

A CROSS-CULTURAL STUDY OF ADULT ATTACHMENT, SOCIAL SELF-EFFICACY,  
FAMILISMO, AND PSYCHOLOGICAL WELLBEING

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Although Latinos are the largest minority group in the country, research examining how different psychological and cultural variables affect Latino individuals' wellbeing is disproportionately developed and cross-cultural comparison studies are particularly scarce. To address these issues, this dissertation research examined cross-cultural adult attachment-social self-efficacy-psychosocial wellbeing conceptual mediational model while investigating the moderator effects of country membership and familismo on the proposed mediational model using a cross-cultural sample of Mexican and Mexican-American university students. A total of 595 participants, including 360 Mexican students from Mexico and 235 Mexican-American students from the United States, completed the research questionnaires. Results indicated that social self-efficacy was a significant mediator for the effects of insecure attachment on life satisfaction and conflict resolution in both cultural groups and for the links between attachment insecurity and depressive symptoms in the Mexican-American group. Additionally, moderated mediation analyses showed that country membership was a significant moderator for the links between attachment avoidance and social self-efficacy when life satisfaction, conflict resolution style, and depressive symptoms were the dependent variables, as well as for the direct link between attachment anxiety and physical health symptoms. Familismo was also found to be a significant moderator for the direct effects of attachment anxiety on physical health symptoms and life satisfaction in both groups. Findings are discussed from the attachment and cross-cultural perspectives. Counseling implications, limitations, and future research directions are offered.

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## CHAPTER 1

### INTRODUCTION

The Latino population is one of the most rapidly growing ethnic groups in the United States (U.S.) in the past two decades (Pew Hispanic Center, 2009). According to the U.S. Census (2013s), Latinos comprise a population of over 53 million, making this population the largest minority group in the country. Within this group, 67 % of the population is of Mexican descent. However, due to the difficulties faced by practitioners and researchers in recruiting Latinos to participate in empirical studies, the literature addressing how different psychological and cultural variables affect Latino wellbeing is disproportionately developed (Gurung & Radosevich, 2015). Although more research has begun to investigate factors associated with U.S. Latino wellbeing in recent years, cross-cultural comparison studies are particularly scarce.

Guided by attachment theory, the proposed study aimed to expand the literature by examining the possible differences between Mexican Latinos and Mexican Americans in terms of adult attachment effects on psychosocial functioning. While these two populations share some similar cultural heritage, the function of attachment insecurity and corresponding psychosocial mechanisms may vary between them due to the distinct mainstream cultural contexts. A well-supported attachment-based mediation model was examined, and it was hypothesized that the mediational effect would differ significantly between the two cultural groups and a cultural variable of Familismo would account for the differences. The guided theory, relevant research findings for the mediation model, rationales for the hypothesized cultural differences, and specific hypotheses are briefly presented in this chapter.

## Adult Attachment and Mental Wellbeing

Attachment theory, formulated by John Bowlby (1969), introduces the idea that children develop internal working models of self and others based on the quality of the emotional bonds with their primary care providers during childhood. These models influence the manner in which a child construes the self and others within the context of interpersonal relationships. Building upon this theory, adult attachment researchers conceptualize a model that is composed of two orthogonal dimensions: attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance (Brennan, Clark, & Shaver, 1998). Individuals with low levels on both dimensions are considered to have secure attachment. Theoretically, individuals who have high adult attachment anxiety tend to have negative internal working models of self; as a result, they tend to experience excessive needs for approval from significant others and fear of rejection and abandonment. In contrast, individuals who report greater attachment avoidance tend to possess negative working models of others; therefore, they tend to show excessive need for self-reliance and great discomfort in depending on others because they perceive other people as unreliable when they are in need (Pietromonaco & Barrett, 2000).

Empirical literature, mostly based on middle-class, white college student samples, has provided strong support for the link between attachment insecurity and poor psychosocial outcomes such as higher distress (Lopez, Mitchell, & Gormley, 2002; McCarthy, Lambert, & Moller, 2006), worse health outcomes (Scharfe & Eldredge, 2001), and negative feelings such as depression and loneliness (Wei, Russell, & Zakalik, 2005). In recent years, attachment researchers have begun to pay attention to the Latino population (e.g., Garriott et al., 2010; Rodriguez, Ratanasiripong, Hayashino, & Locks, 2014; Wei, Russell, Mallinckrodt, & Zakalik 2004). Consistent with the prediction of the theory, studies generally showed that Latinos with

high attachment avoidance tend to experience negative mood and show poor adjustment at a white-dominated university (Wei et al., 2004). Similarly, Garriott et al. (2010) further confirmed that Latino college students with lower attachment insecurity experience greater wellbeing, much like their white counterparts.

### Social Self-Efficacy as a Mediator

Social self-efficacy refers to the competence, effectiveness, and causal agency, as perceived by the individual in a social environment (Gecas, 1989). This implies that individuals who perceive themselves as having greater social self-efficacy believe that they are able to engage others in meaningful conversation, feel satisfied with their interactions with others, and are able to establish new relationships with others (Gecas, 1989). Low degrees of social self-efficacy have been associated with loneliness and negative feelings about others (DiTomaso, Brennen-Mcnulty, Ross, & Burgess, 2003). High social self-efficacy has been linked to better regulation of stress, higher self-esteem, better wellbeing, and better physical condition (Bandura, 1997; Bisschop, Knegsman, Beekman, & Deeg, 2004).

As described earlier, an attachment system serves as a guiding framework for all significant interpersonal relationships (Bowlby, 1969). Thus, individuals who have secure attachment are more likely to initiate social behavior and develop new friendships, as well as behave adequately in social situations (Gecas, 1989) than their insecure counterparts' due to the developed positive internal working models of self and others. Previous research found that individuals with greater attachment insecurity tend to report less social self-efficacy which can in turn lead to more psychological distress (Mallinckrodt & Wei, 2005). Conceptually, individuals with high attachment anxiety are prone to lowered social self-efficacy due to their tendency to

feel powerless and unable to bring about desired outcomes in close relationships, which then leads to a greater likelihood of experiencing distress symptoms. In contrast, researchers hypothesized that as individuals with high attachment avoidance tend to engage in dismissive or deactivating strategies, they become less willing to seek support from others and tend to disregard the need to rely and connect with others. Thus, this rationale holds that, should individuals with high attachment avoidance find themselves in need of establishing a social connection, they would likely perceive themselves as less efficient at doing so, resulting in higher psychological distress (Wei, Russell, & Zakalik, 2005).

In sum, using attachment theory as the guiding framework, a more robust way of explaining how attachment is related to psychosocial wellness is through examining the mediational effects of social self-efficacy. Because attachment anxiety constitutes a negative internal working model of self, high attachment anxiety may be related to lesser social self-efficacy, which in turn may result in diminished psychosocial wellness. In contrast, it is unclear as to how attachment avoidance might be related to social self-efficacy and a thorough literature search resulted in no direct evidence supporting the link between attachment avoidance, social self-efficacy, and psychological wellbeing. Therefore, this path was examined in an exploratory fashion.

#### Country Membership, Familismo, and the Moderated Mediation Models

One of the goals of this study was to compare and contrast the differences and similarities in the mediation model of attachment-social self-efficacy-psychological wellbeing between a Mexican sample and a Mexican-American sample. Mexico's dominant societal norm is regarded as a collectivist culture and individuals there tend to endorse cultural values such as focus on

family or social groups instead of self, emphasis on close social networks, and loyalty to their family (Esteinou, 2006).

Researchers (Beltran, Castanos, Flores, Meyenberg & del Pozo, 1996; Lopez, 1998) in the past stated that Mexican families tend to display strong family ties and emotional, economical, and social support, yet also observe restrictions due to their “tri-generational” approach to family (grandparents, parents, and children). These restrictions include lessened personal liberty and autonomy due to obligations to the family system, influencing whether an individual may go out with friends, select certain clothes, modify their body (tattoos, piercings), or have a different religious affiliation (Esteinou, 2006). In contrast, U.S.-born Mexican-Americans have grown up in a predominantly individualistic cultural environment in which individual identity, pursuing personal goals, independence, and autonomy are strongly valued and encouraged outside of the family system (Triandis, 1995), while most Mexican immigrant parents pass on traditions and cultural values such as family orientation and collectivistic thoughts to their children.

These cultural differences may affect the function of adult attachment and some preliminary empirical evidence supports this possibility. For instance, Friedman et al. (2010) found that the links between attachment insecurity and relationship difficulties, partner support, and relationship conflict are stronger in Mexicans than Americans. According to the authors, this is because Mexicans with greater attachment anxiety might show a greater need to rely on others, yet their primary focus is on fulfilling their own needs rather than their partners’ needs, or the needs of others (Rholes et al., 2008). This tendency could generate conflict between their collectivistic cultural norms and their own personal needs (Friedman et al., 2010). In addition, Mexicans with greater levels of attachment avoidance tend to not express their own feelings and

needs to preserve group integrity, and they may be perceived as less engaged with other people. This in turn may cause them to feel pressure, and their avoidance tendency may create disappointment in others, as Mexican cultural norms highly value maintaining a united, intact social environment. Therefore, compared to Americans, Mexicans with high levels of attachment avoidance and anxiety tend to experience more social difficulties; specifically, they may perceive as lacking social self-efficacy, including feeling less capable of establishing lasting, adequate, satisfactory relationships than their American counterparts. Therefore, it was reasoned that the country of membership would moderate the link between attachment effects and social self-efficacy in that the negative effects of attachment insecurity to social self-efficacy could be stronger for Mexicans compared to Mexican-American samples.

Country of membership was also expected to affect the link between attachment and psychological wellbeing outcomes. Specifically, the link between attachment insecurity and psychological distress in Mexican individuals might be stronger than their Mexican-American counterparts. As stated earlier, Mexicans with high levels of attachment avoidance tend to report more social difficulties (Friedman et al., 2010), as they are influenced by the need to preserve social harmony due to how Mexicans are socialized when compared to the U.S.-born Mexicans. However, avoiding expressing their needs to maintain social harmony may not lead them to have satisfactory lives and overall psychological wellbeing, as they may be pressured by relatives and close friends to engage in behaviors and attitudes that make them feel uncomfortable (Friedman et al., 2010). In addition, Mexicans with greater attachment anxiety may also report poorer psychological wellbeing compare to Mexican-Americans. It may be because the traits of attachment anxiety include satisfying the self's needs rather than others' needs, and emotional reactiveness (Tidwell, Reis, & Shaver, 1996), which leads to greater disharmony with collectivist

social norms (Friedman et al. 2010), and may lead to more psychological distress. Therefore, the effect of attachment insecurity on psychological wellbeing was expected to vary significantly by country membership, and Mexicans may show stronger relationships between attachment anxiety and various psychological wellbeing indicators.

One of the most salient and well-researched cultural values within the Latino community is Familismo. Familismo has been described as the high value of, respect for, and loyalty to the family system, and is regarded as a sociocultural norm in Latino cultures (Sue & Sue, 2007). High Familismo has been linked to greater family support and connectedness in Latino samples (Bernal, Arocena, & Ceballos, 2011), greater resiliency and wellbeing in the Latino communities (Hernandez, Garcia, & Flynn, 2010), and decreased negative mental health outcomes such as discrimination and substance abuse (Ayon, Marsiglia, & Bermudez-Parsai, 2010). Within college students, Familismo has been found to be a protective factor for Latinos in terms of improving their resilience and wellbeing in college (Gloria, Lopez & Rosales, 2005).

Although first-generation Mexican immigrants in the U.S. tend to hold on to their cultural values and practices, their children (U.S.-born Mexican Americans) are exposed to a new culture and new values from school, media, and peers of other backgrounds, which may influence their cultural values and attitudes (Phinney, Ong, & Madden 2000). These values and attitudes may include individualism, self-reliance, and peer-reliance over family-reliance. Studies show that Latinos who have grown up in the U.S. mainstream society endorse fewer Latino cultural values than their parents (Balls, Organista, & Kurosaki, 2003; Zayas, Bright, Alvarez-Sanchez, & Cabassa, 2009). Therefore, it was hypothesized that Mexicans may endorse Familismo cultural values more strongly than their Mexican-American counterparts.

Familismo may affect the relationship between attachment and social self-efficacy. It is reasoned that individuals reporting higher Familismo would experience less of a negative impact from insecure attachment on their social self-efficacy because of the strong sense of belonging and duty to their family, which may act as a secure base for them to feel more confident in their social self-efficacy, due to having their family serve as a positive primary socialization experience. Thus, when reaching out and socializing with others, the high regard for and loyalty to an existing system may help these individuals formulate better social networks and reduced less psychosocial anxiety. Therefore, Familismo was hypothesized to moderate the link between attachment insecurity and social self-efficacy.

Familismo may additionally affect the direct relationship between the attachment effects on psychological wellbeing. As stated earlier, studies (Ayon, Marsiglia, & Bermudez-Parsai, 2010; Bernal, Arocena, & Ceballos 2011; Gloria, Lopez, & Rosales, 2005) found that Familismo acts as a significant protective factor in negative psychological health outcomes. As such, it was hypothesized that the effects of attachment insecurity such as greater anxiety and avoidance when engaging others will be diminished should the individual perceive higher Familismo scores, due to behavior toward the family system and holding a greater expectation of family connectedness. Other reasons for this perception might include the protection and support of the family system in this population.

### The Current Study and Hypotheses

Based on theoretical reasoning and available empirical evidence, the study aimed to examine the direct and indirect effects of adult attachment on indicators of psychological wellbeing (i.e., depressive symptoms, somatic symptoms, life satisfaction, and conflict resolution



style) using a cross-cultural sample of Mexican Americans and Mexicans. Specifically, the current study investigated the mediation effects of social self-efficacy on the relationship between attachment insecurity and psychological wellbeing in the two cultural groups. In addition, the current study explored the moderator effects of country membership and Familismo on the attachment-based mediation model, with the expectation that when Familismo was entered in the model, country membership would lose its significant moderator effect on the two links previously stated.

Specifically, the following hypotheses were examined.

- Hypothesis 1: The Mexican sample would have greater Familismo scores than the Mexican American sample due to their cultural upbringing.
- Hypothesis 2: Attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance would be negatively related to life satisfaction and positive conflict resolution style, as well as positively correlated with depressive and somatic symptoms in both cultural groups.
- Hypothesis 3: Social self-efficacy would mediate the relationships between adult attachment variables and psychosocial wellbeing variables (see Figure 1 for the mediation model) for both cultural groups.
- Hypothesis 4: Country membership would moderate the mediation model for the combined sample in the insecure attachment to social self-efficacy path and the link of insecure attachment to psychological wellbeing. Specifically, the effects of attachment avoidance to social self-efficacy and attachment avoidance to psychosocial wellbeing would be stronger in the Mexican sample than Mexican-Americans. Conversely, the effects of attachment anxiety to self-efficacy and attachment anxiety to psychosocial wellbeing would be stronger in the Mexican-American sample.
- Hypothesis 5: Familismo would moderate the mediation model for the combined sample in the attachment to social self-efficacy link and the path from attachment to psychological wellbeing. Specifically, the link between attachment security and social self-efficacy as well as the link between attachment security and psychological wellbeing would be stronger when individuals hold greater degrees of Familismo .
- Hypothesis 6: When both country membership and Familismo were entered in the model, country membership would no longer be a significant moderator but the moderator effects of Familismo would remain.

## CHAPTER 2

### LITERATURE REVIEW

The aim of this chapter is to summarize relevant literature pertaining to attachment, social self-efficacy, and Familismo and to lay the foundation to understand the contributions and importance of this study. Being a cross-cultural study, little information from samples from Mexico or other Latino countries exists, but a concerted effort was conducted to find relevant literature from other cultures to illustrate how the selected concepts have been associated with each other in the past. The three major concepts to be reviewed are attachment theory, social self-efficacy and Familismo.

#### Adult Attachment Theory and Psychological Wellbeing

Attachment theory's premise is that an individual's emotional experience with a caregiver later influences basic views toward self and others, carrying over into adult relationships (Bowlby, 1969). Adult attachment theorists have also stated that an individual's romantic relationship will also greatly influence attachment based on the emotional connection and experience. Based on personal experiences, an individual's attachment style may land between two orthogonal dimensions: anxiety and avoidance, with elevations in either dimension considered an insecure attachment style.

Numerous studies have previously highlighted the links between adult attachment and psychological wellbeing variables. For instance, Mallinckrodt and Wei (2005) examined the relationship between attachment and psychological distress, with social self-efficacy and emotional awareness as mediators. They surveyed about 430 undergraduate students, and found that greater attachment anxiety and avoidance predicted greater psychological distress.

Additionally, they found that social competencies mediated the relationship between attachment and psychological distress.

In another study, Wei, Heppner, and Mallinckrodt (2003) examined the relationship between attachment and psychological distress while exploring the mediator effect of coping style. They collected data from 515 undergraduate students, and found that students with greater attachment insecurity (higher attachment anxiety and avoidance) reported greater psychological distress, and lower amounts of perceived coping compared to more securely attached peers.

