

# Effects of Attachment Anxiety and Avoidance on Negotiation Propensity and Performance

Julia B. Bear<sup>1</sup> and Dikla Segel-Karpas<sup>2</sup>

1 College of Business, Stony Brook University, Stony Brook, NY, U.S.A.

2 Department of Psychology, Brandeis University, Waltham, MA, U.S.A.

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## Correspondence

Julia B. Bear, Ph.D., College of Business, Stony Brook University, Stony Brook, NY 11790, U.S.A.;  
e-mail: julia.bear@stonybrook.edu

## Abstract

Attachment theory has received scant consideration in the negotiation literature. We examined the effects of attachment anxiety and avoidance on negotiation propensity and performance in two studies. In terms of negotiation propensity (Study 1), attachment anxiety had significant, deleterious effects, though contrary to our predictions, attachment avoidance did not have significant effects. However, there was an interaction such that individuals high on attachment avoidance had a greater propensity to negotiate with an insecurely attached counterpart compared to a secure counterpart. In addition, attachment orientation influenced negotiation performance and information sharing (Study 2), but the effects depended upon role in the negotiation, with stronger effects for attachment avoidance as opposed to attachment anxiety. Theoretical and practical implications for research on negotiation and attachment theory are discussed.

Negotiation is an important managerial skill (De Dreu & Gelfand, 2007; Goldman & Shapiro, 2012; Lax & Sebenius, 1987), with recent research showing that there is considerable variability in negotiation propensity and performance. Individual differences, such as gender (e.g., Bear, 2011; Bear & Babcock, 2012; Bowles, Babcock, & McGinn, 2005; Small, Gelfand, Babcock, & Gettman, 2007), personality (e.g., Amanatullah, Morris, & Curhan, 2008; Barry & Friedman, 1998; DeRue, Conlon, Moon, & Willaby, 2009; Dimotakis, Conlon, & Ilies, 2012; Elfenbein, 2013; Judge, Livingston, & Hurst, 2012), intelligence (both cognitive and emotional; Fulmer & Barry, 2004), and social motives (e.g., Beersma & De Dreu, 2002; De Dreu, Weingart, & Kwon, 2000; Diekmann, Tenbrunsel, & Galinsky, 2003; Schweitzer, DeChurch, & Gibson, 2005; Weingart, Brett, Olekalns, & Smith, 2007), play an important role in negotiation propensity and outcomes. Attachment orientation, however, is an individual difference variable that has not been considered in negotiation research (for a recent exception regarding agents in negotiation, see Lee & Thompson, 2011). This gap in the literature is surprising because attachment orientation influences behavior in interdependent contexts, especially during times of emotional distress.

Negotiation is a process involving (at least) two interdependent individuals with a conflict over desired resources (Lewicki, Barry, & Saunders, 2001; Thompson, Wang, & Gunia, 2010). In this way, negotiation is distinct from more general forms of social interaction because it involves both interdependence (by definition, both parties need each other) and control over valued resources. Given the former (interdependence), negotiation may evoke previous social learning about interpersonal relationships (Curhan, Elfenbein, & Xu, 2006; Gelfand, Major, Raver, Nishii, & O'Brien, 2006), which helps to explain why individual differences (including attachment orientation) may influence negotiation processes and outcomes.

Given the latter (control over resources), negotiation evokes anxiety related to the potential loss of resources and other undesirable outcomes (Bear, 2011; Brooks & Schweitzer, 2011; O'Connor, Arnold, & Maurizio, 2010; Pruitt & Carnevale, 1993; Small et al., 2007; Wheeler, 2004).

The conflict over desired resources that negotiation entails is potentially threatening for two main reasons. First, there is the tangible threat of the actual loss of resources, and second, there is the more intangible threat to the sense of self in terms of an individual's ability to advocate for what he or she values. In other words, negotiation can pose a threat on both instrumental and personal levels. When individuals are faced with threatening situations, the attachment system is activated and influences subsequent behavior (Bowlby, 1969/1982). The interdependent nature of the negotiation process is likely to further influence the activation of the attachment system, as one's behavior in the situation influences the other party's responses, with the latter likely to be perceived and interpreted in light of the attachment scripts activated.

Thus, in light of the interdependent and anxiety-provoking nature of negotiation, as well as the inherent instrumental and personal threats, we propose that attachment orientation should be triggered in the context of negotiation and predictive of negotiation behavior. In two studies, we examined specifically whether attachment anxiety and avoidance influence the propensity to negotiate and negotiation performance, particularly in distributive negotiations, which are competitive in nature and likely to elicit a sense of threat. We examined attachment orientation from both an intrapersonal perspective—the influence of attachment orientation on the feelings and behaviors of individual negotiators—and an interpersonal perspective—the extent to which a negotiator's attachment orientation influences how that same negotiator is perceived by others during a negotiation.

Studying the effects of attachment orientation in distributive negotiations contributes to both negotiation and attachment theory research by shedding light on whether and how this important individual difference variable—attachment orientation—influences negotiation outcomes. In this way, the present research contributes to our understanding of individual differences in negotiation by expanding the realm of personality characteristics to include attachment orientation. Likewise, this research contributes to our understanding of attachment theory by expanding the realm of that research to negotiation, which is consistent with recent calls for investigating attachment theory in organizational settings and other contexts above and beyond close relationships (Harms, 2011; Richards & Schat, 2011).

## Attachment Theory

The attachment system, which is activated when individuals encounter a threat, whether physical, psychological, or relational, is an innate behavioral system that functions to achieve a sense of security and protection in times of need (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2010). The operation of the attachment system in adulthood is ascribed to the primary interaction of infants with their caregivers (Bowlby, 1969/1982). In this way, the responsiveness of caregivers to a child's support-seeking attempts results in *working models* of attachment, which are generalized cognitive scripts that represent one's belief system about his or her ability to mobilize support (Bowlby, 1973). These scripts consist of both the perception of the self as deserving of love and support (also referred to as the *model of the self*) and the perception of others' willingness and ability to provide support (also referred to as the *model of the other*; Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Bowlby, 1969/1982). Not only do crucial interactions in childhood shape these trait-like scripts that govern individuals' belief systems regarding themselves and their relations with others, but responsive attachment figures act as models regarding how to employ internal and external resources to cope with distress and to develop social skills and competencies (Cooley, Buren, & Cole, 2010; Mallinckrodt & Wei, 2005). Thus, early experiences with attachment figures shape individuals' beliefs concerning their confidence in their ability to cope with stressful situations by mobilizing external support or by relying on internal resources, as well as individuals' beliefs and expectations with regard to the behaviors of others (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2010).

