigate a child's

social-normative motivation to lead as they may learn and take on the leadership views of their parents. Thus, future research should investigate the association between parent views on leadership, including their motivation to lead, and their children's subsequent motivation to lead, and how closely these views mirror parent and child responses.

Parental Leadership Role

Again, drawing on social learning theory and research suggesting that children are likely to follow similar career trajectories as their parents (e.g., Oliveria et al., 2020), I hypothesized that the association between parent-child relationship quality and (a) affective-identity motivation to lead, (b) social-normative motivation to lead, and (c) non-calculative motivation to lead would be moderated by parental leadership role, such that these relationships would be stronger when their parent held a leadership position. Results partially supported my hypothesis as parent leadership role positively moderated the association between parent-child relationship quality and (a) affective-identity motivation to lead, such that this association was amplified when parents were in a leadership role. In other words, having a parent in a leadership role strengthened the association between relationship quality and the degree to which young adults enjoy leadership roles and see themselves as a leader. Further, young adults who have a parent in a leadership position may learn that occupying this type of role is attainable and may see themselves as more of a leader and enjoy the idea of leadership more so than those who do not have a parent in a leadership role. However, contrary to the hypothesized relationships, parental leadership role did not moderate the association between parent-child relationship quality and (b) social-normative or (c) non-calculative motivation to lead.

It is possible that although these parents occupy a leadership role, they are not happy in this role or have communicated negatively about their leadership position, which may negatively

impact or lessen the effects on young adults' motivation to lead. Parental views of leadership roles may impact these subtypes to a greater extent as they are less driven by their own general enjoyment of leadership and self-view as a leader, and thus may be more heavily formed by the attitudes of their parents. Future research should consider not only whether parents hold a leadership position, but also their views, as well as children's perceptions of their parents' leadership views, as this may further influence their motivation to lead. A young adult who sees their parent in a leadership position, but who is unhappy in this position and talks negatively about this role to their child, may be less motivated to lead than someone who sees their parent happy in their leadership role. Moreover, it may be beneficial for future research to assess parental and perceived parental workplace attitudes, specifically attitudes and beliefs towards leadership, as well as collect data with parent-child dyads to see how these reported behaviours align.

Future research should investigate other parental attitudes that may impact children's motivation to lead such as work cynicism, job satisfaction, and leadership attitudes as children's beliefs and attitudes about work are largely influenced by their parents (e.g., Kelloway & Watts, 1994). Similarly, future research could also take a qualitative approach to gain an even deeper understanding of how parents influence children's motivation to lead. This could be accomplished by interviewing parents to determine what types of discussions they have with their children surrounding leadership roles and opportunities to see how this impacts children's views on motivation to lead.

Summary of Study 1

While a great deal of research exists on the effects of parental work attitudes and experiences on their children's view of work, research has yet to focus on the extent to which

parent-child relationship quality is associated with young adults' motivation to lead. Therefore, Study 1 sought to address this gap in the literature. Overall, results of Study 1 contribute to the understanding of how parent-child relationship quality may be associated with motivation to lead, as well as what factors may strengthen this association. Future research should continue to focus on the possible theoretical differences among (a) affective-identity, (b) social-normative, and (c) non-calculative motivation to lead given that results were mixed. Future work may also benefit from examining parent-child dyads, specifically parent-rated and child perceived parental leadership attitudes and workplace value congruence. Further discussion of future directions and limitations are provided in the general discussion.

Study 2- Romantic Relationship Quality & Motivation to Lead

Similar to the relationship between children and their parents, romantic relationships are also salient for young adults as they rival and sometimes surpass the connection they feel with their parents and friends (Finchman & Cui, 2010). Therefore, the purpose of Study 2 was to examine the association between romantic relationship quality and motivation to lead. This study was broadly guided by conservation of resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 2001). This theory explains how people respond to stressors in their environment and how managing those stressors influence well-being (Hobfoll, 2001). COR theory also claims that resource loss is more psychologically impactful than resource gain (Hobfoll, 2001). Therefore, having low relationship quality may result in resource loss, and have more of an impact on personal resources than positive relationship quality. This may lower one's sense of overall well-being and beliefs in their abilities to succeed, including one's self-esteem and self-efficacy. Moreover, individuals in a negative relationship may have less resources and, in turn, may be more conservative of their resources and could be less willing to risk these resources towards pursuing a leadership role.

However, those in a high-quality relationship, who have an increase in personal resources, may be less conservative and more willing to put these resources towards pursuing a leadership role. In terms of the subtypes of motivation to lead, high relationship quality may make an individual feel more capable of leading and allow one to see themselves as a leader (affective-identity). This increase in personal resources may also result in an individual being less calculative about taking on leadership roles, since they will be less conservative of their resources (non-calculative) and may also increase an individual's sense of duty and responsibility to lead since they have a gain of resources to put towards this role (social-normative).

Those experiencing resource gains are better equipped to deal with stress and are less negatively affected by stress as compared to those experiencing a loss of resources. Moreover, individuals experiencing such a loss may not have the available resources to cope with negative experiences (Hobfoll, 2001). As such, in line with COR theory, individuals with high relationship quality will likely be in a resource gain position while those with lower relationship quality may experience resource drain, putting them in a resource loss position, which may be indirectly associated with an individual's motivation to lead. More specifically, this fluctuation of resources, resulting from one's relationship quality with their partner, may directly impact one's self-esteem and, in turn, beliefs in their ability to lead (leader self-efficacy). Thus, in this study I investigated the sequential mediation of self-esteem and leader self-efficacy in the association between romantic relationship quality and motivation to lead.

Romantic Relationship Quality

Romantic relationships are distinct from other forms of social relationships, as romantic partners change their individual self-concepts to include the other (Rusbult et al., 2009), and can be defined as relationships based on mutually acknowledged romantic connections between

people (Stafford & Canary, 1994). Romantic relationship quality, can be defined as the degree of positive, supportive or beneficent experiences compared to negative ones within a relationship or the degree to which partners manifest intimacy, affection and nurturance (Collins et al., 2009). Similar to parent-child relationships, romantic relationships may be specifically salient for young adults as they tend to be more impressionable, and more highly influenced by their interpersonal relationships than are their younger and older counterparts (Krosnick & Alwin, 1989). Moreover, during this time, young adults have a new-found independence and can more freely explore these types of relationships. The salience of romantic relationships also increases during young or emerging adulthood as they rival and sometimes surpass the connection they feel with their parents and friends (Finchman & Cui, 2010).

Although decades of research have shown that work and family life are intertwined, research on romantic relationships – an important aspect of one’s personal life – in relation to the workplace, is relatively understudied (e.g., Dionisi & Barling, 2019; Heller & Watson, 2005; Rogers & May, 2003). More generally, research on the work-family interface has consistently uncovered negative work and personal consequences as a result of work-family conflict and family-work conflict. For example, Frone (2000) found that family-work conflict was positively associated with clinically significant diagnoses of mood, anxiety, and substance abuse disorders. Similarly, low romantic relationship quality is significantly associated with increased clinical levels of depression and increased self-harm behaviours (Levesque et al., 2010; Marchand-Reilly, 2009), while high relationship quality is associated with an increase in emotional security and happiness among emerging adults (Demir, 2008). Thus, the quality of the relationship one has with their partner directly affects their immediate well-being and available resources. Research has also found that increased family-work conflict is associated with increased

absenteeism and passive leadership behaviours (e.g., Che et al., 2017; Forthofer et al., 1996; Hill et al., 2001). Excessive work-family conflict is also known to be associated with both job and life dissatisfaction, burnout, turnover, and marital dissatisfaction (e.g., Adams et al., 1996; Frone et al., 1997; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Netemeyer et al., 1996). Moreover, conflict crosses over between work and home life and can negatively impact personal and work outcomes.

Aside from research on work-family conflict and vice versa, some studies have also investigated the association between romantic relationships and the work interface (e.g., Dionisi & Barling, 2019; Ford et al., 2007; Hughes et al., 1992). Romantic relationship conflict can occur, for example, when partners oppose one another's ideas or disagree about matters important to their relationship resulting in low overall relationship quality (Barki & Hartwick, 2004). This type of conflict has also been linked to negative mental and physical health, as well as weak family well-being (Fincham, 2003). As such, and in line with COR theory (Hobfoll, 2001), romantic relationship conflict is stressful and drains personal resources, which can increase depressive symptomology, and in-turn increase damaging work behaviours such as abusive supervision amongst leaders (Dionisi & Barling, 2019). Romantic, or marital, relationship quality has also been investigated in relation to work-family conflict such that increased work-family conflict is associated with lower marital satisfaction and marital withdrawal (e.g., Coverman 1989; Kinnuen & Mauno, 1998; MacEwen & Barling, 1994). Similarly, a study by Hughes et al. (1992) found that high perceived job pressure, with little organizational support, was related to increased marital discord, while Ford et al. (2007) found that excessive job-involvement and work hours is also related to increased marital conflict. It is important to note that these results are not consistent across gender or career type, leaving findings within this area somewhat non-generalizable.

More recently, a study investigated whether romantic relationships impacted career goal attainment and found that high goal conflict undermined the indirect effect of relationship closeness on career goal attainment (Kornblum et al., 2021). Thus, although these results are not consistent across gender or career type, they empirically support the notion that one's romantic relationship can negatively spillover into one's work life. As such, low relationship quality may increase stress at home, and deplete personal resources, which may ultimately make an individual less motivated to lead and strive for something more, since their energy is being directed elsewhere. Furthering this point, research by Baker (2019) has also shown that relational energy – heightened level of psychological resourcefulness generated from positive interpersonal interaction/high relationship quality – enhances one's capacity to do work and is associated with employee engagement, job performance, and general wellbeing. Thus, positive interactions with a romantic partner and high relationship quality may result in an increase in relational energy, leading one to feel more confident about themselves and their abilities, and may relate to motivation to lead.

