

HUMILITY AND ATTACHMENT STYLE IN ADULT ROMANTIC RELATIONSHIPS

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The goal of this study was to investigate the relationship between adult attachment style, humility, and relationship satisfaction in college student couples. Attachment style--given its significant role in predicting how individuals feel, think, and behave in relationships--was expected to be an important predictor of humility, although this possibility has rarely been studied empirically. The current study found that: (a) attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance were significant, negative predictors of total humility, (b) attachment anxiety (but not attachment avoidance) was a significant, negative predictor of both intrapersonal and interpersonal humility, (c) a romantic partner's attachment avoidance (but not attachment anxiety) was a significant, negative predictor of a target person's relationship satisfaction, and (d) a romantic partner's perceived level of humility was a significant, positive predictor of a target person's relationship satisfaction.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Adult attachment style and humility are both important constructs in understanding relationship outcomes. Insecure attachment has been found to be associated with less satisfaction in romantic relationships (Collins & Feeney, 2004; Collins & Read, 1990), whereas securely attached adults have more satisfying and well-functioning relationships (Feeney, 1999 for a review). Research has also demonstrated a strong link between humility and relationship functioning. Humility has been linked to positive relationship outcomes and has been found to be an important characteristic to consider when selecting a potential mate (Van Tongeren, Davis, & Hook, 2014).

Although research has shown a link between both adult attachment style and humility with relationship outcomes, few studies have measured both adult attachment and humility (Dwiwardani et al., 2014) in order to examine the relationship between these two constructs and their respective influences on relationship outcomes. To date, no comprehensive, in-depth literature review examining attachment style and humility exists.

The purpose of this dissertation is to investigate the relationship between attachment style and humility, along with constructs related to humility—modesty and self-enhancement, by (a) reviewing the existing literature, and (b) conducting an empirical study to further explore the relationship between adult attachment, humility, and relationship outcomes. Specifically, in Chapter 2, I organize and review the current empirical studies on attachment and humility, attachment and self-enhancement, and attachment and modesty. In Chapters 3, 4, 5, and 6, I report the findings from an empirical study that examined the relationship between adult attachment style, humility, and relationship outcomes using a sample of college students

involved in romantic relationships. Specifically, in Chapter 3, I detail a statement of the problem to introduce the topic I am addressing. In Chapter 4, I specify the methodology for my empirical study. In Chapter 5, I report the results of the empirical study, and in Chapter 6, I discuss the findings from my empirical study in the context of the extant literature.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

In recent years, research on the construct of humility has flourished (Davis et al., 2013; Davis & Hook, 2014; Hook, Davis, Owen, Worthington, & Utsey, 2013; LaBouff, Rowatt, Johnson, Tsang, Willerton, 2012). In particular, researchers have begun to examine humility in the context of relationships (e.g., Davis et al., 2011; Davis et al., 2013). Research has demonstrated a strong link between humility and positive relationship outcomes. For instance, humility is related to a number of pro-social qualities, such as helpfulness (LaBouff et al., 2012), generosity (Exline & Hill, 2012), and the ability to receive help from others (Exline, 2012). These findings highlight that humility involves expressing other-oriented, positive emotions and behaviors, which may help to set the stage for satisfying relationships. Indeed, a positive association has been found between humility and social relationship quality, defined as the degree to which one is happy or satisfied with social relationship partners (Peters, Rowatt, & Johnson, 2011). Specifically in the context of romantic relationships, humility has been linked to positive relationship outcomes, and humility has been found to be an important characteristic to consider when selecting a potential mate (Van Tongeren et al., 2014). In addition, humility is theorized to help repair social bonds when they have been damaged by conflict (Davis et al., 2011). Regulating egoistic motives and being other-oriented, humble individuals are expected to be able to prioritize the relationship and their partner, rather than their own interests and desires (Yovetich & Rusbult, 1994). Although research has begun to investigate the benefits of humility, there has been little research to explore possible predictors of humility. In other words, what makes some people humble while others are not?

Due to its central role in predicting how individuals feel, think, and behave in interpersonal relationships (Fraley & Shaver, 2000), attachment style may be one construct that is important in predicting humility. Attachment style refers to the propensity of individuals to form affectional bonds with significant others (Bowlby, 1980). An individual's attachment style develops from a particular history of attachment experiences, especially with early caregivers (Fraley & Shaver, 2000). Individuals who develop a secure attachment style exhibit confidence in availability of attachment figures and comfort with interdependence, whereas individuals who develop an insecure attachment may experience fears of abandonment, sensitivity to rejection (attachment anxiety) or discomfort with intimacy and closeness (attachment avoidance) (Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters, & Wall, 1978). A longitudinal study by Holland, Fraley, and Roisman (2012) found that individuals reporting higher levels of attachment anxiety described their relationships as being of lower quality and were also rated by observers as interacting less positively with their partners. Insecure attachment has also been found to be associated with less satisfaction in romantic relationships (Collins & Feeney, 2004; Collins & Read, 1990) and greater conflict during couple interactions (Campbell et al., 2005). Insecure attachment predicts more negative beliefs about love, less empathy, and a tendency to evaluate one's own and others' behavior more harshly (i.e., harsh attributional bias) (Hazan & Shaver, 1987; Feeney, Noller, & Callan, 1994). In comparison to insecurely attached adults, research shows that securely attached adults have more satisfying and well-functioning intimate relationships (Feeney, 1999 for a review) and are more willing to remain in a relationship and work through conflicts (Lawler-Row, Younger, Piferi, & Jones, 2006).

Clearly, attachment style and humility play important roles in romantic relationships— influencing the thoughts, feelings, and behavior of romantic partners. It is worth considering

how attachment style may influence, or predict, humility. Consequently, the purpose of the present review is to explore the relationship between attachment style and humility, as well as two constructs closely related to humility—modesty and self-enhancement.

Attachment Theory

Bowlby (1973, 1980, 1982) introduced the concept of attachment as an innate psychobiological system that motivates humans from infancy through adulthood to seek proximity to attachment figures (i.e. those individuals with whom one has an emotional bond) in times of distress to attain safety and security. One of the main purposes of an attachment system is to increase chances of survival and reproduction (Bowlby, 1973, 1980, 1982). During infancy, parents, grandparents and caregivers are likely to serve as attachment figures. However, when individuals transition into adolescence and adulthood, others take on the role of attachment figure, including close friends and romantic partners (Fraley & Davis, 1997; Hazan & Zeifman, 1999). Even teachers, therapists, and religious figures (e.g., God) can serve as real or symbolic sources of comfort and support.

The presence of attachment bonds can be inferred based on the extent to which an individual engages with a romantic partner, sibling, parent, or friend in any of several known attachment functions, such as (a) proximity seeking (i.e. behaviors designed to bring the self closer to the attachment figure), (b) separation distress (i.e., negative affect exhibited when the attachment figure is unavailable), (c) safe haven (i.e., desire to seek out the attachment figure for comfort and support), and (d) secure base (i.e., use of the attachment figure as a base from which one can explore the world) (Tancredy & Fraley, 2006). Three types of situations tend to activate

the attachment system during a relationship (Kobak & Duemmler, 1994): (a) fear-provoking situations, (b) challenging situations, and (c) conflictual interactions.

There are several distinct attachment patterns, or styles, that can develop based largely on the nature of early infant-caregiver interactions. Empirical tests of Bowlby's attachment theory were first conducted by Ainsworth and her colleagues (Ainsworth et al., 1978) with mother-infant pairs using the Strange Situation test. These researchers found that when a caregiver was consistently responsive to the infant, the infant was able to develop a secure attachment style. However, in cases where the caregiver was inconsistent in his or her responses, or exhibited limited responsiveness to the infant, the infant would develop one of two insecure attachment styles: anxious-ambivalent or avoidant. Each attachment style is associated with a systematic pattern of relational expectations, emotions, and behaviors (Fraley & Shaver, 2000).

Models of Attachment

Several different methods of conceptualizing attachment have been proposed. One of these is a three-category model, developed by Ainsworth et al. (1978). This model consists of secure, avoidant, and anxious-ambivalent attachment styles. Individuals with a secure attachment style find it easy to trust others, are emotionally open, and feel confident about receiving support from others. Individuals with an anxious-ambivalent attachment style feel uncertain about being loved, doubt their self-worth, and worry about being supported by attachment figures. Because of this, these individuals tend to be unusually vigilant and concerned about a partner's feelings and behavior, overly dependent, demanding, and emotionally unstable. Individuals with an avoidant attachment style rely heavily on the self and try not to seek support or protection from attachment figures (Shaver & Mikulincer, 2010).

In addition to the three-category model, a four-category model of attachment has been developed (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991) based on two dimensions: model of self (i.e., attachment anxiety) and model of others (i.e., attachment avoidance). Secure attachment reflects supportive and responsive interactions with caregivers, resulting in internalized positive models of self and others. The secure attachment style is characterized by freely experiencing both intimacy and autonomy in relationships. An insecure attachment style is formed when one or more caregivers are insensitive or unresponsive, resulting in a negative internal working model of self, others, or both. The preoccupied attachment style involves a negative model of self and a positive model of others. This style is distinguished by feelings of unworthiness and an exaggerated concern with seeking approval from others. The fearful attachment style involves a negative model of both self and others; it is characterized by feeling unworthy, fearing rejection from others, and consequently avoiding interpersonal closeness. The fourth attachment category, dismissing, involves a positive model of self and a negative model of others. An individual with a dismissing attachment style does not feel unworthy, but also does not value interpersonal closeness.

An individual's attachment style influences the ways in which he or she deals with threats and distress (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007). In times of distress, securely attached individuals seek proximity to attachment figures. However, insecurely attached individuals rely on secondary attachment strategies (Cassidy & Kobak, 1988; Cassidy & Berlin, 1994; Main, 1990). Those high on attachment anxiety rely on hyperactivating strategies in an effort to regulate distress. These strategies involve energetic attempts to attain greater proximity, support, and protection combined with a lack of confidence that the support and protection will be provided. These individuals have learned that attachment figures are inconsistently available, and in times

of distress they may utilize both aggressive/threatening behavior and coy/seductive behavior in an effort to get their needs met (Crittenden, 1992, 1997). Those high on attachment avoidance rely on deactivating strategies during times of distress. These strategies are associated with inhibiting proximity-seeking behavior, denial of attachment needs, maintaining emotional and cognitive distance from others, and over-reliance on the self (Cassidy & Kobak, 1988; Cassidy & Berlin, 1994; Main, 1990).

Humility, Modesty, and Self-Enhancement

With the rise of positive psychology, research has rapidly accelerated on some virtues such as forgiveness (Fehr, Gelfand, & Nag, 2010) and gratitude (Emmons & McCullough, 2003). In contrast, scholarship on humility has developed more slowly, likely due to problems with defining and measuring this construct (Davis, Worthington, & Hook, 2010). For example, although humility researchers have reached some level of consensus about what intrapersonal characteristics comprise humility (i.e., having an accurate view of self), there is less agreement on the interpersonal qualities that comprise humility. Related to this point, there is disagreement about which characteristics are essential to humility and which characteristics are correlative (i.e., downstream byproducts) to humility.