More broadly, the term *attachment orientation* is used to describe these patterns of beliefs and expectations concerning the self and others in interpersonal situations and is characterized by two dimensions: anxiety and avoidance. Attachment anxiety is said to represent the working model of the self, meaning the perception of the self as deserving of love and support. Attachment avoidance represents the model of the other, meaning one's trust in others' willingness and ability to offer support. When a person holds negative models of the self or the other, expressed in terms of high levels of attachment anxiety or avoidance, he or she is described as insecurely attached (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Bowlby, 1969/1982, 1973; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2005, 2010).<sup>1</sup> For individuals with attachment anxiety, the predominant strategy for dealing with distress is hyperactivation of the attachment system—that is, they seek proximity, promote close relations, and feel dependent upon others for validation of self-worth. They are preoccupied with worries about the love and availability of partners, and they fear rejection and abandonment. For individuals with attachment avoidance, the predominant strategy to deal with distress is deactivation of the attachment system—that is, they strive to be self-reliant, prefer to keep emotional distance from others, and avoid closeness. Securely attached individuals typically are comfortable in close relationships, trust others, and have the ability to deal with distress in constructive ways, such as support seeking, effective self-regulation, and reliance on self-soothing techniques (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2008).

Furthermore, in the context of close relationships, insecure attachment has been shown to have deleterious effects on conflict management processes and outcomes (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2008, 2010). For example, both anxious and avoidant individuals are more likely to use dominating tactics (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2008; Shi, 2003) and less likely to use constructive tactics, such as integrative conflict resolution techniques (Corcoran & Mallinckrodt, 2000; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2008). Conflicts are also more likely to escalate with anxious versus secure disputants (Campbell, Simpson, Boldry, & Kashy, 2005; Creasey, Kershaw, & Boston, 1999), and withdrawal is a more likely response with insecure (both anxious and avoidant) versus secure disputants (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2008).

### **Beyond Close Relationships: Attachment Theory and Distributive Negotiations**

Although attachment theory originally dealt solely with close attachment bonds, such as those between caregivers and children (Bowlby, 1969/1982), an ample body of research demonstrates the importance of attachment orientation to individuals' perceptions, expectations, and behaviors in a variety of interpersonal situations, such as interactions with peers (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991) and with strangers (Mikulincer & Nachshon, 1991). The attachment scripts (or working models) are used as a base upon which individuals predict others' behavior and responses and adjust their own expectations and behaviors accordingly. Moreover, attachment orientation has been shown to predict satisfaction in daily social interactions (Kafetsios & Nezlek, 2002; Pietromonaco & Barrett, 1997), as well as to affect social relations in the workplace, such that those who are high on attachment anxiety are more likely to report both experiencing and engaging in uncivil behavior (Leiter, Day, & Price, 2015).

Furthermore, Hazan and Shaver (1990) argued theoretically that work is akin to play in childhood, which is influenced by attachment orientation, and showed empirically that attachment orientations influence both work attitudes and spillover between the work and home domains. Since then, a growing literature has demonstrated the influence of attachment orientation on work outcomes, including topics

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<sup>1</sup>Although Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) identified discrete categories that combine people's levels of both attachment anxiety and avoidance, more recent research has compared the use of these discrete categories to a dimensional approach, and empirical results have emerged to support the dimensional approach (e.g., Fraley, Waller, & Brennan, 2000; Roisman, Fraley, & Belsky, 2007; Sibley, Fischer, & Liu, 2005). There is a great deal of evidence (a) that measures of attachment tap these two separate latent constructs and (b) that they demonstrate considerable discriminant validity (although they are correlated to some extent), especially in their relationships to other important external variables.

such as work-life conflict (Sumer & Knight, 2001), leadership (Davidovitz, Mikulincer, Shaver, Izsak, & Popper, 2007; Mikulincer & Florian, 1995; Richards & Hackett, 2012), trust (Simmons, Gooty, Nelson, & Little, 2009), job satisfaction (Krausz, Bizman, & Braslavsky, 2001; Sumer & Knight, 2001), burnout (Pines, 2004; Simmons et al., 2009), helping behavior (Geller & Bamberger, 2009), organizational citizenship behavior (Little, Nelson, Wallace, & Johnson, 2011; Richards & Schat, 2011), civility in the workplace (Leiter et al., 2015), counterproductive work behaviors (Richards & Schat, 2011), and adjustment to retirement (Segel-Karpas, Bamberger, & Bacharach, 2013).

More broadly, attachment orientation is predictive of individuals' ability to cope with stressful situations in general. For example, individuals with secure attachment orientations have been shown to appraise situations in a benign way and to perceive themselves as more able to cope with the demands posed by a stressful situation (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2010). Returning to negotiation specifically, which we maintain is often a threatening situation that should trigger the attachment system, we develop predictions concerning the influence of attachment orientation on negotiation propensity as well as actual negotiation performance and information sharing during a negotiation.

### Negotiation Propensity and Attachment Orientation

The negotiation process begins with one party initiating a negotiation with another party, who then responds by either engaging in the negotiation or not. If the two parties negotiate, the process ends either with an agreement or with an impasse. The negotiation literature has focused traditionally on the endpoint of this process—negotiation performance. More recently, research has also examined the propensity to negotiate, meaning the likelihood of initiating a negotiation in the first place (Magee, Galinsky, & Gruenfeld, 2007; Marks & Harold, 2011; Small et al., 2007), and has shown that individual differences, particularly gender, reduce the propensity to negotiate (Small et al., 2007) and that feeling powerful increases the propensity to negotiate (Magee et al., 2007). Furthermore, recent research has shown that women's greater likelihood to concede in negotiations compared to men is mediated by their concern about backlash from the other party (Amanatullah & Morris, 2010). Altogether, negotiation propensity appears to be influenced by the degree of power individuals feel in negotiation, as well as the extent to which individuals are concerned about how the other party in the negotiation will respond to their initiation of a negotiation. We build on this past work by considering how attachment orientation may influence negotiation propensity.

Individuals with attachment anxiety have a negative self-image, much interpersonal dependency, and excessive concern with the evaluations of others (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2008). During conflict, anxiously attached individuals experience high levels of threat, distress, rumination, and negative affect (Creasey et al., 1999; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2008; Pistole & Arricale, 2003), most likely triggered by the possibility of rejection by their partner as a result of the disagreement or by the negative reflection upon themselves given an unfavorable result. These negative responses interfere with more positive and proactive behaviors, such as sharing information or problem-solving with the other party in the conflict. Therefore, in the negotiation context, we propose that these characteristics should translate into a lower propensity to negotiate because a negotiation involving access to a desired resource will be perceived as threatening a relationship and thus undesirable, which is consistent with past work showing that concession behavior in negotiation is related to concerns about the other party (Amanatullah & Morris, 2010).