Wei, Mallinckrodt, Larson, and Zakalik (2005) examined how adult attachment effects would be mediated by internal or external sources of reassurance in its link to depressive symptoms. Their sample consisted of 425 undergraduate students from a large Midwestern university between 18 and 36 years old, with 261 women, 160 men, and 4 who did not disclose gender. Their results established a clear link between adult attachment avoidance, anxiety and depression (measured by the CES-D and Self-Rating Depression Scale), as well as finding that inner self-reinforcement, a trait that indicates the ability of the individual to reassure him/herself and validate him/herself by themselves as opposed to seeking it from someone else. Their results indicated that the attachment avoidance effect on depression were fully mediated by self-reinforcement, and attachment anxiety's effects on depression was only partially mediated by self-reinforcement. The authors reasoned that the links between adult attachment anxiety, avoidance and depression may lessen through self-esteem and self-reassurance. The results of this study further illustrate the relationship between adult attachment and depressive symptomatology, as well as inform how protective factors may affect this relationship.

Wei, Liao, Ku, and Shaffer (2011) examined adult attachment and its effects on wellbeing among college students (study 1) and community adults (study 2), with self-compassion and

empathy being additional potential mediators. Their sample for their first study included 195 college students, of which 108 were women, 86 were men, and 1 did not report his/her gender, with ages ranging from 18 to 42 years old. In Study 1, adult attachment anxiety and avoidance were negatively significantly related to subjective wellbeing. Attachment anxiety's effects on wellbeing was further mediated by self-compassion on wellbeing, and attachment avoidance's effect was mediated by emotional empathy toward others. Study 2 consisted of 136 community women and 78 community men who were at least 30 years old. Results from the second study confirmed the negatively significant correlation between attachment anxiety, avoidance and subjective wellbeing, and confirmed the proposed mediators in this new sample, with attachment avoidance's effects on wellbeing also mediated by self-compassion in this second study. These results display how, in U.S. samples, adult attachment plays a significant, negative role on wellbeing indicators and how perceived social competencies may mediate these effects.

Shi (2003) examined how adult attachment was related to conflict resolution style in romantic relationships. The study's sample size included 448 undergraduate students from a large southwestern university, with 240 females and 208 males, all having been involved in a romantic relationship in the past or present. The majority identified as Caucasian, with the mean age being 21.9. The results, demonstrated that adult attachment avoidance was significantly positively related to dominating style and negatively related to obliging conflict resolution styles, as well as significantly negatively related to integrating and compromising conflict resolution styles. In addition, attachment anxiety was only negatively predictive of dominating and obliging conflict resolution behavior. The authors reasoned that these results were consistent with the literature stating that more securely attached individuals tend to gravitate toward integrative and compromising conflict resolution styles, and insecurely attached individuals

display obliging or dominating conflict resolution behaviors. The results of this study lend credence to the current study's hypothesis that attachment effects will significantly impact the degree of integrative and compromising conflict resolution styles endorsed by individuals as their attachment insecurity scores increase.

In a study conducted by Corcoran and Mallinckrodt (2000), social self-efficacy was conceptualized as a mediator between attachment and perceived conflict resolution and the ability to be open and reduce interpersonal conflicts. Their sample consisted of 124 parents from a local university, out of which 94 were women and 30 were men with a mean age of 37.3. The authors hypothesized that more secure attachment was related to greater social self-efficacy and the ability to resolve and avoid conflict. Findings indicated that social self-efficacy played a significant role in mediating the relationship between attachment avoidance and avoiding conflict. The findings of this study further confirm the link between attachment and social self-efficacy, giving further insight to how the potential relationship might look like in the present study, with higher social self-efficacy resulting in better psychological outcomes. This study's results imply that attachment anxiety and avoidance are significantly linked to a greater deficiency in the "optimal" conflict resolution styles where both self and others are considered in order to find an adequate solution to a problem. This study aims to further examine the link between attachment insecurity and conflict resolution style, and includes sociocultural variables in order to attempt to understand how attachment effects may influence how individuals resolve problems with others, specifically in populations of Mexican descent.

#### Adult Attachment with U.S. Latino Samples

Research that examines adult attachment effects on psychosocial functioning of Latino

populations in the U.S. is limited. A thorough search of relevant literature identified only three studies that specifically focused on Latinos although many studies contained a partial sample of Latinos. This section presents a summary of these studies. In a study by Wei, Russell, Mallinckrodt, and Zakalik (2004), attachment effect was compared across four ethnic groups in the United States and was correlated with negative mood across all groups, including Hispanic American/Latinos. Their sample consisted of 831 students with a mean age of 22.0 years and a standard deviation of 5.73 and range of 18 to 59 years old. Out of this sample, 163 students (20%) indicated they were “Hispanic American.” They found that Hispanic Americans were approaching a statistically significant difference ( $p = .051$ ) in attachment anxiety scores when compared to their Caucasian peers. Additionally, both attachment insecurity dimensions significantly predicted negative mood for the Hispanic population sampled within this study. Higher attachment anxiety scores for Latinos were rationalized as having attachment anxiety-like traits due to the collectivistic nature of Hispanics, where reliance on family and seeking acceptance from others to maintain social harmony are cultural norms. This study helps conceptualize the potential effects of attachment anxiety within Latinos and how it may show in the current study.

Rodriguez, Ratanasiripong, Hayashino, and Locks (2014) examined the association of attachment effects and acculturation on satisfactory close friend relationships among Latino college students. Their sample consisted of 287 students recruited through a national sample of 4 different colleges in the U.S., with ages ranging from 18 to 39, a standard deviation of 3.9 and a mean of 22.0 years old, all of which identified as “Latino”. Results of this study suggested that a significant relationship between attachment security and relationship satisfaction exists. Relevant to the present study, results suggested that acculturation level did not influence

attachment, indicating that Latinos who were less acculturated did not vary significantly in terms of their overall adult attachment. This implies that differences between Mexicans and Mexican-Americans may not be statistically significant should these findings be consistent with the present study's proposed contrast between cultures.

Wang, Scalise, Barajas-Munoz, Julio, and Gomez (2016) examined how adult attachment effects, combined with acculturation, predicted psychosomatic complaints and cultural values such as Familismo within Latinos. Their sample included 160 Latino University students collected across 12 universities in the United States, with 72% female and 28% male. The authors found that attachment anxiety had a direct effect on somatic symptoms, implying that higher levels of attachment anxiety resulted in greater somatic complaints, as well as directly linked with greater endorsement of the Familismo. Additionally, attachment avoidance did not have any direct effects on somatic symptoms in this population, despite the tendency of Latinos to somaticize their mental health concerns. The results of this study directly inform the present study's hypothesis development due to the usage of a sample from the target population. It is expected that attachment insecurity might behave similarly in the sample to be collected from Mexican-Americans, with attachment anxiety significantly predicting increased somatic complaints and greater Familismo values.

#### Cross-Cultural Latino Adult Attachment Research

In recent years, the applicability of adult attachment constructs to non-Western populations has been examined with samples from other cultures/countries. Most studies confirm Bowlby's hypothesis in terms of the universal application of attachment theory, but some cross-cultural differences in specific expressions of adult attachment and its effects on

different wellbeing and sociocultural outcomes were consistently found. The following section presents cross-cultural research findings of adult attachment related to Latino individuals.

Friedman and associates (2010) conducted a study that examined the relationships among attachment, relationship satisfaction, social support, and relationship conflict within three different cultures (U.S., Mexico, and Hong Kong). Participants from all three cultures were university students, with the U.S. sample having 214 participants and a mean age of 19.0, the Hong Kong sample having 153 participants and a mean age of 20.4, and the Mexican sample having 200 participants and a mean age of 23.3. Results suggested that the Mexican sample had higher attachment avoidance and anxiety means compared to the U.S. sample, and within the attachment avoidance cross-cultural comparison, comparatively held lesser relationship satisfaction than U.S. counterparts as attachment insecurity increased. Results from this study suggest that Mexicans who endorse greater degrees of attachment avoidance and anxiety might experience higher levels of relationship dissatisfaction, less partner support, and high degree of relationship conflict than U.S.-born individuals. This informs the present study by providing empirical support to the hypothesis that the Mexican sample might perceive a greater attachment insecurity impact on overall psychosocial wellbeing than Mexican-American counterparts.

A study conducted by Schmitt and associates (2003) compared dismissive adult attachment effects and gender between 52 different cultural regions including U.S. and Mexican samples. Dismissive attachment avoidance scores in both genders were similar in nature across cultures. The authors did observe that dismissive avoidant attachment remained constant across most cultures, with western cultures scoring higher in dismissive attachment than Asian cultures. Implications of this study seem to indicate that dismissive attachment avoidance, which emphasizes avoidance of interpersonal closeness, discomfort with emotional disclosure, and



being independent from others, may behave similarly between Mexicans and Mexican-Americans within the present study's sample.

Efforts by Schmitt et al. (2004) to compare and contrast adult attachment between cultures continued with their 62 country sample in order to further examine how attachment differs across various countries. Results suggested that the U.S. sample behaved according to the attachment theory tenets, where attachment security and attachment fearfulness were negatively correlated, as well as preoccupied and dismissing attachment effects were negatively correlated. The Mexican sample, however, did not show any statistically significant negative correlations between attachment insecurity and fearful, nor preoccupied and dismissing attachment effects. The findings of this study imply that the relationship between secure and insecure attachment effects within a Mexican sample may not necessarily predict greater issues within the population due to attachment dimensions not being negatively correlated to each other.

Additional contrasts between American and Mexican attachment effects have been conducted in the past. Frias, Shaver, & Diaz-Loving (2014) compared attachment differences in the two cultural samples to examine the relationship of attachment and emotional expression. Their sample consisted of 158 Mexican participants from Mexico City and 264 participants from UC Davis in California. Results from this study indicated that the American sample endorsed higher levels of adult attachment insecurity in both anxiety and avoidance dimensions than did the Mexican sample and that no between-group difference in relationships of adult attachment and its links to psychological wellbeing indicators were found. These findings contradicted their hypotheses and the authors could not establish theoretical reasoning as to why the study yielded contradicting results. Of note, however, was the findings that collectivistically-oriented individuals ranked higher in attachment avoidance, and were less likely to disclose negative

emotions toward their families and close friends than those who endorsed greater individualism with high attachment avoidance. Results from this study suggest that, as collectivistic thoughts through personal culture increase, so will the attachment avoidance relationship with their own expression of negative emotions. This implies that, due to hoping to preserve peace and unity, these negative emotions will be withheld, potentially re-emerging as somatic symptoms.

Using a Spanish version of attachment measurements, Sheinbaum, Bedoya, Kwapil, and Barrantes-Vidal (2013) conducted a cross-cultural comparison of adult attachment scores to examine whether any significant differences existed between Spanish and American young adults in terms of attachment effects. Their sample included 547 students from a large university in Spain and 1,425 students from a large university in the United States. Findings suggest that both cultures share the same attachment responses, with two significant differences. In the secure and dismissive adult attachment dimensions, the U.S. sample's means were significantly higher than the Spanish sample. The authors reasoned that, because Spain has a more collectivistic cultural norm compared to the United States, positive self-views and low dependency on others is more normative within the U.S. sample than the Spanish sample. These findings help conceptualize how cultural differences may result in different adult attachment results, specifically for those who are raised in the U.S. and those raised in a more collectivistic culture.

In summary, attachment theory has been successfully employed in previous cross-cultural research and found to be applicable to non-Western populations although certain cultural effects and changes are noticeable between different populations. In addition, adult attachment has consistently been shown to be a useful framework for the Latino population with mostly consistent results. However, the distinction between collectivistic and individualistic cultures and how they may show different attachment behavior based on local cultural norms warrants

further examination. Limited research compares the Mexican and U.S. samples and the differences between U.S. born Mexican Americans and Mexican Latino/a remain unknown.

### Social Self-Efficacy and Its Mediator Role for Attachment Effects

As stated in Chapter I, social self-efficacy refers to the perceived competence, effectiveness, and causal agency of an individual in a social environment (Gecas, 1989). Self-efficacy is negatively linked to depression. Conceptually, individuals who perceive themselves as capable of controlling life circumstances, will likely exhibit less depressive symptoms.

Social self-efficacy, along with other psychosocial coping resources, is a protective factor against depression. In a study conducted in 2003 in the Netherlands by Bisschop, Kriegsman, Beekman, and Deeg, 2288 respondents from a national sample ranging from 55 to 85 years old were surveyed in terms of psychosocial coping methods, their perceived depression, and illness symptoms. Results found that individuals showing greater self-efficacy (including social self-efficacy) reported less depression and chronic illness.

Attachment theory has been used as a framework to examine how social self-efficacy may mediate the relationship between attachment and psychological wellbeing. Mallinckrodt and Wei (2005) described the importance of examining the mediational effect of social self-efficacy due to the conceptual match between attachment insecurity and low social self-efficacy. They argued that high attachment anxiety is linked to deficits in social interactions because these individuals primarily focus on fulfilling their own needs rather than pay attention to the needs of others, which diminishes the healthy social interactions with other people and increases conflict and disharmony. On the other hand, high attachment avoidance is linked with deactivating strategies to avoid communicating and interacting with others. The authors recruited 435

students from a general psychology course in a Midwestern university in the United States, with 86% identifying as White/Caucasian, 6% as African-American/Black, and the rest divided between Asian-American and Hispanic. The study found that social self-efficacy significantly acted as a mediator between attachment insecurity (both attachment anxiety and avoidance), and psychological outcomes such as distress and emotional awareness. The results supported that individuals with high attachment anxiety perceived themselves less able to establish adequate social connections because of their negative internal working model of self, thus leading to lesser psychological health outcomes. Furthermore, high attachment avoidance was associated with less social self-efficacy scores, which led to diminished psychological wellbeing, perhaps due to repression of interpersonal intimacy. The results of this study inform the present study's proposed model due to the role of social self-efficacy as a significant mediator between attachment insecurity and psychological wellbeing. Limitations of this study included being mostly white undergraduate students (80% of the sample) and not taking ethnic groups nor different cultures into account. The current study aims to explain differences between attachment insecurity, social self-efficacy, and psychological wellbeing and address Mallinckrodt and Wei's (2005) limitations by incorporating cultural values and contrasting different countries in the Latino population, as opposed to a mostly white University sample from the U.S, in order to inform the literature on attachment in Latinos.

Other studies that examine the relationship between attachment, social skills, and psychological outcomes have been conducted to identify attachment insecurity's role in young people's perception of loneliness. DiTomasso, Brannen-McNulty, Ross, and Burgess (2001) conducted a study involving 183 university students enrolled in psychology courses at the University of New Brunswick. Their mean age was of 19.4 years, ranging from 18 to 22 years

old. The goal was to examine how attachment effects impacted several types of perceived loneliness in young adults. The results indicated that secure attachment effects had a significant negative relationship with all types of loneliness, and a strong, positive relationship with adequate social skills. In addition, this study found that both types of avoidant attachment (dismissing and preoccupied) were significantly positively correlated with loneliness in all three measures (social, family and romantic). Their mediation analysis adding social expressivity to mediate the relationship between attachment effects and loneliness was partially supported, with secure attachment and fearful attachment significantly mediated by social expressivity. The results inform that the relationship between social skills is an adequate mediator when combined with attachment and psychological wellbeing constructs. While loneliness will not be directly measured as a dependent variable in this study, it is closely related to depression and other negative symptomatology examined in the present study, coinciding with the authors' position that studies in this subject should include more complete measures of social wellbeing beyond loneliness.

A study by Cooley, Van Buren, and Cole (2010), examined how attachment variables were related to depression, and how social skills could act as a mediator in this relationship. The authors obtained a sample of 93 college-age women collected from a large southeastern liberal arts college in the United States, out of which 68% reported themselves as Caucasian, 16% African-american, 8% Asian, and 3% Hispanic. They found that anxious attachment was significantly positively correlated with depression, and that their mediation model which examined social skills as a mediator between attachment and depression was significant. Specifically, they found that insecure attachment and fewer social skills were associated with higher depression scores. The implication was that knowledge about attachment and perceived

social skills may help predict levels of depression. The authors measured social skills through the interpersonal competence questionnaire, a scale that measures relationship initiation, assertiveness, self-disclosure, conflict management and emotional support. The items in this scale, that measure the individuals' perceived aptitude in social skills, are closely related to social self-efficacy. This study's contributions help clarify the role of attachment insecurity and depression while taking social skills into account, and are of interest in a cross-cultural comparison.

Within the more collectivistic culture of China, a study was conducted in Taiwan in 2011 by Li, Lin, and Hsiu to examine the relationships among adult attachment, social self-efficacy, distress, loneliness, and depression using a sample of 805 college students who had experienced a romantic relationship. Attachment anxiety and avoidance were both negatively associated with social self-efficacy, which in turn affected loneliness and depression. Attachment avoidance affected the distress self-disclosure, which led to lesser social self-efficacy, which was linked to loneliness and depression. Attachment anxiety was a stronger predictor of depression than attachment avoidance. This study was conducted in a more collectivistic culture than that in the United States which lends credibility to the proposed model in the current study since Mexican cultural norms are also more collectivistic.

Wright and Perrone (2010) examined whether social self-efficacy and career self-efficacy would mediate the attachment-life satisfaction link using a sample of 374 college students from a medium-sized Midwestern university. The results suggested that although the direct effects of attachment variables on life satisfaction remained significant, individuals with greater attachment security reported greater degrees of social self-efficacy and career self-efficacy, resulting in greater overall life satisfaction. The present study addresses some of the limitations in this study

by expanding to other populations, and aims to examine the link between attachment and life satisfaction by focusing on two specific cultural groups and incorporating cultural values. This study further helps corroborate the hypothesis that secure attachment is positively correlated with social self-efficacy, and that this link explains higher life satisfaction ratings from individuals.