Researchers generally agree that humility is not simply the absence of negative traits such as narcissism, conceit, or arrogance (Tangney, 2005), but must also include the presence of positive traits (Davis et al., 2010). Humility is defined as having a moderate or accurate view of self, acknowledging limitations, openness to new ideas, perspective of abilities and accomplishments in relation to the big picture, low self-focus, and valuing of all things (for a review of definitions, see Davis et al., 2010). Humble people are expected to be less likely to

distort information to make themselves feel better (i.e., to self-enhance) (Peterson & Seligman, 2004). Definitions of humility also address interpersonal qualities, such as the presence of empathy, gentleness, respect, equality, and valuing of others and the absence of controllingness (Sandage, 1999). Humility is thought to involve gratitude, sharing the spotlight, acknowledging mistakes, openness to ideas of other people and cultures, surrender and obedience to God and the transcendent, and moderation of praise and recognition in socially acceptable ways (Davis et al., 2010).

Two types of modesty have been defined (Gregg, Hart, Sedikides, & Kumashiro, 2008): intrapersonal and interpersonal. Intrapersonal modesty refers to having an accurate view of self—not too high or low (Tangney, 2005). This has been measured through the construct of self-enhancement, or the degree to which a person has an overly positive view of self. Interpersonal modesty refers to the tendency to moderate praise or recognition in socially acceptable ways, particularly in public settings (Cialdini, Wosinska, Dabul, Whetstone-Dion, & Heszen, 1998). These two aspects of modesty do not necessarily overlap (Davis et al., 2011).

Although both aspects of modesty are encompassed in the definition of humility, humility encompasses other qualities as well. In addition, although modesty can be consistent with an inner sense of humility it can also arise for other reasons, such as situational demands or pressures (e.g. cultural pressures and expectations) (Peterson & Seligman, 2004). Therefore, most researchers distinguish these two constructs (Rowatt et al., 2006), although there is considerable overlap in both definitions and measures of humility and modesty (Davis & Hook, 2014).

Self-enhancement is the tendency to enhance the positive nature of self-appraisals and to protect the self from negative information (Sedikides, 1993). It is considered by social

psychologists to be a basic motivational force that serves to guide the regulation of cognitive and affective processes (Dunning, 1999; Osborne, 1996; Shaver & Mikulincer, 2010). This motivational tendency causes people to exaggerate positive self-views, dismiss and easily forget negative information about themselves, seek positive feedback about their worth, attribute positive outcomes to themselves and negative outcomes to external forces, and positively bias expectations of control and success. While some researchers view these positive distortions as an adaptive means of maintaining emotional stability and mental health, others emphasize the negative side effects of self-enhancement, such as self-deception, narcissism, and even aggression (Shaver & Mikulincer, 2010).

Relationship between Attachment and Humility, Modesty, and Self-Enhancement

According to attachment theory (Bowlby, 1980), humans are motivated by innate needs for support, closeness, and protection. Attachment style refers to individuals' tendency to form emotional bonds with significant others. Individuals developing a secure attachment style exhibit confidence in availability of attachment figures and comfort with interdependence, while individuals developing insecure attachment may experience fears of abandonment, sensitivity to rejection (anxious attachment) or discomfort with intimacy and closeness (avoidant attachment) (Ainsworth et al., 1978). Thus, individuals with a secure attachment style are expected to better be able to meet needs for support, protection, and closeness with others. Those developing an insecure attachment style may feel vulnerable and rely on other means to feel a sense of security and safety. Indeed, research has found that dispositional and situational attachment security—a feeling of confidence in the available support and love of attachment figures—is related to less defensiveness (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2001), more cognitive openness (Mikulincer, 1997), and

more empathy and compassion for others (Gillath, Shaver, & Mikulincer, 2005). Thus, to the extent that security is attained, individuals are less defensive and exhibit stronger tendencies toward growth-related thoughts and behaviors (Hart, Shaver, & Goldenberg, 2005). Securely attached individuals would therefore be expected to be more humble, more modest, and less self-enhancing.

Attachment security allows an individual to feel that their relationships provide a secure base for exploring the environment, taking risks, and gaining new experiences (Ainsworth, 1979). Knowing that one has others to rely on in times of distress is an important component of the attachment system (Bowlby, 1980). Dwiwardani et al. (2014) suggest that attachment security provides a foundation for practicing virtues, such as humility. To practice humility well, it is expected that individuals must have developed a positive view of self and others, a characteristic of secure attachment. For instance, humility involves the ability to have an accurate view of self and an awareness of one's limitations. Individuals with a secure attachment style have been found to have a higher self-esteem (Bylsma, Cozzarelli, & Sumer, 1997; Mickelson, Kessler, & Shaver, 1997). It may be easier for securely attached individuals to acknowledge and recognize their own weaknesses, without feeling the need to rely on self-enhancement. Additionally, humility involves having an other-oriented stance, rather than being overly focused on the self. Having an other-oriented stance may be easier for securely attached individuals, who by definition have a positive view of others.

One potential moderator of the relationship between adult attachment style and self-enhancement is the way in which self-enhancement is defined. Self-enhancement is considered a motivational tendency to enhance the positive nature of self-appraisals and protect oneself from negative information (Sedikides, 1993). It is believed that because securely attached individuals

are able to feel good about themselves they will have less need of defensive self-enhancement and rejection of negative self-relevant information (Shaver & Mikulincer, 2010). Importantly, however, some researchers view these positive distortions as an adaptive means of maintaining emotional stability and mental health (Shaver & Mikulincer, 2010). When self-enhancement is defined and measured as a positive quality, for instance, representing constructs such as self-esteem or a healthy sense of pride, it would be expected that individuals with a positive view of self—as seen in secure and dismissing attachment styles—would show higher levels of self-enhancement (Alford, Lyddon, & Schreiber, 2006).

Purpose of the Current Review

The purpose of this literature review is to summarize the results from empirical studies that examine the relationship between attachment style and humility, modesty, and self-enhancement. This review also aims to explore possible moderators of these relationships, and to discuss areas for future research. Few studies to date have been published on the relationship between attachment style and humility, modesty, and self-enhancement. Because interest in this area of study is currently developing, this literature review aims to highlight aspects of the existing research that need to be investigated more thoroughly, thus guiding prospective research.

Method

I conducted a literature search for empirical studies investigating the relationship between attachment and humility, along with the related constructs of self-enhancement and modesty. There were three specific criteria for inclusion in this literature review. First, the study had to be

empirical. Theoretical articles were not included in the literature review. Second, the study had to include a measure of attachment (adult, child, etc.). Third, the study had to include a measure of humility, modesty, or self-enhancement.

The literature search was completed as of May 7, 2014. First, I searched the database PsycInfo (Psychological Abstracts) pairing terms “attachment” and “humility,” followed by terms “attachment” and “humble,” then “attachment” and “modesty” and finally “attachment” and “self-enhancement.” Nine articles meeting criteria were located through this database. Second, I searched ProQuest Dissertations and Theses Database, using the same key terms. This search resulted in one new article. Third, I reviewed the Social Science Citation Index database, although no new studies were obtained from this search. Fourth, I reviewed the tables of contents for the journal *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin* from January 2003 through May 2014, and no new articles were found. Finally, I obtained two studies that have not yet been published on attachment and humility from my advisor, Dr. Joshua Hook.

Thus, I found a total of 12 studies that met inclusion criteria and addressed the relationship between attachment and humility, self-enhancement, or modesty. Of these 12 studies, 3 measured attachment and humility, 2 measured attachment and modesty, and 7 measured attachment and self-enhancement. The studies considered in the present review are listed in Tables 1, 2, and 3.

Results

The results section is organized into three sections: (a) demographic characteristics of all study samples, (b) a review of how constructs were measured, and (c) empirical results from the studies.

Table 1

Attachment Style and Humility

Author(s)	Published	Participants	Female (n)	Age (M)	Gay or Bisexual (n)	Racial or Ethnic Minority (n)	Design	Attachment Measure	Humility Measure	General Findings
Dwiwardani et al. (2014)	Yes	245 adults, community sample	169	35.16 years	Not provided	67	Cross-sectional	ECR-R, romantic attachment	Unpublished 36 item self-report measure	Avoidant attachment style was negatively related to humility ($r = -.19$; anxious attachment style was not significantly related to humility ($r = -.10$))
Sandage et al. (2014)	Yes	211 adults, graduate students	118	34.34 years	Not provided	16	Cross-sectional	Attachment to God	18 item self-report measure of dispositional humility	Insecure God attachment was negatively related to dispositional humility ($r = -.53$)
Zhao (2012)	No	150 adults, Asian American or Asian International students	86	22.09 years	Not provided	150	Cross-sectional	SACQ, attachment to college	AAVS-M	Attachment to college was not significantly related to humility ($r = -.06$)

Note. ECR-R=Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised; SACQ=Student Adaptation to College Questionnaire; AAVS-M=Asian American Values Scale-Multidimensional.

Table 2

Attachment Style and Modesty

Author(s)	Published	Participants	Female (n)	Age (M)	Gay or Bisexual (n)	Racial or Ethnic Minority (n)	Design	Attachment Measure	Modesty Measure	General Findings
Li (2007)	No	671 children 1,240 adults (mothers and fathers), families in Beijing, China	364 girls; 670 women (mothers)	10.41 years (children); 38.83 years (parents)	Not provided	671 children; 1,240 adults	Cross-sectional	IPPA, child-reported attachment to parents	Encouragement of Modesty	No findings reported on relationship between attachment and modesty
Rashid (2003)	No	65 adults, undergraduate and graduate students	56	24.16 years	Not provided	37	Experimental	VIA-SI, adult attachment	VIA-SI	No findings reported on relationship between attachment and modesty

Note. IPPA=Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment; VIA-SI=Values in Action Strengths Inventory.

Table 3

Attachment Style and Self-Enhancement (SE)

Author(s)	Published	Participants	Female (n)	Age (M)	Gay or Bisexual (n)	Racial or Ethnic Minority (n)	Design	Attachment Measure	SE measure	General Findings
Alford et al. (2006)	Yes	143 adults, undergraduate students	98	21.59 years	Not provided	33	Cross-sectional	RQ, romantic attachment	SCM, positive	Both secure and dismissing individuals had significantly higher SE than the fearful group.
El-Alayli et al. (2006)	Yes	70 adults, undergraduate students	47	21 years	Not provided	Not provided	Cross-sectional	PAS; CAB; PRS, attachment to pet	Participants rated themselves and “the average college student” on 22 positive and negative personality traits, negative	Pet attachment and SE were not significantly related ($r = .11$)
Gjerde et al. (2004)	Yes	85 adults, community sample	45	23 years	Not provided	28	Cross-sectional	RAI, RAQ; ECR, romantic attachment	CAQ, raters evaluated items for favorability and participants rated items from most to least descriptive, negative	Interview measure: secure attachment and SE were negatively related ($r = -.57$), dismissing attachment and SE were positively related ($r = .48$). Self-report measure: no significant relationship was found between secure ($r = -.10$) or dismissing ($r = .18$) styles and SE.
Hart et al. (2005)	Yes	239 adults, undergraduate students	143	Not provided	Not provided	141	Cross-sectional	ECR, romantic attachment	Participants rated 16 traits (independent and interdependent) for desirability, and later rated themselves on the same 16 traits, negative	Securely and insecurely attached individuals self-enhanced interdependent traits. Only individuals high on attachment avoidance self-enhanced on independent traits.