An individual's home life, which includes their romantic relationships, can also have positive effects on one's work-life. For example, studies have found that higher relationship quality was directly related to increased job satisfaction (e.g., Heller & Watson, 2005; Rogers & May, 2003), which highlights the impact relationships have on work attitudes. Another study found that work-family enrichment, which may include support from one's romantic partner, is positively related to active leadership such that work-family enrichment mediated the relationship between positive affect and active leadership (Michel et al., 2014). Similarly, a study by Ten Brummelhuis et al. (2014) found that leader work-family-enrichment was positively related to leader work engagement, positive affect, leader supportive behaviours and increased

follower work engagement. Although this study did not specifically examine relationship quality, it demonstrates the role that quality of home-life plays in individual's work behaviours. Thus, romantic relationships are an important aspect of one's home-life, which inevitably spills over into the work domain, and may impact an individual's motivation to lead both positively and negatively. For example, having a positive romantic relationship may increase an individual's emotional and cognitive resources (e.g., feelings of confidence strength, and initiative in taking action; Baker, 2019), which may likely be associated with one's self-esteem and belief in their ability to lead, which in turn, may might make an individual more motivated to lead.

Self-Esteem and Leader Self-Efficacy

As previously mentioned, romantic relationship quality can lead to both a resource gain and/or resource drain, and can impact overall well-being including self-esteem (Hobfoll, 2011). Self-esteem can be defined as an individual's subjective evaluation of their self-worth as a person and involves feelings of self-respect and self-acceptance (e.g., Leary & Baumeister, 2000). It has been well established that interpersonal relationships can influence individual self-esteem (e.g., Harter, 2006; Stinson et al., 2008). For example, those who feel they have poor social support and weak social bonds report having lower self-esteem than those with high-quality interpersonal relationships (Stinson et al., 2008). Similarly, the quality of romantic relationships can also influence an individual's self-esteem. Self-esteem is not fixed and may be particularly influenced by relationship quality during late adolescence and young adulthood, a critical developmental period, when individuals typically begin to form and identify with these types of intimate relationships (e.g., Hutteman et al., 2014; Orth & Robins, 2014).

Research by Leary and Baumeister (2000) suggests that a person's self-esteem suffers if they perceive that their partner is dissatisfied with the relationship and, alternatively, an

individual's self-esteem increases if they perceive their partner is happy with the relationship. Although these findings are based on their partners perceived relationship quality, it is likely these findings would be consistent with their own reported relationship quality. Similarly, it has been found that if an individual perceives their relationship as positive, and reports feeling close to their partner, which aligns with high relationship quality, their self-esteem will be higher than if they are experiencing relational conflict and low relationship quality (e.g., Erol & Orth, 2017; Mund et al., 2015). This ties into COR theory, as stressful or upsetting events are known to drain an individual's resources which leads to poorer well-being, which includes decreased self-esteem, while a positive relationship can help increase individual resources, which can increase one's self-esteem. Relational conflict, associated with low relationship quality, is also correlated to lower self-esteem, especially amongst women who seem to be more strongly affected by relational conflict compared to their male counterparts (Voss et al., 1999). Thus, research has consistently found a relationship between relationship quality and self-esteem such that poor relationship quality is correlated with lower self-esteem, and high relationship quality is correlated with increased self-esteem.

Self-esteem has also been consistently associated with self-efficacy (e.g., Gardner & Pierce, 1998; Judge & Bono, 2001; Lane et al., 2004; Liu et al., 2019), which in the context of leadership refers to an individual's belief in their own ability to act as a leader in a group setting. The studies mentioned above suggest that although unique, self-esteem and self-efficacy are associated such that high self-esteem is associated with high levels of self-efficacy. For example, a study by Lane et al. (2004) found that self-esteem and self-efficacy were strongly correlated factors which were, in turn, associated with academic performance. Thus, having high self-

esteem increases one's beliefs in their ability to succeed in a task, which may also extend to one's belief in their ability to lead others.

More specific to the current study, research by Liu et al. (2019) found that the association between over-parenting and leader emergence was sequentially mediated by self-esteem and leader self-efficacy such that over-parenting is related to lower self-esteem, which was associated with lower leader self-efficacy, which was in turn associated with lower leader emergence. Thus, both self-esteem and leader self-efficacy together mediated the relationship between parenting behaviours and their children's likelihood to emerge as a leader. Although this study investigated the relationship behaviours between parents and child and not romantic partners, it lends support for the idea that self-esteem and leader self-efficacy together may impact motivation to lead and that these constructs may also be influenced by the quality of romantic relationships. Taken together with the research presented throughout this section, self-esteem may fluctuate based on the current quality of one's romantic relationship and may also influence leader self-efficacy.

As previously stated, leader self-efficacy refers to an individual's belief in their own ability to act as a leader in a group setting (e.g., Chemers et al., 2000; Kane et al., 2002) and is often associated with an individual's self-esteem, such that those with high self-esteem tend to have higher leader self-efficacy than those with low self-esteem (Liu et al., 2019). However, self-esteem and leader self-efficacy are distinct constructs as self-esteem is the overall evaluation of one's own worth in respect to themselves (Rosenberg, 1965), while leader self-efficacy is more specific and reflects on individual's momentary belief in their capability to lead others. Self-efficacy has also been shown to be more closely related to motivational variables, whereas self-esteem is more closely related to affective variables (Judge & Bono, 2001).

Existing research has typically investigated leader self-efficacy in relation to leader development, emergence, and effectiveness (e.g., Ali et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2019). For example, research has found that leader self-efficacy mediated the relationship between overparenting and leader emergence such that negative parenting decreased individual's leader self-efficacy which then decreased leader emergence (Liu et al., 2019). Thus, leader self-efficacy is related to one's leader emergence and may also be related to motivation to lead, as this is often linked to leader emergence. Notably, self-efficacy is also related to one's motivational orientation such that high leader self-efficacy is associated with an increase in all three subtypes of motivation to lead (Chen et al., 2004). Thus, individuals with a high degree of leader self-efficacy may be more motivated to lead since they believe they can successfully act as a leader in comparison to those who have low leader self-efficacy, who may feel less capable in their ability to lead.

Research has also started to identify the link between self-esteem and self-efficacy in terms of work outcomes. For example, a study by Ahmed et al. (2019) suggests that both self-esteem and self-efficacy together worked to predict perceived employability and future career success, while a study by Paglis and Green (2002) explains how self-esteem acts as an antecedent to leader self-efficacy, which is associated with an increase to attempt a leadership position. Thus, self-esteem often precedes and influences an individual's leader self-efficacy, which may predict an individual's motivation to lead. For example, high leader self-efficacy may be associated with one's self-view and enjoyment in taking on a leadership role (affective-identity), may increase an individual's sense of duty and responsibility to lead since the workplace needs capable leaders (social-normative), and may make one less worried about the consequences of this role since they believe they can perform a leadership role well (non-calculative). Thus, given that leader self-efficacy likely affects motivation to lead in various

ways, and given the positive associations among the three subtypes of motivation to lead, it is therefore reasonable to assume that romantic relationship quality is associated with all subtypes of motivation to lead via self-esteem and leader self-efficacy. Overall, taken together with the research presented above, I argue that self-esteem and leader self-efficacy will sequentially mediate the association between romantic relationship quality and all three subtypes of motivation to lead, and thus propose the following hypothesis:

H1: The relationship between romantic relationship quality and (a) affective-identity motivation to lead, (b) social-normative motivation to lead, and (c) non-calculative motivation to lead, will be sequentially mediated by self-esteem and leader self-efficacy, such that when romantic relationship quality is higher, self-esteem will be higher, which will in turn be associated with higher leader self-efficacy, which will be related to higher (a) affective-identity motivation to lead, (b) social-normative motivation to lead, and (c) non-calculative motivation to lead.

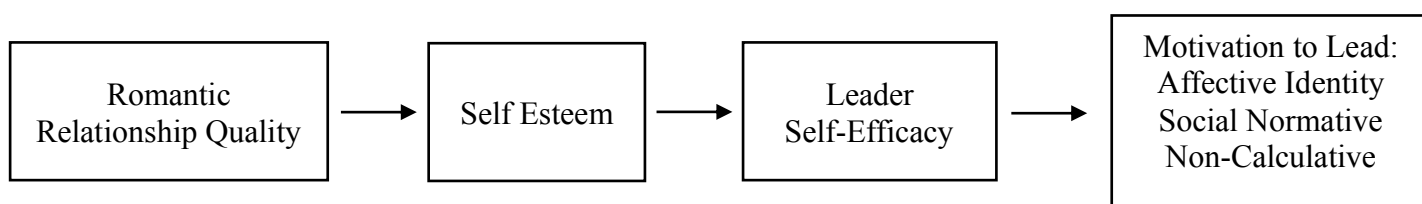
Current Study

Although research has shown the strong association between romantic relationship quality and work outcomes, research has yet to examine the association between romantic relationship quality and motivation to lead. In addition, research has not yet examined the process by which this association occurs; specifically, the potential mediating roles of both self-esteem and leader self-efficacy. This process by which romantic relationship quality may influence motivation to lead is especially important to include in the examination of this relationship, given the strong association between romantic relationship quality and one's overall wellbeing and self-view. Thus, using support from COR theory, Study 2 aims to provide a better understanding of the association romantic relationship quality may have with an individual's motivation to lead, as well as the mechanisms through which this happens. Specifically, Study 2

examines the sequential mediation of the association between romantic relationship quality and motivation to lead, by self-esteem and leader self-efficacy. See Figure 4 for the proposed relationships in Study 2. As in Study 1, I controlled for gender, and leadership experience given that research suggests males may be more motivated to take on leadership roles and that previous leadership experience may impact one's motivation to lead (e.g., Bergner et al., 2019; Elprana et al., 2015)

Figure 3

Proposed Sequential Mediation of the Relationship Between Romantic Relationship Quality and Motivation to Lead by Self-Esteem and Leader Self-Efficacy



Methods

Data was collected from undergraduate students enrolled in introductory psychology classes, where students had the opportunity to participate in research studies to earn research participation credits that count toward their final grade or as bonus points. To be eligible to participate, students must have been in a current romantic relationship for a minimum of three months. Data for this study was collected online using the online survey tool, Qualtrics. Students who agreed to participate in this study via an online informed consent, were asked to complete an online survey containing items on their relationship with their romantic partner, and their partners leadership role status. Participants were also asked items addressing their self-esteem, leader self-efficacy, leadership status, and motivation to lead as well as demographic questions (see Appendix B.3 for the full survey).

Questionnaires

Relationship Quality

To measure romantic relationship quality, the short-form romantic relationship quality scale by Fletcher et al. (2000) was used. This scale contains 6 items on a scale of 1 = *not at all* to 7 = *extremely*. This scale includes items such as “*How committed are you to your relationship*” and “*How close do you feel to your partner*” and had a reliability score of $\alpha = .90$.