A longitudinal study was conducted by Wei, Russell, and Zakalik (2005) to examine how attachment effects, social self-efficacy, self-disclosure, loneliness, and depression applied to freshmen in college. The authors hypothesized that social self-efficacy acted as a mediator, along with self-disclosure, between attachment, loneliness, and subsequently depression. The sample consisted of 990 students in a large Midwestern public university who were contacted through e-mail to report attachment, social self-efficacy, degree of comfort with self-disclosure, loneliness and depression at Time 1. Among them, 351 completed the follow-up surveys at Time 2 to update their depression responses. The authors found that higher attachment anxiety was associated with greater loneliness and depression as a function of lower social self-efficacy scores. This supported that social self-efficacy served as a mediator as college students with high anxiety perceived themselves as less competent in their social self-efficacy. In addition, social self-efficacy was not a mediator in the same path for attachment avoidance, because high attachment avoidance individuals did not statistically perceive themselves as less socially capable with an impact in their depression and loneliness scores. This study elaborates on the negative relationship between social self-efficacy and measurements of psychological distress, establishing a link between lesser self-efficacy scores and more negative psychological health outcomes.

Social self-efficacy has been observed to be a significant mediator for the relationship between attachment and various psychosocial outcomes such as depression, loneliness, life

satisfaction, and overall wellbeing. While it has been examined in various college student populations at length, it has yet to be examined within specific ethnic groups, and cross-culturally. The proposed study will utilize this construct to examine the relationship between attachment and psychosocial wellbeing indicators in Latino populations from both the United States and Mexico.

### Familismo

Research on Familismo has mostly been limited to U.S. Latino samples. Familismo has a buffering effect against psychological distress and is a key cultural factor that protects Latino families from experiencing greater distress and other cross-cultural problems as they migrate to the U.S. Within Mexico, Familismo remains a key cultural value that prevents negative outcomes such as alcoholism and fosters family trust and unity (Strunin, Diaz-Martinez, Kuranz, Hernandez-Avila, Garcia-Bernabe, et al., 2015).

Familismo's effects on mental health outcomes for Latino populations are examined in several empirical studies. In a study conducted Hernandez, Garcia, and Flynn (2010) with a sample of 199 students from El Paso, Texas and 193 students from Ciudad Juarez, Mexico, Familismo significantly moderated the relationship between interpersonal discord and threat appraisal. The role of Familismo was observed to have a dual role – a positive buffer from stressors coming from peer relationships and external factors, or enhancing the negative effects if the discord came from within the family system. This study's results illustrate that Familismo may not always be a protective factor as hypothesized; instead, it may exacerbate existing distress should the family environment not be supportive, yet the perception of "giving back" to the family remains in the individual. This study's results inform the need to examine how



Familismo may affect an individual's psychosocial wellbeing due to its links to both positive and negative outcomes. Additionally, the study's findings that Familismo acts as a protective factor from poor perceived social relationship quality contributes to the notion that it may play a significant role in the present study's hypothesized paths.

Another study conducted by Ayon, Marsiglia, and Bermudez-Pascal (2010) in Arizona focused on a sample of 150 parent-child dyads, where parents were immigrants to the United States and children were in the age range of 14-18. Familismo was one of the variables of interest used to examine its impact on depression or internalized mental health symptoms. Results demonstrated that Familismo was a significant negative predictor of depression in parents and was significantly associated with lower levels of internalized mental health symptoms for teenagers in the study. The results of this study illustrate the strengths of this Latino cultural factor when it comes to the adaptation process and quality of life in a foreign country.

Mixed-methods studies attempt to understand how Familismo may impact Latinos' perceptions of their own health and whether they seek out medical support or favor their family's wellbeing. Davila, Reifsnider, and Pecina (2009) conducted a study in Galveston, Texas, to identify potential factors that prevent Latinos from seeking medical help. Fifty Latinos were recruited through word of mouth and asked questions regarding their usage of medical services and their perceptions of family. Familismo was consistently identified as a negative reason to attend medical services because some would sacrifice their physical wellbeing to maintain their family harmony and values by avoiding economic hardship and worrying them. Familismo was additionally mentioned as a buffer in terms of perceived physical and social support. Participants highlighted the importance of family support in their ability to withstand stress and keeping the

family together. This study shows the potential ambivalence of the Familismo construct within Latinos in the United States in that Familismo may either hinder those who value it highly from reaching out to others for help or satisfy their personal needs if they collude with family needs. Since the present study examines the effects of Familismo on attachment and wellbeing indicators, this study contributes a potential dual role of Familismo in a Mexican-American individual, who has grown up in an individualistic society and may adhere less to Familismo values, or a potential difference on how these values affect overall psychosocial wellbeing.

Bernal and Arocena (2011) conducted a study examining how Familismo may influence subjective wellbeing and satisfaction with life. Their sample consisted of 576 students, including 280 males and 296 females with ages ranging from 15 to 19 recruited from Guadalajara, Jalisco, Mexico. The results indicated positive correlations among Familismo, life satisfaction, satisfaction with family life, and positive affect. Familismo's effect in Mexican samples can further be observed in this study's findings, which include positive psychosocial outcomes with greater Familismo orientation. The results of this study inform how Familismo may have an effect in the Mexican sample of the proposed study, and further solidifies its potential role as a moderator between attachment and the constructs presented.

Another study conducted by Ojeda and Pina-Watson (2013) used a sample of 143 Latino workers with ages ranging from 18-73 from central Texas (73% of which were Mexican) to examine the unique and possible interaction effects of Familismo, perceived discrimination, and work satisfaction on life satisfaction. The results indicated that higher Familismo scores were significantly correlated with life satisfaction, yet Familismo did not moderate the relationship between perceived discrimination and life satisfaction. Despite the moderation not being significant, this study highlights the importance of Familismo when considering life satisfaction

in Latino populations, for it had the greatest predictive power among all I.V.s considered in this study.

Lorenzo-Blanco and Cortina (2013) examined how cultural variables and acculturation may affect depression and cigarette smoking among Latinos using a sample of 2,554 Latinos from the National Latino and Asian American Study. Findings from this study reported that Familismo tends to diminish as individuals acculturate more to the U.S., which also is also accompanied by less family cohesion and more familial conflict. As presented previously, Familismo is a cultural value that highlights respect, loyalty, and family cohesion in Latinos, which is directly related to these outcomes. Individuals who reported more depression symptoms and maladaptive coping habits such as smoking were born in the U.S. or had grown up in the U.S. and perceived more discrimination than their immigrant counterparts. Findings of this study are important to consider due to the lessened effect of Familismo in acculturated U.S. Latino individuals gathered from a larger sample nationwide.

Research on Familismo includes adolescents and examines whether acculturation and family support predicts life satisfaction. In a study by Edwards and Lopez (2006), the researchers used a mixed-methods approach to examine the relationships among perceived family support, degree of acculturation, and life satisfaction, with a Mexican-American sample from California and Texas. Their sample size was of 293 English-speaking participants who self-identified as Hispanic, with the age range being between 14 and 18 years old. The majority reported parents (56%) or grandparents (26%) who immigrated to the United States. The authors conceptualized perceived family support and their qualitative findings about family as components to the cultural construct of Familismo, as it related to the perceived life satisfaction pertaining to having a good family life and devotion to the family first, consistent with

Familismo definitions. Results from the qualitative analysis suggested that family is important for providing support and love to this population. In the quantitative analysis section, life satisfaction was significantly, positively related with perceived support from family. Contrasting with other studies, increased scores on American orientation did not have a negative effect on perceived family support. The findings of this study indicate that Familismo may be potentially seen as a protective factor for young Latinos regardless of their location.

In a study by Campos, Perez, and Guardino (2014), Familismo was the key variable to examine in a model that included romantic relationship quality and attachment avoidance on three different sets of ethnic groups: Latino Americans, Europeans, and East Asians. The authors' hypothesis was that Familismo values are beneficial to romantic relationships and that this association is mediated by attachment avoidance. The sample obtained by the authors were of 140 U.S. Latinos, 176 Europeans, and 199 Asians currently in a romantic relationship. Findings confirmed that higher Familismo was indeed correlated with greater partner support and partner closeness, and these associations were mediated by attachment avoidance. These findings only applied to the Latino subgroup of the study, implying that European and Asian background samples did not perceive Familismo to be a direct predictor of romantic relationship satisfaction. The authors implied that these results were due to the notion that Familismo socializes individuals to be comfortable with interdependence and reliance on others for support. The limitations of the study were that only attachment avoidance was used due to its prevalence in Latino literature, and the effect of attachment anxiety on any paths was not examined. Furthermore, the authors urged that further studies include additional cultural variables or psychosocial outcomes to further examine the effects of Familismo in U.S. Latinos or Latino culture, and how Familismo acts differently within other cultures. These findings help inform

the current study on how the effect of Familismo may be perceived in the attachment links to both psychosocial outcomes and the perceived social self-efficacy mediator.

Familismo is one of the most studied Latino cultural values over the last 3 decades and seems to be a significant source of support for Latinos regardless of immigration status, Mexican-born or American-born. Studies identify Familismo attitudes and beliefs as important protective factors from negative psychosocial outcomes and promote better life quality and life satisfaction. Since Familismo is defined as family loyalty over individual needs, it may yet have a different effect on Mexican-Americans due to socialization in a more individualistically-oriented society, potentially lessening the protective effect compared to those living in Mexico.

## CHAPTER 3

### METHODS

#### Participants

The current study's participants were recruited from three large universities in Northern Mexico and a large university in Southwest of the United States. Mexican participants were recruited from Universidad de Monterrey (UdeM), Universidad Regiomontana (UR), and Universidad de Nuevo Leon (UANL) universities in Monterrey, Mexico. Mexican-American participants were collected from the University of North Texas (UNT). Upon receiving permission from the University of North Texas' Internal Review Board and from the appropriate authorities in Mexican universities, the principal investigator or his research assistants contacted Mexican instructors for permission to visit their classes to introduce the research opportunity to their students, which were described as an opportunity to compare similarities and differences of attachment effects on overall psychosocial health between U.S. Mexican-Americans and Mexicans. Participation in this study was completely voluntary and confidentiality was assured. Those who agreed to participate were given time to complete the research questionnaire in class. Individuals who declined to participate were not given any penalties and were given an alternative assignment by the instructors. Participants were free to withdraw from completing the study at any time during the administration. The study took about 20-30 minutes to complete. The Mexican sample had the incentives provided from the course instructors in addition to being included in a raffle for a \$50 amazon.com gift card.

For the U.S. sample, potential participants were recruited through two major venues: SONA (online recruitment for participants wanting extra credit in Psychology courses) and student organizations with a large number of Mexican-American members. Undergraduate

participants enrolled in psychology courses had the option to receive compensation for the study in the form of research credits. In addition, the investigator reached out to several student organizations and student groups with many Mexican-American members at the University of North Texas (e.g., Mexican-American studies club, Mexican student association, Mueve student group, Hispanic student association) to invite their members to participate in this study. Those individuals interested in participating who were not eligible for extra credit or were not taking Psychology courses were then offered the opportunity to participate in a raffle for a \$50 amazon gift card at the end of the study. The research survey was completed in a designated research space at the University of North Texas.

### Instruments

The Spanish versions of the instruments employed in the study (with the exception of the Social Self-Efficacy Scale) have all been translated and validated in previous studies with Latino samples. The following section will present information of the psychometric proprieties of the selected scales.

### Demographics

For both cultural samples, age, gender, sexual orientation, school standing, university fields/majors, level of parents' education, current relationship status, number of siblings, average household income, and proximity of family (how many family members are within driving distance) was collected. Demographic items that were unique to the U.S. sample included frequency of traveling to Mexico, time in the U.S. (if international or first generation), and amount of extended family living in and outside of the U.S. generational status. For the Mexican

sample, demographic items also included degree of familiarity with the U.S. and how many extended family members living in the U.S.

### Adult Attachment

Participants' adult attachment was measured with the Experiences in Close Relationships Scale (ECRS; Brennan, Clark, & Shaver, 1998). The ECRS is a 36-item English-based likert-scale self-report measure (1 = *strongly disagree*, 7 = *strongly agree*) of adult attachment and was developed using a sample of over 1000 university students. It yields two subscales: Anxiety and Avoidance, 18 items for each subscale. Higher scores indicate higher attachment anxiety or avoidance in an individual. Examples of items include "I worry a lot about my relationships", "I try to avoid getting too close to my partner". The reported coefficient alpha is .91 for Anxiety and .94 for Avoidance subscales. Test-retest reliabilities over a 3-week period have been found to be .70 for both subscales (Brennan et al., 2000), and .68 for Anxiety and .71 for Avoidance over 6 months (Lopez, Mitchell, & Gormley, 2002). Evidence of validity has been shown by significant correlations with several theoretically relevant constructs in expected directions in previous studies (Lopez, Mitchell, & Gormley, 2002; Wei, Mallinckrodt Russell, & Abraham, 2004).

The ECRS has been used with Latino samples in the past as part of an exploratory analysis on how attachment theory relates to other cultures. Wei, Russell, Mallinckrodt, and Zakalik (2004) conducted a study to examine factorial structures of adult attachment across 4 ethnic groups using ECRS. A total number of 831 college students were recruited in their sample including 163 Latinos. Results indicated that the attachment anxiety and avoidance latent variables were invariant across the four ethnic groups which provided support to the construct



validity of ECRS. The Spanish ECRS was validated by Shelton and Wang (2015) and demonstrated adequate reliability, construct validity, and factorial validity based on a U.S. Latino Spanish-speaking sample. In their study, it was found that the reliability coefficient for attachment avoidance was of .91 and .89 for attachment anxiety. In the current study, the reliability coefficient for the U.S. sample was .83, and .83 for the Mexican sample.

### Social Self-Efficacy

Participants' perceived social self-efficacy was measured with the social self-efficacy subscale from Sherer's (1982) self-efficacy scale. The self-efficacy scale was developed with a university student sample of 376 psychology students who were given extra credit for their participation. The scale consists of 6 items measuring perceived abilities in social situations using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*), with the internal reliability being reported of .71 in the validation study of the scale. Sample items include "It is difficult for me to make new friends" and "I do not handle myself well in social gatherings". Additional research has found the scale to have internal reliability of .76 (Wei, Russell, & Zakalik, 2005) and .87 in samples including Latino international students (Constantine, Okazaki, & Utsey, 2004). The self-efficacy scale which contains the social self-efficacy subscale has been validated in the Spanish language by Lopez-Torrecillas, Garcia, Canadas, Ucles, & De La Fuente (2006). They used an unpublished translated version of the scale created by Godoy (1990) following appropriate translating procedures. In their sample of 555 subjects collected from the general population in Spain, the social self-efficacy subscale had an internal reliability of .65. Due to the translated version of the social self-efficacy scale not being widely available in Spanish, a translation-back-translation method was employed by

selecting a team of bilingual translators to translate the instrument from the original language (English) to the desired language (Spanish). The instrument was then back-translated into the original language by a different individual or team, and finally, bilingual experts compared the items to ensure validity. In the current study, the reliability coefficient for the U.S. sample was .65, and .65 for the Mexican sample.

### Familismo

Participants' Familismo orientation was measured with the Familismo Scale by Steidel and Contreras (2003). The Familismo Scale is an 18 item self-report measure with four factors: familial support, familial interconnectedness, familial honor, and subjugation of self for family, validated using a sample of 124 Latino adults recruited from a social service agency near Cleveland, Ohio. Participants are asked to answer the items on a 10-point Likert scale where 1 is the lowest and 10 being the highest. Higher scores indicate a higher degree of Familismo values in the individual. The reported internal consistency coefficient alpha for the overall scale was of .83, with individual scales being .72 (familial support), .69 (familial interconnectedness), .68 (familial honor) and .56 for subjugation of self for family. Despite the last subscale having a low coefficient, the overall reliability of the measurement was acceptable and thus it was decided to be utilized as a whole. Sample items include "A person should rely on their family if the need arises" and "Parents and grandparents should be treated with great respect regardless of their differences in views". To measure validity, a linear acculturation scale (Acculturation Rating Scale for Mexican-Americans-II) was used to correlate with the Familismo scores, and a negative correlation was observed between higher levels of acculturation and overall Familismo. Additional validity testing was conducted by correlating the overall Familismo scores with

generational status and “exposure to the U.S.”; and results showed that Familismo scores were higher in first-generation respondents than second-generation and above respondents. This scale was developed in both English and Spanish at the same time by the authors and found to be reliable in other studies measuring Familismo regardless of the language provided. Examples include mother-adolescent dyads (Guilamo-Ramos, et al., 2009) with an internal reliability of .77 for mothers and .80 for adolescents, Latino high school students (Esparza & Sanchez, 2008) with an internal reliability of .83, Latino parents (Lorenzo-Blanco et al., 2016) with an internal reliability of .83 for English and .91 in Spanish. This study utilized the total score to indicate the level of Familismo. In the current study, the reliability coefficient for the U.S. sample was .87, and .86 for the Mexican sample.