(table continues)

Table 3 (cont.).

Author(s)	Published	Participants	Female (n)	Age (M)	Gay or Bisexual (n)	Racial or Ethnic Minority (n)	Design	Attachment Measure	SE measure	General Findings
Schreiber (1999)	No	100 adults, undergraduate students	66	22.48 years	Not provided	30	Cross-sectional	RQ, romantic attachment	SCM, positive	Both secure and dismissing individuals had significantly higher SE than the fearful group.
Trub (2011)	No	150 adults, bloggers	95	37.72 years	18	41	Cross-sectional	ECR, romantic attachment	Personal and Interpersonal Motivations for Blogging, negative	Bloggers high on attachment anxiety reported feeling more motivated by needs for SE ($r = .19$), compared to those with lower attachment anxiety. Motivation for SE and attachment avoidance were not significantly correlated ($r = -.03$).
Vellet (1996)	No	80 adults, mothers of pre-school age children	80	31.64 years	Not provided	4	Cross-sectional	AASQ-R, WABQ, PCSQ, romantic attachment and parent-child attachment	MSEI, negative	Secure attachment to father was positively related to defensive SE (i.e. having an over-inflated view of self).

Note. PAS=Pet Attachment Scale; CAB=Companion Animal Bonding Scale; PRS=Pet Relationship Scale; RAI=Romantic Attachment Interview; RAQ=Romantic Attachment Q-set; ECR=Experiences in Close Relationships inventory; CAQ=California Adult Q-set; RQ=Relationship Questionnaire; SCM=Self-Confrontation Method; AASQ-R=Adult Attachment Style Questionnaire-Revised; WABQ=Waters Attachment Behavior Q-set; PCSQ=Parental Caregiving Style Questionnaire-current revision; MSEI=Multidimensional Self-esteem inventory.

Demographics of Study Samples

All but one study for this literature review used a cross-sectional design, meaning that data was collected at a single time point. The one study that did not use a cross-sectional design was an experiment. In total, there were 3,449 participants. Of these participants, 2,037 (59.1%) were female, 1,404 (40.7%) were male, and 8 (.2%) were not identified by gender or transgender. Only one of the twelve studies provided sexual orientation data (87% heterosexual, 5% gay/lesbian, 7% bisexual, and 2% unsure). Marital status data was provided in two of the studies, with 138 (44.5%) individuals reporting being married or living as such, 160 (51.6%) individuals reporting being single, and 12 (3.9%) individuals reporting being divorced.

Eleven of the twelve studies provided race/ethnicity breakdowns. In total, there were 924 (27.4%) White/Caucasian, 119 (3.5%) Black/African American, 2,194 (64.9%) Asian/Asian American, 29 (.85%) Hispanic, 13 (.38%) Native American, 10 (.30%) other, 23 (.68%) multiracial, 8 (.24%) not reported, and 59 (1.75%) racial/ethnic minority (not specified) participants.

Participants included a large number of families recruited from China—including mothers, fathers, and children between 3rd and 5th grade ($n = 1,911$, or 55.4% of the total sample). Other study populations were undergraduates ($n = 751$; 21.8%), graduate students ($n = 227$; 6.6%), bloggers ($n = 150$; 4.3%), community samples ($n = 330$; 9.6%), and mothers of preschool children ($n = 80$; 2.3%).

Approaches Used to Measure Attachment, Humility, Self-Enhancement, and Modesty

Attachment Style

Researchers used two primary strategies for measuring attachment style in adults: self-report and interview. All of the studies in the present review used at least one self-report measure of attachment. Three of the twelve studies utilized more than one measure of attachment style. Out of 17

total measures used across studies, 9 assessed romantic attachment, 3 assessed attachment to a pet, 3 assessed parent-child attachment, 1 assessed attachment to God, and 1 assessed attachment to college. Self-report measures of romantic attachment included: the Intimate Attachment subscale of the Values in Action Strengths Inventory (VIA-SI; Peterson & Seligman, 2002), Experiences in Close Relationships Inventory (ECR; Hazan & Shaver, 1990), The Relationship Questionnaire (RQ; Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991), Experiences in Close Relationships Scale (ECR; Brennan, Clark, & Shaver, 1998), Adult Attachment Style Questionnaire-Revised (Hazan & Shaver, 1987; Simpson, 1990), and Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised Questionnaire (ECR-R; Fraley, Waller, & Brennan, 2000). Of the attachment measures, the two most commonly utilized were The Relationship Questionnaire (RQ; Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991) and Experiences in Close Relationships Scale (ECR; Brennan, Clark, & Shaver, 1998). Each of these measures was used in two studies. The Experiences in Close Relationships Scale (ECR; Brennan, Clark, & Shaver, 1998) includes 36 items asking respondents to agree or disagree on a 7-point Likert scale with items tapping attachment anxiety (e.g., “I worry about being abandoned,” “I worry that romantic partners will not care about me as much as I care about them”) and avoidance (e.g., “I prefer not to show a partner how I feel deep down,” “I am very comfortable being close to romantic partners” [reverse coded]).

Only one study in the present review used an interview measure of attachment. The interview measure used was The Romantic Attachment Interview (RAI; Cockery & Gjerde, 1989). This interview is semi-structured and has a similar structure to the Adult Attachment Interview (AAI; George, Kaplan, & Main, 1995). However, unlike the AAI, its content is focused more on romantic relationships, including their development, reactions to separation, the nature of recurring romantic conflicts, and emotional investment. Additionally, this interview asks the participant to supply five adjectives that describe their most important romantic relationship and then to recount episodes

illustrating each adjective. The Romantic Attachment Q-set (RAQ; Carlson & Gjerde, 1996) was developed to code the RAI. It is a set of 57 items administered in a Q-set format, based on review of the attachment literature. Themes of the RAQ include accessibility and exploration of attachment-related experiences, affect regulation, correspondence (or contradiction) between adjectives and specific memories, idealization (or derogation) of partner, comfort with closeness, dependency on partner, investment in romantic relationships, compulsive self-reliance, fear of abandonment, and beliefs about partner's psychological availability.

Humility

There are a number of ways to measure humility, including self-report, other-report, social comparison, implicit measure, and behavioral ratings (Davis et al., 2011). All three studies that examined attachment and humility in the present review used self-report measures, including: (a) an unpublished 36 item self-report humility measure (Bollinger, Kopp, Hill, & Williams, 2006), (b) an 18 item self-report measure of dispositional humility (Jankowski, Sandage, & Hill, 2013), and (c) the Asian American Values Scale-Multidimensional (AAVS-M; Kim, Li, & Ng, 2005), which includes a humility subscale. The unpublished 36-item self-report measure (Bollinger, Kopp, Hill & Williams, 2006) includes five factors based on Tangney's (2000, 2009) definition of humility: worldview, appreciation and recognition of limitations, low self-focus, personal finiteness, and accurate assessment of one's self. Items (e.g. "I can honestly assess my strengths and weaknesses") were rated on a 5-point Likert scale.

Modesty

Modesty, like humility, can be measured in a variety of ways. Modesty can be measured

behaviorally, for instance, in the tendency to give public credit to others for success (Miller & Schlenker, 1985). Modesty can also be measured through self-report or other-report, as well as by comparing evaluations of the self to evaluations of others (e.g. the average person) (for a review of modesty measures see Peterson & Seligman, 2004). Of the two studies in the present review that examined modesty, one used a self-report measure and the other used a parent-report measure. The self-report measure utilized was the Values in Action Strength Inventory (VIA-SI, Peterson & Seligman, 2002). The measure consists of 240 items and uses a 5-point Likert response scale. According to the VIA, there are six core virtues: Wisdom and Knowledge, Courage, Love, Justice, Temperance, and Transcendence. Within these core virtues are 24 strengths (10 items per strength). Humility and modesty is a strength that falls under Temperance. It is described as letting one's accomplishments speak for themselves, not seeking the spotlight, and not regarding one's self as more special than one is.

The parent-report measure utilized was Encouragement of Modesty (Wu et al., 2002). This is a four-item measure with a three point Likert response scale (Never, Sometimes, Very Often). Mothers and fathers completed the measure to indicate the extent to which they encouraged their child to be modest. Sample items include, "Discourage child from strongly expressing his/her point of view around others" and "Discourage child from proudly acknowledging compliments or praise from friends or adults."

Self-Enhancement

There are several approaches to measuring self-enhancement, however, much like humility, a gold standard for measurement has remained elusive (Krueger & Wright, 2011). One primary approach has been to measure individual differences in socially desirable responding (SDR) via self-

report questionnaire. Social desirability measures are designed to identify individuals who exaggerate their positive and minimize their negative qualities (an example item would be: “I never swear”). A major concern with these measures is the ability to detect honest responding from self-inflation (Paulhus, 2002). Intrapyschic measures are also popular and are based on the tendency for people to rate themselves more positively than they rate others (Alicke, 1985). Examples of this type of measure include: asking participants to compare themselves with the average person on a variety of traits (Brown, 1986), correlating an individual’s self-ascribed traits with his/her ratings of the desirability of those traits (Krueger, 1998), and calculating the differences between self-ratings and ratings of others (Bond, Kwan, & Li, 2000; Paulhus, Harms, Bruce, & Lysy, 2003). Criterion discrepancy measures are also used to evaluate self-enhancement. There are two categories of criterion discrepancy measures: operational criteria and social consensus. Operational criteria uses a concrete indicator of performance. For instance, intelligence test scores may be used as a criterion for self-rated intelligence (Paulhus, Lysy, & Yik, 1998). Social consensus criteria is based on the assumption that the mean rating of a group of informed observers is the best estimate of social reality (Funder, 1995). The over-claiming technique is another method of measurement, based on the tendency of some individuals to claim knowledge about non-existent things (e.g. “cholarine”) (Phillips & Clancy, 1972).

The majority of studies (five of seven) in the present review evaluated self-enhancement through an intrapsychic measure. For example, one intrapsychic measure asked participants to rate themselves and the average college student on the same 22 personality traits, both positive and negative (e.g., amusing, likable, boring, selfish). Responses ranged from 1 (*not at all characteristic*) to 7 (*completely characteristic*). Half of the participants completed the college student rating prior to the self-rating and the other half completed the rating scales in the reverse order (El-Alayli, Lystad, Webb, Hollingsworth, & Ciolli, 2006). The authors computed a bias for the positive traits as scores for

oneself minus those for the average student. A bias was computed for the negative traits as scores for the average student minus those for oneself. The average of these two scores was then used to compute an overall index of self-enhancement.

One study evaluated self-enhancement via a social desirability questionnaire. The Multi-Dimensional Self-Esteem Inventory (MSEI; O'Brien & Epstein, 1988) measures global self-esteem along with eight components and two unique scales. One of these scales is Defensive Self-Enhancement, meant to differentiate between truly high self-esteem and defensively high self-esteem (due to inflated self-perception). Responses to the measure are made on a 5-point Likert scale designed to assess either the degree to which or frequency with which an item applies to a respondent, from 1 (*completely false or almost never*) to 5 (*completely true or very often*).