Self-Esteem

The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Inventory was used to measure self-esteem (Rosenberg, 1965). This scale contains 10 items on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 = *strongly agree* to 7 = *strongly disagree*. This scale includes items such as “*At times I think I’m no good at all*” and “*I feel that I’m a person of worth*” and had a reliability score of $\alpha = .82$.

Leader Self-Efficacy

The Leadership Self-Efficacy Scale (Bobbio & Manganelli, 2009) was used to measure individual’s perceived leader self-efficacy and contains 21 items on a scale from 1 = *absolutely false* to 7 = *absolutely true*. Examples of items include “*I am able to change things within a group even if they are not completely under my control*”, “*I am able to optimally spread out the work between group members to get the best results*”, and “*I can successfully manage relationships with all the members of a group*”. This scale was found to be reliable ($\alpha = .95$).

Motivation to Lead

The Motivation to Lead Scale (Chan & Drasgow, 2001) was used to measure motivation to lead. This scale contains 27 items on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*. Of these items, nine are included for affective-identity motivation to lead (i.e., “*I am the type of person who is interested in leading others*” and “*I usually want to be the leader in*

groups I work with”), nine for non-calculative motivation to lead (i.e., “*I am only interested in leading a group if there are clear advantages for me*”), and nine for social-normative motivation to lead (i.e., “*I feel I have a duty to lead others if I am asked*” and “*I was taught to believe in the value of leading others*”). For the purpose of this study, I will be examining each subtype of motivation to lead as opposed to one overall score. The affective-identity ($\alpha = .86$), non-calculative ($\alpha = .85$), and social-normative ($\alpha = .80$) subscale was found to be reliable.

Demographics

Participants completed information on their age, education, gender, and length of their current romantic relationship. Participants also indicated whether they are currently employed, how much time they spent with their workplace supervisor, and whether they were currently in either a workplace or other type of leadership role (i.e., volunteer, sports team, school committee).

Lastly, participants completed information about their romantic partners demographic information, including their leadership status. Pertinent demographic information can be seen in Table 5.

Table 5*Study 2 Means and Standard Deviations of Demographic Characteristics*

Variable	N	Range	M	SD
		3 months - 5+		
Relationship Length	261	years	1.39	1.24
Partner Age	260	16-45	20.48	3.46
Participant Age	257	17-49	19.62	3.01
Partner Leadership Status			<i>Percentage</i>	
Yes	181		69.30	
No	80		30.70	
Participant Leadership Status				
Yes	197		75.50	
No	64		24.50	
Partner Gender				
Male	185		70.9	
Female	72		27.6	
Nonbinary	3		1.1	
Prefer not to specify	1		0.4	
Participant Gender				
Male	66		25.3	
Female	186		71.3	
Nonbinary	7		2.7	
Prefer not to specify	1		0.4	

Participants

Data was collected from 261 individuals ($M_{\text{age}} = 20$, $SD = 3.01$) who indicated that they have been in a committed romantic relationship for at least 3 months, and almost three-quarters of the participants were female (71.3%, $n = 186$). Previous research suggests that having a minimum relationship length criteria of 3 months results in reliable findings (e.g., Brackett et al., 2005) and the average relationship length among participants in this study was about 1 year. Three-quarters of the participants had experience in a non-work leadership role (75.5%, $n = 197$). The average romantic partner age was also 20 ($M_{\text{age}} = 20$, $SD = 3.46$) and most partners identified were male (70.9%, $n = 185$). Most romantic partners also had experience in a non-work leadership role (69.3% $n = 181$). See Table 5 for means and standard deviations of pertinent demographic variables.

Statistical Analysis

Sequential mediation hypotheses were assessed using the Process macro (Hayes, 2022) and regression analyses were conducted to estimate moderation with bootstrapping and confidence intervals. This model allows for the estimation of direct and indirect effects in sequential mediation models, which were appropriate for testing sequential mediation hypotheses proposed in this research. Three separate statistical analyses were performed in Study 2 to determine the sequential mediation of self-esteem and leader self-efficacy in the relationship between romantic relationship quality and each subtype of motivation to lead. Statistical significance of both the indirect and direct effects was decided using bias corrected 95% confidence intervals (CI), based on 5,000 bootstrapped resamples (MacKinnon, Lockwood, & Williams, 2004). The direct and indirect effect was deemed significant at $p < 0.05$ if the bias-

corrected CIs did not include zero. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported for all analyses in Tables 7, 8, and 9.

Results

Participants

Data was collected from 261 individuals ($M_{\text{age}} = 20$, $SD = 3.01$) who indicated that they have been in a committed romantic relationship for at least 3 months, and almost three-quarters of the participants were female (71.3%, $n = 186$). Three-quarters of the participants had experience in a non-work leadership role (75.5%, $n = 197$) and the average relationship length among participants was about 1 year. The average romantic partner age was also 20 ($M_{\text{age}} = 20$, $SD = 3.46$) and most partners identified were male (70.9%, $n = 185$). Most romantic partners also had experience in a non-work leadership role (69.3% $n = 181$). See Table 5 for means and standard deviations of pertinent demographic variables.

Outliers

Potential outliers were examined by standardizing all variables, where values greater than 3.29 or below -3.29 were deemed to be outliers. Although four standardized values on the measure of relationship quality ($z = -3.56$), three standardized values on the measures self-esteem ($z = -3.58$) and two standardized values on the measure of leader's self-efficacy ($z = -3.67$) were found to be outliers, the participants were included in further analyses given that the sample size was sufficiently large and corresponding scores for other measures were not outliers (e.g., Field, 2016; Harris, 1995).

Missing Data

Of the 322 cases collected, 61 (18%) had missing data on one or more measure. All cases with missing data were deleted from analysis resulting in 261 cases included in the final analysis.

Assumption Testing

Tests of assumptions of ordinary least squares regression were conducted. Plots of *zpred* vs *zresid* were created to test assumptions of linearity and homoscedasticity. Normal Q-Q plots and boxplots were generated, and z-tests of skew and kurtosis were conducted to test the assumption of normality. Assumptions of linearity, homoscedasticity, and normality for regression were met.

Correlation Analysis

Before testing study hypotheses, correlations among study variables were assessed. Relationship quality was positively associated with self-esteem and leader self-efficacy. Self-esteem was also significantly associated with leader self-efficacy. Furthermore, leader self-efficacy was positively associated with affective-identity, social-normative, and non-calculative motivation to lead. See Table 6 for means, standard deviations and correlations between study variables.

Table 6*Study 2 Correlations and Descriptive Statistics of Study Variables*

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. RQ	6.2	0.9	-							
2. Self Esteem	2.9	0.5	.17**	-						
3. LSE	5.4	0.8	.28**	.14*	-					
4. AI MTL	4.3	1.1	.11	.11	.49**	-				
5. NC MTL	4.7	1.1	.24**	.18**	.24**	.19**	-			
6. SN MTL	4.8	0.8	.17**	.07	.50**	.49**	.31**	-		
7. RL	1.4	1.2	.06	-.05	.04	.01	-.02	-.01	-	
8. Age	19.6	3.0	.01	.04	-.03	-.00	-.03	-.01	.45**	-
9. LR	0.8	0.4	.13*	-.01	.34**	.30**	.14*	.33**	.01	.03

*** $p < 0.001$; ** $p < 0.01$ (2-tailed); * $p < 0.05$; N=261

Note: RQ= Relationship Quality; LSE= Leader Self-Efficacy; AI MTL= Affective Identity Motivation to Lead; NC MTL= Non-Calculative Motivation to Lead; SN MTL= Social Normative Motivation to Lead; RL= Relationship Length

Main Analyses

To test the hypothesized sequential mediation of self-esteem and leader self-efficacy in the relationship between romantic relationship quality and each subtype of motivation to lead, three separate sequential mediation models tests using the PROCESS macro (Hayes, 2022, Model 6) in SPSS were conducted. Confidence intervals were computed based on 5,000 bootstrap samples and both participant gender, and participant non-work leadership role, were controlled for in all analyses.

Table 7 demonstrates the tests of direct and indirect effects of the relationships between romantic relationship quality and affective-identity motivation to lead mediated through self-esteem and leader self-efficacy. The complete model accounted for a significant portion of variance in the outcome ($R^2 = .31$). The full, multiple sequential mediation pathway of *relationship quality* → *self-esteem* → *leader self-efficacy* → *affective-identity motivation to lead* was non-significant (indirect effect = 0.01, 95% CI [-0.00, 0.03]). However, in partial support of hypothesis 1a, the single mediation pathway of *relationship quality* → *leader self-efficacy* → *affective-identity motivation to lead* was significant (indirect effect= 0.12, 95% CI [0.04, 0.22]). Thus, leader self-efficacy mediated the relationship between relationship quality and affective-identity motivation to lead, such that high relationship quality is associated with an increase in leader self-efficacy, which in turn, is associated with an increase in affective-identity motivation to lead.

Table 7

Sequential Mediation Model of Romantic Relationship Quality on Affective-Identity Motivation to Lead through Self-Esteem and Leader Self-Efficacy

Effects	<i>b</i>	SE	p	95% CI	
				Lower	Upper
<u>Direct effects</u>					
Relationship Quality → Self-Esteem	0.10	0.04	<.01	0.03	0.17
Relationship Quality → Leader Self-Efficacy	0.20	0.05	<.001	0.10	0.30
Relationship Quality → AI MTL	-0.05	0.07	0.46	-0.19	0.09
Self-Esteem → Leader Self-Efficacy	0.16	0.09	0.08	-0.01	0.34
Self-Esteem → AI MTL	0.11	0.12	0.35	-0.12	0.34
Leader Self-Efficacy → AI MTL	0.60	0.08	<.001	0.44	0.76
<u>Indirect effects</u>					
Relationship Quality → Self-Esteem → AI MTL	0.01	0.01		-0.01	0.05
Relationship Quality → Leader Self-Efficacy → AI MTL	0.12	0.05		0.04	0.22
Relationship Quality → Self-Esteem → Leader Self-Efficacy → AI MTL	0.01	0.01		-0.00	0.03

Note. All covariates (gender and non-work leadership role) were controlled; AI MTL =

Affective-Identity Motivation to Lead

Table 8 demonstrates the test of direct and indirect effects of the relationships between romantic relationship quality and non-calculative motivation to lead mediated through self-esteem and leader self-efficacy. The complete model accounted for a significant portion of variance in the outcome ($R^2 = .27$). The full, multiple sequential mediation pathway of *relationship quality* → *self-esteem* → *leader self-efficacy* → *non-calculative motivation to lead* was non-significant (indirect effect = 0.00, 95% CI [-0.00, 0.01]). However, in partial support of hypothesis 1b, the single mediation pathway of *relationship quality* → *leader self-efficacy* → *non-calculative motivation to lead* (indirect effect= 0.04, 95% CI [0.00, 0.09]) and *relationship quality* → *self-esteem* → *non-calculative motivation to lead* (indirect effect= 0.03, 95% CI [0.00, 0.07]) was significant. In other words, high relationship quality is associated with an increase in both self-esteem and leader self-efficacy, which are separately associated with an increase in non-calculative motivation to lead.