### Conflict Resolution Style

Participants’ conflict resolution behavior with peers was measured with the Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory-II (ROCI-II; Rahim, 1983). The ROCI-II has been used in the past to assess for conflict resolution behaviors with peers, co-workers, superiors, and even romantic relationships (Shi, 2003; Corcoran & Mallinckrodt, 2000, Bippus & Rollin, 2003). The original scale consists of 28 items with a 5 point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree*, 5 = *strongly agree*). The ROCI-II includes five subscales to measure different conflict styles including integrating (7 items), avoiding (6 items), obliging (6 items), dominating (5 items), and compromising (4 items). Further research suggested a better four-factor fit to the data in non-organizational settings, with the combination of the compromising and integrating scale to create a common “problem solving” factor (Hammock, Richardson, Pilkington, & Utley, 1990). Only this combined “problem solving” subscale will be used in the present study as it has been utilized

in the past by researchers wanting to tap into a non-organizational conflict resolution style for their studies, and it serves the current study's purposes of a non-organizational population's conflict resolution style. Internal reliability coefficients were of .77 for integrating and .72 for compromising subscales. Examples of items include "I try to integrate my ideas with those of my \_\_\_ to come up with a decision jointly" and "I usually propose a middle ground for breaking dead-locks". The ROC-II has been translated to Spanish by researchers in Spain, with a sample of 226 adults and a mean age of 40 years old. A method of translation, evaluation and re-translation was used, which was then passed on to a bilingual expert to confirm an adequate translation. Results yielded a reliability of .78 for the entire scale and confirmed the originally proposed 5-factor solution to the scale in Spanish. In the current study, the reliability coefficient for the U.S. sample was .91, and .89 for the Mexican sample.

### Life Satisfaction

Participants' overall satisfaction with life was measured with the Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS; Diener, Emmons, Larsen, & Griffin, 1985). The SWLS has been widely used in psychological research due to its high psychometric properties (.87 Cronbach's alpha and .82 test-retest reliability). The scale consists of five items which are scored on a 7-point Likert scale, with 1 being *low satisfaction* and 7 being *high satisfaction* with their current life situation. Sample items include "In most ways my life is close to my ideal" and "I am satisfied with my life". Further studies continue to report coefficient alpha over .80 and sufficient test-retest reliability (Pavot & Diener, 1993), confirming it as an adequate measure for life satisfaction. The Satisfaction with Life Scale has been translated and published by Diener on his website to various languages including Spanish. In a sample of 2964 Spanish individuals by Vazquez,

Duque, and Hervas (2013), where they employed eight different psychologists (two from Spain, six from Latin America, and a North American Psychologist to corroborate findings with the English version) to translate and back-translate the scale, the internal reliability of the scale was of .88. In the current study, the reliability coefficient for the U.S. sample was .89, and .80 for the Mexican sample.

## Depression

Participants' depressive symptomatology was measured through the Center for Epidemiologic Studies Depression Scale Revised (CESD-R). The CESD-R was developed as a screening tool by Eaton (2004) and widely used by researchers assessing depressive symptomatology. The CESD-R is a 20-item scale, which provides 5 different options (not at all or less than 1 day, 1-2 days, 3-4 days, 5-7 days, and nearly every day for the last 2 weeks) that measures symptoms of depression in nine different groups that relate to the DSM standard for depression. Higher scores coming from higher frequency of endorsed problems mean higher ratings of overall depressive symptoms. Sample items include "I was tired all the time" and "My appetite was poor". The CESD-R's reliability in a sample of 6,971 participants from a medical listserv was of .91, and of .92 in a subsequent sample of 2243 participants recruited from a major university being offered research credit. Exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses were conducted and a 1 factor solution was the most adequate (Van Dam & Earleywine, 2011). The Spanish version of the CES-D was validated by Perczek, Carver, Price, and Pozo-Kaderman (2010) to validate measures of wellbeing in a Latino Spanish-speaking population. Their methods included translation and back-translation of the CES-D through translators from different Latino populations (Colombian, Argentinan, Peruvian, & Cuban), and then comparing it

with sampling from bilingual individuals who responded to subsets in both languages. The authors used three different samples at different times to assess for the reliability of their results, with their first sample being 148 bilingual University of Miami undergraduate students, the second sample being 142 different bilingual undergraduate students, and their third sample being 60 Latino early-stage breast cancer patients to assess for clinical reliability. Results suggested that the CES-D had an internal reliability of .92 in the English sample and .89 in the Spanish sample, with converging results between versions and a single factor solution for both versions. In the current study, the reliability coefficient for the U.S. sample was .84, and .80 for the Mexican sample.

#### Somatic Concerns

Participants' overall somatic symptomatology was measured through the Patient Health Questionnaire (PHQ-15). The PHQ-15 was developed by Kroenke, Spitzer, and Williams (2002) and is used as a screening and diagnostic self-report tool for somatic concerns. It consists of 15 statements answered on a 3-point Likert scale, with 1 being *not bothered* to 3 being *bothered a lot*. The participant will read the prompt "During the last 4 weeks, how much have you been bothered by any of the following problems:" Sample items include stomach pain, headaches, and chest pain. In a study by Kroenke (2001) with 6000 clinical participants, the internal reliability was of .80 and test-retest reliability was reported as .83. The PHQ-15 has been translated by the MAPI research institute into Spanish, and the Spanish measurement has been independently validated by several other researchers within the Latino population. Interian, Allen, Gara, Escobar, and Diaz-Martinez (2006) utilized the PHQ-15 in a 172 in-patient Latino sample and their results suggested an internal reliability of .79. The authors claimed that their

research institute has implemented adequate measures to validate the PHQ-15 internationally, but have not published specific data for their individual translations in other languages thus far. In the current study, the reliability coefficient for the U.S. sample was .86, and for the Mexican sample was .74.

### Ethical Considerations

There are no known risks that could have resulted from participating in this study. It was possible that some participants might experience different emotional reactions when thinking about their relationships with parents, romantic partners, and ethnic heritage. There were several safety measures in place in order to protect the physical and mental health of the participants. No coercion was used in the study. Participants were reminded that their participation was voluntary and that they could discontinue participating in the study at any time for any reason without penalty. U.S. Participants were also informed that should any psychological distress arise, counseling services such as the UNT University Counseling Center was available. Mexican participants were given directions to their university's counseling office and additional references should they require services.

Anonymity of the participants and data confidentiality was maintained during the recruitment process and mentioned in the informed consent notice. Participants' responses to the surveys were completely anonymous. Responses were viewed only by authorized researchers taking part in the investigation. The research protocols were approved by the UNT IRB.

## CHAPTER 4

### RESULTS

#### Data Cleaning

Mexican data collected included 514 participants, out of which 131 of them were international students who resided in Mexico, 23 cases did not answer attachment questionnaire nor the Familismo questionnaire, leaving 360 Mexican students to analyze. For the U.S. sample, collected through UNT SONA system and by word-of-mouth methods, 235 students completed the questionnaires. All item responses were carefully examined to detect possible random responses. For missing data, it showed missing completely at random which suggested that the missing data was not related to systematic factors. Expectation-Maximization algorithm was used to supplement any missing data, as stated in the proposal. All selected measures were scored and each scale's skewness and kurtosis were examined to ensure the normality of the data, with all variables of interest meeting the normal distribution assumption except for PHQ and CES-D, both of which were positively skewed. Since both of these scales were developed with clinical samples and the positive skewness in both scales reflects the low symptom characteristics of the university student samples, a decision was made to keep original scores for the data analysis. As an effort to detect outliers, scores that were three standard deviations from the mean were carefully examined to decide whether they were a true outlier. No such cases were found or deleted. Finally, multivariate outliers were examined through the analysis of the Mahalanobis distance, in which M-distance values with a p value of less than .001 for the  $\chi^2$  value were discarded as suggested by Tabachnik and Fidell (2013), and no such cases were discarded in the present study.



## Preliminary Analyses

Preliminary statistical analyses were conducted to examine the potential effects of several salient demographic variables including gender, SES, and age on the outcome variables.

Participants age was only correlated with two factors, and it showed negative correlations between attachment anxiety ( $r = -.25, p < .001$ ) and conflict resolution style ( $r = -.09, p = .029$ ).

Furthermore, the effect of SES on outcome variables was examined using Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA). The result revealed there was a significant multivariate main effect for SES (Wilks'  $\lambda = .93, F(20, 1835.04) = 2.03, p = .005$ , partial eta squared = .02, power = .97). The follow-up univariate analyses revealed that SES yielded a significant main effect on life satisfaction,  $F(5, 556) = 4.17, p = .001$ , partial eta squared = .04, power = .96). Significant pairwise difference in life satisfaction was only obtained between the lowest SES group (income under 20,000) and second lowest group (\$20,000 to \$34,999). There were no significant univariate main effects on other three outcomes (i.e., physical health symptoms, depression, conflict resolution).

In terms of gender, a one-way of MANOVA revealed that there were significant differences between male and gender, Wilks'  $\lambda = .90, F(4, 590) = 16.56, p < .001$ , partial eta squared = .10, power = 1.00. The follow-up univariate analyses revealed that gender yielded non-significant univariate main effects on two outcomes (i.e., depressive symptoms and life satisfaction). However, it yielded significant main effects on physical health symptoms ( $F(1, 593) = 51.80, p < .001$ , partial eta squared = .08, power = 1.00) and conflict resolution ( $F(1, 593) = 8.19, p = .004$ , partial eta squared = .02, power = .82). Significant pairwise difference in conflict resolution showed females had higher conflict resolution styles than males, and they reported more physical health symptoms than males.

Finally, the effect of SES on two attachment styles was examined using a one-way MANOVA. Results indicated that there was no significant main effect of SES, indicating that Mexican-American and Mexican students' attachment styles did not vary across various levels of SES. Another similar MANOVA was conducted to examine the gender effect on attachment variables. The findings indicated that gender did not play significant effect on two attachment styles, meaning that attachment styles did not vary by gender.

Pearson bivariate correlations between all the main variables of interest in this study are displayed in Table 1. For the American sample ( $n = 235$ ), attachment anxiety was negatively correlated with life satisfaction ( $r = -.42, p < .001$ ) and social self-efficacy ( $r = -.19, p = .004$ ), and was positively correlated with physical health symptoms ( $r = .49, p < .001$ ) and depressive symptoms ( $r = .37, p < .001$ ). On the other hand, attachment avoidance was positively correlated with depressive symptoms,  $r = .25, p < .001$ , and was negatively correlated with life satisfaction ( $r = -.24, p < .001$ ), conflict resolution ( $r = -.36, p < .001$ ), and social self-efficacy ( $r = -.19, p = .004$ ).

Results from the Mexican-American sample ( $n = 360$ ) showed attachment anxiety was negatively correlated with life satisfaction ( $r = -.28, p < .001$ ) and social self-efficacy,  $r = -.24, p < .001$ , and positively correlated with physical health symptoms,  $r = .11, p = .033$ , and depressive symptoms,  $r = .40, p < .001$ . On the other hand, attachment avoidance was positively correlated with depressive symptoms,  $r = -.26, p < .001$ , and was negatively correlated with life satisfaction ( $r = -.24, p < .001$ ), conflict resolution ( $r = -.26, p < .001$ ), and social self-efficacy ( $r = -.34, p < .001$ ).

Due to the potential conceptual similarities between attachment variables and social self-efficacy, a multicollinearity analysis was conducted. It was found that attachment anxiety

predicted about 4.1% of the variance of social self-efficacy, with a VIF of 1.000, and attachment avoidance predicted about 7.3% of the variance of social self-efficacy, with a VIF of 1.000, therefore suggesting there was no multicollinearity concern within the study among the independent variables and mediator.

### Examinations of Hypotheses

Because there are four different DVs and all the primary analyses (except those conducted for Hypothesis 1) were run four times, the alpha value was adjusted via Bonferroni correction by  $(0.05 / 4 = .0125)$  to protect against Type 1 error.

#### Hypothesis 1

An independent samples *t*-test was conducted to determine whether there was a significant difference in Familismo scores between Mexicans ( $n = 360, M = 6.85, SD = 1.34$ ) and Mexican-Americans ( $n = 235, M = 6.33, SD = 1.42$ ). Levene's test for homogeneity of Variances showed that Levene's was not significant,  $F = 2.17, p = .142$ , meaning that equal variances of the two groups were met. The result of the *t*-test was significant,  $t(593) = -4.48, p < .001$ . These results suggested that there was a significant difference in Familismo scores between Mexican and Mexican-American (MA) samples, and that Mexicans endorsed significantly higher scores of Familismo compared to their MA counterparts.

#### Hypothesis 2

Findings from the bivariate correlational analyses described in the previous section generally support this hypothesis. The second hypothesis was further examined using eight

multiple regression analyses in which both attachment avoidance and attachment anxiety were entered as predictors with one of the four psychological wellbeing variables as the DV. The analyses were separated by cultural groups. To address possible Type I error, .0125 set as the alpha for significance (see Table 2).

For the Mexican-American sample, results focusing on the depressive symptoms indicated that the two attachment predictors explained 19.1% of the variance ( $R^2 = .19$ ,  $F(2,232) = 27.44$ ,  $p < .001$ ) in depressive symptoms. It was found that attachment anxiety significantly predicted depressive symptoms ( $b = 2.61$ ,  $SE = .43$ ,  $t = 6.06$ ,  $p < .001$ ), as did attachment avoidance ( $b = 2.14$ ,  $SE = .55$ ,  $t = 3.90$ ,  $p < .001$ ). In terms of Mexican participants, two attachment predictors explained 21.0% of the variance ( $R^2 = .21$ ,  $F(2,357) = 47.44$ ,  $p < .001$ ). It was found that attachment anxiety ( $b = 3.60$ ,  $SE = .45$ ,  $t = 8.02$ ,  $p < .001$ ) and attachment avoidance ( $b = 2.55$ ,  $SE = .52$ ,  $t = 4.88$ ,  $p < .001$ ) significantly predicted depressive symptoms.

In terms of life satisfaction, in the Mexican-American sample, two attachment predictors explained 22.4% of the variance ( $R^2 = .22$ ,  $F(2,232) = 33.46$ ,  $p < .001$ ) in life satisfaction. It was found that both attachment anxiety ( $b = -2.02$ ,  $SE = .29$ ,  $t = -7.05$ ,  $p < .001$ ) and attachment avoidance ( $b = -1.36$ ,  $SE = .37$ ,  $t = -3.72$ ,  $p < .001$ ) significantly predicted life satisfaction. Which is similar to the Mexican sample, that two attachment predictors explained 12.2% of the variance ( $R^2 = .12$ ,  $F(2,357) = 24.85$ ,  $p < .001$ ). In addition, both attachment anxiety ( $b = -1.58$ ,  $SE = .30$ ,  $t = -5.20$ ,  $p < .001$ ) and attachment avoidance ( $b = -1.53$ ,  $SE = .35$ ,  $t = -4.34$ ,  $p < .001$ ) predicted life satisfaction significantly.

When it comes to physical health, two attachment predictors explained 25% of the variance ( $R^2 = .25$ ,  $F(2,232) = 39.51$ ,  $p < .001$ ) in physical health in the Mexican-American sample. However, only attachment anxiety was found to be a significant predictor ( $b = .10$ ,  $SE$

= .01,  $t = 8.78$ ,  $p < .001$ ), and attachment avoidance was not a significant predictor on its own ( $b = -.03$ ,  $SE = .02$ ,  $t = -1.88$ ,  $p = .062$ ), yet it was approaching significance. This result is parallel to Mexican sample that attachment anxiety ( $b = .02$ ,  $SE = .01$ ,  $t = 2.03$ ,  $p = .043$ ) was a significant predictor of physical health symptoms, but attachment avoidance ( $b = .01$ ,  $SE = .01$ ,  $t = 1.33$ ,  $p = .186$ ) insignificantly predicted physical health symptoms. Two attachment predictors explained 1.7 % of the variance ( $R^2 = .02$ ,  $F(2,357) = 3.19$ ,  $p = .043$ ).

Outcome variable utilizing conflict resolution indicated that the two attachment predictors explained 13.6% of the variance ( $R^2 = .14$ ,  $F(2,232) = 18.25$ ,  $p < .001$ ) in the Mexican-American sample. Only attachment avoidance was a significant predictor ( $b = -2.29$ ,  $SE = .39$ ,  $t = -5.96$ ,  $p < .001$ ), and attachment anxiety did not significantly predict conflict resolution ( $b = .41$ ,  $SE = .30$ ,  $t = 1.36$ ,  $p = .175$ ). The result showed similar trend in Mexican sample, it was found that attachment anxiety did not significantly predict conflict resolution ( $b = -.48$ ,  $SE = .33$ ,  $t = -1.43$ ,  $p = .153$ ), but attachment avoidance was a significant predictor by itself ( $b = -1.88$ ,  $SE = .39$ ,  $t = -4.88$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Both variables accounted for 7.1% of the variance ( $R^2 = .07$ ,  $F(2,357) = 13.56$ ,  $p < .001$ ) in conflict resolution.

### Hypothesis 3

To test Hypothesis 3, which examined if social self-efficacy (SSE) would mediate the link between adult attachment and psychological wellbeing indicators, a series of mediation models were examined using PROCESS statistical package (Hayes, 2013). The present study adopted Model 4, which implemented the adult attachment variables as the predictors (X) with depressive symptoms, physical health symptoms, life satisfaction, or conflict resolution scores as the dependent variable (Y), and social self-efficacy as a mediator (M); to address possible Type I

error, 0.0125 was set as the alpha for significance for all analyses related to this hypothesis. Table 3 to 6 display the findings.