One study used a more direct self-report measure of self-enhancement (Trub, 2011). The study evaluated the personal and interpersonal motivations for blogging, one of which was self-enhancement. Self-enhancement was evaluated as part of an eight-item scale that also assessed self-expression and connection to the community/belongingness. The self-enhancement item (i.e. "Blogging helps me feel more popular and interesting"), along with all other items on this scale, were rated on a five point Likert scale ranging from *strongly agree* to *strongly disagree* (Trub, 2011).

Empirical Findings on the Relationship between Attachment and Humility, Self-Enhancement, and Modesty

Overall Relationship

Attachment and humility. Overall, studies assessing attachment and humility tended to find a negative relationship between insecure attachment and humility. Of the three studies measuring attachment style and humility in this literature, one study found a non-significant relationship between insecure attachment and humility (Zhao, 2012), one study found a significant negative relationship

between insecure attachment and humility (Jankowski & Sandage, 2014), and one study reported mixed findings (i.e., one significant negative relationship and one non-significant relationship; Dwiwardani et al., 2014). In regard to type of attachment, studies found non-significant relationships between anxious attachment style and humility (Dwiwardani et al., 2014) as well as attachment to college and humility (Zhao, 2012). Significant negative relationships were found between avoidant attachment style and humility (Dwiwardani et al., 2014) as well as insecure attachment to God and humility (Jankowski & Sandage, 2014).

For example, a study by Dwiwardani et al. (2014) found that avoidant attachment was negatively related to humility ($r = -.19, p < .05$) but anxious attachment was not associated with humility ($r = -.10$). The authors speculated that avoidant attachment may cause people to act in dismissive and condescending ways, especially under stress, which can increase arrogant behavior. On the other hand, anxiously attached individuals may sometimes act in caring, other-oriented ways, albeit driven by needs to regulate their anxiety.

Attachment and modesty. Neither of the two studies that measured attachment and modesty in this literature review reported an effect size that directly examined the relationship between attachment style and modesty. Although these studies included measures of both constructs, the focus of the studies was not on this particular relationship. Thus, at this point, no trends can be determined about the relationship between attachment and modesty.

Attachment and self-enhancement. There were seven studies in this literature review that measured both attachment style and self-enhancement. All of the studies measured multiple attachment styles (e.g. based on a 3 or 4-category model), and several measured attachment style or self-enhancement with more than one measure. Thus, there is more than one finding reported from many of the studies.

Overall, the findings on the association between attachment style and self-enhancement were mixed. Four studies found a significant positive relationship between secure attachment style and self-enhancement; in other words, secure attachment was related to greater self-enhancement (Alford, Lyddon, & Schreiber, 2006; Hart, Shaver, & Goldenberg, 2005; Schreiber, 1999; Vellet, 1996). Five studies noted a significant positive relationship between insecure attachment style and self-enhancement. One found this positive relationship between both anxious and avoidant styles, and self-enhancement (Hart, Shaver, & Goldenberg, 2005). Another found the relationship between anxious attachment and self-enhancement (Trub, 2011), while three of the studies found the significant positive relationship between dismissing attachment style and self-enhancement (Alford, Lyddon, & Schreiber, 2006; Gjerde, Onishi, & Carlson, 2004; Schreiber, 1999).

Only three studies found a non-significant relationship between attachment and self-enhancement: between pet attachment and self-enhancement (El-Alayli et al., 2006), between secure attachment and self-enhancement (Gjerde, Onishi, & Carlson, 2004), and between insecure attachment and self-enhancement—both dismissing and avoidant styles (Gjerde, Onishi, & Carlson, 2004; Trub, 2011). Finally, a single study found a significant negative relationship between secure attachment style and self-enhancement (Gjerde, Onishi, & Carlson, 2004).

Moderators

Definition of self-enhancement. One moderator variable of the relationship between attachment and self-enhancement was how self-enhancement was defined and measured. As noted previously, some researchers view self-enhancement as positive distortions which are adaptive means of maintaining emotional stability and mental health, whereas other researchers emphasize the negative

side of self-enhancement, resulting in things such as self-deception, narcissism, and even aggression (Shaver & Mikulincer, 2010).

In general, when self-enhancement was defined as a positive quality it was positively associated with secure and dismissing attachment styles, both styles that are defined by a positive view of self. In this literature review, two studies defined self-enhancement as a positive trait. In both studies, a significant positive relationship was found between secure attachment style and self-enhancement, as well as dismissing attachment style and self-enhancement (Alford, Lyddon, & Schreiber, 2006; Schreiber, 1999).

On the other hand, when self-enhancement was defined and measured as a negative quality, as it was in the five remaining studies, it was more likely to be positively related to anxious and avoidant attachment styles. In other words, those with an anxious or avoidant attachment style were more likely to self-enhance. This was supported by three studies, finding a significant positive relationship between (a) anxious attachment and self-enhancement (Hart, Shaver, and Goldenberg, 2005; Trub, 2011), (b) avoidant attachment and self-enhancement (Hart, Shaver, and Goldenberg, 2005), as well as a significant negative relationship between (c) secure attachment and self-enhancement (Gjerde, Onishi, & Carlson, 2004). However, even when self-enhancement was measured as a negative quality, the findings were not entirely consistent. For instance, self-enhancement measured as a negative quality was found to be: positively related to secure attachment (Hart, Shaver, & Goldenberg, 2005; Vellet, 1996) and dismissing attachment (Gjerde, Onishi, & Carlson, 2004), and not significantly related to pet attachment (El-Alayli et al., 2006), secure attachment (Gjerde, Onishi, & Carlson, 2004), dismissing attachment (Gjerde, Onishi, & Carlson, 2004), or avoidant attachment (Trub, 2011). The Gjerde et al. (2004) study reported different findings depending on whether attachment was measured by self-report or interview.

For example, in a study by Alford, Lyddon, and Schreiber (2006), self-enhancement was defined as encompassing self-esteem, strength, self-confidence, and pride. Self-enhancement was measured both for the past and the present. In regard to self-enhancement of the past, self-enhancement was significantly higher for securely attached individuals than fearfully attached persons. In regard to self-enhancement of the present, both dismissing and securely attached groups reported significantly higher self-enhancement than the fearful group. The authors concluded that their research supported the theory that self-enhancement is higher for those with positive working models of self.

On the other hand, Trub (2011) defined and measured self-enhancement as a more negative quality. This study examined motivations for blogging, including self-enhancement. A single item was utilized to assess self-enhancement—“Blogging helps me feel more popular and interesting.” The study found that anxiously attached individuals were more likely to be motivated by needs for self-enhancement, compared to those individuals with less anxiety. However, this relationship is not entirely straightforward. Another study (Vellet, 1996) found a positive relationship between self-enhancement (defined as a negative quality) and secure attachment. Female participants in this study reporting a secure attachment style to their fathers while growing up were more likely to defensively self-enhance (i.e. have an over-inflated view of self).

Measurement of attachment style. Although it was not hypothesized, a review of the data revealed that a second moderator of the relationship between attachment style and self-enhancement was the measurement of attachment style. When attachment style was measured via interview, there was a significant relationship between secure and dismissing attachment styles and self-enhancement (secure attachment and self-enhancement were negatively related while dismissing attachment and self-enhancement were positively related). However, when attachment style was measured via self-

report measure, the relationships between secure and dismissing attachment styles and self-enhancement were not significant.

The best example of the moderator effect of attachment measurement was a study by Gjerde, Onishi, and Carlson (2004). The Romantic Attachment Q-set (RAQ), which was developed to code the Romantic Attachment Interview (RAI; Cockery & Gjerde, 1989), was used, as well as the Experiences in Close Relationships Inventory (ECR; Hazan & Shaver, 1990). The authors found that the biggest difference in categorization between interview (RAI/RAQ) and self-report (ECR) methods was in secure and dismissing styles, with interviews identifying more individuals as dismissing (these individuals were being categorized as secure on self-report measures). In total, 14% of participants were identified as dismissing by the RAI/RAQ but secure by the ECR. There was a negative correlation ($r = -.57$; $p < .001$) between RAQ secure attachment and self-enhancement and a positive correlation ($r = .48$; $p < .001$) between RAQ dismissing attachment and self-enhancement. ECR secure attachment was not significantly related to self-enhancement ($r = -.10$), neither was ECR dismissing attachment significantly related to self-enhancement ($r = .18$). Overall, this study suggests that interview measures of attachment style may be more able to detect differences in self-enhancement based on attachment style. This may be due to the fact that the interview measure of attachment appeared to better distinguish secure and dismissing attachment styles. The authors suggest that the self-report measure of attachment style was categorizing some individuals with a dismissing attachment style as secure, therefore diluting the relationship between attachment style and self-enhancement.

Object of attachment. Again, although it was not hypothesized, a third moderator in the relationship between attachment style and humility, as well as attachment style and self-enhancement was the type of attachment relationship being examined. When the attachment relationship was

unorthodox—such as attachment to a pet or college—the relationship between attachment style and humility or self-enhancement was not significant (El-Alayli et al., 2006; Zhao, 2012). For instance, Zhao (2012) examined Asian American and Asian international students' attachment to the college or university they were attending in the United States. The attachment measure utilized, the Student Adaptation to College Questionnaire (SACQ; Baker & Siryk, 1984), included an attachment subscale measuring the student's degree of commitment to the educational-institutional goals and attachment to the college. The study found that attachment was not significantly related to humility ($r = -.06$). Another study (El-Alayli et al., 2006) examined the relationship between pet attachment and self-enhancement. These authors found a non-significant relationship between attachment to one's pet and self-enhancement ($r = .11$).

In contrast, the remaining studies measuring humility ($n = 2$) and self-enhancement ($n = 6$) measured more traditional attachment relationships (e.g. attachment to a romantic partner, parent, or God). All of these studies found a significant relationship between attachment style and humility (Dwiwardani et al., 2014; Jankowski & Sandage, 2014), and attachment style and self-enhancement (Alford, Lyddon, & Schreiber, 2006; Gjerde, Onishi, & Carlson, 2004; Hart, Shaver, & Goldenberg, 2005; Schreiber, 1999; Trub, 2011; Vellet, 1996). For instance, Jankowski and Sandage (2014) measured humility and attachment to God among graduate-level students. These authors found that an insecure attachment to God was significantly negatively related to dispositional humility ($r = -.53$). Another study considered romantic attachment style and motivation for blogging, including self-enhancement (Trub, 2011). This study found that although avoidant attachment was not significantly related to self-enhancement motivation ($r = -.03$), anxious attachment was significantly related to feeling more motivated to blog by the need to self-enhance ($r = .19$).

Discussion

Currently, few studies have examined the relationship between attachment style and humility, self-enhancement, or modesty. The purpose of the present literature review was to describe findings from empirical studies measuring these constructs (attachment and humility, attachment and self-enhancement, or attachment and modesty), outline potential explanations for these findings, and explore areas for future research.