Table 8

Sequential Mediation Model of Romantic Relationship Quality on Non-Calculative Motivation to Lead through Self-Esteem and Leader Self-Efficacy

Effects	<i>b</i>	SE	p	95% CI	
				Lower	Upper
<u>Direct effects</u>					
Relationship Quality → Self-Esteem	0.10	0.04	<.01	0.03	0.17
Relationship Quality → Leader Self-Efficacy	0.20	0.05	<.001	0.10	0.30
Relationship Quality → NC MTL	0.19	0.07	<.01	0.06	0.33
Self-Esteem → Leader Self-Efficacy	0.16	0.09	0.08	-0.01	0.34
Self-Esteem → NC MTL	0.28	0.12	<.01	0.04	0.52
Leader Self-Efficacy → NC MTL	0.19	0.08	<.01	0.02	0.36
<u>Indirect effects</u>					
Relationship Quality → Self-Esteem → NC MTL	0.03	0.02		0.00	0.07
Relationship Quality → Leader Self-Efficacy → NC MTL	0.04	0.02		0.00	0.09
Relationship Quality → Self-Esteem → Leader Self-Efficacy → NC MTL	0.00	0.00		-0.00	0.01

Note. All covariates (gender and non-work leadership role) were controlled; NC MTL = Non-Calculative Motivation to Lead

Table 9 demonstrates the test of direct and indirect effects of the relationships between romantic relationship quality and social-normative motivation to lead mediated through self-esteem and leader self-efficacy. The complete model accounted for a significant portion of variance in the outcome ($R^2 = .35$). The full, multiple sequential mediation pathway of *relationship quality* → *self-esteem* → *leader self-efficacy* → *social-normative motivation to lead* was non-significant (indirect effect = 0.01, 95% CI [-0.00, 0.02]). However, in partial support of hypothesis 1c, the single mediation pathway of *relationship quality* → *leader self-efficacy* → *social-normative motivation to lead* (indirect effect= 0.08, 95% CI [0.03, 0.16]) was significant. In other words, high relationship quality is associated with an increase in leader self-efficacy, which in turn is associated with an increase in social-normative motivation to lead.

Table 9

Sequential Mediation Model of Romantic Relationship Quality on Social Normative Motivation to Lead through Self-Esteem and Leader Self-Efficacy

Effects	<i>b</i>	SE	p	95% CI	
				Lower	Upper
<u>Direct effects</u>					
Relationship Quality → Self-Esteem	0.10	0.04	<.01	0.03	0.17
Relationship Quality → Leader Self-Efficacy	0.20	0.05	<.001	0.10	0.30
Relationship Quality → SN MTL	0.02	0.05	0.66	-0.08	0.12
Self-Esteem → Leader Self-Efficacy	0.16	0.09	0.08	-0.02	0.34
Self-Esteem → SN MTL	0.02	0.08	0.80	-0.14	0.19
Leader Self-Efficacy → SN MTL	0.42	0.06	<.001	0.31	0.54
<u>Indirect effects</u>					
Relationship Quality → Self-Esteem → SN MTL	0.00	0.01		-0.02	0.03
Relationship Quality → Leader Self-Efficacy → SN MTL	0.08	0.03		0.03	0.16
Relationship Quality → Self-Esteem → Leader Self-Efficacy → SN MTL	0.01	0.00		-0.00	0.02

Note. All covariates (gender and non-work leadership role) were controlled; SN MTL = Social Normative Motivation to Lead

Study 2 Discussion

The goal of this study was to provide a better understanding of factors related to motivation to lead, by examining the indirect association between romantic relationship quality and motivation to lead through the mediating roles of both self-esteem and leader self-efficacy. Study 2 addresses the current gap in the literature surrounding relational antecedents to motivation to lead as well as factors that may mediate this association. Utilizing the three subscales of motivation to lead, the indirect association between romantic relationship quality and (a) affective-identity, (b) social-normative, and (c) non-calculative motivation to lead, as sequentially mediated by self-esteem and leader self-efficacy was assessed. Overall, results from Study 2 have the potential to expand our understanding of how the relationship quality one has with their romantic partner may act as an antecedent to motivation to lead, as well as the mechanisms through which this happens.

Drawing on COR theory (Hobfoll, 2001), I hypothesized that the relationship between romantic relationship quality and (a) affective-identity motivation to lead, (b) social-normative motivation to lead, and (c) non-calculative motivation to lead, would be sequentially mediated by self-esteem and leader self-efficacy. Specially, I hypothesized that when romantic relationship quality was high, self-esteem would increase, which would in turn be associated with higher leader self-efficacy, which would be related to higher (a) affective-identity motivation to lead, (b) social-normative motivation to lead, and (c) non-calculative motivation to lead. Self-esteem and leader self-efficacy did not sequentially mediate the indirect association between romantic relationship quality and (a) affective-identity, (b) social-normative, or (c) non-calculative motivation to lead, thus not supporting my hypothesis; however, both self-esteem and leader self-efficacy independently mediated this association. Thus, in partial support of hypothesis 1a,

leader self-efficacy positively mediated the association between romantic relationship quality and (a) affective-identity motivation to lead. In other words, high relationship quality was associated with an increase in one's belief in their ability to act as a leader which, in turn, was associated with an increase in affective-identity motivation to lead. Results also show a positive single path mediation of leader self-efficacy in the association between romantic relationship quality and (b) social-normative motivation to lead, partially supporting hypothesis 1b. It is possible that one's self-esteem is less malleable, and thus less influenced by their relationship with their partner than leader self-efficacy, which may account for why the single mediation occurred.

Future studies should measure how closely one believes their identity overlaps with their romantic partners, in addition to relationship quality, to determine whether shared view of self is more heavily connected to their individual self-esteem than those who view their identity as separate to their partners. Future research should also further examine the roles of relationship length as well as relationship type (e.g., same-sex, monogamous, polyamorous, and so on) as these factors may influence results. Future research should also use matched romantic pairs to decrease possible self-report bias and determine how influential perceptions of partner behaviours are on motivation to lead. Dyadic data would also allow for future research to explore whether these behaviours are perceived the same way between partners. Future research should also examine the role of gender, beyond a control variable, as research suggests that women tend to internalize relational issues more closely than men and hold the majority responsibility of mental labour, thus experiencing greater family-specific mental spillover than men (Offer, 2018).

Interestingly, in partial support of hypothesis 1c, both self-esteem and leader self-efficacy individually mediated the indirect effect of romantic relationship quality on non-calculative

motivation to lead. It is possible that self-esteem mediated this association since having a positive self-view may help to view leadership roles positively, despite the potential consequences this role may have. Moreover, these potential consequences may not impact an individual high in self-esteem as greatly and may seem less severe than if self-esteem were low. Based on previous research, it was also unexpected that these variables did not sequentially mediate the association between romantic relationship quality and the subtypes of motivation to lead. For example, self-esteem has previously been found to be correlated with self-efficacy (e.g., Liu et al., 2019), and a study by Ahmed et al. (2019) found that both self-esteem and self-efficacy together worked to predict perceived employability and future career success. However, it is possible that these variables may not necessarily follow a temporal sequence and may be individually mediating this association. For instance, romantic relationship quality may influence both an individual's self-esteem and leader self-efficacy directly through resource loss or resource gain, and as such, should be looked at as separate mediators. Thus, future research should investigate self-esteem and self-efficacy as parallel mediators rather than as sequential mediators.

Summary of Study 2

While current literature exists within the area of work-life spillover and the impact romantic partners and family may have on work outcomes, research has yet to investigate the impact romantic partners may have on individuals' motivation to lead. Thus, Study 2 addressed this gap by investigating the indirect association between romantic relationship quality and each subtype of motivation to lead, as sequentially mediated by self-esteem and leader self-efficacy. Although my hypothesis was not fully supported, self-esteem and leader self-efficacy were individually found to mediate this association. Future research should use dyadic data to fully

understand the association between romantic partners and individuals' motivation to lead, as partner leadership perceptions may influence this relationship. Future research should also investigate this indirect association as a parallel mediation as opposed to sequential mediation, given the findings in this study. Further discussion of future directions and limitations are provided below.

General Discussion

The overall purpose of this research was to gain a better understanding of the antecedents to motivation to lead. Specifically, these two studies examined the association of 1) parent-child relationship quality and 2) romantic relationship quality on young adults' motivation to lead. These studies further contributed to the limited theoretical understanding of motivation to lead by examining each subtype of motivation to lead. Given that the results were different for each subtype, this research suggests that there may be unique predictors of motivation to lead depending upon which subtype is being considered. While the proposed hypotheses were only partially supported, findings did suggest that both parent-child relationship quality and romantic relationship quality were associated with motivation to lead. However, given that my moderating and mediating hypotheses were not fully supported, other variables may be important when it comes to understanding the association between relationship quality and motivation to lead. Moreover, because there was unique motivation to lead subtype findings, there may also be more salient theoretical differences among the motivation to lead subtypes. For example, other parental characteristics such as parental leadership attitudes and types of conversations they have with their children surrounding leadership roles may be important to consider in future research. The closeness with which one aligns their identity with their romantic partner may also be important to investigate in future research, as this may strengthen the degree to which their

relationship with their partner influences their well-being and decisions. Further future directions, limitations, as well as theoretical and practical implications are discussed below.