#### *Attachment-SSE-Life Satisfaction*

In the Mexican-American sample, results showed that attachment anxiety was found to be a significant predictor of SSE controlling the effect of attachment avoidance ( $b = -.54$ ,  $SE = .19$ ,  $t = -2.80$ ,  $p = .006$ ). Next step revealed that when attachment anxiety and SSE being entered as predictors while controlling the effect of attachment avoidance, both of attachment anxiety ( $b = -1.84$ ,  $SE = .28$ ,  $t = -6.49$ ,  $p < .001$ ) and SSE ( $b = .32$ ,  $SE = .10$ ,  $t = 3.33$ ,  $p = .001$ ) were significant predictors of life satisfaction. Approximately 26% of variance in life satisfaction was explained by the predictors ( $R^2 = .26$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Finally, results from a bias-corrected bootstrap with 10,000 samples (Shrout & Bolger, 2002) revealed a significant indirect effect ( $b = -.17$ ,  $SE = .07$ , 95% CI [-.366, -.057]), which showed that CI was different from zero and suggested that SSE mediated the relationship between attachment anxiety and life satisfaction (see Table 3).

Similar analyses were conducted for attachment avoidance-SSE-life satisfaction, controlling for attachment anxiety in Mexican American sample (Table 4). The result showed that attachment avoidance was a significant predictor of SSE ( $b = -.68$ ,  $SE = .25$ ,  $t = -2.78$ ,  $p = .006$ ), while controlling for the effects of attachment anxiety. In addition, both of attachment avoidance ( $b = -1.14$ ,  $SE = .36$ ,  $t = -3.14$ ,  $p = .002$ ) and SSE ( $b = .32$ ,  $SE = .10$ ,  $t = 3.33$ ,  $p = .001$ ) were found to be significant predictors of life satisfaction. The mediation model with both predictors and covariate accounted for 27% of variance in life satisfaction ( $R^2 = .26$ ,  $p$

< .001). Bootstrap estimation also showed that SSE mediated the link between attachment avoidance and life satisfaction ( $b = -.22$ ,  $SE = .11$ , 95% CI [-.495, -.047]).

In the Mexican sample, results showed that attachment anxiety was found to be a significant predictor of SSE controlling the effect of attachment avoidance ( $b = -.88$ ,  $SE = .20$ ,  $t = -4.40$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Next step revealed that when attachment anxiety and SSE being entered as predictors while controlling the effect of attachment avoidance, both of attachment anxiety ( $b = -1.36$ ,  $SE = .31$ ,  $t = -4.44$ ,  $p < .001$ ) and SSE ( $b = .24$ ,  $SE = .08$ ,  $t = 2.97$ ,  $p = .003$ ) were significant predictors of life satisfaction. Approximately 14% of variance in life satisfaction was explained by the predictors ( $R^2 = .14$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Finally, results from a bias-corrected bootstrap with 10,000 samples (Shrout & Bolger, 2002) revealed a significant indirect effect ( $b = -.21$ ,  $SE = .09$ , 95% CI [-.416, -.067]), which showed that CI was different from zero. Thus, attachment anxiety predicted life satisfaction through both direct and indirect path in Mexican sample (Table 5).

Similarly, as presented in Table 6, in Mexican sample, attachment avoidance was a significant predictor of SSE ( $b = -1.52$ ,  $SE = .23$ ,  $t = -6.58$ ,  $p < .001$ ), while controlling for the effects of attachment anxiety. In addition, both of attachment avoidance ( $b = -1.17$ ,  $SE = .37$ ,  $t = -3.17$ ,  $p = .002$ ) and SSE ( $b = .24$ ,  $SE = .07$ ,  $t = 2.97$ ,  $p = .003$ ) were found to be significant predictors of life satisfaction when they were entered together. The mediation model with both predictors and covariate accounted for 14% of variance in life satisfaction ( $R^2 = .14$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Bootstrap estimation also showed that social SSE mediated the link between attachment avoidance and life satisfaction ( $b = -.36$ ,  $SE = .14$ , 95% CI [-.676, -.134]).

### *Attachment-SSE-Physical Health Symptoms*

In the Mexican-American sample, when it comes to attachment anxiety-SSE-physical health, attachment anxiety was significant predictor of SSE (see above about attachment anxiety-SSE link, Table 3), and when attachment anxiety and SSE were entered together while controlling for another attachment variable, attachment anxiety was a significant predictor for physical health symptoms ( $b = .10$ ,  $SE = .02$ ,  $t = 8.62$ ,  $p < .001$ ), yet SSE was not ( $b < .001$ ,  $SE = .004$ ,  $t = .002$ ,  $p = .998$ ). The mediation model with both predictors and covariate accounted for 25.4 % of variance in physical health ( $R^2 = .25$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Bootstrap estimation showed that SSE did not mediate the link between attachment anxiety and physical health symptoms as the CI included 0 ( $b < .001$ ,  $SE = .002$ , CI [-.001, .004]). These results suggested that SSE was not a significant mediator in the attachment anxiety to physical health symptoms link, and attachment anxiety predicted physical health through direct effect.

In addition, the link between attachment avoidance-SSE-physical health symptoms was analyzed in Mexican-American sample (Table 4). Similarly, attachment avoidance was a significant predictor of SSE ( $b = -.68$ ,  $SE = .25$ ,  $t = -2.78$ ,  $p = .006$ ). However, when attachment avoidance and SSE were entered together, neither SSE ( $b < .001$ ,  $t = .002$ ,  $p = .998$ ) nor attachment avoidance ( $b = -.03$ ,  $SE = .02$ ,  $t = -1.84$ ,  $p = .067$ ) was a significant predictor for physical health symptoms. The mediation model with both predictors and covariate accounted for 25.4 % of variance in physical health ( $R^2 = .25$ ,  $p < .001$ ). These results suggested that attachment avoidance did not predict physical health symptoms directly or indirectly.

In the Mexican sample, the first step showed that attachment anxiety was a significant predictor of SSE, while controlling for the effect of attachment avoidance (Table 5). Further, the analyses showed that when SSE and attachment anxiety being entered together, both of SSE ( $b =$



-.001,  $SE = .002$ ,  $t = -.70$ ,  $p = .483$ ) and attachment anxiety ( $b = .01$ ,  $SE = .01$ ,  $t = 1.81$ ,  $p = .071$ ) showed insignificant relationships with physical health symptoms. The mediation model with both predictors and covariate accounted for about 1.9% of variance in physical health symptoms ( $R^2 = .02$ ,  $p = .080$ ). Therefore, attachment anxiety was not a significant predictor for physical health symptoms and social self-efficacy did not mediate the link between attachment anxiety and physical health symptoms

Complementing the above, the link between attachment avoidance-SSE– physical health symptoms was also analyzed (Table 6). Like the previous step, the following step revealed that attachment avoidance ( $b = .01$ ,  $SE = .01$ ,  $t = 1.02$ ,  $p = .309$ ) and SSE ( $b = -.001$ ,  $SE = .002$ ,  $t = -.70$ ,  $p = .483$ ) did not predict the physical health symptoms while controlling the effect of attachment anxiety. The mediation model with both predictors and covariate accounted for 1.9 % of variance in physical health symptoms ( $R^2 = .02$ ,  $p = .080$ ). Thus, SSE did not mediate the relationship between attachment avoidance and physical health symptoms in Mexican sample.

#### *Attachment-SSE-Depressive Symptoms*

The link between attachment anxiety-SSE–depressive symptoms was analyzed (Table 3). In the Mexican American sample, the first step showed that attachment anxiety was a significant predictor of SSE while controlling for the effect of attachment avoidance. Further, the analyses showed that both SSE ( $b = -.53$ ,  $SE = .14$ ,  $t = -3.70$ ,  $p < .001$ ) and attachment anxiety ( $b = 2.33$ ,  $SE = .43$ ,  $t = 5.45$ ,  $p < .001$ ) were significant predictors for depressive symptoms when entering both SSE and attachment anxiety together with attachment avoidance as a covariate. The mediation model with both predictors and covariate accounted for 23.7 % of variance in physical health ( $R^2 = .24$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Finally, findings from a bias-corrected bootstrap with 10,000 samples

(Shrout & Bolger, 2002) revealed a significant indirect effect ( $b = .29$ ,  $SE = .13$ , 95% CI [.089, .606]), for CI was different from zero. Thus, attachment anxiety predicted depressive symptoms directly as well as indirectly through the mediation role of SSE.

The link of attachment avoidance-SSE-depressive symptoms was also analyzed in the Mexican-American sample (Table 4). Like the previous step, attachment avoidance was a significant predictor of SSE, while controlling for the effect of attachment anxiety. When both SSE and attachment avoidance being entered together, both SSE ( $b = -.53$ ,  $SE = .14$ ,  $t = -3.70$ ,  $p < .001$ ) and attachment avoidance ( $b = 1.78$ ,  $SE = .54$ ,  $t = 3.27$ ,  $p = .001$ ) significantly predicted depressive symptoms. Finally, analysis from a bias-corrected bootstrap with 10,000 samples (Shrout & Bolger, 2002) revealed a significant indirect effect ( $b = .36$ ,  $SE = .16$ , 95% CI [.099, .764]). Thus, social self-efficacy mediated the relationship between attachment avoidance and depressive symptoms.

In the Mexican sample, the first step showed that attachment anxiety was a significant predictor of SSE, while controlling for the effects of attachment avoidance (see Table 5). Next step revealed that when adding both the mediator and attachment anxiety into the model with depressive symptoms as the outcome variable, attachment anxiety remained a significant predictor of depressive symptoms,  $b = 3.41$ ,  $SE = .46$ ,  $t = 7.43$ ,  $p < .001$ , but the link between SSE and depressive symptoms was insignificant ( $b = -.22$ ,  $SE = .12$ ,  $t = -1.79$ ,  $p = .075$ ). The mediation model with both predictors and covariate accounted for 21.7% of variance in physical health symptoms ( $R^2 = .22$ ,  $p < .001$ ). However, the insignificant path between SSE and depressive symptoms showed that attachment anxiety predicted depressive symptoms in Mexican sample directly, not through the mediation role of SSE.

Conversely, in the Mexican sample, the link of attachment avoidance-SSE- depressive symptoms were also analyzed (see Table 6). Like the previous step, attachment avoidance was a significant predictor of SSE. The following step revealed that including attachment avoidance and SSE into the model together, attachment avoidance ( $b = 2.23, SE = .55, t = 4.04, p < .001$ ) remained significant, but the link between SSE and depressive symptoms was not significant ( $b = -.21, SE = .12, t = -1.79, p = .075$ ). The mediation model with both predictors and covariate accounted for 21.7 % of variance in depressive symptoms ( $R^2 = .22, p < .001$ ). SSE did not mediate the relationship between attachment avoidance and depressive symptoms.

#### *Attachment-SSE-Conflict Resolution*

Additional analyses included the link between attachment anxiety-social self-efficacy-conflict resolution (see Table 3). In the Mexican-American sample, attachment anxiety predicted SSE significantly, yet when the SSE and attachment anxiety and SSE being entered together with conflict resolution as DV, only SSE predicted conflict resolution ( $b = .33, SE = .10, t = 3.28, p = .001$ ), and attachment anxiety did not predict conflict resolution ( $b = .59, SE = .30, t = 1.96, p = .052$ ), indicating that attachment anxiety predicted conflict resolution mostly through an indirect effect of SSE. Approximately 17.4% of the variance in DV was accounted for by the predictors ( $R^2 = .174, p < .001$ ). The indirect effect was tested using a bootstrap estimation approach with 10,000 samples, and the results indicated the indirect coefficient was significant,  $b = -.18, SE = .10, 95\% CI = -.430, -.039$ .

Conversely, the link of attachment avoidance-social self-efficacy-conflict resolution was analyzed in the Mexican-American sample (see Table 4). Attachment avoidance was found to be a significant predictor of SSE, and the link between SSE to conflict resolution was also

significant ( $b = .33$ ,  $SE = .10$ ,  $t = 3.28$ ,  $p = .001$ ) while controlling for the effect of attachment avoidance ( $b = -2.07$ ,  $SE = .38$ ,  $t = -5.39$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Approximately 17.4% of the variance in conflict resolution was accounted for by the predictors and covariate ( $R^2 = .174$ ,  $p < .001$ ). The indirect effect was tested using a bootstrap estimation approach with 10,000 samples and the results indicated the indirect coefficient was significant,  $b = -.23$ ,  $SE = .13$ , 95% CI =  $-.564$ ,  $-.047$ . Thus, attachment avoidance predicted conflict resolution through direct and indirect effect of SSE.

In the Mexican sample, on the other hand, attachment anxiety predicted SSE significantly, yet when the SSE and attachment entered together with conflict resolution as DV, only SSE predicted conflict resolution ( $b = .32$ ,  $SE = .09$ ,  $t = 3.64$ ,  $p < .001$ ), and attachment anxiety did not predict conflict resolution ( $b = -.20$ ,  $SE = .34$ ,  $t = -.59$ ,  $p = .553$ ), indicating that attachment anxiety predicted conflict resolution mostly through an indirect effect of SSE (see Table 5). Approximately 10.4% of the variance in DV was accounted for by the predictors and covariate ( $R^2 = .101$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Finally, analysis from a bias-corrected bootstrap with 10,000 samples (Shrout & Bolger, 2002) revealed a significant indirect effect ( $b = -.28$ ,  $SE = .10$ , 95% CI  $[-.532, -.114]$ ).

Conversely, in the Mexican sample (Table 6), attachment avoidance was a significant predictor of SSE, while controlling for the effects of attachment anxiety. The following step revealed that when including all variables into the model, attachment avoidance ( $b = -1.40$ ,  $SE = .40$ ,  $t = -3.49$ ,  $p < .001$ ) and SSE ( $b = .32$ ,  $SE = .09$ ,  $t = 3.64$ ,  $p < .001$ ) were both significant predictors of conflict resolution. The mediation model with both predictors and covariate accounted for 10.4% of variance in depressive symptoms ( $R^2 = .10$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Bootstrap estimation also showed that social SSE mediated the link between attachment avoidance and

conflict resolution ( $b = -.48, SE = .16, 95\% CI [-.848, -.224]$ ). Thus, attachment avoidance predicted conflict resolution directly as well as through indirect effect of SSE.

#### Hypothesis 4

It was hypothesized that country membership would moderate the path between insecure attachment and SSE and the path between insecure attachment and wellbeing outcome variables in the mediational models with the combined sample. Eight parallel analyses were run with PROCESS Model 8, bootstrap set at 10,000, in which country membership was dummy coded with 0 as US sample (the reference group) and 1 as Mexican sample with the adjusted alpha being .0125.

#### *Country Membership, Attachment, SSE, and Life Satisfaction*

The results indicated that indirect effects of attachment avoidance on life satisfaction varied significantly by country membership ( $b = -.87, SE = .34, t = -2.58, p = .010$ ). The bootstrap estimation showed that although conditional indirect effects of attachment avoidance on life satisfaction via SSE were significant for both samples, the effect was stronger in the Mexican sample ( $b = -.40, SE = .11, 95\% CI [-.667, -.212]$ ) than in the US sample ( $b = -.18, SE = .09, 95\% CI [-.389, -.040]$ ). On the other hand, the conditional direct effect of attachment avoidance on life satisfaction was not significant when considering country membership as a moderator ( $b = .09, SE = .50, t = .19, p = .852$ ).

With regards to attachment anxiety, results indicated that indirect effect of attachment anxiety on life satisfaction via SSE did not vary significantly by country membership ( $b = -.38, SE = .28, t = -1.38, p = .170$ ) after controlling the effect of attachment avoidance. Similarly, the

direct effect of attachment anxiety on life satisfaction was not significantly moderated by country membership ( $b = .54$ ,  $SE = .41$ ,  $t = 1.31$ ,  $p = .192$ ).

#### *Country Membership On Attachment, SSE, and Physical Health Symptoms*

Results showed that indirect effect of attachment anxiety on physical health symptoms was not moderated by country membership ( $b = -.38$ ,  $SE = .28$ ,  $t = -1.38$ ,  $p = .170$ ) after controlling the effect of attachment avoidance. On the other hand, the direct effect of attachment anxiety on physical health symptoms was significantly moderated by country membership ( $b = -.08$ ,  $SE = .01$ ,  $t = -6.28$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Bootstrap estimation showed that conditional direct effect of attachment anxiety on physical health symptoms was only significant for American students ( $b = .10$ ,  $SE = .01$ , 95% CI [.082, .118]), but not for Mexican students.

Results showed that indirect effect of attachment avoidance on physical health symptoms varied significantly by country membership ( $b = -.87$ ,  $SE = .34$ ,  $t = -2.58$ ,  $p = .010$ ) after controlling the effect of attachment anxiety. However, bootstrap estimation showed that conditional indirect effects of attachment avoidance on physical health symptoms via SSE was not significant for either sample ( $b = .0001$ ,  $SE = .002$ , 95% CI [-.003, .004] for the US sample and  $b = .0003$ ,  $SE = .0003$ , 95% CI [-.006, .007] for the Mexican sample). The direct effect of attachment avoidance on physical health symptoms was not significantly moderated by country membership ( $b = .032$ ,  $SE = .017$ ,  $t = 1.90$ ,  $p = .058$ ).

#### *Country Membership, Attachment, SSE, and Depressive Symptoms*

Results showed that indirect effect of attachment anxiety on depressive symptoms via SSE was not moderated by country membership ( $b = -.38$ ,  $SE = .28$ ,  $t = -1.38$ ,  $p = .170$ ) after

controlling the effect of attachment avoidance. Similarly, conditional direct effect of attachment anxiety on depressive symptoms was not moderated by country membership ( $b = .88$ ,  $SE = .61$ ,  $t = 1.44$ ,  $p = .152$ ). This indicated that country membership did not moderate direct and indirect links from attachment anxiety on depressive symptoms.