It is important to study the relationship between attachment style and humility as both are associated with relationship functioning. Research has found that secure attachment style and greater humility are each related to more positive relationship outcomes (Feeney, 1999; Van Tongeren et al., 2014). In addition, attachment style--given its significant role in predicting how individuals feel, think, and behave in relationships (Fraley & Shaver, 2000)--may be an important predictor of humility, although this possibility has rarely been studied empirically. To practice humility well, it is expected that individuals must have developed a positive view of self and others, a characteristic of secure attachment. On the intrapersonal dimension, humility involves the ability to have an accurate view of self and an awareness of one's limitations. Securely attached individuals demonstrate acceptance of negative aspects of self (Mikulincer, 1995), while still maintaining an overall positive view of self. Additionally, humility involves having an other-oriented stance. Having an other-oriented stance may be easier for securely attached individuals, who by definition have a positive view of others, believing others to be trustworthy and reliable (Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994).

I hypothesized that securely attached individuals would be more humble, more modest, and less self-enhancing. However, self-enhancement has been variously defined by researchers as both a positive quality, representing self-esteem and a healthy sense of pride, and a negative quality, representing self-deception. Therefore, I anticipated that the way in which self-enhancement was

defined and measured would moderate the relationship between attachment style and self-enhancement, such that those individuals defined by a positive view of self—secure and dismissing—would be expected to self-enhance more when self-enhancement was positively defined. On the other hand, participants with insecure attachment styles—*anxious* and *avoidant*—would be expected to self-enhance more when self-enhancement was negatively defined.

Results from the literature review supported the hypothesized relationship between attachment style and humility—there was a negative relationship between insecure attachment and humility. Unfortunately, the studies examining modesty did not report the relationship between attachment style and modesty, as this relationship was not the primary focus in either study.

Results from the studies measuring attachment style and self-enhancement were mixed. Upon first glance, four of the studies found a significant positive relationship between secure attachment and self-enhancement, five studies found a significant positive relationship between insecure attachment and self-enhancement, and three studies found a non-significant relationship between (at least) one attachment style and self-enhancement. Finally, a single study found a significant negative relationship between secure attachment and self-enhancement. Results became clearer when considering the way in which self-enhancement was measured (i.e., as a positive or negative quality). In this literature review, two studies defined self-enhancement as a positive trait. As expected, both studies found a significant positive relationship between secure attachment style and self-enhancement, as well as dismissing attachment style and self-enhancement (Alford, Lyddon, & Schreiber, 2006; Schreiber, 1999).

Self-enhancement was defined and measured as a negative quality in the five remaining studies. Two of these studies found a significant positive relationship between *anxious* attachment and self-enhancement (Hart, Shaver, and Goldenberg, 2005; Trub, 2011) and *avoidant* attachment and self-

enhancement (Hart, Shaver, and Goldenberg, 2005), as hypothesized. However, the findings were not entirely consistent, even when self-enhancement was measured as a negative quality.

Limitations

There were several limitations of the present review. First, a major limitation of the literature review was that relatively few empirical studies have been conducted in this area. In fact, only twelve empirical studies were found which explore attachment and humility ($n = 3$), self-enhancement ($n = 7$) or modesty ($n = 2$). This is such a small number of studies that the findings from the present review must be interpreted with caution. Additionally, neither study measuring modesty reported an effect size of the relationship between modesty and attachment, as this was not the primary relationship of interest in either study. Thus, I cannot make conclusions about the relationship between attachment style and modesty.

Second, an additional concern of this set of studies concerns the types of research designs utilized. Namely, only one used an experimental design. The vast majority of studies were cross-sectional, meaning that the results provide a “snapshot” of how the variables relate but cannot inform how the relationship between them may change over time. Additionally, cross-sectional studies cannot provide information on causality. Although the findings were consistent with my theoretical model (e.g., attachment style leading to higher levels of humility), there may be other models that fit the findings from this literature review as well.

Third, a significant limitation of this review is the lack of research examining potential mediators and moderators of the relationship between attachment and humility, self-enhancement, or modesty. Thus, although it appears that there is a relationship between these variables, little is known about the mechanisms by which attachment style may influence humility, modesty, and self-

enhancement. Further, three variables were found to moderate the relationship between attachment and humility, modesty, and self-enhancement, but there may be others. Based on results from these studies, I have suggested several potential mediators and moderators (see Areas for Future Research).

Fourth, a noteworthy issue found throughout the studies in this literature review was the difficulty in measuring humility, self-enhancement, and modesty. Thus far, no gold standard for measuring these constructs exists. A major concern with many of the current measures is the ability to detect honest responding from self-inflation (Paulhus, 2002). For instance, self-report measures of humility may be subject to the “modesty effect,” meaning that individuals who are truly humble may actually underreport their humility. Conversely, narcissistic individuals may self-enhance a great deal, significantly over-reporting their actual level of humility (Davis, Worthington, & Hook, 2010). Another example of measurement issues relates to measuring self-enhancement through social desirability measures. These measures are intended to identify individuals who exaggerate their positive qualities and minimize their negative qualities (e.g. “I never swear”). While most people can be expected to swear, at least on the rare occasion, it is certainly possible that some individuals truly do not swear. Thus, these people may appear to be self-enhancing when they are in fact responding honestly.

Another possible measurement issue in the present set of studies involves attachment style. All but one study in this review utilized self-report measures of attachment style. However, it is possible that attachment categorization may differ based on the measure used. One study noted that the biggest difference in categorization between interview and self-report methods was in secure and dismissing styles. In total, 14% of participants were identified as dismissing by the interview measure but secure by the self-report measure (Gjerde, Onishi, & Carlson, 2004). Importantly, for the purposes of the present review, one study that utilized both an interview measure of attachment as well as a self-report

measure of attachment found that the correlations between attachment style and self-enhancement were stronger when using the interview measure of attachment. I hesitate to make firm conclusions on the results of one study, but if these results generalize, it may indicate that the other studies in the present review, which used self-report measures of attachment style, may actually underreport the correlations between attachment style and humility, modesty, and self-enhancement.

Areas for Future Research

Given the scarcity of studies currently examining the relationships between attachment and humility, self-enhancement, and modesty, there are several exciting opportunities for future research.

1. I found initial evidence for three potential moderators: (a) how self-enhancement is defined and measured (i.e., whether it is conceptualized as a negative or positive trait); (b) how attachment style is measured (i.e., whether via interview or self-report); and (c) the object of attachment (i.e., whether it is more traditional, such as a romantic partner, parent, God, or whether it is unorthodox, such as a pet or college). However, the evidence for these moderators is minimal due to the lack of studies exploring these moderator variables. Future research should continue to explore these moderator variables. Also, there may be additional moderator variables of the relationship between attachment style and humility, modesty, and self-enhancement, such as culture (collectivistic vs. individualistic), gender, and age.

2. It is necessary to explore possible mediators of the attachment style-humility relationship.

Although studies suggest that attachment style and humility are related, there may be variables which mediate this relationship, such as relationship satisfaction, commitment to the relationship, and mental health variables (e.g. depression, anxiety).

3. My original theorizing about why it might be important to explore the relationship between attachment style and humility focused on the importance of both constructs for relationship outcomes.

However, although attachment style and humility have each been shown to be associated with relationship outcomes in individual studies, research is needed to examine attachment style, humility, and relationship outcomes in the same study.

4. Additional studies are needed to measure these constructs using an experimental or longitudinal design. The vast majority of studies in the present review used correlational designs, making conclusions about causality necessarily tentative. Using experimental or longitudinal designs will help to provide more information about causal relationships and how the relationship between two constructs (e.g., attachment and humility) may change over time.

5. As noted previously, one study in the literature review (Gjerde, Onishi, & Carlson, 2004) compared interview and self-report measures of attachment style and noted differences in categorization of secure and dismissing attachment styles between the two methods. Further research is needed to compare these two methods of measuring attachment.

6. Existing measures of humility, self-enhancement, and modesty suffer from validity concerns. With the self-report versions of these measures, it is difficult to determine if an individual's responses are honest or reflect a response bias that researchers have labeled the "modesty effect." Future research should attempt to conduct studies using various types of measures (i.e., self-report, other-report, behavioral measure) for these constructs.

Clinical Implications

Based on findings from the present literature review, there are several implications for clinical practice. These implications may be particularly relevant to couples' counseling, especially in cases where couples are attempting to deal more effectively with conflict.

To briefly review, each adult attachment style is associated with a specific pattern of interpersonal behavior and emotion regulation during times of threat or distress (Mikulincer, Shaver, & Pereg, 2003). Securely attached individuals seek proximity to attachment figures, and are comfortable with the availability of supportive others (Mikulincer, Shaver, & Pereg, 2003). However, insecurely attached individuals rely on secondary attachment strategies (Cassidy & Kobak, 1988; Cassidy & Berlin, 1994; Main, 1990) to attain a sense of security. These strategies include energetic attempts to attain greater proximity, support, and protection combined with a lack of confidence that the support and protection will be provided (i.e., anxious attachment) (Crittenden, 1992, 1997) or inhibiting proximity-seeking behavior, denial of attachment needs, maintaining emotional and cognitive distance from others, and over-reliance on the self (i.e., avoidant attachment) (Cassidy & Kobak, 1988; Cassidy & Berlin, 1994; Main, 1990).

Strategies used by insecurely attached individuals to achieve felt security in a romantic relationship have potential negative consequences for relationship functioning. For instance, those high on attachment anxiety may become clinging or controlling, while those high on avoidance may emphasize self-reliance and independence during times of distress (Mikulincer, Shaver, & Pereg, 2003). For example, avoidant individuals may become more self-focused and less concerned with the relationship and their partner, in other words, these individuals may demonstrate low interpersonal humility. Those with anxious attachment may attempt to appear more desirable to a partner (through bragging, etc.), in an effort to prevent the partner from leaving the relationship (i.e., high self-enhancement, low modesty, and/or low intrapersonal humility).

Therefore, if a couple is struggling with humility, self-enhancement, or modesty, it would be important for the clinician to assess attachment style of each partner. If one or both partners is insecurely attached, a referral for individual therapy may be warranted. Research suggests that the

client-therapist relationship contains qualities of an attachment relationship and that the therapist may act as an attachment figure for the client. Thus, therapy may facilitate clients' attachment security through deconstruction and reappraisal of their internal working models of self and others (Mallinckrodt, 2000; Slade, 2008). It has been suggested that the therapeutic relationship may provide a corrective emotional experience for the client (Dozier, Cue, & Barrett, 1994; Bernier & Dozier, 2002; Slade, 2008). It is necessary to look for signals that the client is attempting to act out an insecure relationship with the therapist. The therapist may be cued into this possibility if the client is self-enhancing or lacks humility in the relationship with the therapist. It is important for the therapist to not be drawn into the insecure attachment pattern that the client anticipates in his/her relationships.

With clients seeking interpersonal distance, the therapist may attempt to increase their awareness of emotional processes and deepen their emotional engagement in therapy. Conversely, for clients coming across as needy and emotionally-dependent, the therapist may work to help increase clients' sense of autonomy and self-efficacy. In short, a corrective emotional experience may be accomplished by simply not taking part in the insecure attachment relationship a client is expecting and pulling for from the therapist (Skourteli & Lennie, 2011).