Limitations and Future Directions

Although this research has the potential to greatly expand our understanding of antecedents to motivation to lead, this line of research is not without its limitations. Firstly, this research was exclusively collected online, which could increase bias, specifically through self-report and social desirability (e.g., Van de Mortel, 2008). However, given the current COVID-19 pandemic, in-person studies are not safe or possible to conduct at this time. In terms of COVID-19, the impact of this widespread pandemic may have influenced the way participants responded to some questions when participating in this research. For instance, more young adults may be living at home and spending more time with their parents than they were prior to the pandemic (Hall & Zygmunt, 2021). The pandemic may also be associated with greater romantic relationship strain, due to greater external stressors, than before the pandemic (Pietromonaco & Overall, 2021).

Secondly, the study samples are limited to undergraduate students at one institution, and as such the results may not be completely generalizable to a wider population and may have unusual sampling effects. This sample may also not generalize to young people from other locations, or to other groups of workers. However, the demographic of interest for this study was young adults, which makes the undergraduate sample pool ideal for this study. In Study 1, participants also chose mothers to answer survey questions about more than fathers. The majority of participants in this study identified as female, so it is possible they were more likely to choose a same-gendered parent or gravitate more towards mother due to the societal norms of mothers

providing more emotional support and nurturance than fathers. This may have in less variation in results than if the parental gender was more equally split.

These studies were conducted using single source data, which may not provide a complete picture of relationship quality and other partner or parent influences that may impact this association. However, the goal of this study was to gain a preliminary understanding of how individuals' perceived relationship quality impacted their motivation to lead and did not set out to investigate the influence of parents or partners individual characteristics, making single source data appropriate at this time. However, since both studies were cross-sectional with single source data, causation cannot be inferred, and mono-method is an acknowledged limitation. That said, these studies provide an important preliminary understanding of the association between interpersonal relationships and motivation to lead amongst young adults. The average participants romantic relationship quality was also quite high. Therefore, it is possible that results show higher motivation to lead than they would if there was a greater variance in relationship quality. Future studies should replicate these findings within different demographics for further generalizability. Similarly, demographic information shows a high percentage of participants who have, or who have previously had, a leadership role, which may impact results if those participating have a higher baseline motivation to lead due to these experiences. However, participant leadership role was controlled for in these studies which mitigates the possible influence of these previous leadership experiences.

Although these studies are an important first step in better understanding interpersonal relationships as antecedents to motivation to lead, these studies only provide a preliminary understanding. More research needs to be conducted in this area to better understand what factors predict an individual's motivation to lead. Both current studies rely on undergraduate

students who are part of an online research pool. Thus, future research should extend the sample population to include participants within a variety of organizational settings. In addition, future research could extend these studies via a longitudinal research design where leader motivation was predicted to influence later leader emergence and leader effectiveness, as motivation to lead is a predictor of these constructs (e.g., Chan & Drasgow, 2011; Hong et al., 2011).

Knowing what factors predict motivation to lead may enable the development of programs and resources aimed at enhancing these characteristics. This may result in an increase in young adults emerging as effective leaders within their organization, or other areas in life, which has a variety of positive organizational benefits such as positive organizational change, employee productivity and improved team performance (e.g., Gilley et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2012), as well as possible individual benefits such as job opportunities, employee potential, employee salary, and personal well-being.

Finally, future research should expand upon this study by investigating other forms of interpersonal relationships such as peers, multiple parents/guardians, and coaches in relation to motivation to lead. Individuals become increasingly sensitive to peer influence during adolescence, which makes them more vulnerable to peer feedback (e.g., van Hoorn et al., 2016). For instance, a study investigating the influence of peers on prosocial behaviour in a group of 12–16-year-olds found that prosocial behaviour increased after prosocial feedback and decreased after antisocial feedback (van Hoorn et al., 2016). Another study investigating peer leadership amongst adolescent girls found that peer leadership ratings were associated with peer acceptance, behavioural conduct, and social competency (Price & Weiss, 2011). Thus, peers are greatly influenced by one another and the relationship they have with their peers may influence their motivation to lead. The relationship individuals have with their coaches are also important, as

individuals often look up to their coaches as role models, and highly influential others (e.g., Turnnidge et al., 2016; Vazou et al., 2006). For example, research has found that coach-created motivational climates are positively associated with athlete's sport enjoyment, motivation, and coach reported exerted effort (Vazou et al., 2006). Thus, peers and coaches are just two examples of other interpersonal relationships that influence individual behaviours and may also act as antecedents to motivation to lead

Theoretical and Practical Implications

This research has many theoretical implications as it is the first to investigate interpersonal relationships as antecedents to motivation to lead, and thus provides a foundation for future research in this area. The mixed nature of results in this study, though not anticipated, also provides support for the idea that the three subtypes of motivation to lead may have distinct theoretical differences. The results of these studies also suggest that relationship quality may influence these subtypes to different degrees. Moreover, each subtype of motivation to lead may be driven by different variables, some of which may be more predictive of effective leadership than others. For example, parent-child relationship quality was directly associated with both social-normative and non-calculative motivation to lead, but not affective-identity motivation to lead. It is possible that this subtype is more intrinsically driven and more so influenced by individual differences than the other subtypes, which may be more susceptible to external factors. Future replications are needed to gain a better understanding of the possible theoretical distinctions between subtypes. Additionally, these studies also extend both social learning theory (Bandura, 1978) and COR theory (Hobfoll, 2011) to motivation to lead which are new theoretical applications within this area. These studies also extend our understanding of young adults, who are among the most understudied cohorts in organizational research despite comprising a large

percentage of the current workforce. Understanding the development of leadership and what may be associated with young adults' motivation to lead is highly important as young adults, who may eventually emerge as the next generation of organizational leaders, are the future of the world of work. Thus, understanding early factors that contribute to their leadership development and motivation is important to both research and practice.

These studies also have a variety of practical implications. First, gaining an understanding of what predicts motivation to lead allows us to better understand early leadership development more generally. For example, the results of these studies can help individuals realize the impact, both positive and negative, that relationship quality may have on motivation to lead. Moreover, the quality of these relationships carries into leadership development and can, in most cases, be altered and improved upon whereas other predictors of leadership, such as socioeconomic status (Barling & Weatherhead, 2016) are less malleable and likely to change. Thus, these results emphasize the importance of fostering early relationships, as their quality has many downstream effects including one's motivation to lead.

Additionally, results of this study may help guide programs and the allocation of resources towards programs that foster leadership development. For example, results from these studies highlight the importance of strong relationship quality on motivation to lead. However, not all individuals have strong relationships at home, with their parents for instance, and may benefit from programs where they have strong mentor figures to look up to. This may be especially beneficial to females, since a lack of female role models and leadership figures may help explain why women tend to emerge as leaders less and have lower affective-identity motivation to lead in comparison to their male counterparts (Elprana et al., 2015). Affective-identity may arguably be the most important subtype of motivation to lead since it is driven from

ones internal desire or intrinsic motivation to lead rather than leading due to a sense of responsibility or not fully thinking about what the cons of the role may be. Next, if parents are aware of the effect the relationship they have with their children may have on their motivation to lead, they may be more mindful of the relationship they have with their kids and how they are talking about work and leadership.

Knowing that interpersonal relationships are associated with motivation to lead may also lead organizations to place a higher priority on work-life balance. Having a clear separation of work and home, and having more dedicated quality time with one's partner or children, may help to increase the quality of these relationships, which has positive effects on organizations as work-life balance is positively associated with, among other outcomes, organizational performance, employee satisfaction and commitment, as well as decreased employee turnover (e.g., Azeem & Akhtar, 2014; Beauregard & Henry, 2008; Deery, 2008; Fisher et al., 2003).

Finally, these studies have implications for young adult workers, a relatively understudied demographic in comparison to their more senior counterparts, as it highlights how influential their relationships with others are during this period of their life and the long-lasting effects they can have on the trajectory of their careers. More generally, this research also has the potential to contribute to future studies in this area among all cohorts of workers as results may likely generalize to other age groups of workers.

Conclusion

The topic of leadership is not a new venture, however research on motivation to lead, specifically antecedents to motivation to lead, is a relatively uncharted area. The purpose of this research was to extend our understanding of what predicts motivation to lead, by examining the association between both parent-child and romantic relationship quality as well as other factors

that influence these associations. The results of these studies suggest that both parent-child and romantic relationship quality are associated with different aspects of motivation to lead. More specifically, results of Study 1 suggest that parent leadership role occupancy and parental identification strengthen the association between parent-child relationship quality and certain subtypes of motivation to lead. Findings from Study 2 suggests that self-esteem and leader self-efficacy individually mediate the association between romantic relationship quality and motivation to lead. Taken together, these findings suggest that it is important to understand how the quality of interpersonal relationships may impact early leadership development which may start with motivation to lead. In sum, investigating how interpersonal relationships act as antecedents to motivation to lead is a significant and exciting new avenue of research that may build a foundation for further understanding of motivation to lead, as well as the theoretical differences between its subtypes.

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Appendices

Appendix A

A.1 Recruitment Notice

Study Name: What Motivates Workplace Leadership? Parental Relationships as Possible Antecedents to Motivation to Lead

Description: This study focuses on how parent-child relationship quality may be related to MTL among young workers

Eligibility Requirements: Participants should be 1) between the ages of 18-24 and 2) have one parent/caregiver they identify with

Duration and Location: This online study will be conducted through the Qualtrics website. The survey will take approximately 20 minutes to complete.

Compensation: Participants will receive 0.25% course credit for their participation in this study.

Researchers:

Co-Investigators:

Jennifer McNeil, MA Candidate (Department of Psychology, Carleton University; E-mail: jennmneil@cmail.carleton.ca)

Dr. Kathryne Dupré, Ph.D. (Associate Professor, Department of Psychology, Carleton University; E-mail: Kathryne.Dupre@carleton.ca, Phone: 613-520-2600 ext. 6026)

A.2 Informed Consent

The informed consent is necessary to ensure that you understand what is expected of you during the study and why we are interested in researching this particular area. The informed consent form should provide you with enough information to allow you to decide if you wish to participate in this study.

Title: What Motivates Workplace Leadership? Parental Relationships as Possible Antecedents to Motivation to Lead

Ethics clearance: CUREB-B Clearance #116593

Purpose: The purpose of this study is to examine how parent-child relationship quality may be related to motivation to lead and career aspirations among young workers.