**Hypothesis 1:** Attachment anxiety will be negatively associated with the level of negotiation propensity.

We also predict a complementary effect, such that people will have a *greater* negotiation propensity when anticipating a negotiation with an individual who is characterized by attachment anxiety. We believe that this effect will occur because of perceptions that this type of counterpart is more vulnerable

and eager to please and thus a less threatening negotiation counterpart. Past research has shown that negotiators' expectations about their counterparts influence negotiation outcomes. For example, negotiators are less aggressive when told that their partner will be competitive versus cooperative (Diekmann et al., 2003). More recently, negotiation research has shown that people are sensitive to specific and even subtle cues concerning their negotiation counterpart and act upon those cues in opportunistic ways. Negotiators prefer counterparts (both male and female) with feminine faces because they believe that these counterparts will be more cooperative (Gladstone & O'Connor, 2014). Likewise, female negotiators are considered to be more easily taken advantage of and less competent relative to male negotiators, and negotiators were shown to be more likely to deceive female counterparts (Kray, Kennedy, & Van Zant, 2014). Therefore, we predict similar effects with a counterpart who is high on attachment anxiety:

**Hypothesis 2:** Attachment anxiety of negotiation counterpart will be positively associated with the level of negotiation propensity.

Individuals with attachment avoidance have a dismissive view of close relationships and a strong need for self-sufficiency. As such, they avoid emotional intimacy and downplay the importance of close relationships (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991). Conflict situations are threatening to individuals high on attachment avoidance because they interfere with the need for autonomy and independence, highlight interdependence, and increase vulnerability (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2008). Therefore, we predict that avoidant individuals will also have a low inclination to negotiate.

**Hypothesis 3:** Attachment avoidance will be negatively associated with the level of negotiation propensity.

We also predict a mirroring effect, such that people will have a lower negotiation propensity when anticipating a negotiation with an individual who is characterized by attachment avoidance. This effect will occur because of perceptions that this type of counterpart is distant, not interested in engaging in negotiation, and less attentive to others' needs.

**Hypothesis 4:** Attachment avoidance of negotiation counterpart will be negatively associated with the level of negotiation propensity.

Related to research findings showing that negotiators are influenced by their expectations and assumptions about their partners, we also hypothesize an additional effect such that individuals will have greater propensity to negotiate with counterparts who have similar attachment orientations. Research on close relationships has shown support for the similarity hypothesis, namely that partners tend to be similar in a variety of characteristics, including personality (for a review of similarity in relationships, see Clark & Lemay, 2010). Likewise, the literature on attachment orientation in couples has shown consistent evidence that individuals tend to partner with people who have similar attachment orientations (Frazier, Byer, Fischer, Wright, & DeBord, 1996; Senchak & Leonard, 1992), particularly in hypothetical situations (Latty-Mann & Davis, 1996) and in terms of initial attraction (Klohnen & Luo, 2003). We also predict that negotiation propensity may be higher when negotiators have similar attachment orientations since they should likewise prefer to engage similar others, especially given that negotiators are sensitive to and act upon information about their counterparts. Though individuals with attachment anxiety are likely to be threatened by the prospect of negotiation generally, they may have a greater willingness to negotiate with an anxious counterpart because an anxious negotiation partner may be less threatening than a secure or avoidant counterpart. Similarly, individuals with attachment avoidance may have a greater propensity to negotiate with an avoidant counterpart, whom they perceive as less demanding than a secure or anxious individual. Additionally, given that attachment avoidance (similar to attachment anxiety) is also underlined by anxiety (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2010), avoidant individuals might feel more threatened by a secure counterpart, since this type of counterpart is more likely to highlight their own flaws and personal insecurities.

**Hypothesis 5:** The effect of attachment on negotiation propensity will be moderated by the attachment orientation of the negotiation counterpart. Avoidant individuals will have a greater propensity to negotiate with an avoidant counterpart compared to a secure or anxious counterpart, and anxious individuals will have a greater propensity to negotiate with an anxious counterpart compared to a secure or avoidant counterpart.

## Negotiation Performance and Attachment Orientation

In making our predictions for the effects of attachment orientation on negotiation performance, we use similar logic to that above concerning negotiation propensity. However, we also consider the effect of role in the negotiation. Negotiations, particularly about financial resources, typically involve two roles: buyer and seller. Past research has shown that the cognitive frames of buyers and sellers differ. Though both buyers and sellers focus on what they will forgo in a negotiation, typically money for buyers versus a certain object for sellers (Carmon & Ariely, 2000), recent research has shown that these roles involve different regulatory strategies, such that the buyer role maps onto a prevention regulatory focus (prevention of loss), whereas the seller role maps onto a promotion regulatory focus (promotion of gains) (Appelt & Higgins, 2010; Appelt, Zou, Arora, & Higgins, 2009). Given these considerations for negotiation roles, we predict that role should matter, in particular for the effect of attachment avoidance.

As mentioned previously, individuals with high levels of attachment anxiety depend upon others for the validation of their self-worth and fear rejection. In a distributive negotiation, this orientation may have a deleterious effect on performance for both sellers and buyers because anxious negotiators are overly concerned with pleasing the other party and, therefore, are more likely to concede to the other party as opposed to defending their own interests. Thus, we hypothesized the following:

**Hypothesis 6:** Attachment anxiety will be negatively associated with negotiation performance in both the buyer (H6a) and the seller (H6b) role.

However, the association between attachment avoidance, role, and negotiation performance is less straightforward. On the one hand, the avoidant negotiator—either buyer or seller—may seek to withdraw from the negotiation because the interdependent situation is uncomfortable, leading the avoidant negotiator to concede to the other party simply to end the negotiation. These concessions may, in turn, reduce performance. On the other hand, given that individuals with an orientation characterized by attachment avoidance tend to downplay the importance of social interactions, in a distributive negotiation over financial resources (vs. an integrative negotiation couched in an ongoing relationship), the *coolness* and distance that characterizes the prototypically avoidant individual may be an advantage. Furthermore, when circumstances do not allow for withdrawal, avoidant individuals' high need for control, as well as their negative evaluation of others, is likely to drive them to try dominate others (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2010), which could be advantageous in a distributive negotiation.

In this way, we predict that the impact of attachment avoidance will depend upon role. For buyers, who are focused on preventing loss, attachment avoidance is likely to have negative effects because it will make them excessively distant and defensive to the point of indifference, producing detrimental effects on negotiation performance. Their defensiveness might also deter their counterpart from making concessions and engaging in a productive give-and-take interaction during the negotiation. In contrast, for sellers, who are focused on promoting gain, attachment avoidance may mitigate any eagerness associated with the promotion focus and thus will have positive effects by essentially calibrating their behavior. In other words, in light of the promotion focus of the seller, attachment avoidance will enable sellers to remain distant and be effective. Thus, we hypothesized the following:

**Hypothesis 7:** Attachment avoidance will be negatively associated with the negotiation performance of buyers (H7a) and positively associated with the negotiation performance of sellers (H7b).



We also investigate the ways in which attachment influences information sharing, which is an important part of the negotiation process, with one's partner and by one's partner. We predict that attachment anxiety will be associated with greater information sharing during the negotiation given that anxiously attached individuals are preoccupied with pleasing other people and thus are more likely to share information for this reason. We also predict that individuals with an anxious negotiation partner will report sharing *less* information with their partner because they will sense their partner's vulnerability and withhold information to strengthen their own position.

**Hypothesis 8a:** Attachment anxiety will be positively associated with information sharing during a negotiation.

**Hypothesis 8b:** Partner's attachment anxiety will be negatively associated with sharing one's own information during a negotiation.