Research shows that securely attached individuals are more confident in their ability to manage/regulate their emotions, while those who are insecurely attached have been shown to struggle with emotion dysregulation and, subsequently, symptoms of anxiety and depression (Cooper, Rowe, Penton-Voak, & Ludwig, 2009; Mickelson, Kessler, & Shaver, 1997; Marganska, Gallagher, & Miranda, 2013; Tasca et al., 2009). Thus, a clinician can strive to help an insecurely attached client learn to better regulate their emotions and cope with distress in times of conflict. Emotion regulation is defined as the repertoire of strategies that an individual uses to enhance or suppress their emotional experience (Gross, 1998). Techniques such as cognitive reappraisal—working to shift thoughts

regarding a future event to neutralize its expected negative impact or enhance its positive impact—may be useful in this endeavor. Indeed, cognitive reappraisal is associated with lower negative affect and better interpersonal functioning (Gross & John, 2003). Another possibility is for clients to utilize mindfulness training and practice nonjudgmental acceptance of emotions (Chambers, Gullone, & Allen, 2009).

To target humility directly, the therapist may encourage relationship partners to identify instances in which they or their partner put the relationship first and sacrificed for each other, thereby promoting an other-oriented stance. Partners may benefit from discussing their needs and working together to formulate ways to meet each other's needs. In helping couples work on the intrapersonal aspect of humility (accurate view of self), it may be useful to have each individual identify a time when they were in the wrong, followed by giving their partner an apology in a non-defensive manner. The therapist could also provide psycho-education regarding the relationship between attachment style and humility, as well as the associations between attachment style and relationship functioning (i.e. insecure attachment is related to less satisfaction in romantic relationships) and humility and relationship functioning (humility is related to positive relationship outcomes) (Collins & Feeney, 2004; Collins & Read, 1990; Van Tongeren et al., 2014).

Conclusion

This literature review indicated that attachment style is related to both humility and self-enhancement. While findings regarding the specific relationship between attachment style and self-enhancement are mixed, insecure attachment appears to be associated with lower levels of humility. These findings may be especially pertinent to couples' counseling as clinicians can help clients to become more securely attached and increase humility. This area of research is still very new and

future work is greatly needed to enhance the understanding of how attachment style and humility are related, as well as how these variables influence relationship outcomes.

CHAPTER 3

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The period of emerging adulthood is a transitional stage from adolescence to adulthood that often occurs in the context of college (e.g. 57% of young adults between 25 and 29 years old have attended some college; Stoops, 2004). The formation of an intimate romantic relationship is an important developmental task among young adults, and most individuals during this phase of life begin serious dating relationships and strive to establish and maintain a romantic relationship (Arnett, 2000; Erikson, 1968).

Accordingly, dating and involvement in a romantic relationship are common experiences for college students. One study found that in a sample of 197 female undergraduates, primarily in their freshman or sophomore year, 70.6% reported casually dating during college (i.e., had done something as a 'couple,' but the 'couple' had not established a romantic relationship). Further, 74.6% of the women reported romantic relationship involvement during college (i.e., a committed relationship between two people). Research also shows that romantic relationships constitute an important part of the everyday lives of college students (Gable, Reis, Impett, & Asher, 2004). Romantic relationships have been characterized by undergraduates as reflecting exclusivity, trust, and commitment that can afford an emotional attachment between relationship partners (Banker, Kaestle, & Allen, 2010). Further, many college students report being satisfied with their romantic relationships (Cramer, 2004) and consider their romantic involvements the closest relationships they have (Berscheid, Snyder, & Omoto, 1989).

Involvement in a satisfying romantic relationship is among the most powerful predictors of happiness and both mental and physical health (Cohen, Underwood, & Gottlieb, 2000). Research has documented that involvement in a satisfying romantic relationship is associated with happiness, or

subjective well-being, across the lifespan (see Keyes & Waterman, 2003 for a review). In support of this, one study found that among undergraduate students involved in a romantic relationship, the quality of their relationship with the romantic partner, as well as conflict with the partner, significantly predicted happiness (in contrast, the quality of one's friendships for those involved in a romantic relationship did not significantly predict happiness; Demir, 2010).

Research has demonstrated that being married is associated with better physical (Lillard & Waite, 1995) and mental health outcomes (Coombs, 1991; Simon, 2002), compared to being single. Similarly, college students in committed romantic relationships experience fewer mental health problems—such as alcohol use, depression, anxiety, and stress—than their single peers (Braithwaite, Delevi, & Fincham, 2010). Furthermore, research has found that undergraduate students who had been involved in a love relationship reported attainment of higher levels of self-actualization, or self-fulfillment, than those students who had never experienced a love relationship (Dietch, 1978).

Although the benefits of a satisfying romantic relationship are well supported, it is also clear that close relationships are a context ripe for conflict. Not all romantic relationships are satisfying, and many college students are wronged by romantic partners. Transgressions that occur within romantic relationships of college students include infidelity (Sheppard, Nelson, & Andreoli-Mathie, 1995), courtship violence (Roark, 1987), date rape (Koss, Dinero, & Seibel, 1988), psychological abuse (Raymond & Bruschi, 1989), and unwanted relationship dissolution (Hill, Rubin, & Peplau, 1976). Those who have been wronged by romantic partners may experience significant emotional difficulties, such as maladaptive feelings of anger and hostility, which are associated with physical health problems (Barefoot, Dahlstrom, & Williams, 1983). Conflicts are a major source of negative feelings that have the potential to disrupt a relationship (Fincham, 2000). Conflicts may induce stress and negatively impact health. Chronic relationship stress can compromise mental and physical health (Robles,

Slatcher, Trombello, & McGinn, 2013; Ruiz, Hamann, Coyne, & Compare, 2006). As noted by Berry and Worthington (2001), individuals who were asked to reflect on a relationship they rated as extremely or fairly unhappy showed acute stress reactions (i.e., increased cortisol production) and reported having more mental health difficulties.

Considering these findings, it is important to explore the variables that contribute to positive romantic relationships. For example, past research has shown that relationship quality and stability are associated with similarities in partners' values and interests, shared goals, higher commitment and lower relational uncertainty (Avivi, Laurenceau, & Carver, 2009; Hill, Rubin, & Peplau, 1976; Weigel, Brown, & O'Riordan, 2011). The purpose of the present study is to investigate how adult attachment style and humility may influence relationship satisfaction in college couples.

Attachment Style

Attachment style refers to the propensity of individuals to form affectional bonds with significant others (Bowlby, 1980). An individual's attachment style develops from a particular history of attachment experiences, especially with early caregivers (Fraley & Shaver, 2000). During infancy, parents, grandparents and caregivers are likely to serve as attachment figures. However, when individuals transition into adolescence and adulthood, others take on the role of attachment figure, including romantic partners (Fraley & Davis, 1997; Hazan & Zeifman, 1999). Three types of situations tend to activate the attachment system during a relationship (Kobak & Duemmler, 1994): (a) fear-provoking situations, (b) challenging situations, and (c) conflictual interactions.

Various methods of conceptualizing attachment have been proposed. One of these is a three-category model (Ainsworth et al., 1978), consisting of secure, avoidant, and anxious-ambivalent attachment styles. Individuals with a secure attachment style find it easy to trust others, are

emotionally open, and feel confident about receiving support from others. Individuals with an anxious-ambivalent attachment style feel uncertain about being loved, doubt their self-worth, and worry about being supported by attachment figures. Individuals with an avoidant attachment style rely heavily on the self and try not to seek support or protection from attachment figures (Shaver & Mikulincer, 2010).

In addition to the three-category model, a four-category model of attachment has been developed (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991) based on two dimensions: model of self (i.e., attachment anxiety) and model of others (i.e., attachment avoidance). Secure attachment reflects supportive and responsive interactions with caregivers, resulting in internalized positive models of self and others. An insecure attachment style is formed when one or more caregivers are insensitive or unresponsive, resulting in a negative internal working model, of self, others, or both. The preoccupied attachment style involves a negative model of self and a positive model of others. The fearful attachment style involves a negative model of both self and others. The dismissing attachment style involves a positive model of self and a negative model of others.

An individual's attachment style influences the ways in which he or she deals with threats and distress (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007). In times of distress, securely attached individuals seek proximity to attachment figures. However, insecurely attached individuals rely on secondary attachment strategies (Cassidy & Kobak, 1988; Cassidy & Berlin, 1994; Main, 1990). Those high on attachment anxiety rely on hyperactivating strategies in an effort to regulate distress. These strategies involve energetic attempts to attain greater proximity, support, and protection combined with a lack of confidence that the support and protection will be provided. These individuals have learned that attachment figures are inconsistently available, and in times of distress they may utilize both aggressive/threatening behavior and coy/seductive behavior in an effort to get their needs met

(Crittenden, 1992, 1997). Those high on attachment avoidance rely on deactivating strategies during times of distress. These strategies are associated with inhibiting proximity-seeking behavior, denial of attachment needs, maintaining emotional and cognitive distance from others, and over-reliance on the self (Cassidy & Kobak, 1988; Cassidy & Berlin, 1994; Main, 1990).

As a result of insecurely attached individuals' difficulties finding a healthy balance between autonomy and closeness in romantic relationships, they are likely to experience lower levels of relationship satisfaction (Mikulincer, 2006; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007). Indeed, research has found consistent links between attachment style and romantic relationship outcomes. For example, a longitudinal study by Holland, Fraley, and Roisman (2012) found that individuals reporting higher levels of attachment anxiety described their relationships as being of lower quality and were also rated by observers as interacting less positively with their partners. Insecure attachment has also been found to be associated with less satisfaction in romantic relationships (Collins & Feeney, 2004; Collins & Read, 1990) and greater conflict during couple interactions (Campbell et al., 2005). Insecure attachment predicts more negative beliefs about love, less empathy, and a tendency to evaluate one's own and others' behavior more harshly (i.e., harsh attributional bias) (Hazan & Shaver, 1987; Feeney, Noller, & Callan, 1994).

Given that insecurely attached individuals tend to question their partner's availability, they are more inclined to encounter struggles with romantic commitment (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007). In particular, anxiously-attached individuals may intrusively seek out higher levels of commitment and express greater desire to commit to a partner and fall in love. On the other hand, avoidant-attached individuals are more likely to reported lower desires for commitment and falling in love, as well as fewer experiences of romantic commitment (Hazan & Shaver, 1987; Mikulincer & Erev, 1991; Morgan & Shaver, 1999; Pistole, Clark, & Tubbs, 1995; Schindler, Fagundes, & Murdock, 2010). In a

study conducted with college students in the U.S. and Hong Kong, the negative relationship between attachment avoidance and relationship satisfaction was mediated by personal commitment (i.e., internally-based choice to remain in a relationship, focused on relational rewards; Ho et al., 2012). Other research with a college population has found that approach and avoidance commitment goals (i.e., desire to continue a relationship to maintain its inherent benefits and desire to continue a relationship to avoid potential losses, respectively; Strachman & Gable, 2006) partially mediate the relationship between attachment insecurity and relationship satisfaction (Dandurand, Bouaziz, & Lafontaine, 2013).

In conclusion, securely attached adults, as compared to insecurely attached individuals, evidence more satisfying and well-functioning intimate relationships (Feeney, 1999 for a review) and are more willing to remain in a relationship and work through conflicts (Lawler-Row, Younger, Piferi, & Jones, 2006).