Eligibility Criteria: Participants should be between the ages of 18-24 & have at least one parent currently working/employed

Task Requirements: You will be asked to respond to questions regarding your parental/guardian relationship quality, perceived parental/guardian workplace attitudes, as well as leadership related and demographic questions. This study will be conducted online. The survey will take you approximately 20 minutes to complete

Rumination: Participants will be compensated 0.25% credit (for PSYC 1001, 1002, 2001, or 2002) for their time.

Potential risk/discomfort: It is possible that some questions could lead to feelings of discomfort or other related feelings. In the case that you do have feelings of discomfort, at the end of this study, contact information is provided in the debriefing form that you can use if you would like to discuss your feelings further, or if you are interested in accessing more information about personal or home life issues.

Anonymity/confidentiality: We will treat your personal information as confidential, although absolute privacy cannot be guaranteed. No information that discloses your identity will be released or published without your specific consent. No names or IP addresses will be directly linked to any of the data provided. You will be assigned a participant ID number so that your identity will not be directly associated with the data you have provided. Your identity will only ever be accessible by the researchers involved in this study. Because you will be granted course credit for taking part in the study, your ID number will be retained until the course credit is granted and the date to withdraw your data has passed (i.e., March 31, 2022). Your ID number will be deleted after this date. The data is collected through the software Qualtrics. The survey data will be temporarily stored and protected by Qualtrics in Canada but may be disclosed via a court order or data breach. Qualtrics encrypts all transmitted data using Hypertext Transfer Protocol Secure (HTTPS) and enforces the HTTP Strict Transport Security (HSTS). The data

from this study may be published in an academic journal, presented at an academic conference, analyzed in future research, or used for teaching purposes, but it will not be possible to identify any participants from this data, as only aggregate data will be used (e.g., reporting means and standard deviations of variables). These publications and presentations, however, may link to a data set (including non-aggregate data) posted on the Open Science Framework (a non-profit website dedicated to making research more transparent, reproducible, and open) to be shared with other trusted researchers as required by professional guidelines. No identifying information will be part of this data set.

Right to Withdraw: Your participation in this study is completely voluntary. You have the right to end your participation in the survey at any time (without penalty), for any reason, up until you hit the “submit” button. If you withdraw from the study, all information you provided will be immediately destroyed. Because your survey is linked to SONA via a code so that we can provide you with course compensation, it is possible for you to withdraw up until March 31, 2022. Data will be anonymized on March 31, 2022, and thus after March 31, 2022 it is not possible to withdraw. Please note that you will still be compensated with 0.25% credit if you skip any questions or withdraw from the study early.

Contact in Case of Ethical Concerns: If you have any ethical concerns with the study, please contact the Carleton University Research Ethics Board-B or via email at ethics@carleton.ca.

If you have any concerns about participation in this study, or any of the questionnaires, please contact the study personnel at:

Researcher contact information:

Dr. Kathryne Dupré, Department of Psychology, Carleton University,
Email: kathryne.dupre@carleton.ca

Jennifer McNeil, MA Candidate (Department of Psychology, Carleton University; E-mail: jennmcneil@cmail.carleton.ca)

The ethics protocol for this project was reviewed by the Carleton University Research Ethics Board, which provided clearance to carry out the research (CUREB-B Clearance #116593).

A.3 Study 1 Survey

Parent-Child Relationship Quality & Motivation to Lead Survey

We are interested in how parent-child relationship quality relates to Motivation to Lead. The following questions ask about your parent or guardian and address these issues.

Please identify your primary parent (dropdown menu; Mother, Father, Step-Mother, Step-Father, Female Guardian, Male Guardian, Other)

Please respond to the following demographic questions about this parent

What is your parent or caregivers age in years (drop-down menu; 18-65+)

Please indicate which gender your parent or caregiver identifies with:

Woman

Man

Transwomen

Transman

Non-binary, Gender Queer, or Two-Spirit

Prefer to self-describe:

 Pease specify:

Prefer not to specify

What is the highest level of education your parent or caregiver has received? (Some High School, High School, College, Bachelor, Masters, PhD)

Is your parent or guardian currently in a leadership position at work? For the purpose of this study, we define a leadership position as a managerial role, or role in which your parent oversees the work of others in their organization. (Dropdown menu; yes, no)

Which of the following best describes your racial or ethnic group?

Asian – East (e.g., Chinese,

Japanese, Korean) Asian – South

(e.g., Indian, Pakistani, Sri Lankan)

Asian – South East (e.g., Malaysian,

Filipino, Vietnamese) Black – African (e.g.

Ghanaian, Kenyan, Somali)

Black – Caribbean (e.g., Barbadian,

Jamaican)

Black – North American (e.g.,

Canadian, American)

First Nations – North American)

- Indian – Caribbean (e.g., Guyanese with origins in India)
 Indigenous - not included elsewhere
 Inuit
 Latin American (e.g., Argentinean, Chilean, Salvadoran)
 Métis
 Middle Eastern (e.g., Egyptian, Iranian, Lebanese)
 White - European (e.g., English, Italian, Portuguese, Russian)
 White - North American (e.g., Canadian, American)
 Mixed heritage (e.g., Black - African & White) Please specify: _____
 Prefer to self-describe
 Please specify: _____
 Prefer not to answer

Please respond to the following questions thinking about the primary parent/caregiver you identified with above.

Parental Job Satisfaction (Brayfield-Rothe, 1951)

Please indicate how much you agree with the following statements on a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree)

1. My parent feels fairly satisfied with their present job
2. Most days, my parent is enthusiastic about their work
3. My parent feels each day at work will never end
4. My parent find real enjoyment in their work
5. My parent considers their job to be rather unpleasant

Please answer the following questions about yourself

Parent-Child Relationship Quality (Dibble, Levene. & Park, 2012)

<i>The following questions refer to your relationships with your parents. Please think about your relationship with your primary parent when responding to the following questions.</i>	
1. My relationship with my parent is close.	1 = Strongly disagree
2. When we are apart, I miss my parent a great deal.	2 = Disagree
3. My parent and I disclose important personal things to each other.	3 = Slightly disagree
4. My parent and I have a strong connection.	4 = Neither agree nor disagree
5. My parent and I want to spend time together.	5 = Slightly agree
6. I'm sure of my relationship with my parent.	6 = Agree
7. My parent is a priority in my life.	7 = Strongly agree

8. My parent and I do a lot of things together.	
9. When I have free time, I choose to spend it alone with my parent.	
10. I think about my parent a lot.	
11. My relationship with my parent is important in my life.	
12. I consider my parent when making important decisions.	

Identification with Parent (Barling, Dupré, & Hepburn 1998)

How much do you see yourself like this parent in the following ways?

Please respond according to the following response categories:

1= Not at all true 7= Very True

1. My personality is like my parent's.
2. My lifestyle is like my parent's.
3. I share common beliefs and attitudes with my parent.
4. In general, I am like my parent.

Motivation to Lead (Chan & Drasgow, 2001)

Please answer how much you agree with the following items on a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree)

Affective Identity

1. Most of the time I prefer being a leader rather than a follower when working in a group
2. I am the type of person who is not interested to lead others
3. I am definitely not a leader by nature
4. I am the type of person who likes to be in charge of others
5. I believe I can contribute more to a group if I am a follower rather than a leader
6. I usually want to be the leader in the groups that I work in
7. I am the type who would actively support a leader but prefers not to be appointed as leader
8. I have a tendency to take charge in most groups or teams that I work in
9. I am seldom reluctant to be the leader of a group

Noncalculative

10. I am only interested to lead a group if there are clear advantages for me
11. I will never agree to lead if I cannot see any benefits from accepting that role
12. I would only agree to be a group leader if I know I can benefit from that role
13. I would agree to lead others even if there are no special rewards or benefits of that role
14. I would want to know 'what's in it for me' if I am going to agree to lead a group
15. I never expect to get more privileges if I agree to lead a group
16. If I agree to lead a group, I would never expect any advantages or special benefits
17. I have more of my own problems to worry about than to be concerned with the rest of the group
18. Leading others is really more of a dirty job rather than an honourable one

Social-Normative

19. I feel that I have a duty to lead others if I am asked
20. I agree to lead whenever I am asked or nominated by the other members
21. I was taught to believe in the value of leading others
22. It is appropriate for people to accept leadership roles or positions when they are asked
23. I have been taught that I should always volunteer to lead others if I can
24. It s not right to decline leadership roles
25. It is an honour and privilege to be asked to lead
26. People should volunteer to lead rather than wait for others to ask or vote for them
27. I would never agree to lead just because others voted for me

Self Esteem (Rosenberg, 1965)

Please record the appropriate answer for each item, depending on whether you Strongly agree, agree, disagree, or strongly disagree with it.

- 1 = Strongly agree
 2 = Agree
 3 = Disagree
 4 = Strongly disagree

- _____ 1. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.
 _____ 2. At times I think I am no good at all.
 _____ 3. I feel that I have a number of good qualities.
 _____ 4. I am able to do things as well as most other people.
 _____ 5. I feel I do not have much to be proud of.
 _____ 6. I certainly feel useless at times.
 _____ 7. I feel that I'm a person of worth.
 _____ 8. I wish I could have more respect for myself.
 _____ 9. All in all, I am inclined to think that I am a failure.
 _____ 10. I take a positive attitude toward myself.

Please answer the following demographic questions about yourself

What is your age in years (drop-down menu; 18-65+)

Please indicate which gender you identify with:

Women

Man

Transwomen

Transman

Non-binary, Gender Queer, or Two-Spirit

Prefer to self-describe:

 Please specify:

Prefer not to specify

What is the highest level of education you have received? (Some High School, High School, College, Bachelor, Masters, PhD)

Are you currently in a leadership position at work? For the purpose of this study, we define a leadership position as a managerial role, or role in which you oversee the work of others in your organization. (Dropdown menu; yes, no)

Have you held other types of leadership positions (e.g., sports, volunteer positions)? For the purpose of this study, we define a leadership position as a managerial role, or role in which you oversee the work of others. This can be extended to work, school, sports, volunteer positions, etc. (dropdown menu; yes, no)

Are you currently employed? (dropdown menu; yes, no)

How long have you been working with your current organization? (dropdown menu)

How much time do you spend interacting (in person or virtually) with your workplace supervisor/manager each week? (dropdown menu)

Which of the following best describes your racial or ethnic group?