In terms of attachment avoidance, we predict that avoidance will be negatively associated with information sharing, due to avoidant individuals' general reluctance to engage in social interactions and the importance they ascribe to independence. Similarly, individuals negotiating with avoidant partners are likely to sense their partners' lack of willingness to share information, and respond in kind by sharing less information.

**Hypothesis 9a:** Attachment avoidance will be negatively associated with information sharing during a negotiation.

**Hypothesis 9b:** Partner's attachment avoidance will be negatively associated with sharing one's own information during a negotiation.

## Overview of Studies

We examined our hypotheses in two separate studies. In the first study, we examined negotiation propensity using a scenario in which we manipulated the attachment orientation of a hypothetical manager, and we tested Hypotheses 1–5. In the second study, we examined the influence of attachment orientation on negotiation performance and information sharing using a behavioral negotiation exercise, and we tested Hypotheses 6–9.

## Study 1

For Study 1, we used a scenario study concerning propensity to negotiate in the context of a salary negotiation, consistent with past work that has examined propensity to negotiate over financial issues (Magee et al., 2007; Small et al., 2007). We wrote vignettes concerning three managers, each with a distinct attachment orientation—secure, anxious, or avoidant. We tested whether individual attachment orientations are related to negotiation propensity (Hypotheses 1 and 3), whether the manager's attachment orientation affects individuals' negotiation propensity (Hypotheses 2 and 4), and finally, whether individual attachment orientation and manager attachment orientation interact to influence negotiation propensity (Hypothesis 5).

## Method

### Participants

Seventy-six participants (64% female;  $M_{\text{Age}} = 31.99$ ,  $SD_{\text{Age}} = 6.93$ ) participated in this study in Israel. Participants were solicited by e-mail and social networks, including Facebook and Google+. Three

participants were omitted from the analysis. One participant did not complete the entire survey, and two participants did not answer the comprehension questions correctly. Hence, the analysis was performed on the remaining 73 respondents.

### ***Design and Procedure***

Data were collected using an online survey system. After signing a consent form, participants completed an attachment orientation questionnaire. Subsequently, participants were randomly assigned to one of three conditions, each involving a description of a manager with one of three attachment orientations—secure ( $n = 25$ ), avoidant ( $n = 24$ ), or anxious ( $n = 24$ ). In each condition, participants were asked to imagine that they were familiar with their manager and their work environment. They were then asked to read a short description of their manager, with each attachment orientation developed based on the characteristics described in the attachment literature (Bowlby, 1969/1982, 1973, 1980; Hazan & Shaver, 1987; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2005, 2010).

The anxious manager was described using the following characteristics: “Dependent, with an excessive need to get close to people and to be liked, unassertive, insecure, constantly seeking external validation, and with a tendency to express predominantly negative emotions.” The avoidant manager was described using the following characteristics: “Distant, seems assertive and confident but does not trust others, and does not share thoughts and emotions.” Finally, the secure manager was described using the following characteristics: “Comfortable with others, assertive, confident, trusts others, and expresses emotions in a calibrated fashion.” The full vignettes can be found in Appendix A. In addition, given past work showing gender differences in negotiation outcomes depending upon the sex of the negotiation counterpart (Bowles & Flynn, 2010), the manager was male in all three scenarios to control for any gender effects. After reading about their respective manager, the participants were asked to imagine that they earned an average salary and that they had not received a raise since they started working for this manager.

## **Measures**

### ***Negotiation Propensity***

Respondents rated eight items (e.g., “How likely are you to initiate a negotiation with this manager for a higher salary?”; “How successful would you be in this negotiation?”) concerning their likelihood to negotiate and their expectations for the negotiation on a scale of 1 = *Not at all* to 7 = *Very much*. Previous research on negotiation propensity has operationalized the variable either behaviorally—as a dichotomous measure of whether an individual initiated a negotiation (see Small et al., 2007)—or as a one-item measure of negotiation likelihood (see Magee et al., 2007). Surprisingly, there is no validated multi-item measure of negotiation propensity concerning the initiation of and general inclination toward negotiation. Given that we developed a new scale, we conducted an exploratory factor analysis as per Brown (2014). A principal components analysis was conducted on the eight items with orthogonal rotation (varimax). The Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin measure indicated an adequate sampling for the analysis ( $KMO = 0.83$ ), and Bartlett’s test of sphericity,  $\chi^2(28) = 341.09$ ,  $p < .0001$ , indicated that the correlations between items were sufficient. All eight items loaded on one component, which had an eigenvalue of 4.61 and explained 57.63% of the variance. All factor loadings of the items were above .6. We subsequently averaged the items, and the resulting scale had adequate internal consistency reliability ( $\alpha = .89$ ).

### ***Attachment Orientation***

Attachment avoidance and attachment anxiety were assessed using the Experiences in Close Relationships Scale (ECR; Brennan, Clark, & Shaver, 1998), which is a well-validated instrument containing 36 items. The ECR had been previously translated into Hebrew and validated by Mikulincer and Florian (2000), and we used the Hebrew version since the study was conducted in Israel. Eighteen items measure



attachment avoidance (e.g., “I prefer not to show others how I feel deep down”) and 18 measure attachment anxiety (e.g., “I worry about being rejected or abandoned”), with all items rated on a scale ranging from 1 = *Disagree strongly* to 7 = *Agree strongly*. Scores were computed by averaging the avoidance and anxiety items separately, creating two continuous scales of attachment orientation. Cronbach’s alpha was .92 for avoidant attachment and .93 for anxious attachment.

**Manipulation Check**

To verify that participants understood the descriptions of the different managers as intended, we asked them, at the end of the study, to rate the extent to which different attributes characterized their manager on a scale ranging from 1 = *Not at all* to 7 = *Very much*. We created composites for the attributes for each manager type. The anxious attachment attributes included emotional, anxious, and preoccupied with what others think of him ( $\alpha = .81$ ). The avoidant attachment attributes included distant, avoids emotional expression, and closed ( $\alpha = .87$ ). The secure attachment attributes included balanced, well-adjusted, and emotionally stable ( $\alpha = .87$ ).

**Results and Discussion**

Means, standard deviations, and correlations for all variables are reported in Table 1. To test our manipulation, we conducted one-way ANOVAs of the anxious attachment, avoidant attachment, and secure attachment attributes by the manager-type conditions. Results revealed significant main effects for condition with all means in the predicted directions, providing support that our manipulation worked as intended. The mean rating for the attachment anxiety attributes was 5.91 ( $SD = 0.97$ ) in the anxious manager condition versus 2.76 ( $SD = 1.29$ ) and 2.55 ( $SD = 0.77$ ) in the avoidant and secure manager conditions, respectively,  $F(2, 72) = 81.28, p < .001$ . The mean rating for the attachment avoidance attributes was 5.92 ( $SD = 1.26$ ) in the avoidant manager condition versus 2.46 ( $SD = 0.82$ ) and 2.81 ( $SD = 1.09$ ) in the anxious and secure manager conditions, respectively,  $F(2, 72) = 76.13, p < .001$ . Finally, the mean rating for the secure attachment attributes was 5.76 ( $SD = 0.91$ ) in the secure manager condition versus 2.39 ( $SD = 0.99$ ) and 3.65 ( $SD = 1.07$ ) in the anxious and avoidant manager conditions, respectively,  $F(2, 72) = 72.72, p < .001$ .