Humility

With the rise of positive psychology, research has rapidly accelerated on some virtues such as forgiveness (Fehr, Gelfand, & Nag, 2010) and gratitude (Emmons & McCullough, 2003). In contrast, scholarship on humility has developed more slowly, likely due to problems with defining and measuring this construct (Davis, Worthington, & Hook, 2010). For example, although humility researchers have reached some level of consensus about what intrapersonal characteristics comprise humility (i.e., having an accurate view of self), there is less agreement on the interpersonal qualities that make up the construct. Related to this point, there is disagreement about which characteristics are essential to humility and which characteristics are correlative (i.e., downstream byproducts) to humility.

Researchers generally agree that humility is not simply the absence of negative traits such as narcissism, conceit, or arrogance (Tangney, 2005), but must also include the presence of positive traits (Davis, Worthington, & Hook, 2010). Humility is defined as having a moderate or accurate view of self, acknowledging limitations, openness to new ideas, perspective of abilities and accomplishments in relation to the big picture, low self-focus, and valuing of all things (for a review of definitions, see Davis, Worthington, & Hook, 2010). Humble people are expected to be less likely to distort information to make themselves feel better (i.e., to self-enhance) (Peterson & Seligman, 2004). Definitions of humility also address interpersonal qualities, such as the presence of empathy, gentleness, respect, equality, and valuing of others and the absence of controllingness (Sandage, 1999). Humility is thought to involve gratitude, sharing the spotlight, acknowledging mistakes, openness to ideas of other people and cultures, surrender and obedience to God and the transcendent, and moderation of praise and recognition in socially acceptable ways (Davis et al., 2010).

Recently, studies have begun to examine humility in the context of relationships (e.g., Davis et al., 2011; Davis et al., 2013). Research has demonstrated a strong link between humility and positive relationship outcomes. For instance, humility is related to a number of pro-social qualities, such as helpfulness (LaBouff et al., 2012), generosity (Exline & Hill, 2012), and the ability to receive help from others (Exline, 2012). These findings highlight that humility involves expressing other-oriented, positive emotions and behaviors, which may help to set the stage for satisfying relationships. Indeed, a positive association has been found between humility and social relationship quality, defined as the degree to which one is happy or satisfied with social relationship partners (Peters, Rowatt, & Johnson, 2011). The constructs of relational humility and commitment share many important features, such as willingness to sacrifice personal desires for the benefit of the relationship (i.e., other-oriented stance; Sandage, 1999; Van Lange et al., 1997). Indeed, a recent study found that level of commitment

mediates the relationship between perception of a partner's humility and relationship satisfaction (Farrell et al., 2015). In the context of romantic relationships, humility has been linked to positive relationship outcomes, and humility has been found to be an important characteristic to consider when selecting a potential mate (Van Tongeren et al., 2014). In addition, humility is theorized to help repair social bonds when they have been damaged by conflict (Davis et al., 2011). Regulating egoistic motives and being other-oriented, humble individuals are expected to be able to prioritize the relationship and their partner, rather than their own interests and desires (Yovetich & Rusbult, 1994).

Relationship between Attachment Style and Humility

Attachment style—given its significant role in predicting how individuals feel, think, and behave in relationships (Fraley & Shaver, 2000)—may be an important predictor of humility, although this possibility has rarely been studied empirically. Attachment security allows an individual to feel that their relationships provide a secure base for exploring the environment, taking risks, and gaining new experiences (Ainsworth, 1979). Knowing that one has others to rely on in times of distress is an important component of the attachment system (Bowlby, 1980). Dwiwardani et al. (2014) suggest that attachment security provides a foundation for practicing virtues, such as humility. To practice humility well, it is expected that individuals must have developed a positive view of self and others, a characteristic of secure attachment. On the intrapersonal dimension, humility involves the ability to have an accurate view of self and an awareness of one's limitations. Securely attached individuals demonstrate acceptance of negative aspects of self (Mikulincer, 1995), while still maintaining an overall positive view of self. Relatedly, these individuals have been found to have higher self-esteem than insecurely attached individuals (Bylsma, Cozzarelli, & Sumer, 1997; Mickelson, Kessler, & Shaver, 1997). Additionally, humility involves having an other-oriented stance. Having an other-

oriented stance may be easier for securely attached individuals, who by definition have a positive view of others, believing others to be trustworthy and reliable (Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994).

Only three studies have been identified that specifically measured both attachment style and humility, as well as the relationship between these variables (see Chapter 2). Overall, these studies found a negative relationship between insecure attachment and humility. In other words, the more insecurely attached an individual was, the less humility he or she demonstrated. Studies found non-significant relationships between anxious attachment style and humility (Dwiwardani et al., 2014) as well as attachment to college and humility (Zhao, 2012). However, significant negative relationships were found between avoidant attachment style and humility (Dwiwardani et al., 2014) as well as insecure attachment to God and humility (Jankowski & Sandage, 2014).

Present Study

The overall goal of the present study is to further explore the relationships between attachment style, humility, and romantic relationship outcomes in a sample of college students. I have five primary aims. The first aim of the present study is to further investigate the relationship between adult attachment style and humility. Based on theory and findings from previous research, I hypothesize that (a) both attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance will be significant negative predictors of total humility, (b) attachment anxiety, but not attachment avoidance, will be a significant negative predictor of intrapersonal humility, and (c) attachment avoidance, but not attachment anxiety, will be a significant negative predictor of interpersonal humility. The second aim of the present study is to explore how attachment style and humility work together to predict relationship satisfaction in couples. I hypothesize that humility will mediate the negative relationship between attachment anxiety, attachment avoidance, and relationship satisfaction. The third aim in this study is to examine how a

target person's relationship satisfaction is influenced by: (a) their partner's attachment style, and (b) perception of his/her partner's level of humility. The fourth aim is to consider the role of commitment in mediating: (a) the relationship between attachment style and relationship satisfaction, and (b) perception of a partner's level of humility and relationship satisfaction. Finally, the fifth aim is to examine whether the relationship between attachment style and humility differ between men and women (i.e., gender as a moderator).

The few empirical studies that have examined attachment style and humility have had some notable methodological limitations, which I will address in my dissertation. First, there are only three empirical studies that have measured attachment style and humility and reported on the relationship between the two constructs. None of these studies included a measure of relationship satisfaction. The present study will add to the small group of studies that have examined the relationship between attachment style and humility, and will also directly measure relationship satisfaction.

Second, none of the three studies tested for mediators or moderators of the relationship between attachment, humility, and relationship satisfaction. The current study will directly test whether humility mediates the relationship between attachment style and relationship satisfaction. It will also explore the role of gender as a moderator of the relationship between attachment style and humility.

Third, all the existing studies used self-report measures of humility. This type of measure may be subject to the "modesty effect," meaning that individuals who are truly humble may actually underreport their humility. Conversely, narcissistic individuals may self-enhance a great deal, significantly over-reporting their actual level of humility (Davis, Worthington, & Hook, 2010). The current study will attempt to deal with this issue by collecting self-report, informant rating (other-report), and a more objective measure of self-enhancement/humility (the over-claiming questionnaire; Paulhus & Bruce, 1990). Not only will this avoid a potential modesty effect, but examination of the

difference between self-report, other-report, and the objective measure will allow me to empirically test whether the modesty effect exists.

CHAPTER 4

METHOD

Participants

The participants recruited for this study were college students involved in a romantic, committed, dating relationship for six months or longer. A total of 118 heterosexual couples from a large university town in the Southwestern United States took part in the study. Couples had been involved in a committed romantic relationship for a minimum of six months ($M = 21.57$ months; $SD = 16.86$ months). The gender of participants was approximately 50% male and 50% female, with less than 1% identifying as “other” for gender. Participants ranged in age from 18-40 years ($M = 21.23$; $SD = 3.56$). In regards to ethnicity, 28% identified as Hispanic/Latino, 71.6% identified as Not Hispanic, and less than 1% of data for this variable was missing. The majority of participants in this study were White/Caucasian (65.1%), and the remaining participants identified as Other (11.9%), Multiracial (8.9%), Black (8.5%), Asian (4.7%), American Indian/Alaska Native (<1%) and Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander (<1%). The majority of participants in this study identified as Christian (44.1%), and the remaining participants identified as Agnostic (24.6%), Other (16.1%), Atheist (10.6%), Jewish (2.1%), Muslim (1.3%), and Buddhist (<1%).

Design

This study utilized a cross-sectional, correlational design.

Procedure

Couples were recruited via flyers and an online system for undergraduate research participation. If couples were eligible based on screening criteria (dating six months or longer, each at

least 18 years-old, not married), they were invited to take part in the study. Before beginning the study, participants read an informed consent form and indicated their consent. If participants agreed to participate, they completed a series of questionnaires regarding their current romantic relationship. After completing the questionnaires, participants were debriefed and given the contact information of the researcher should they have any questions or concerns. Participants were compensated for their time and effort with a small amount of course credit and/or a gift card. All study procedures were approved by the university's IRB (Institutional Review Board).

Measures

Demographic and Relationship History Questionnaires

An 18-item demographic questionnaire was utilized to gather information regarding participants' gender, race, and age, among others. Additionally, participants completed a brief, 7-item measure with questions pertaining to the length of their current relationship, number of previous romantic relationships, and likelihood of breaking up with their current partner in the future, among others.

Measures of Humility and Self-Enhancement

Relational Humility Scale—Self and Partner Report Versions (RHS; Davis et al., 2011)

Two versions of the RHS were utilized for this study—the first involved reporting perceived humility of one's romantic partner, and the second was a self-report of humility. In this way, each participant reported their own humility as well as their partner's level of humility. The RHS is a 16-item measure that is completed using a 5-point rating scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*). Items are scored such that higher scores represent greater humility. The scale has 3 subscales:

Global Humility (e.g., “He/she has a humble character”), Superiority (“He/she thinks of him/herself too highly”), and Self-Awareness (“He/she knows him/herself well”). Scores on the RHS show evidence of internal consistency, with Cronbach’s alphas for the full scale ranging from .90 to .95. Additionally, the RHS shows evidence of construct validity, with total scores on the RHS significantly related to un-forgiveness ($r = -.49$), avoidance ($r = -.50$), revenge ($r = -.35$), empathy ($r = .49$), warmth-based virtues ($r = .63$), conscientiousness-based virtues ($r = .60$), positive emotions ($r = .57$), and negative emotions ($r = -.41$) (Davis et al., 2011). For the current sample, the Cronbach’s alpha for the RHS total score (self-report) was .82, while the Cronbach’s alpha for the RHS total score (other-report) was .86.

The Over-Claiming Questionnaire (OCQ-150; Paulhus & Bruce, 1990)

The OCQ-150 was utilized in this study as a self-report measure of self-enhancement. On the OCQ-150, respondents rated their familiarity with 150 items broken down into the 10 categories, including historical names and events, fine arts, language, books and poems, authors and characters, social science and law, physical sciences, life sciences, popular culture, and current consumer products. Each item is rated on a 5-point scale ranging from 0 = *never heard of it* to 4 = *very familiar*. Within each category, 3 of every 15 items are foils; that is, they do not actually exist. Hence, any degree of claimed knowledge about them constitutes over-claiming. The foils were created to appear to be plausible members of the same category as the 12 real items. On the total of 150 items, then, a respondent could falsely claim knowledge 30 foil items distributed over a variety of topics. For example, in the Physical Sciences category, real items include asteroid, photon, and satellite, while foil items are cholarine, ultra-lipid, and plates of parallax. A series of studies with the OCQ has demonstrated that the accuracy index predicts verbal IQ scores in the .40-.60 range (Paulhus & Harms,

2004). Additionally, the exaggeration index has been found to correlate moderately (.25-.38) with trait self-enhancement measures such as narcissism and self-deceptive enhancement (Paulhus et al., 2003). Reasonable alpha values have been found for both accuracy and bias indices (.70-.94) (see Paulhus, 2012 for a review of psychometric properties). For this study, the Cronbach's alpha for the OCQ was .97.