In terms of attachment avoidance, the results indicated that indirect effect of attachment avoidance on depressive symptoms via SSE significantly varied by country membership ( $b = -.87$ ,  $SE = .34$ ,  $t = -2.58$ ,  $p = .010$ ). The bootstrap estimation showed that conditional indirect effects of attachment avoidance on depressive symptoms were significant for both samples, and the effect was stronger in the Mexican sample ( $b = .53$ ,  $SE = .17$ , 95% CI [.250, .906]) than in the US sample ( $b = .23$ ,  $SE = .11$ , 95% CI [.063, .506]). On the other hand, the conditional direct effect of attachment avoidance on depressive symptoms was not moderated by country membership ( $b = .19$ ,  $SE = .75$ ,  $t = .24$ ,  $p = .800$ ).

#### *Country Membership, Attachment, SSE, and Conflict Resolution*

In terms of attachment anxiety, the results showed that indirect effect of attachment anxiety on conflict resolution via SSE was not moderated by country membership ( $b = -.38$ ,  $SE = .28$ ,  $t = -1.38$ ,  $p = .170$ ) after controlling the effect of attachment avoidance. Similarly, conditional direct effect of attachment anxiety on conflict resolution was not moderated by country membership ( $b = -.74$ ,  $SE = .44$ ,  $t = -1.68$ ,  $p = .093$ ). This indicated that country membership did not moderate direct and indirect links from attachment anxiety on conflict resolution.

When it comes to attachment avoidance, the results indicated that indirect effect of attachment avoidance on conflict resolution varied significantly by country membership ( $b =$

-.87,  $SE = .34$ ,  $t = -2.58$ ,  $p = .010$ ). The bootstrap estimation showed that conditional indirect effects of attachment avoidance on conflict resolution via SSE were significant for both samples, and the effect was stronger in the Mexican sample ( $b = -.50$ ,  $SE = .14$ , 95% CI [-.804, -.277]) than in the US sample ( $b = -.22$ ,  $SE = .10$ , 95% CI [-.467, -.056]). On the other hand, the conditional direct effect of attachment avoidance on conflict resolution was not significant when country membership entered as a moderator while controlling the effect of attachment anxiety ( $b = .62$ ,  $SE = .54$ ,  $t = 1.14$ ,  $p = .253$ ).

## Hypothesis 5

The proposed moderated mediation models of Hypothesis 5 were examined using PROCESS Model 8 with one of the attachment variables as the IV (while controlling for the effect of the other attachment variable), one of the four psychological outcome variables (life satisfaction, physical health symptoms, depressive symptoms, and conflict resolution) as the DV, and SSE as the mediator as well as Familismo as the moderator. Eight parallel analyses were run, with the adjusted alpha being .0125.

### *Familismo, Attachment, SSE, and Life Satisfaction*

The results indicated that indirect effect of attachment anxiety on life satisfaction via SSE did not vary significantly by Familismo ( $b = -.11$ ,  $SE = .11$ ,  $t = -1.12$ ,  $p = .261$ ). On the other hand, the conditional direct effect of attachment anxiety on life satisfaction was significant when Familismo was used as a moderator ( $b = .37$ ,  $SE = .15$ ,  $t = 2.46$ ,  $p = .014$ ) but it was slightly above the adjusted  $p$  value level (i.e., .0125, Table 7, and figure 3). With regards to attachment avoidance, results indicated that indirect effect of attachment avoidance on life satisfaction did



not vary by Familismo ( $b = .07, SE = .12, t = .63, p = .532$ ) after controlling the effect of attachment anxiety. Similarly, the direct effect of attachment avoidance on life satisfaction was not significantly moderated by Familismo ( $b = .07, SE = .17, t = .42, p = .674$ ). These results indicated that Familismo did not moderate the direct and indirect links from attachment to life satisfaction.

#### *Familismo, Attachment, SSE, and Physical Health Symptoms*

Results showed that indirect effect of attachment anxiety on physical health symptoms was not moderated by Familismo ( $b = -.11, SE = .10, t = -1.12, p = .261$ ) after controlling the effect of attachment avoidance. On the other hand, the direct effect of attachment anxiety on physical health symptoms was significantly moderated by Familismo ( $b = -.02, SE = .01, t = -2.50, p = .012, CI [-.026, -.003]$ ). In the final model, approximately 8.0 % of the variance in physical health symptoms was explained by SSE, attachment anxiety, Familismo, interaction term, and covariate ( $p < .001$ ). The results indicated that direct effect of attachment anxiety on physical health symptoms decreased as Familismo increased while controlling for attachment avoidance, and the differences were significantly different from zero as showed in bootstrapping results (see Table 8, and Figure 4).

In terms of attachment avoidance, results showed that indirect effect of attachment avoidance on physical health symptoms via SSE did not vary by Familismo ( $b = .07, SE = .12, t = .63, p = .532$ ) after controlling the effect of attachment anxiety. Similarly, the direct effect of attachment avoidance on physical health symptoms was not significantly moderated by Familismo ( $b = .004, SE = .01, t = .53, p = .600$ ). This indicated that the direct and indirect links from attachment avoidance to physical health symptoms was not moderated by Familismo.

### *Familismo, Attachment, SSE, and Depressive Symptoms*

Results showed that indirect effect of attachment anxiety on depressive symptoms was not moderated by Familismo ( $b = -.11$ ,  $SE = .10$ ,  $t = -1.12$ ,  $p = .261$ ) after controlling the effect of attachment avoidance. Similarly, conditional direct effect of attachment anxiety on depressive symptoms was not moderated by Familismo ( $b = -.24$ ,  $SE = .23$ ,  $t = -1.05$ ,  $p = .295$ ). In terms of attachment avoidance, the result indicated that indirect effect of attachment avoidance on depressive symptoms did not vary significantly by Familismo ( $b = .07$ ,  $SE = .12$ ,  $t = .63$ ,  $p = .532$ ) after controlling the effect of attachment anxiety. Similarly, the conditional direct effect of attachment avoidance on depressive symptoms was not moderated by Familismo ( $b = .01$ ,  $SE = .26$ ,  $t = .03$ ,  $p = .979$ ). This indicated that Familismo did not moderate direct and indirect links from attachment anxiety and avoidance on depressive symptoms.

### *Familismo, Attachment, SSE, and Conflict Resolution*

In terms of attachment anxiety, that indirect effect of attachment anxiety on depressive symptoms was not moderated by Familismo ( $b = -.11$ ,  $SE = .10$ ,  $t = -1.12$ ,  $p = .261$ ) after controlling the effect of attachment avoidance. Similarly, conditional direct effect of attachment anxiety on conflict resolution was not moderated by Familismo ( $b = -.16$ ,  $SE = .16$ ,  $t = -.96$ ,  $p = .339$ ). When it comes to attachment avoidance, the result indicated that indirect effect of attachment avoidance on conflict resolution did not vary significantly by Familismo ( $b = .07$ ,  $SE = .12$ ,  $t = .63$ ,  $p = .532$ ). In addition, the conditional direct effect of attachment avoidance on conflict resolution was not significant when Familismo was entered as a moderator while controlling the effect of attachment anxiety ( $b = -.01$ ,  $SE = .19$ ,  $t = -.07$ ,  $p = .947$ ). This indicated that Familismo did not moderate direct and indirect links from attachment on conflict resolution.

## Hypothesis 6

The proposed analysis was conducted on the models that showed significant moderator effects of country membership from Hypothesis 4, which included (1) conditional indirect effect of attachment avoidance on life satisfaction, (2) conditional direct effect of attachment anxiety on physical health symptoms, (3) conditional indirect effect of attachment avoidance on depressive symptoms, and (4) conditional indirect effect of attachment avoidance on conflict resolution.

### *Attachment Avoidance-SSE-Life Satisfaction*

For the first model, results indicated that, when incorporating Familismo as a covariate in the attachment anxiety-SSE-life satisfaction model (with attachment avoidance as another covariate to control its effect), country membership still moderated the conditional indirect link ( $b = -.91, SE = .34, t = -2.72, p = .007$ ) from attachment avoidance to life satisfaction. Indicating that when entering Familismo as covariate, country membership continued to play a conditional indirect effect of attachment avoidance on life satisfaction.

### *Attachment Anxiety-SSE-Physical Health Symptoms*

When Familismo was incorporated as a covariate in the attachment anxiety-SSE-physical health symptoms model while controlling for attachment avoidance, the moderator effect of country membership remained significant in the direct link ( $b = -.08, SE = .01, t = -6.27, p < .001$ ). Thus, when including Familismo as a covariate, country membership remained significant in the direct conditional effect of attachment anxiety on physical health symptoms.

### *Attachment Avoidance-SSE-Depressive Symptoms*

When Familismo was incorporated as a covariate in the attachment avoidance-SSE-depressive symptoms while controlling for attachment anxiety, findings showed the indirect moderator effect remained significant ( $b = -.91$ ,  $SE = .34$ ,  $t = -2.72$ ,  $p = .007$ ) at the adjusted alpha level. Results suggest that when including Familismo as a covariate, country membership remains playing a significant conditional indirect effect on physical health symptoms.

### *Attachment Avoidance-SSE-Conflict Resolution*

When Familismo was incorporated as a covariate in the attachment avoidance-SSE-conflict resolution model while controlling for attachment anxiety, findings showed the conditional indirect effect remained significant ( $b = -.91$ ,  $SE = .34$ ,  $t = -2.72$ ,  $p = .007$ ) at the adjusted alpha level. Results suggest that when including Familismo as a covariate, country membership remains playing a significant conditional indirect effect of attachment avoidance on physical health symptoms.

## Summary of Findings

### Hypothesis 1

The Familismo average score reported by Mexican college students was significantly higher than the score reported by Mexican-American students; therefore, Hypothesis 1 was supported.

### Hypothesis 2

Both attachment anxiety and avoidance predicted depressive symptoms and life

satisfaction in both samples. However, attachment anxiety only predicted physical health symptoms, and attachment avoidance only predicted conflict resolution in both samples. Attachment avoidance did not predict physical health symptoms, and attachment anxiety did not predict conflict resolution in both samples. Therefore, Hypothesis 2 was partially supported.

### Hypothesis 3

SSE was a significant mediator for two attachment styles → life satisfaction links and two attachment styles → conflict resolution links in both US and MX samples. Further, SSE was a significant mediator for two attachment styles → depressive symptoms in the US sample, but it was not a significant mediator for attachment styles → depression in the MX sample. Finally, SSE was not found to be a significant mediator in attachment styles → physical health symptom links in either sample. Therefore, Hypothesis 3 was partially supported.

### Hypothesis 4

Country membership only moderated four links, which included (1) conditional indirect effect of attachment avoidance on life satisfaction, (2) conditional direct effect of attachment anxiety on physical health symptoms, (3) conditional indirect effect of attachment avoidance on depressive symptoms, and (4) conditional indirect effect of attachment avoidance on conflict resolution. Therefore, Hypothesis 4 was partially supported.

### Hypothesis 5

Familismo was found to be significant moderator in two models: (1) conditional direct effects of attachment anxiety → physical health symptoms, and (2) conditional direct effects of

attachment anxiety → life satisfaction (Alpha level,  $p = .015$ ). Therefore, Hypothesis 5 was partially supported.

#### Hypothesis 6

After entering Familismo as a covariate to the significant models found in Hypothesis 4 (i.e., anxiety → life satisfaction, anxiety → physical health symptoms, avoidance → depressive symptoms, and avoidance → conflict resolution), country membership remained a significant moderator for the links found in Hypothesis 4. Therefore, Hypothesis 6 was not supported.

## CHAPTER 5

### DISCUSSION

The current study examined the relationships between attachment, SSE, Familismo, and various psychological wellbeing indicators across two different cultural groups recruited from the US and Mexico. The first goal of the study was to compare Familismo between Mexican and Mexican-American student groups. In addition, this study also expanded the literature on the relations between attachment styles and various psychosocial functioning by examining the differences between Mexican and Mexican-American samples. Furthermore, the study aimed to examine how SSE mediated the link between attachment styles and psychosocial functioning, and expected to investigate cultural context such as country membership and Familismo values influence the existing relations of attachment → SSE → psychosocial functioning. Finally, the study examined whether Familismo was a key factor explaining the differences associated with country membership.

Regarding the difference between Mexican and Mexican-American samples in terms of the cultural value of Familismo, the present study supported that Mexican students reported significantly higher Familismo values than did of Mexican-American, which is consistent with findings of previous studies (e.g., Balls, Organista, & Kurosaki, 2003; Zayas, Bright, Alvarez-Sanchez, & Cabassa, 2009). The significant difference in Familismo endorsement is likely due to the greater family values and local cultural norms embedded in the Mexican society, as it is primarily a collectivistic culture (Phinney, Ong, & Madden 2000). On the other hand, the lower scores in attitudinal Familismo reported by Mexican American participants are likely to be associated with their exposure to U.S. cultural norms which are more individualistic with a strong emphasis on pursuing personal goals and happiness. Another potential factor of strong

family orientation in Mexican students would be due to the fact that university students in Mexico tend to live with their parents (Encuesta Nacional de Valores en Juventud, 2012) as opposed to living on their own or with roommates as expected from the U.S. university lifestyle.

In addition, the findings posited that attachment styles significantly predicted two specific psychological well-being variables (i.e., life satisfaction and depression) for both cultural groups. This suggested that individuals with high attachment anxiety and avoidance were less likely to show life satisfaction and were more likely to experience depressive symptoms regardless of culture of origin, which was consistent with previous studies with Latino college student samples (Garriot et al., 2010; Rodriguez, Ratanasiripong, & Locks, 2014) as well as middle-class, White college student samples (Lopes et al., 2002; McCarthy et al., 2006).

The present study found that attachment avoidance linked with a negative conflict resolution style for both cultural groups, and yet there was no association between attachment anxiety and conflict resolution style. This finding can be explained by the fact that individuals with high attachment avoidance are observed as aloof and keeping distance from others, and showing obsessive need for self-reliance as well as discomfort for self-disclosure (Pietromonaco & Barret, 2000). Thus, it can be described as having no interest in resolving the conflict, but perhaps outright avoiding it, concurrent with previous findings on conflict resolution and attachment avoidance (Shi, 2003). The insignificant link between attachment anxiety and conflict resolution may be explained by its negative internal working model (Pietromonaco, Greenwood, & Barrett, 2004), wherein the individual with higher attachment anxiety constantly worried about how they would be perceived by others and needed validation from others to meet their personal needs, leaving one unable to develop either positive or negative conflict resolution styles. Therefore, attachment anxiety may not necessarily link to the conflict resolution style. More



research is needed before a solid conclusion about the relationship between attachment and conflict resolution can be drawn.

The study indicated that in both cultural groups, individuals with higher levels of attachment anxiety experience greater physical health symptoms, but attachment avoidance was not found to predict physical health symptoms. The findings are consistent with previous research (Wang, Scalise, Barajas-Munoz, Julio, & Gomez, 2016). Mexican American and Mexican students may attempt to downplay or minimize their personal physical health needs due to the fear of abandonment or for the greater good of the group due to their collectivistic nature (Esteinou, 2006), which might have contributed to the significant relation between attachment anxiety and physical health symptoms observed in participants of this study. Similar findings that attachment anxiety is associated with somatization have been reported in the study by Wang et al. (2016). However, attachment avoidance was not linked to greater physical health concerns which was also consistent with the previous study cited (Wang et al, 2016). The researchers speculated that it might be due to a type of culturally expected interpersonal avoidance in Latinos. Findings from the present study provide additional evidence that some attachment avoidance behaviors observed in Latino or Latino Americans may be associated with Mexican cultural heritage, not necessarily indicators of attachment insecurity as what is typically assumed in attachment literature.

A lower than expected internal consistency reliability coefficient was found for the social self-efficacy measurement with the current samples of both cultural groups that warrants recognition and discussion. It may be that Mexicans and Mexican-Americans engaged in some impression management in some items which results in a greater inconsistency. It could also be associated with the nature of reverse-scored items on self-report scales. Cautions should be used

before applying the findings from the mediation and moderation models due to the lower than expected internal reliability scores for SSE.

The present study found that in both cultural samples lower attachment anxiety was associated with higher levels of SSE, which in turn, could lead to greater life satisfaction. Additionally, lower attachment avoidance across both cultural samples was associated with a higher ability to resolve interpersonal conflicts. This finding suggested that lower attachment anxiety predicted better SSE which from an attachment perspective, may be related to the positive internal working model of self and beliefs that significant others will be available for them when needed, which in turn, serves one with better stress regulation and leads to greater wellbeing (Bisschop, Knegsman, Beekman, & Deeg, 2004). On the other hand, lower attachment avoidance indicated more willingness to engage others and connect with peers, which can help one resolve potential conflicts.

The study additionally found that the indirect effect of attachment anxiety → SSE → conflict resolution was significant for both groups despite it not being statistically significant in the direct paths analyzed. Research (Shrout & Bolger, 2002) suggests that, even if the direct effect is not significant the model can remain indicative of a mediational effect, especially due to the different directions of attachment insecurity and SSE. This effect suggests that greater attachment anxiety in both groups predicts less perceived social skills, culminating in the perceived notion of being unable to take an integrative, respectful solution to interpersonal conflicts within the population.