In order to test Hypotheses 1–5, we conducted an ANCOVA, with attachment avoidance and anxiety as covariates, manager attachment condition as a fixed factor, and the interaction terms for manager attachment condition (coded as 1 for anxious manager, 2 for avoidant manager, and 3 for secure manager) and attachment orientation. We also included the interaction term between respondents’ attachment avoidance and anxiety to rule out the possibility of second-order effects of the attachment constructs themselves (Segel-Karpas et al., 2013). Respondents’ attachment scores were also centered around the mean prior to analysis. Consistent with Hypothesis 1, there was a significant main effect of respondents’ attachment anxiety on negotiation propensity,  $F(1, 72) = 8.15, p < .01, \eta^2 = .12$ , such that

Table 1  
*Correlations Between Study 1 Variables*

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4
1. Attachment anxiety	3.48	1.20				
2. Attachment avoidance	3.22	1.06	.14			
3. Negotiation propensity	4.18	1.11	-.29*	-.06		
4. Manager condition	2.03	0.83	.06	.02	-.32**	

Notes.  $N = 73$ . Manager condition coded as 1 = Anxious, 2 = Avoidant, 3 = Secure.

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

attachment anxiety was a significant, negative predictor of negotiation propensity ( $B = -.36$ ,  $SE = 0.17$ ,  $p < .05$ ). However, contrary to Hypothesis 3, there was no main effect of respondents' attachment avoidance on negotiation propensity,  $F(1, 72) = 0.00$ ,  $ns$ ,  $\eta^2 = .00$ .

Next, we tested Hypotheses 2 and 4, namely our predictions that there would be main effects of manager attachment condition on negotiation propensity. Results indicated a significant main effect for manager attachment condition on negotiation propensity,  $F(2, 72) = 5.46$ ,  $p < .01$ ,  $\eta^2 = .15$ . In order to better understand this result, we conducted pairwise comparisons with the adjusted means for negotiation propensity by condition (with the attachment covariates evaluated at their means). In support of Hypothesis 2 (greater negotiation propensity with an anxious counterpart), negotiation propensity was significantly higher in the anxious manager condition (Anxious manager:  $M = 4.72$ ,  $SD = 0.97$ ) compared to both the avoidant manager (Avoidant manager:  $M = 3.89$ ,  $SD = 1.06$ ; mean difference = 0.83,  $p < .01$ ) and the secure manager conditions (Secure manager:  $M = 3.98$ ,  $SD = 1.07$ ; mean difference = 0.74,  $p < .01$ ). However, Hypothesis 4 (lower negotiation propensity with an avoidant counterpart) was only partially supported. Pairwise comparisons revealed a significant difference between the avoidant manager and the anxious manager conditions (mean difference =  $-0.83$ ,  $p < .01$ ) in the predicted direction, but there was no difference between the avoidant versus secure manager conditions (mean difference =  $-0.09$ ,  $ns$ ).

We next tested Hypothesis 5 that individual attachment orientation would interact with manager attachment orientation to produce greater negotiation propensity when attachment orientations were congruent. Results revealed partial support for our hypothesis. There was a significant interaction,  $F(2, 72) = 5.53$ ,  $p < .01$ ,  $\eta^2 = .15$ , between manager condition and individual attachment avoidance. However, there was no significant interaction between manager condition and individual attachment anxiety,  $F(2, 72) = 0.54$ ,  $ns$ ,  $\eta^2 = .02$ .

To better understand the significant interaction between attachment avoidance and manager condition, we conducted multiple pairwise comparisons. High and low levels of attachment avoidance were defined as 1  $SD$  above the mean ( $n = 37$ ) and 1  $SD$  below the mean ( $n = 34$ ), respectively, while controlling for attachment anxiety (see Figure 1). Respondents high on attachment avoidance had a significantly greater negotiation propensity with the avoidant manager ( $M = 4.33$ ) compared to the secure manager ( $M = 3.52$ ; mean difference = 0.80,  $SE = 0.41$ ,  $p < .06$ ), and with the anxious manager ( $M = 4.75$ )

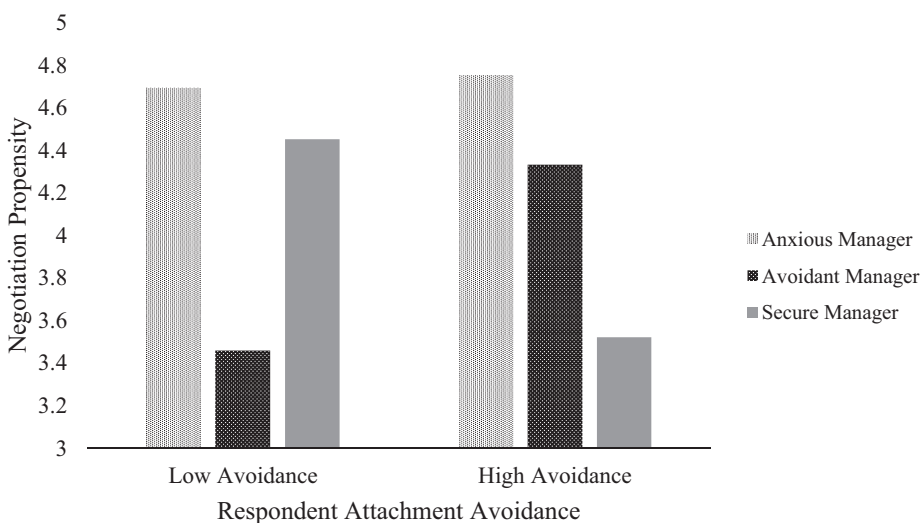


Figure 1. Negotiation propensity by manager condition and attachment avoidance level—Study 1.

compared to the secure manager ( $M = 3.52$ ; mean difference = 1.23,  $SE = 0.35$ ,  $p < .01$ ). There was no difference, however, in negotiation propensity for respondents high on attachment avoidance with the avoidant versus the anxious manager (mean difference = 0.43,  $SE = 0.43$ ,  $ns$ ). Respondents low on attachment avoidance had a significantly lower negotiation propensity with the avoidant manager ( $M = 3.46$ ) in comparison with the secure manager ( $M = 4.45$ ; mean difference =  $-0.99$ ,  $SE = 0.37$ ,  $p = .01$ ) and also in comparison with the anxious managers ( $M = 4.69$ ; mean difference =  $-1.23$ ,  $SE = 0.39$ ,  $p < .01$ ). There was no difference in negotiation propensity for respondents low on attachment avoidance with the secure versus the anxious manager (mean difference =  $-0.24$ ,  $SE = 0.38$ ,  $ns$ ). Thus, Hypothesis 5 was partially supported.