Asian - East (e.g. Chinese, Japanese,

Korean) Asian - South (e.g. Indian,

Pakistani, Sri Lankan)

Asian - South East (e.g. Malaysian, Filipino,

Vietnamese) Black - African (e.g. Ghanaian,

Kenyan, Somali)

Black - Caribbean (e.g. Barbadian,

Jamaican) Black - North American

(e.g. Canadian, American) First

Nations - North American)

Indian - Caribbean (e.g. Guyanese with

origins in India) Indigenous - not included

elsewhere

Inuit

Latin American (e.g. Argentinean, Chilean,

Salvadoran) Métis

Middle Eastern (e.g. Egyptian, Iranian, Lebanese)

White - European (e.g. English, Italian,

Portuguese, Russian) White - North American

(e.g. Canadian, American)

Mixed heritage (e.g. Black - African

& White) Please specify: _____

Prefer to self-describe

Please specify: _____

Prefer not to answer

A.4 Debriefing Form

Debriefing Form

Purpose of the study

The purpose of the study is to examine how parent-child relationships relate to motivation to lead amongst young workers.

Hypotheses, predictions and possible implications

We predict that there may be a relationship between parent-child relationship quality and motivation to lead.

If you are interested in researching or finding out more about this area of research, here are a few references:

- Barling, J., Dupre, K. E., & Hepburn, C. G. (1998). Effects of parents' job insecurity on children's work beliefs and attitudes. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 83(1), 112-118.
- Barling, J., Kelloway, E. K., & Bremermann, E. H. (1991). Preemployment predictors of union attitudes: The role of family socialization and work beliefs. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 76(5), 725-731.
- Arnett, J. J. (2007). Emerging adulthood: What is it, and what is it good for? *Child development perspectives*, 1(2), 68-73.
- Chan, K. Y., & Drasgow, F. (2001). Toward a theory of individual differences and leadership: understanding the motivation to lead. *Journal of applied psychology*, 86(3), 481

If answering these questions was upsetting in any way, you should talk with someone you trust such as a family member, friend, or counsellor.

The following websites provide further information on mental health and social resources:

- Mental Health Commission of Canada: <https://www.mentalhealthcommission.ca/English/covid19>
- Canadian Mental Health Association: <https://cmha.ca/news/covid-19-and-mental-health>
- The Centre for Addiction and Mental Health: <https://www.camh.ca/en/health-info/mental-health-andcovid-19>
- For one-on-one counselling: <https://eMentalHealth.ca>
- Occupational Health Psychology Data Centre: <https://www.ohpdata.com/for-employees>

Confidential personal counselling services are also available for current Carleton University students. The primary responsibility is to alleviate distress and promote healthy functioning by providing short-term counselling services. Students can self-refer to counselling. To make an appointment for counselling:

Counselling Services for Carleton Students: <https://carleton.ca/health/2020/health-and-counselling-services-are-open-virtually/>

Carleton Online Resources: <https://carleton.ca/health/resource-library/mental-health-resources/>

For International and Exchange students: Call 613-520-6674 and ask to book with the International Student Counsellor.

What if I have questions later?

If you have any remaining concerns, questions, or comments about the study, please feel free to contact: Dr. Kathryn Dupré at: kathryne.dupre@carleton.ca or Jennifer McNeil at: jennmcneil@cmail.carleton.ca. If you have any ethical concerns with the study, please contact the Carleton University Research Ethics Board-B via email at ethics@carleton.ca and refer to (CUREB-B Clearance #116593). During Covid, the Research Ethics Staff are working from home without access to their Carleton phone extensions. Accordingly, until staff return to campus, please contact them by email.

Thank you for taking part in this research

Appendix B

B.1 Recruitment Notice

Study Name: What Motivates Workplace Leadership? Romantic Relationships as a Possible Antecedent to Motivation to Lead

Description: This study focuses on how romantic relationship quality may be related to MTL among young workers

Eligibility Requirements: Participants should be 1) between the ages of 18-24 and 2) currently be in a romantic relationship for a minimum of 3 months.

Duration and Location: This online study will be conducted through the Qualtrics website. The survey will take approximately 20 minutes to complete.

Compensation: Participants will receive 0.25% course credit for their participation in this study.

Ethics clearance: This research has been cleared by Carleton University Research Ethics Board-B (Clearance #116594).

Researchers:

Co-Investigators:

Jennifer McNeil, MA Candidate (Department of Psychology, Carleton University; E-mail: jennmcneil@cmail.carleton.ca)

Dr. Kathryne Dupré, Ph.D. (Associate Professor, Department of Psychology, Carleton University; E-mail: Kathryne.Dupre@carleton.ca, Phone: 613-520-2600 ext. 6026)

B.2 Informed Consent

The informed consent is necessary to ensure that you understand what is expected of you during the study and why we are interested in researching this particular area. The informed consent form should provide you with enough information to allow you to decide if you wish to participate in this study.

Title: What Motivates Workplace Leadership? Romantic Relationships as Possible Antecedents to Motivation to Lead

Ethics clearance: This research has been cleared by Carleton University Research Ethics Board-B (Clearance #116594).

Purpose: The purpose of this study is to examine how romantic relationships may be related to MTL among young workers

Eligibility Criteria: Participants should be 1) between the ages of 18-24 and 2) currently be in a romantic relationship for a minimum of 3 months

Task Requirements: You will be asked to respond to questions regarding your romantic relationship quality as well as leadership related and demographic questions. This study will be conducted online. The survey will take you approximately 20 minutes to complete.

Rumination: Participants will be compensated 0.25% credit (for PSYC 1001, 1002, 2001, or 2002) for their time.

Potential risk/discomfort: It is possible that some questions could lead to feelings of discomfort or other related feelings. In the case that you do feel feelings of discomfort, at the end of this study, contact information is provided in the debriefing form that you can use if you would like to discuss your feelings further, or if you are interested in accessing more information about personal or home life issues.

Anonymity/confidentiality: We will treat your personal information as confidential, although absolute privacy cannot be guaranteed. No information that discloses your identity will be released or published without your specific consent. No names or IP addresses will be directly linked to any of the data provided. You will be assigned a participant ID number so that your identity will not be directly associated with the data you have provided. Your identity will only ever be accessible by the researchers involved in this study. Because you will be granted course credit for taking part in the study, your ID number will be retained until the course credit is granted and the date to withdraw your data has passed (i.e., March 31, 2022). Your ID number will be deleted after this date. The data is collected through the software Qualtrics. The survey data will be temporarily stored and protected by Qualtrics in Canada, but may be disclosed via a

court order or data breach. Qualtrics encrypts all transmitted data using Hypertext Transfer Protocol Secure (HTTPS) and enforces the HTTP Strict Transport Security (HSTS). The data from this study may be published in an academic journal, presented at an academic conference, analyzed in future research, or used for teaching purposes, but it will not be possible to identify any participants from this data, as only aggregate data will be used (e.g., reporting means and standard deviations of variables). These publications and presentations, however, may link to a data set (including non-aggregate data) posted on the Open Science Framework (a non-profit website dedicated to making research more transparent, reproducible, and open) to be shared with other trusted researchers as required by professional guidelines. No identifying information will be part of this data set.

Right to Withdraw: Your participation in this study is completely voluntary. You have the right to end your participation in the survey at any time (without penalty), for any reason, up until you hit the “submit” button. If you withdraw from the study, all information you provided will be immediately destroyed. Because your survey is linked to SONA via a code so that we can provide you with course compensation, it is possible for you to withdraw up until March 31, 2022. Data will be anonymized on March 31, 2022, and thus after March 31, 2022 it is not possible to withdraw. Please note that you will still be compensated with 0.25% credit if you skip any questions or withdraw from the study early.

Contact in Case of Ethical Concerns: During Covid, the Research Ethics Staff are working from home without access to their Carleton phone extensions. Accordingly, until staff return to campus, please contact them by email if you have any ethical concerns with the study at ethics@carleton.ca.

If you have any concerns about participation in this study, or any of the questionnaires, please contact the study personnel at:

Researcher contact information:

Dr. Kathyne Dupré, Department of Psychology, Carleton University, Email: kathyne.dupre@carleton.ca

Jennifer McNeil, MA Candidate (Department of Psychology, Carleton University; E-mail: jennmcneil@cmail.carleton.ca)

The ethics protocol for this project was reviewed by the Carleton University Research Ethics Board, which provided clearance to carry out the research (CUREB-B Clearance #116594).

Click “I Agree” to indicate that you understand the information above and would like to participate in this study or “I Disagree” if you do not want to do the survey.

I agree ____ I disagree ____

B.3 Study 2 Survey

Romantic Relationship Online Survey

We are interested in how interpersonal relationship quality relates to Motivation to Lead. The following questions ask about your current romantic partner and address these issues.

Are you currently in a romantic relationship? (dropdown menu; yes, no)

If answered no, participants will be taken directly to the debriefing form

If yes, how long have you been in this relationship? (drop-down menu; less than 3 months, 3 months, 6 months, 1 year, 2 years, 3 years, 4 years, 5+ years)

Do you have a current romantic partner in mind that you can think about while answering the following questions? (dropdown menu; yes, no)

Please answer the following demographic questions about your romantic partner

What age is your partner in years? (dropdown menu; 18-65+)

Please indicate the gender your partner identifies with. Descriptors of gender identity can include (and are not limited to):

Man
 Gender-fluid
 Transwomen
 Transman
 Nonbinary,
 Two-Spirit
 Women
 Prefer not to specify

What is the highest level of education your partner has received? (Some High School, High School, College, Bachelor, Masters, PhD)

Is your partner currently in a leadership position at work? For the purpose of this study, we define a leadership position as a managerial role, or role in which your partner oversees the work of others in their organization. (Dropdown menu; Yes, No)

Has your partner held other types of leadership positions (e.g., sports, volunteer positions)? For the purpose of this study, we define a leadership position as a managerial role, or role in which you oversee the work of others. This can be extended to work, school, sports, volunteer positions, etc. (Dropdown menu; Yes, No)

Job Satisfaction (Brayfield-Rothe, 1951)

Please indicate how much you agree with the following statements on a scale of 1 (strongly agree) to 5 (strongly disagree)

1. My partner feels fairly satisfied with their present job
2. Most days, my partner is enthusiast about their work
3. My partner feels each day at work will never end
4. My partner finds real enjoyment in their work
5. My partner considers their job to be rather unpleasant

Which of the following best describes your racial or ethnic group?