The associations between attachment style → SSE → physical health symptoms across both the US and MX students were not supported due to the insignificant relationship between SSE and physical health symptoms. Mexican-American and Mexican students with higher

insecure attachment tended to show low SSE, however, the levels of SSE did not link to physical health symptom. This result is inconsistent with the findings of previous studies with White college students in the US because previous studies generally supported that higher SSE can serve one with adequate stress regulation and better physical condition (Bisschop et al, 2004). The insignificant link between SSE to physical health symptoms was unexpected. Students with Mexican heritage tend to be reluctant in utilizing social support and seeking help interpersonally when it comes to physical health problems due to their primary reliance on family support (Davila, Reifsnider, & Pecina, 2009). This cultural norm might have contributed to the non-significant relation between SSE and physical health symptoms. More research is needed to explore this area.

The present study showed that for Mexican-American students, higher attachment anxiety and avoidance were more likely to show lower levels of SSE, which then served them with symptoms of depression. However, the indirect links from attachment styles to depressive symptoms were not supported in Mexican college students. This implied that higher social self-efficacy acted as a buffer against the aversive effect of attachment insecurity on depressive symptoms, but only for those who were in the United States. Bisschop et al. (2004) indicated that peer socialization and overall extroversion is linked with greater perception of self in American populations due to the emphasis on making conscious efforts to establish social peer relationships and the stigma of not having a peer social network in a college population. Compared to the US society, it is common for college students in Mexico to continue to live at home and utilize family of origin as a main support resource (Pellettieri, Lopez-Burton, Hershberger, Navey-Davis & Gomez, 2008; Rothbaum, Rosen, Ujiie, & Uchida, 2002). Therefore, Mexican students may possess lower SSE and yet be able find a support network

within their family system, which may explain the insignificant association between SES and depressive symptoms.

Prominent differences were found when introducing country membership to the existing attachment-SSE-psychological wellbeing outcomes. Specifically, it was found that country membership moderated the indirect effect of attachment avoidance on psychological outcomes in that the negative association between attachment avoidance and SSE was significantly stronger for Mexican students than their Mexican-American counterparts. Based on adult attachment theory, attachment avoidance can be characterized as distancing from others, obsessive self-sufficiency, and avoiding interpersonal closeness. As such, individuals with high attachment avoidance may have learned to deal with interpersonal threat by moving away from others such as emotional withdrawal and expect rejection from others (Friedman et al., 2010), which could create lower SSE. The association between attachment avoidance and SSE was stronger in the Mexican sample. Jin and Wang (2016) stated that socializing with peers and friends could be regarded as a norm in the US society and university. With this societal expectation, Mexican-American students may have learned to seek help and attempt to reach out to others, which may have helped to reduce the negative perception of others and buffered one from having lower SSE compared to Mexican students. More research is needed to explore the specific factors that explain the differential effects in the mediational model.

Familismo was found to be an important factor that buffered the negative impact of attachment anxiety on life satisfaction and somatic concerns in the combined group. As noted above, this study found a significant conditional direct effect on the attachment anxiety → physical health symptoms and attachment anxiety → life satisfaction link by Familismo. Familismo is as an important cultural value further contributes to the literature regarding

Familismo as a protective factor (Gloria, Lopez & Rosales, 2005). Familismo is related to devotion to the family and adhere to family; therefore, for college students from Latino cultural background (i.e., Mexican-American, Mexican), higher family values could buffer the negative impact of attachment anxiety on life satisfaction/physical symptoms. Due to higher adherence to family and devotion to the family, it counter balanced one's needs of being close to others and seeking attention from other people which endorsed higher attachment anxiety, and therefore serve one with greater life satisfaction and lower levels of somatic concerns.

However, inconsistent to the hypothesis, the present study was unable to support protective role of Familismo in the indirect link from attachment variables to psychological wellbeing through SSE, as well as direct link from attachment variables to conflict resolution. This indicated higher levels of family value and adherence to family may not be able to reduce the negative impact of one's insecure attachment on SSE, and link between attachment to conflict resolution styles. This might be since Familismo was related to inner circle and intimate closeness within family, on the other hand, both of SSE and conflict resolution were related to interpersonal functioning and interpersonal competence. This suggested that Familismo may not interact with insecure attachment to predict higher social functioning and perceived social competency. Considering this, it may be important to explore other culturally salient interpersonal factors (e.g., personalismo which underscored interpersonal connection in Mexican culture) that might buffer the above link, as high insecure attachment can be a risk factor for experiencing greater inflexible and maladaptive interpersonal functioning.

The final hypothesis of the study posited that Familismo would be a significant construct explaining the differences associated with country membership. Findings of the present study did not support this hypothesis. This suggested country membership possessed significant

differences beyond the cultural value of Familismo, and that there are likely other cultural variables, beyond Familismo, that contribute to the significant differences in the mediational models found between the US and Mexico samples. More research should continue to explore what cultural factors account for the differential direct or indirect effects of attachment insecurity on mental wellbeing between Mexican and Mexican-American individuals.

### Limitations

The current study has several limitations to consider. First, participants were young adults recruited from two specific locations who self-perceived as Latino/Latina. Specifically, the U.S. sample was recruited from students in the North Texas area, and may not be fully representative of the Mexican American adult population in the U.S., especially considering their relatively close distance from the Mexican border and accessibility to Mexican culture. The Mexican sample was recruited from two major universities in the city of Monterrey, Nuevo Leon, Mexico. The city of Monterrey is within a 3-hour driving distance from the U.S., which may have influenced the results for some of the participants in the Mexican sample may have received greater exposure than typical Mexican college students in other regions due to the proximity to the U.S. cultures and U.S. ideology.

Second, it is important to highlight the cross-sectional, correlational nature of this study. This implies that findings must be interpreted as a snapshot of a time and place and not within a continuum as most longitudinal studies. As such, no causal relationships among variables of interest can be warranted from the findings and inferences or interpretations should be made with caution due to the cross-sectional nature of the collected data.

Further, the age and educational level of both samples was that of a college level student or above, which implies they are not statistically representative of the overall general adult population due to their educational privilege. The criteria for inclusion into the study was to be at least 18 years of age and up to 30 and either in undergraduate or graduate studies. Considering the college level population is a minority in Mexico with only 17% of the adult population ever finishing college education (Mexican Census, 2017) and about 15% of the Latino Americans finishing 4-year college studies in the U.S. (Pew Research Center, 2016), the current study's population does not accurately represent the general adult population with Mexican heritage in either of the countries sampled.

As with all cross-cultural studies, the usage of self-report instruments developed in a language and then translated into another could be problematic. For instance, the way certain ideas are conveyed in a survey format may differ between countries. While all the measurements have been previously utilized in their respective populations in their native language, some wordings and ideas may still be perceived differently. For example, an item in the conflict resolution scale that "I usually propose a middle ground for breaking dead-locks", was translated to become "Generally, I propose a middle path to break a dead point", which may carry much more weight in the translated factor, and may have affected the findings when simply comparing the average scores of the two groups. Another example is found in the Familismo scale. The original English version utilizes the word "should" for most family-oriented items. On the same scale validated in Spanish, the word was translated into "must" instead of "should", which might have influenced an individual's answers based on its perceived strength.

As discussed in previous sections, the marginal level of reliability of Cronbach's alpha found in the Social Self-Efficacy scale for both cultural samples is also a limitation. The usage

of self-report surveys is another limitation because self-reported answers may be exaggerated, and various biases may be present affecting the results. Despite being informed of the confidential nature of the study and the anonymous nature of the data collection, individuals may have engaged in certain social desirability behaviors due to answering in a room next to age-level or grade-level peers. Additionally, self-report measures are often biased by the person's feelings at the time the questionnaire is being filled out, so if participants had recent conflicts with family or friends at the time when taking the research surveys, they may have an unconscious bias toward certain measures.

### Counseling Implications

Results from this study bring to light a few implications for clinicians working with young Latino adults, specifically if they are in the college environment. The first point is that Familismo does play a significant role in diminishing or modifying the effect of attachment anxiety on somatic symptoms in Latino students. When Latino individuals present for therapy, it is critical to gauge the importance and quality of the familial support network perceived by Mexican or Mexican American clients, because it may be used as a tool in the therapeutic setting to further enhance the client's perceived ability to overcome certain anxiety or avoidance concerns. Another significant counseling implication is from the finding that attachment anxiety was significantly associated with symptoms of physical discomfort. It is important for therapists who work with this population to keep in mind any somatic symptoms the clients may express. Careful assessment of clients' somatic concerns may help to identify underlying psychosomatic concerns from the Latino population due to potential somatization of attachment anxiety related to the client's own wellbeing.



Additionally, results suggested that having more attachment insecurity resulted in lowered social self-efficacy, leading to diminished psychophysiological wellbeing in some specific areas. Many Mexican and Mexican-American individuals may endorse a collectivistic cultural norm in which social connections are highly valued. Giving additional support to clients who may feel their social circle not being adequate and helping them locate community resources and communities they can feel a part of (e.g., Latino student organizations, official Latino groups, Latino/Mexican events...) may be helpful for increasing Latino clients' overall life satisfaction and decreased feelings of depression.

This study's findings highlight that Mexican and Mexican-American individuals perceive different degrees of distress based on their attachment insecurity presentation despite sharing the same cultural background. As clinicians, it is important to make a distinction between Mexican-born-and-raised individuals and those Mexican-Americans who were born in the U.S. and experienced the U.S. educational system when conceptualizing clients' presenting concerns and needs. First-generation or 1.5-generation immigrants (those who were born in Mexico but brought to the US during their childhood or early adolescence) from Mexico will likely have different needs than a multi-generation Mexican-American. Previous research suggests that 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> generation individuals perceive greater stressors as they are navigating two cultures while defining their own (Phinney, Ong, & Madden 2000), which comes with its own set of challenges for the upcoming generations.

Because Familismo is a significant moderator for the relationships of attachment anxiety with physical health symptoms and life satisfaction, therapists who work with this population should carefully assess family support and family relationships perceived by clients. The information will help to accurately evaluate the impacts of attachment anxiety on client's overall

wellbeing and inform the development of treatment plan. Additionally, for mental health agencies that serve people in areas with many Mexican immigrants, utilization of measurement of Familismo values (ties to family, family support, family values) may be helpful for understanding family values endorsed by their clients. At universities that have a high percentage of Latino students, offering psychoeducational workshops in topics related to family unity and family support during freshman orientation and other campus welcoming events as well as on a regular basis to Mexican American may help to enhance Mexican and Mexican-American students' wellbeing.

#### Future Directions

Results from this study also contribute to the literature regarding the applicability of attachment theory in non-white populations, as well as the differences between Mexican and Mexican-American individuals regarding attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance. Due to the lack of studies examining attachment in Mexican and Mexican-American populations, findings of this study may serve as initial references for future research regarding the effects of adult attachment, specifically how attachment avoidance may have different implications within the Mexican culture and the Mexican-American subculture.

Researchers who wish to continue studying the Mexican and Mexican-American student population and attachment style may identify additional culturally-bound constructs to examine their mediation or moderation effects. Some possible cultural constructs for further exploration include personalismo, perceived discrimination, cultural identification, among others. Personalismo, as defined in research (Garza & Watts, 2010), is the construct of relating to a person instead of an institution or organization, and the value of inter-personal connections. This

may be an opportunity to tap into values such as respect, trust, and others that may be influencing someone's overall wellbeing. Future studies may consider personalismo as a buffering factor for the effects of attachment insecurity on life satisfaction and degree of trust in providers within this population.

Perceived discrimination may be another construct that may offer fruitful future directions perhaps even as a potential moderator, especially for Mexican Americans. It was not measured in the Mexican American samples but may also be a significant factor affecting one's wellbeing, specifically within the U.S. Latino student population. University students in Mexico typically have not endured discrimination or marginalization that a Mexican-American might have throughout their lives. A study examining the effects of perceived discrimination may yet find it to be an important factor to consider when comparing both cultures' wellbeing.

Finally, future research may examine the role of cultural identification in the attachment insecurity-wellbeing links. Some Mexican-Americans growing up in the U.S. may not identify fully with their Mexican heritage or not perceive Mexican cultural values as important. Conversely, it is likely that some individuals from Mexican universities may have not paid adequate attention to their own cultural values and identity, or may originate from different cultures therefore have developed a different cultural identity (many universities in Mexico also have a diverse undergraduate student population consisting of international and ethnic students from other countries and cultural backgrounds). Including cultural identification in future studies will enrich our understanding and advanced relevant literature.

Further, as stated above, other constructs that may explain more of the cultural portion may be cultural gender roles. Studies incorporating identification with perceived gender role may yield a greater image of how attachment insecurity plays into overall wellbeing while

viewed through gender role lenses. This would help further understand the role of attachment avoidance and how they impact overall wellbeing differently depending on country membership. Similarly, it would be important to examine whether these roles are being learned in the U.S. culture as strongly as in Mexican culture from within immigrant families.

Another future direction research is to recruit data from 1<sup>st</sup>, 2<sup>nd</sup>, and 3<sup>rd</sup> generation Latino individuals to examine potential differences in generational level and immigration status, as well as better identify consistent cultural traits that remain across generations. Additionally, it would be beneficial to collect data from different locations in the U.S., to see how relationships in attachment and mental health outcomes change or differ based on location.

### Conclusions

The current study examined the relationships among attachment, Familismo, social self-efficacy, and psychosocial wellbeing of college students from a cross-cultural standpoint. The average Familismo score was higher in the Mexican sample than the one of the Mexican-American college students. In addition, Mexican and Mexican-American students with higher attachment anxiety and avoidance were less likely to experience life satisfaction. It was found that both Mexican and Mexican-American students with higher attachment insecurity were more likely to experience greater depression symptoms as well. SSE was found to be a significant mediator in the links of attachment anxiety and avoidance with life satisfaction of students from Mexican and Mexican-American groups, as well as attachment anxiety and avoidance with depressive symptoms in Mexican-Americans. Furthermore, this study found that country membership moderated the conditional indirect effect of attachment avoidance on life satisfaction, conflict resolution style, and depressive symptoms, as well as the conditional direct

effect of attachment anxiety on physical health symptoms. In addition, Familismo was found to moderate the direct effect of attachment anxiety on physical health symptoms and attachment anxiety on life satisfaction. Based on this dissertation project's findings, it seems that attachment research on Mexican-American populations has the potential to further increase understanding and inform the development of counseling interventions and assessment.

Table 1

*Correlations of Study Variables (top: US; bottom: MX)*

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	US Sample <i>M (SD)</i>	MX Sample <i>M (SD)</i>
1. ANX	-	.06	.09	-.42**	.49**	.37**	.06	-.19**	3.20 (1.24)	3.46 (.95)
2. AVO	.08	-	-.14*	-.24**	-.08	.25**	-.36**	-.19**	3.03 (.97)	3.05 (.81)
3. FAM	-.38	-.26	-	.07	.07	-.05	.18*	.04	6.33 (1.42)	6.84 (1.34)
4. LS	-.28**	-.24**	.19**	-	-.23**	-.54**	.16*	.30**	24.87 (6.13)	24.95 (5.79)
5. PHQ	.11*	.08	-.04	-.19**	-	.12	.25**	-.07	.31 (.25)	.11 (.14)
6. CESD	.40**	.26**	-.11*	-.44*	.42**	-	-.16*	-.32**	15.31 (9.04)	15.59 (9.04)
7. CONF	-.09	-.26**	.22**	.16**	-.04	-.19**	-	.24**	44.14 (6.13)	44.89 (6.16)
8. SSE	-.24**	-.38**	.15**	.27**	-.08	-.25**	.27**	-	19.75 (3.77)	20.28 (3.89)

*Note.* ANX = Attachment Anxiety, AVO = Attachment Avoidance, FAM = Familismo, LS = Life Satisfaction, PHQ = Patient Health Questionnaire, CESD = Depression Scale, CONF = Conflict Resolution, SSE = Social Self-Efficacy. Correlations above the diagonal line are correlations for the U.S. sample and correlations below the diagonal line are for the Mexican sample. \*  $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .001$ .