In sum, as predicted, individual attachment anxiety was associated with lower negotiation propensity, whereas having an anxious counterpart (the anxious manager condition) was associated with greater negotiation propensity. However, counter to our prediction, there was no interaction between individual attachment anxiety and having an anxious counterpart. In terms of attachment avoidance, individual avoidance did not influence negotiation propensity, contrary to our hypothesis. Respondents did have a lower negotiation propensity with an avoidant counterpart compared to an anxious counterpart, but not compared to a secure counterpart. However, there was a significant interaction between individual attachment avoidance and counterpart attachment avoidance, such that individuals high on attachment avoidance had a greater negotiation propensity in the avoidant manager condition compared to the secure manager condition, as well as in the anxious manager condition compared to the secure manager condition. In Study 2, we further explored the effect of attachment orientation on negotiation by examining the performance and information sharing in an actual behavioral negotiation exercise.

## Study 2

In Study 2, we used a behavioral negotiation paradigm involving a financial deal between two manufacturers over the purchase of motorcycle headlights. The buyer is looking to purchase the headlights, and the seller has excess capacity for the production of the headlights. The negotiation is purely distributive, in that the primary issue is price, and for reasons given in the case, there is no potential for a future relationship between the two parties. Thus, we tested whether attachment anxiety and avoidance are related to the performance of both buyers and sellers (Hypotheses 6 and 7) and whether attachment anxiety and avoidance influence information sharing during a negotiation (Hypotheses 8 and 9).

## Method

### *Participants*

One hundred and four undergraduate students (58% female) at a university in Israel participated in this study ( $M_{\text{Age}} = 24.32$ ,  $SD_{\text{Age}} = 2.40$ ). Participants were paid for participation.

### *Design and Procedure*

Upon entering the laboratory, participants were asked to fill out the attachment orientation questionnaire. Participants were then randomly assigned to one of two roles (buyer or seller) to conduct a negotiation over a single issue, namely the price of halogen motorcycle headlights. Participants were given 10 minutes to read the role instructions for the negotiation. Subsequently, participants were given 20 minutes to conduct the negotiation. The negotiations were conducted in a large room with negotiation pairs seated and facing each other. The experimenter was present and observed the negotiations (they were not recorded). After the negotiation was completed, participants filled out a questionnaire in which they reported the price that was agreed upon, as well as items concerning information sharing. From 52 dyads, 18 consisted of same-sex participants and 34 consisted of mixed-sex participants.

Each pair negotiated over the price per unit of 60,000 headlights to be used in the production of motorcycles. In the negotiation case, the buyer's maximum price was \$35 per unit and the seller's minimum price was \$10 per unit. Therefore, the total surplus to be divided between the negotiators was \$25 per unit. Role instructions for the negotiation exercise were translated into Hebrew and then back-translated into English for validation.

## Measures

### *Attachment Orientation*

Attachment orientation was again measured using the Hebrew version of the ECR (Brennan et al., 1998; Mikulincer & Florian, 2000), and scores were computed in an identical fashion as in Study 1 ( $\alpha = .91$  for attachment avoidance and  $\alpha = .90$  for attachment anxiety).

### *Negotiation Performance*

Performance was calculated as the surplus, meaning the amount negotiated better than one's reservation value. For sellers, the surplus was calculated as the price negotiated minus \$10 (the reservation value). For buyers, the surplus was calculated as \$35 (the reservation value) minus the price negotiated. For each pair, the total of the buyer's and the seller's surpluses equaled \$25 per unit, and thus, the buyer's and seller's surpluses were perfectly, negatively correlated. An even split, reflecting no performance differential between negotiators, was equal to \$12.50.

### *Information Sharing*

The measure of information sharing consisted of five items (adapted from Brett & Okumura, 1998) concerning the degree to which negotiators shared information and collaborated with the other party, meaning to what extent did they "...share information with the other party" and "...engage in a give-and-take exchange." Participants rated the items on a 1–7 scale (1 = *Not at all* to 7 = *Very much*). Items were translated into Hebrew and back-translated into English to check the translation. Reliability for the scale was adequate ( $\alpha = .68$ ).

## Results and Discussion

See Table 2 for means, standard deviations, and correlations between all variables.

To examine the main effects of attachment anxiety and avoidance (Hypotheses 6 and 7) on negotiation performance, analyses were conducted using one-sample *t*-tests in which the negotiator's surplus was compared to \$12.50, which is the amount if there was an even split. (Because the dependent variable, surplus, has perfect between-observations [buyer and seller] dependency, we could not use any techniques that require the observations to be independent, such as regression analysis or the Actor-Partner

Table 2  
*Correlations Between Study 2 Variables*

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4
1. Attachment anxiety	3.38	1.00				
2. Attachment avoidance	3.27	0.94	.19			
3. Role	1.50	0.50	-.03	.04		
4. Surplus	12.63	6.26	-.06	-.03	.18	
5. Information sharing	4.45	1.15	.07	.04	-.16	.13

Note. *N* = 104. Role coded as 1 = Buyer, 2 = Seller.

Interdependence Model (Kenny, Kashy, & Cook, 2006) for our analyses regarding performance.) We first created high ( $n = 52$ ) versus low ( $n = 52$ ) attachment anxiety and high ( $n = 53$ ) versus low ( $n = 51$ ) attachment avoidance groups by dichotomizing the continuous attachment dimensions using a median split.<sup>2</sup> Consistent with Hypotheses 6 and 7, we conducted the analyses separately for buyers and sellers.

Contrary to Hypothesis 6a, there was no significant effect of attachment anxiety for buyers. Both high attachment anxiety,  $M_{\text{Surplus}} = \$11.62$ ,  $SD = \$6.45$ ,  $t(25) = -0.70$ , *ns*, and low attachment anxiety buyers,  $M_{\text{Surplus}} = \$11.40$ ,  $SD = \$6.09$ ,  $t(25) = -0.92$ , *ns*, received an even split of the surplus. In support of Hypothesis 6b, there was a significant effect of attachment anxiety for sellers, such that low attachment anxiety sellers obtained a mean surplus of \$14.87 ( $SD = 5.86$ ), which is significantly greater than half,  $t(25) = 2.06$ ,  $p = .05$ . High attachment anxiety sellers received an even split of the surplus,  $M_{\text{Surplus}} = \$12.65$ ,  $SD = \$6.37$ ,  $t(25) = 0.12$ , *ns*.