- Asian - East (e.g. Chinese, Japanese, Korean)
- Asian - South (e.g. Indian, Pakistani, Sri Lankan)
- Asian - South East (e.g. Malaysian, Filipino, Vietnamese)
- Black - African (e.g. Ghanaian, Kenyan, Somali)
- Black - Caribbean (e.g. Barbadian, Jamaican)
- Black-Latinx
- Black - North American (e.g. Canadian, American)
- First Nations - North American)
- Indian - Caribbean (e.g. Guyanese with origins in India)
- Indigenous - not included elsewhere
- Inuit
- Latin American (e.g. Argentinean, Chilean, Salvadoran)
- Métis
- Middle Eastern (e.g. Egyptian, Iranian, Lebanese)
- White - European (e.g. English, Italian, Portuguese, Russian)
- White - North American (e.g. Canadian, American)
- Mixed heritage (e.g. Black - African & White) Please specify: _____
- Prefer to self-describe
Please specify: _____
- Prefer not to answer

Please respond to the following questions

Romantic Relationship Quality Fletcher, G. J., Simpson, J. A., & Thomas, G. (2000)

Please answer the following questions about your current romantic relationship on a scale from 1 (not at all) to 7 (extremely)

Relationship Satisfaction

1. How satisfied are you with your relationship?
2. How content are you with your relationship?
3. How happy are you with your relationship?

Commitment

4. How committed are you to your relationship?
5. How dedicated are you to your relationship?
6. How devoted are you to your relationship?

Intimacy

7. How intimate is your relationship?
8. How close is your relationship?
9. How connected are you to your partner?
10. Please respond 5 to this question

Trust

11. How much do you trust your partner?
12. How much can you count on your partner?
13. How dependable is your partner?

Passion

14. How passionate is your relationship?
15. How lustful is your relationship?
16. How sexually intense is your relationship?

Love

17. How much do you love your partner?
18. How much do you adore your partner?
19. How much do you cherish your partner?

Self Esteem (Rosenberg, 1965)

Please record the appropriate answer for each item, depending on whether you Strongly agree, agree, disagree, or strongly disagree with it.

- 1 = Strongly agree
 2 = Agree
 3 = Disagree
 4 = Strongly disagree

- _____ 1. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.
 _____ 2. At times I think I am no good at all.
 _____ 3. I feel that I have a number of good qualities.
 _____ 4. I am able to do things as well as most other people.
 _____ 5. I feel I do not have much to be proud of.
 _____ 6. Please respond 3 to this question
 _____ 7. I certainly feel useless at times.
 _____ 8. I feel that I'm a person of worth.
 _____ 9. I wish I could have more respect for myself.

- _____ 10. All in all, I am inclined to think that I am a failure.
 _____ 11. I take a positive attitude toward myself.

Leader Self-Efficacy (Bobbio & Manganelli, 2009)

Please rate the following items on a scale of 1 (absolutely false) to 7 (absolutely true)

1= Absolutely false, 2=False, 3= Somewhat false, 4= Neither true or false, 5= Somewhat true, 6=- True, 7= Absolutely true

1. I am able to set a new direction for a group
2. I can usually change the attitudes and behaviours of group members if they do not meet group objectives
3. I am able to change things in a group even if they are not completely under my control
4. I am confident in my ability to choose group members in order to build up an effective and efficient team
5. I am able to optimally share out the work between the members of a group to get the best results

6. I would be able to delegate the task of accomplishing specific goals to other group members
7. I am usually able to understand to whom, within a group, it is better to delegate specific tasks
8. Usually, I can establish very good relationships with the people I work with
9. I am sure I can communicate with others, going straight to the heart of the matter
10. I can successfully manage relationships with all the members of a group
11. I can identify my strengths and weaknesses
12. I am confident in my ability to get things done
13. I always know how to get the best out of the situations I find myself in
14. Please respond 3 to this question
15. With my experience and competence, I can help group members to reach the group's targets
16. As a leader, I am usually able to affirm my beliefs and values
17. With my example, I am sure I can motivate the members of a group
18. I can usually motivate group members and arouse their enthusiasm when I start a new project
19. I am able to motivate and give opportunities to any group member in the exercise of his/her tasks or functions
20. I can usually make the people I work with appreciate me
21. I am sure I can gain the consensus of group members
22. I can usually lead a group with the consensus of all members

Motivation to Lead (Chan & Drasgow, 2001)

Please answer how much you agree with the following items on a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree)

Affective Identity

1. Most of the time I prefer being a leader rather than a follower when working in a group
2. I am the type of person who is not interested to lead others
3. I am definitely not a leader by nature
4. I am the type of person who likes to be in charge of others
5. I believe I can contribute more to a group if I am a follower rather than a leader

6. I usually want to be the leader in the groups that I work in
7. I am the type who would actively support a leader but prefers not to be appointed as leader
8. Please respond 4 to this question
9. I have a tendency to take charge in most groups or teams that I work in
10. I am seldom reluctant to be the leader of a group

Noncalculative

11. I am only interested to lead a group if there are clear advantages for me
12. I will never agree to lead if I cannot see any benefits from accepting that role
13. I would only agree to be a group leader if I know I can benefit from that role
14. I would agree to lead others even if there are no special rewards or benefits of that role
15. I would want to know 'what's in it for me' if I am going to agree to lead a group
16. I never expect to get more privileges if I agree to lead a group
17. Please respond 2 to this question
18. If I agree to lead a group, I would never expect any advantages or special benefits
19. I have more of my own problems to worry about than to be concerned with the rest of the group
20. Leading others is really more of a dirty job rather than an honourable one

Social-Normative

21. I feel that I have a duty to lead others if I am asked
22. I agree to lead whenever I am asked or nominated by the other members
23. I was taught to believe in the value of leading others
24. It is appropriate for people to accept leadership roles or positions when they are asked
25. I have been taught that I should always volunteer to lead others if I can
26. Please respond 6 to this question
27. It is not right to decline leadership roles
28. It is an honour and privilege to be asked to lead
29. People should volunteer to lead rather than wait for others to ask or vote for them
30. I would never agree to lead just because others voted for me

Please answer the following demographic questions about yourself

What is your age in years (drop-down menu; 18-65+)

Please indicate which gender you identify with. Descriptors of gender identity can include (and are not limited to):

Man
 Gender-fluid
 Transwomen
 Transman
 Nonbinary,
 Two-Spirit
 Women
 Prefer not to specify

What is the highest level of education you have received? (Some High School, High School, College, Bachelor, Masters, PhD)

Are you currently in a leadership position at work? For the purpose of this study, we define a leadership position as a managerial role, or role in which your parent oversees the work of others in their organization. (Dropdown menu; Yes, No)

Have you held other types of leadership positions (e.g., sports, volunteer positions)? For the purpose of this study, we define a leadership position as a managerial role, or role in which you oversee the work of others. This can be extended to work, school, sports, volunteer positions, etc. (Dropdown menu; Yes, No)

Which of the following best describes your racial or ethnic group?

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- Black - African (e.g. Ghanaian, Kenyan, Somali)
- Black - Caribbean (e.g. Barbadian, Jamaican)
- Black-Latinx
- Black - North American (e.g. Canadian, American)
- First Nations - North American)
- Indian - Caribbean (e.g. Guyanese with origins in India)
- Indigenous - not included elsewhere
- Inuit
- Latin American (e.g. Argentinean, Chilean, Salvadoran)
- Métis
- Middle Eastern (e.g. Egyptian, Iranian, Lebanese)
- White - European (e.g. English, Italian, Portuguese, Russian)
- White - North American (e.g. Canadian, American)
- Mixed heritage (e.g. Black - African & White) Please specify: _____
- Prefer to self-describe
- Please specify: _____
- Prefer not to answer

B.4 Debriefing Form

Purpose of the study

The purpose of the study is to examine how romantic relationships relate to motivation to lead amongst young workers.

Hypotheses, predictions and possible implications

We predict that there may be a relationship between romantic relationship quality and motivation to lead.

If you are interested in researching or finding out more about this area of research, here are a few references:

- Chan, K. Y., & Drasgow, F. (2001). Toward a theory of individual differences and leadership: understanding the motivation to lead. *Journal of applied psychology*, 86(3), 481.
- Dionisi, A. M., & Barling, J. (2019). What happens at home does not stay at home: The role of family and romantic partner conflict in destructive leadership. *Stress and Health*, 35(3), 304-317.
- Guillén, L., Mayo, M., & Korotov, K. (2015). Is leadership a part of me? A leader identity approach to understanding the motivation to lead. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 26(5), 802-820.
- Kornblum, A., Unger, D., & Grote, G. (2021). How romantic relationships affect individual career goal attainment: A transactive goal dynamics perspective. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 125, 103523.

If answering these questions was upsetting in any way, you should talk with someone you trust such as a family member, friend, or counsellor.

The following websites provide further information on mental health and social resources:

- Mental Health Commission of Canada: <https://www.mentalhealthcommission.ca/English/covid19>
- Canadian Mental Health Association: <https://cmha.ca/news/covid-19-and-mental-health>
- The Centre for Addiction and Mental Health: <https://www.camh.ca/en/health-info/mental-health-andcovid-19>
- For one-on-one counselling: <https://eMentalHealth.ca>
- Occupational Health Psychology Data Centre: <https://www.ohpdata.com/for-employees>

Confidential personal counselling services are also available for current Carleton University students. The primary responsibility is to alleviate distress and promote healthy functioning by providing short-term counselling services. Students can self-refer to counselling. To make an appointment for counselling:

Counselling Services for Carleton Students: <https://carleton.ca/health/2020/health-and-counselling-services-are-open-virtually/>

Carleton Online Resources: <https://carleton.ca/health/resource-library/mental-health-resources/>

For International and Exchange students: Call 613-520-6674 and ask to book with the International Student Counsellor.

What if I have questions later?

If you have any remaining concerns, questions, or comments about the study, please feel free to contact: Dr. Kathryn Dupré at: kathryne.dupre@carleton.ca or Jennifer McNeil at: jennmcneil@cmail.carleton.ca. If you have any ethical concerns with the study, please contact the Carleton University Research Ethics Board-B via email at ethics@carleton.ca) and refer to (CUREB-B Clearance #116594). During Covid, the Research Ethics Staff are working from home without access to their Carleton phone extensions. Accordingly, until staff return to campus, please contact them by email.

Thank you for taking part in this research