Table 2

*Multiple Regressions of Attachment on Four Dependent Variables*

	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	$\beta$	<i>t</i>	$R^2$	Adjusted $R^2$	<i>F</i>	<i>df</i>
D.V= Life Satisfaction								
US					.22	.21	32.90***	2,232
Anxiety	-2.18	.32	-.40	-6.92***				
Avoidance	-1.52	.40	-.22	-3.81***				
MX					.12	.12	25.17***	2,357
Anxiety	-1.62	.32	-.25	-5.12***				
Avoidance	-1.65	.37	-.22	-5.12***				
D.V.= Depressive Symptoms								
US					.21	.20	25.82***	2,202
Anxiety	3.03	.49	.37	6.22***				
Avoidance	2.37	.62	.23	3.84***				
MX					.19	.18	41.73***	2,359
Anxiety	4.00	.53	.36	7.54***				
Avoidance	2.78	.62	.22	4.52***				
D.V.= Conflict Resolution								
US					.12	.11	13.85***	2,202
Anxiety	.35	.33	.06	1.06				
Avoidance	-2.42	.41	-.36	-5.86***				
MX					.07	.06	13.04***	2,359
Anxiety	-.37	.36	-.05	-1.04				
Avoidance	-1.98	.42	-.25	-4.77***				
D.V. = Physical Health Symptoms								
US					.26	.25	35.36***	2, 202
Anxiety	.14	.02	.51	9.05***				
Avoidance	-.03	.02	-.09	-1.69				

*(table continues)*

	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	$\beta$	<i>t</i>	$R^2$	Adjusted $R^2$	<i>F</i>	<i>df</i>
MX					.07	.06	13.04***	2,359
Anxiety	.02	.008	.11	2.07*				
Avoidance	.01 .009	.07	1.36					

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

Table 3

*Multiple Regressions of Attachment Anxiety, SSE, and Dependent Variables (US)*

	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	$R^2$	<i>F</i>	<i>df</i>
D.V.= SSE							
				< .001	.06	8.24	2,232
Attachment Anxiety	-.54	.19	-2.80**	.005			
D.V.= Life Satisfaction							
				< .001	.26	26.97	3,231
Attachment Anxiety	-1.84	.28	-6.48***	< .001			
SSE	.31	.09	3.33***	< .001			
D.V.= Depressive Symptoms							
				< .001	.23	23.87	3,231
Attachment Anxiety	2.32	.42	5.45***	< .001			
SSE	-.53	.14	-3.70***	< .001			
D.V.= Physical Health Symptoms							
				< .001	.25	26.23	3,231
Attachment Anxiety	.10	.01	8.62***	< .001			
SSE	< .001	.004	.002	.99			
D.V.= Conflict Resolution							
				< .001	.17	16.25	3,231
Attachment Anxiety	.59	.30	1.96	.051			
SSE	.33	.10	3.28**	.001			

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



Table 4

*Multiple Regressions of Attachment Avoidance, SSE, and Dependent Variables (US)*

	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>	<i>F</i>	<i>df</i>
D.V.= SSE							
				< .001	.06	8.24	2,232
Attachment Avoidance	-.68	.25	-2.78*	.005			
D.V.= Life Satisfaction							
				< .001	.26	26.97	3,231
Attachment Avoidance	-1.14	.36	-3.14***	.001			
SSE	.31	.09	3.31*	.001			
D.V.= Depressive Symptoms							
				< .001	.24	23.87	3,231
Attachment Avoidance	1.78	.54	3.27**	<.001			
SSE	-.53	.14	-3.70***	<.001			
D.V.= Physical Health Symptoms							
				<.001	.25	26.23	3,231
Attachment Avoidance	-.03	.01	-1.84	.067			
SSE	<.001	.003	.002	.99			
D.V.= Conflict Resolution							
				<.001	.17	16.25	3,231
Attachment Avoidance	-2.06	.38	-5.39***	<.001			
SSE	.33	.10	3.28**	.001			

*Note.* \**p* < .05, \*\**p* < .01, \*\*\**p* < .001.

Table 5

*Multiple Regressions of Attachment Anxiety, SSE, and Dependent Variables (MX)*

	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>	<i>F</i>	<i>df</i>
D.V.= SSE							
				< .001	.16	33.78	2,357
Attachment Anxiety	-.88	.20	-4.40***	<.001			
D.V.= Life Satisfaction							
				< .001	.14	19.87	3,356
Attachment Anxiety	-1.36	.30	-4.44***	< .001			
SSE	.23	.08	3.16**	.003			
D.V.= Depressive Symptoms							
				< .001	.21	32.88	3,356
Attachment Anxiety	3.41	.45	7.43***	< .001			
SSE	-.21	.12	-1.78	.08			
D.V.= Physical Health Symptoms							
				.08	.02	2.27	3,356
Attachment Anxiety	.02	.008	1.81	.07			
SSE	-.001	.002	-.70	.48			
D.V.= Conflict Resolution							
				<.001	.10	13.76	3,356
Attachment Anxiety	-.20	.34	-.59	.55			
SSE	.32	.08	3.64***	.0003			

Note. \**p* < .05, \*\**p* < .01, \*\*\**p* < .001.

Table 6

*Multiple Regressions of Attachment Avoidance, SSE, and Dependent Variables (MX)*

	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>	<i>F</i>	<i>df</i>
D.V.= SSE							
				< .001	.16	33.78	2,357
Attachment Avoidance	-1.52	.23	-6.57***	<.001			
D.V.= Life Satisfaction							
				< .001	.14	19.87	3,356
Attachment Avoidance	-1.17	.37	-3.16**	.001			
SSE	.23	.08	2.97**	.003			
D.V.= Depressive Symptoms							
				< .001	.22	32.88	3,356
Attachment Avoidance	2.23	.55	4.04***	<.001			
SSE	-.21	.12	-1.78	.07			
D.V.= Physical Health Symptoms							
				.08	.018	2.27	3,356
Attachment Avoidance	.01	.001	1.02	.31			
SSE	-.001	.002	-.70	.48			
D.V.= Conflict Resolution							
				<.001	.10	13.76	3,356
Attachment Avoidance	-1.40	.40	-3.49***	<.001			
SSE	.31	.09	3.64***	<.001			

Note. \**p* < .05, \*\**p* < .01, \*\*\**p* < .001.

Table 7

*Conditional Direct Effects of Attachment Anxiety on Life Satisfaction at Values of Familismo*

Familismo	Direct effect	Boot SE	Boot LLCI	Boot ULCI
5.25	-2.14	.29	-2.708	-1.579
6.64	-1.63	.21	-2.037	-1.231
8.04	-1.12	.30	-1.706	-.544

Table 8

*Conditional Direct Effects of Attachment Anxiety on Physical Health at Values of Familismo*

Familismo	Direct effect	Boot SE	Boot LLCI	Boot ULCI
5.25	.09	.01	.065	.120
6.64	.06	.01	.044	.083
8.04	.03	.01	.006	.063

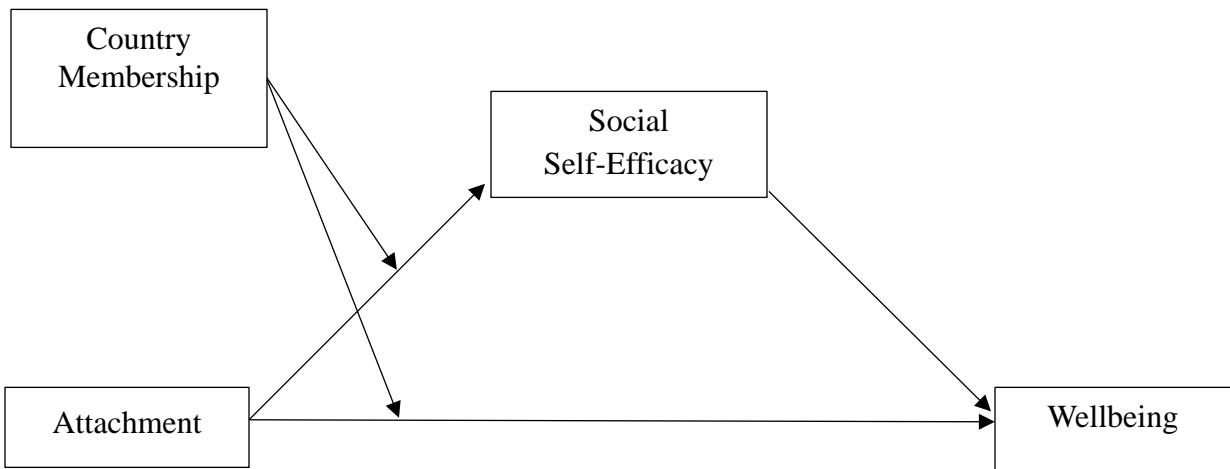


Figure 1. Conceptual diagram for proposed moderated mediation model (PROCESS Model 8).

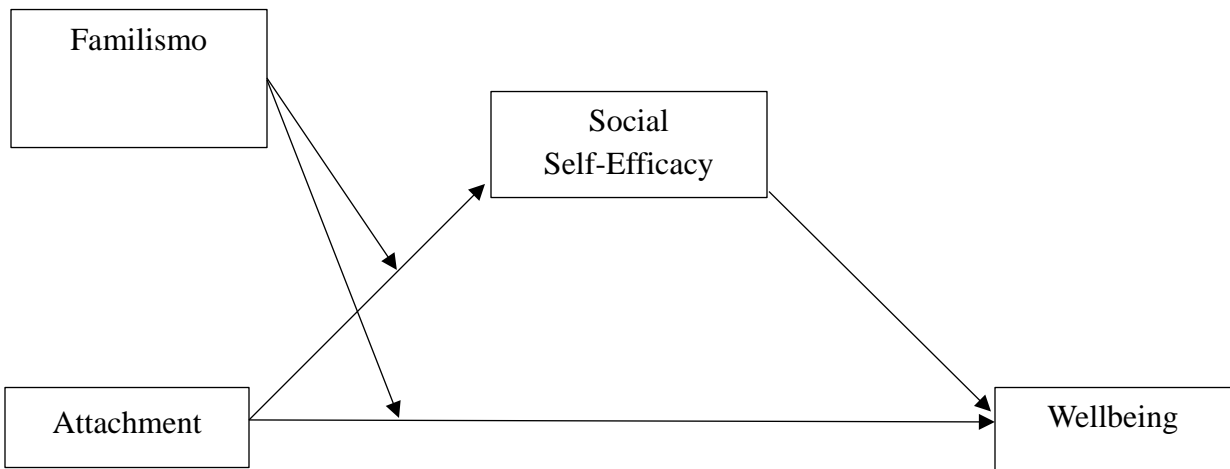


Figure 2. Conceptual diagram for proposed moderated mediation model (PROCESS Model 8).

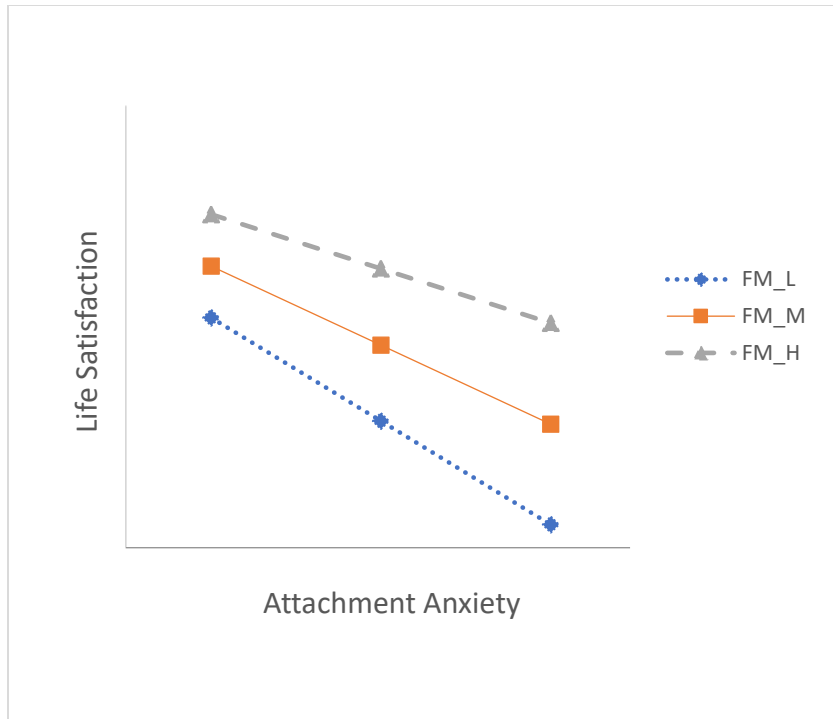


Figure 3. The impact of attachment anxiety on life satisfaction at different levels of Familismo.

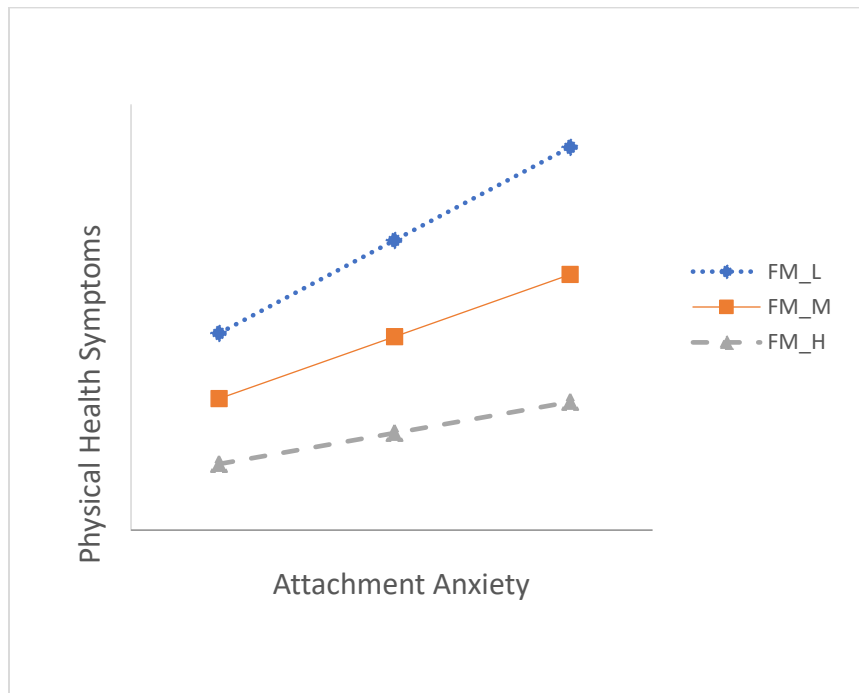


Figure 4. The impact of attachment anxiety on physical health symptoms at different levels of Familismo

APPENDIX  
DEMOGRAPHICS

1. Age \_\_\_\_\_
2. Sex: \_\_\_\_\_ Male \_\_\_\_\_ Female
3. What is your current student status:  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Freshman \_\_\_\_\_ Sophomore \_\_\_\_\_ Junior \_\_\_\_\_ Senior \_\_\_\_\_ Graduate student
4. Do you identify as being of Hispanic or Latino origin? \_\_\_\_\_ No \_\_\_\_\_ Yes
5. If yes, which group best describes you?  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Mexican American, Chicano \_\_\_\_\_ Mexican  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Puerto Rican \_\_\_\_\_ Cuban  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Other Hispanic/Latino origin (please specify):  
 \_\_\_\_\_ (ex.: Argentine, Colombian, Dominican, etc.)
6. What is your sexual orientation?  
 Heterosexual  Gay  
 Lesbian  Bisexual  
 Asexual  Queer  
 Prefer not to share  Other (specify) \_\_\_\_\_
7. What generation best applies to you? Please check only one.  
 \_\_\_\_\_ 1<sup>st</sup> Generation = You were born in another country  
 At what age did you come to the USA? \_\_\_\_\_ from which country?  
 \_\_\_\_\_  
 \_\_\_\_\_ 2<sup>nd</sup> Generation = You grew up in the USA and at least one parent grew up in another country  
 If Dad: at what age did he come to the USA? \_\_\_\_\_ from which country?  
 \_\_\_\_\_  
 If Mom: at what age did she come to the USA? \_\_\_\_\_ from which country?  
 \_\_\_\_\_  
 \_\_\_\_\_ 3<sup>rd</sup> Generation = You grew up in the USA, both parents grew up in USA, and at least one grandparent grew up in another country; from which country (or countries)?  
 \_\_\_\_\_
8. How many family members are within driving distance of you?  
 \_\_\_\_\_
9. Do you keep in touch with your family:  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Every day \_\_\_\_\_ 2-4 times a week \_\_\_\_\_ 2-4 times a month or less
10. Who was your primary caregiver when you grew up? \_\_\_\_\_
11. How many siblings (brothers/sisters) do you have? \_\_\_\_\_ What is your birth order (1<sup>st</sup>/2<sup>nd</sup>/3<sup>rd</sup>/etc.) \_\_\_\_\_
12. What is the highest level of education of your parents? Mother \_\_\_\_\_ Father \_\_\_\_\_
13. Which of the following best describes the current, yearly income of your family:  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Under \$15,000 \_\_\_\_\_ \$35,000 to \$49,999 \_\_\_\_\_ \$100,000 to \$139,999



\_\_\_\_\_ \$15,000 to \$24,999 \_\_\_\_\_ \$50,000 to \$74,999 \_\_\_\_\_ \$140,000 and above  
\_\_\_\_\_ \$25,000 to \$34,999 \_\_\_\_\_ \$75,000 to \$99,999

14. Indicate your relationship status by selecting one choice below that best describes your status:

- \_\_\_\_\_ Never had a romantic relationship  
\_\_\_\_\_ Have had a romantic relationship, but currently not in one  
\_\_\_\_\_ Recently started my 1<sup>st</sup> romantic relationship (within 6 months)  
\_\_\_\_\_ In a committed romantic relationship or married

15. Who are you currently living with (check all that apply)?

\_\_\_\_\_ Alone \_\_\_\_\_ Friends \_\_\_\_\_ Family \_\_\_\_\_ Relative

16. What was the primary language spoken at home during your childhood?

\_\_\_\_\_ English \_\_\_\_\_ Spanish \_\_\_\_\_ Both \_\_\_\_\_ Other (specify): \_\_\_\_\_

17. Have you visited Mexico:

\_\_\_\_\_ Once \_\_\_\_\_ Every few months \_\_\_\_\_ Every year

18. Overall, how would you rate your Spanish?

\_\_\_\_\_ Very poor \_\_\_\_\_ Poor \_\_\_\_\_ Average \_\_\_\_\_ Good \_\_\_\_\_ Very good (Fluent)

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