There were significant effects of attachment avoidance for both buyers and sellers in support of Hypotheses 7a and 7b. High attachment avoidance buyers obtained a mean surplus of \$9.18 ( $SD = 6.04$ ), which is significantly less than half,  $t(24) = -2.75$ ,  $p = .01$ . High attachment avoidance sellers obtained a mean surplus of \$14.46 per unit in surplus ( $SD = 5.65$ ), which reflected a trend toward significantly more than half,  $t(28) = 1.84$ ,  $p < .07$ . Both low attachment avoidance sellers,  $M_{\text{Surplus}} = \$12.94$ ,  $SD = \$6.74$ ,  $t(23) = 0.32$ , *ns*, and low attachment avoidance buyers,  $M_{\text{Surplus}} = \$13.67$ ,  $SD = \$5.65$ ,  $t(26) = 1.07$ , *ns*, received an even split of the surplus.

We next examined the correlations between attachment orientations and information sharing during the negotiation. Neither attachment anxiety ( $b = .07$ , *ns*) nor attachment avoidance ( $b = .07$ , *ns*) was significantly correlated with information sharing, contrary to Hypotheses 8a and 9a.

Although we did not find main effects for attachment orientation on information sharing, we used the Actor-Partner Interdependence Model (APIM; Kenny et al., 2006) to test Hypotheses 8b and 9b, namely whether people reported sharing less information when they had an anxious partner and an avoidant partner, controlling for role and the actor's own attachment orientation. Individuals with anxious partners did not report sharing significantly less information, contrary to Hypothesis 8b,  $\beta = -0.002$ ,  $SE = 0.36$ ,  $F(1, 96.39) = 0.00$ , *ns*. However, in support of Hypothesis 9b, individuals with avoidant partners reported sharing significantly less information,  $\beta = -0.96$ ,  $SE = 0.39$ ,  $F(1, 95.45) = 6.00$ ,  $p < .05$ . In addition, there was a significant moderation of actor's information sharing by partner's attachment avoidance and role,  $\beta = 0.56$ ,  $SE = 0.24$ ,  $F(1, 95.43) = 5.65$ ,  $p < .05$ , indicating that the effect for less information sharing was primarily due to being partnered with avoidant buyers (see Table 3).

Overall, the results showed mixed support for our hypotheses. Sellers low on attachment anxiety obtained significantly more than half the surplus, but the effects for attachment anxiety were not significant for buyers. Thus, attachment anxiety did not have the deleterious effects that we had hypothesized, and in fact, though consistent conceptually with our hypothesis, the effects showed beneficial effects of being low on attachment anxiety as opposed to deleterious effects of being high on attachment anxiety. Attachment avoidance had significant effects on negotiation performance as predicted, such that buyers high on attachment avoidance obtained significantly less than half the surplus, whereas sellers high on attachment avoidance obtained significantly greater than half the surplus. Although there were no main effects for individual attachment orientation on reported information sharing, negotiators with counterparts who were high on attachment avoidance reported sharing significantly less information with those counterparts, in particular for sellers negotiating with avoidant buyers.

<sup>2</sup>The values for attachment anxiety and avoidance in our sample were comparable to findings from prior research (e.g., Fraley, Heffernan, Vicary, & Brumbaugh, 2011), thus indicating that this categorization is a valid representation of the variables.

Table 3

*Actor-Partner Interdependence Model Analyses of Attachment Avoidance and Information Sharing, Study 2*

	$\beta$ (SE)	F (df)	p
Intercept	7.91 (1.36)	34.07 (98.48)	<.001
Actor attachment avoidance	0.08 (0.80)	0.45 (95.62)	.50
Partner attachment avoidance	-0.96 (0.39)	6.00 (95.45)	.02
Role	-2.22 (0.80)	7.65 (92.99)	.007
Partner attachment avoidance $\times$ Role	0.56 (0.24)	5.65 (95.43)	.02

Note. Role coded as 1 = Buyer, 2 = Seller.

## General Discussion

We examined the effects of attachment anxiety and avoidance on negotiation propensity and performance in two studies that are the first to do so, to the best of our knowledge. Overall, attachment orientation did influence negotiation propensity and performance, and the effects were both intrapersonal and interpersonal. Thus, similar to other individual difference variables, attachment orientation has important effects on negotiation outcomes for both the individual negotiator and the negotiation counterpart. However, unlike other personality attributes, attachment orientation is defined in terms of the way it shapes behaviors and expectations in personal interactions and relationships, particularly in threatening situations and during emotional distress. Although the effects of attachment orientation are most pronounced in close relationships, the results from these studies demonstrate that attachment orientation also influences interpersonal interactions in the work context and in negotiation specifically.

### Negotiation Propensity

Individuals with high levels of attachment anxiety were less inclined to negotiate for a higher salary. We also found support for a complementary effect, such that people were *more* likely to negotiate with individuals characterized by attachment anxiety. Thus, attachment anxiety influences both intrapersonal and interpersonal negotiation behaviors. Interestingly, individuals with high levels of attachment avoidance did not have lower negotiation propensity, contrary to our prediction. The lack of support for this hypothesis might be explained by the fact that avoidant individuals ascribe a great deal of importance to money. According to Mikulincer and Shaver (2008), for the highly avoidant, money is a way to preserve valued independence and to enhance self-reliance. Thus, it could be that the importance of increasing one's salary overshadowed the effects of avoidant tendencies in Study 1. Future research should address this proposition by examining the influence of attachment avoidance on negotiation propensity concerning resources other than salary. Furthermore, the effect of attachment avoidance on negotiation propensity was moderated by the attachment orientation of the negotiation counterpart, with avoidant individuals more likely to negotiate with insecure managers (both anxious and avoidant) compared to the secure manager. Attachment avoidance is underlined by distress, such that the under-activation of the attachment system is a defensive response to the perception of others as unsupportive and inattentive (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2010). Dealing with a secure counterpart (purposely described as such in our scenarios) might highlight this basic lack of confidence, leading to diminished negotiation propensity with that type of counterpart.

Our findings concerning the effect of attachment orientation on negotiation propensity contribute to recent research on how individual differences influence the inclination to engage in versus avoid negotiation. Recent research has identified agreeableness (Judge et al., 2012), gender (Bear, 2011; Small et al., 2007), prevention focus (Shalvi et al., 2012), and incidental state anxiety (Brooks & Schweitzer, 2011) as factors that increase the likelihood that people will either avoid or exit early from negotiations. Future



research should investigate to what extent attachment anxiety may, in fact, underlie these effects found for other variables on disinclination toward negotiation.

## Negotiation Performance

In an actual negotiation exercise, individuals who were low on attachment anxiety performed better as sellers. Individuals who were high on attachment anxiety, however, did not display the general deleterious performance effects that we had predicted, perhaps because the negotiation exercise was a conservative test. In particular, participants were strangers (attachment becomes more salient when individuals know each other), and the negotiation was for relatively low stakes because it was simulated and thus not highly threatening. In addition, our predictions regarding the effects of attachment anxiety on information sharing during the negotiation were not supported. The effects of attachment anxiety are likely to be more pronounced in an actual business negotiation with higher stakes and greater threat, as well as in the context of a long-term relationship.

Our predictions concerning the effect of attachment avoidance on performance were primarily supported. Buyers high on attachment avoidance underperformed (obtaining significantly less than half the surplus), perhaps because attachment avoidance coupled with the defensive nature of being a buyer led to worse performance. However, sellers high on attachment avoidance obtained significantly greater than half the surplus, perhaps because being in a promotion-oriented role while still maintaining the distance associated with attachment avoidance allowed people to perform better. In addition, though there was no main effect of attachment avoidance on information sharing, individuals with avoidant partners reported sharing significantly less information with moderation by role, indicating that the effect for less information sharing was primarily due to being partnered with avoidant buyers.

## Theoretical Implications

These results contribute to recent work in negotiation pointing to the importance at the bargaining table of both individual differences (e.g., Amanatullah et al., 2008; Barry & Friedman, 1998; DeRue et al., 2009; Dimotakis et al., 2012; Elfenbein, 2013; Judge et al., 2012) and orientations toward relationships (Curhan et al., 2006; Gelfand et al., 2006). On a broader level, negotiations can be viewed as a forum in which schemas about relationships play out, which may explain the influence of individual differences. In this way, internal working models of attachment may become more or less prominent in the negotiation context depending upon the type of negotiation, the negotiation counterpart, and the degree of stress inherent to the negotiation, especially since the attachment system is activated when people experience distress. It is plausible that attachment anxiety and avoidance have even stronger effects in integrative negotiations, because these negotiations are typically conducted in the context of long-term relationships, involve multiple issues, and require creative problem-solving. This type of relational context may activate attachment schemas to a greater extent than the distributive, financial negotiations that we used in our studies, producing even stronger effects. Nevertheless, our results demonstrate that, even in a relatively impersonal context involving financial negotiations, attachment orientations influence negotiation outcomes.

Attachment theory has not been previously explored in negotiation research, with one recent exception in which priming insecure attachment (anxiety and avoidance) was found to lead agents to perform counter to the best interests of their principals (Lee & Thompson, 2011). This gap in the literature is surprising given that negotiation is both interdependent and anxiety-provoking (Brooks & Schweitzer, 2011; O'Connor et al., 2010; Pruitt & Carnevale, 1993; Small et al., 2007; Wheeler, 2004), and attachment orientations have been shown to influence behavior in social contexts, particularly when individuals feel threatened (Bowlby, 1969/1982, 1973), as is often the case in competitive negotiations contexts.

Furthermore, in terms of attachment in the workplace more generally, past research has shown that the effects are often moderated by contextual features, which is consistent with our findings in Study 2, in which the effects of attachment anxiety and avoidance varied by role. For example, among Israeli soldiers in stressful situations, avoidant individuals were just as likely as secure individuals to be nominated for leadership positions (Mikulincer & Florian, 1995). It could be that the detachment of avoidant leaders is an asset under highly stressful conditions, buffering them from the emotional and interpersonal impacts of such circumstances. In another example, individuals with anxious attachment were found to have similar levels of job satisfaction and stress as securely attached individuals when supervision was highly supportive (Schirmer & Lopez, 2001), indicating that the effect of attachment anxiety on work outcomes may also be contextually dependent. Overall, it appears that the impact of attachment in the workplace may be more contextually dependent than in close relationships, perhaps because attachment schemas are less salient and more subject to situational influence at work. Thus, future research should examine to what extent anxious and avoidant attachment help or hurt in negotiations depending upon features of the context.

These findings also contribute to the attachment literature more generally, especially since the effects of attachment anxiety and avoidance on short-term interactions and daily interpersonal transactions have not been thoroughly studied. Our findings show that, even in short-term, narrowly defined situations with no real monetary implications, attachment orientation had significant effects, which indicate that attachment may play an important role for every day decision-making and interactions above and beyond the sphere of close relationships.

As with any research program, our studies had a number of limitations. Study 1 used a scenario protocol with hypothetical vignettes of managers with different attachment orientations. In Study 2, we measured actual negotiation performance, though still using a role-play situation. Future research should follow up on the results from both studies by investigating actual relationships between managers and subordinates in organizations to examine how attachment influences negotiation behaviors. In addition, to investigating these questions in a professional sample, future research should be conducted in other countries as well since both studies 1 and 2 were conducted in Israel. In addition, the distributive negotiation of Study 2, in which the performance measure of both negotiators—their surplus—was perfectly negatively correlated, limited our ability to probe actor–partner effects more deeply for performance (though we were able to analyze actor–partner effects for information sharing). Thus, future research should examine integrative negotiations to examine the effects of attachment on joint outcomes and at the dyadic level in addition to individual outcomes. Future studies should also use negotiators who know each other well because attachment orientations are more likely to be prominent in ongoing (long-term) relationships.

## Practical Implications

The findings from these studies have several important practical implications. Individuals with high attachment anxiety should take care that they advocate for themselves at work. Likewise, these individuals should be aware that others, in sensing their vulnerability, may be more likely to negotiate with them and should guard against people taking advantage of them in the workplace. Individuals with high attachment avoidance should consider to what extent avoidance may hurt them (when it leads people to disengage from them) versus help them (when their distance can be an asset). In a similar vein, managers should bear in mind that individual differences influence negotiation propensity and performance, and they should try to directly address any disadvantages by providing psychological tools that might help individuals to overcome barriers to successful negotiation and conflict resolution.

On a broader level, these results speak to the ways in which attachment orientations, most salient in close relationships, have an important impact on relationships at work. Thus, in addition to close relationships, attachment schemas can be activated at work and, thereby, influence behavior in the workplace, including negotiation propensity and performance.

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## Appendix A

### Manager Vignettes, Study 1

Introduction (all conditions): “Imagine that you have been working in an organization for a while, and that you are familiar with your manager and your work environment.”

#### Attachment Anxiety Condition

Your manager is a dependent person, with an excessive need to get close to people. It is very important for him to be liked by others, even when is not necessarily relevant for the demands of the job. He seems to be unassertive, insecure and constantly in need of external validation. He predominantly expresses intensely negative emotions and thoughts, while rarely expressing positive emotions.

#### Attachment Avoidance Manager Condition

Your manager is a distant person who tends not to get close to people. It is important for him to keep his distance from his employees, colleagues and other managers. He seems assertive and confident in himself, but he does not appear to trust or believe in others. He does not usually share his thoughts and emotions with other people.

#### Secure Manager Condition

Your manager is a person who feels comfortable with other people. He is able to get close with others, while still maintaining appropriate distance from his employees, colleagues and other managers. He is assertive, confident, and tends to trust and believe in other people. He usually expresses his thoughts and emotions in a calibrated fashion.

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**Julia B. Bear** is an assistant professor in the College of Business at Stony Brook University. She received her Ph.D. in Organizational Behavior from Carnegie Mellon University. Her research examines negotiation and conflict management in organizations with a focus on the influence of gender.

**Dikla Segel-Karpas** is a post-doc at the Department of Psychology, Brandeis University. She primary studies older workers and the transition to retirement. She is also interested in the effects of personality traits on organizational behavior and has studied the role of attachment on adjustment to retirement. Next year Dikla will join the Department of Gerontology at the University of Haifa.