Measures of Adult Attachment Style

Experiences in Close Relationships (ECR; Brennan, Clark, & Shaver, 1998)

The ECR is a 36-item, self-report scale consisting of two 18-item subscales, Anxiety and Avoidance. Responses are on a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 = *disagree strongly* to 7 = *agree strongly*. The measure was constructed following an exploratory factor analysis of 323 items derived from almost all other self-report adult romantic attachment measures, supporting the content validity of the ECR. Scores on each dimension can fall into one of four clusters, mirroring the four attachment patterns described by Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991). The two scales (Anxiety and Avoidance) are nearly uncorrelated ($r = .11$), suggesting that the measure captures two separate, underlying dimensions of adult attachment. Original alpha scores for both the avoidance ($\alpha = .94$) and anxiety ($\alpha = .91$) subscales indicate high reliability of the measure (Brennan, Clark, & Shaver, 1998; Parker, Johnson, & Ketting, 2011). Sample items include: "I prefer not to show a partner how I feel deep down" and "I worry about being alone." For the current sample, the Cronbach's alpha for attachment anxiety was .91, for attachment avoidance it was .89, and for the total ECR it was .89.

Measures of Relationship Satisfaction/Quality and Commitment

Perceived Relationship Quality Components (PRQC; Fletcher, Simpson, & Thomas, 2000)

Relationship quality was measured using the PRQC, an 18-item self-report questionnaire measuring six aspects of relationship quality (relationship satisfaction, commitment, intimacy, trust, passion, and love). Participants are asked to rate items regarding their romantic relationship (e.g. “How devoted are you to your relationship?” “How much can you count on your partner?”) on a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 = *not at all* to 7 = *extremely*. The PRQC has been found to have good factor validity with the confirmatory fit index above .90 (Fletcher, Simpson, & Thomas, 2000), which is considered to be sufficiently high to evidence a good fit with previously validated measures (Bentler & Wu, 1995). The PRQC is also shown to have good internal consistency with alphas ranging from .85 to .88 (Fletcher, Simpson, & Thomas, 2000). In this study, the total PRQC scale was found to have a Cronbach’s alpha value of .90.

The Revised Commitment Inventory (RCI; Owen, Rhoades, Stanley, & Markman, 2011)

Commitment was measured by the Revised Commitment Inventory (RCI), which was developed using dyadic confirmatory factor analysis on the Commitment Inventory (Stanley & Markman, 1992). The revised inventory is designed for use with un-married couples and includes 25 items among six constraint subscales (Social Pressure, Available Alternative Partners, Alternative Financial Status, Concern for Partner Welfare, Termination Procedures, and Structural Investments) and one dedication subscale. Sample items include, “My family really wants this relationship to work” (Social Pressure) and “My relationship with my partner is clearly part of my future life plans” (Dedication). Responses are on a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). It has been found that correlations between the Revised Commitment Inventory and

relationship adjustment measures are small to medium, negative communication has also demonstrated a strong correlation with Dedication ($r = -.38$ for women and $r = -.40$ for men) and Social Pressure ($r = -.31$ for women and $r = -.28$ for men). These results suggest that as couples communicate more negatively, they report less dedication to the relationship and perceive less pressure from family and friends to stay in the relationship. Religiosity was significantly related to Dedication. Bivariate correlations among the Revised Commitment Inventory subscales were small to medium, suggesting that the subscales assess different, yet related aspects of commitment. Within couples, correlations were generally small to medium, with the largest being Dedication and the smallest Alternative Financial Status (non-significant). Despite the low number of items for the majority of the subscales, most had alpha coefficients $>.70$ (ranging from .46 to .86). The total commitment scale for this sample had a Cronbach's alpha of .78.

Hypotheses and Planned Analyses

Hypothesis 1

Statement. The partner-reported measure of humility will be more strongly related to the measure of self-enhancement than the self-reported measure of humility.

Justification. Self-report measures of humility may be subject to the “modesty effect,” meaning that individuals who are truly humble may actually underreport their humility while those low in humility (e.g. narcissistic individuals) may self-enhance a great deal, significantly over-reporting their actual level of humility (Davis, Worthington, & Hook, 2010). To the extent that the modesty effect exists, there may be less variability in the self-report measure of humility, which may attenuate the correlation between the self-report measure of humility and the measure of self-enhancement. I

expect, therefore, that other-report measure of humility will be a more accurate representation of an individual's true level of humility and will align more closely with self-enhancement scores.

Analysis. The data are grouped (individuals nested within couples). Thus, I will use a two-level multilevel model with individuals (level 1) and couples (level 2). For this analysis, I will use a multilevel modeling regression with self-enhancement as the dependent variable and self-report humility and partner-report humility as the predictor variables.

Hypothesis 2

Statement. Both attachment anxiety and avoidance will be significant negative predictors of total humility (RHS-Total).

Justification. On the intrapersonal dimension, humility involves the ability to have an accurate view of self and an awareness of one's limitations (Davis, Worthington, & Hook, 2010). Securely attached individuals demonstrate acceptance of negative aspects of self (Mikulincer, 1995), while still maintaining an overall positive view of self. On the interpersonal dimension, humility involves qualities such as having an other-oriented stance, presence of empathy, and gentleness (Sandage, 1999). These interpersonal qualities are likely to be seen in securely attached individuals, who by definition have a positive view of others, believing others to be trustworthy and reliable (Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994). Therefore, it is expected that secure attachment (i.e., low attachment avoidance and low attachment anxiety) will predict high levels of both aspects of humility, which are reflected in the measure of general humility. Further, two studies have found a significant negative relationship between insecure attachment styles and humility (Dwiwardani et al., 2014; Jankowski & Sandage, 2014).

Analysis. The data are grouped (individuals nested within couples). Thus, I will use a two-level multilevel model with individuals (level 1) and couples (level 2). For this analysis, I will use a multilevel modeling regression with total humility (i.e., RHS—Total) as the dependent variable and attachment avoidance and anxiety as the independent variables.

Hypothesis 3

Statement. Attachment anxiety will be a significant negative predictor of intrapersonal humility (RHS-Accurate). Attachment avoidance will not be a significant predictor of intrapersonal humility.

Justification. On the intrapersonal dimension, humility involves the ability to have an accurate view of self and an awareness of one's limitations (Davis, Worthington, & Hook, 2010). Attachment anxiety can be defined as an individual's working model of self. Those high on attachment anxiety have a more negative model of self, which would be expected to influence intrapersonal humility (i.e. ability to have an accurate view of self).

Analysis. The data are grouped (individuals nested within couples). Thus, I will use a two-level multilevel model with individuals (level 1) and couples (level 2). For this analysis, I will use a multilevel modeling regression with intrapersonal humility (i.e., RHS—Self-Awareness) as the dependent variable and attachment avoidance and anxiety as the independent variables.

Hypothesis 4

Statement. Attachment avoidance will be a significant negative predictor of interpersonal humility (RHS-Superiority). Attachment anxiety will not be a significant predictor of interpersonal humility

Justification. On the interpersonal dimension, humility involves qualities such as having an other-oriented stance, presence of empathy, and gentleness (Sandage, 1999). Attachment avoidance can be defined as an individual's working model of others. Those high on attachment avoidance have a more negative model of others, which would be expected to influence interpersonal humility (i.e. ability to show openness and empathy to others).

Analysis. The data are grouped (individuals nested within couples). Thus, I will use a two-level multilevel model with individuals (level 1) and couples (level 2). For this analysis, I will use a multilevel modeling regression with interpersonal humility (i.e., RHS—Superiority) as the dependent variable and attachment avoidance and anxiety as the independent variables.

Hypothesis 5

Statement. Humility will mediate the negative relationships between attachment anxiety, attachment avoidance, and relationship satisfaction.

Justification. Research has found that secure attachment style and greater humility are each related to more positive relationship outcomes (Feeney, 1999; Van Tongeren et al., 2014). In addition, attachment style--given its significant role in predicting how individuals feel, think, and behave in relationships (Fraley & Shaver, 2000)--may be an important predictor of humility (see Hypotheses 2-4).

Analysis. The data are grouped (individuals nested within couples). Thus, I will use a two-level multilevel model with individuals (level 1) and couples (level 2). For this analysis, I will use a series of multilevel modeling regressions following the general three-step process outlined by Baron and Kenny (1986). First, I will establish that there is a significant relationship between the predictor variables (i.e., attachment anxiety and avoidance) and the outcome variable (i.e., relationship

satisfaction). Second, I will establish that there is a significant relationship between the predictor variables (i.e., attachment anxiety and avoidance) and the mediator variable (i.e., humility). Third, I will establish that there is a significant relationship between the mediator variable (i.e., humility) and the outcome variable (i.e., relationship satisfaction), controlling for the predictor variables (i.e., attachment anxiety and avoidance). In this final model, if the relationships between the predictor variables (i.e., attachment anxiety and avoidance) and the outcome variable (i.e., relationship satisfaction) are not significant, this will indicate full mediation. If the relationships are significant but reduced in magnitude, this will indicate partial mediation.

Hypothesis 6

Statement. A romantic partner's attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance will be a significant negative predictor of the target person's relationship satisfaction.

Justification. Research has shown that each attachment style is associated with a systematic pattern of relational expectations, emotions, and behaviors (Fraley & Shaver, 2000). These particular patterns have been shown to impact relationship quality and functioning (Simpson, Collins, Tran, & Haydon, 2007). Therefore, it is expected that a romantic partner's attachment style will contribute to the overall relationship quality, and relationship satisfaction of the other partner.

Analysis. The data are grouped (individuals nested within couples). Thus, I will use a two-level multilevel model with individuals (level 1) and couples (level 2). For this analysis, I will use a multilevel modeling regression with the target person's relationship satisfaction as the dependent variable and the romantic partner's attachment avoidance and anxiety as the independent variables.

Hypothesis 7

Statement. The perception of a romantic partner's level of humility will be a significant positive predictor of the target person's relationship satisfaction.

Justification. Research examining humility in the context of romantic relationships has found that humility is linked to positive relationship outcomes and is an important characteristic to consider when selecting a potential mate (Peters, Rowatt, & Johnson, 2011; Van Tongeren et al., 2014). In addition, humility is theorized to help repair social bonds when they have been damaged by conflict (Davis et al., 2011). Given the role that humility plays in positive relationship functioning and repair following conflict, as well as the research suggesting that humility is a valued characteristic in a romantic partner, it is anticipated that a target person's perception of their partner's humility is likely to impact the target's own satisfaction in the relationship.

Analysis. The data are grouped (individuals nested within couples). Thus, I will use a two-level multilevel model with individuals (level 1) and couples (level 2). For this analysis, I will use a multilevel modeling regression with the target person's relationship satisfaction as the dependent variable and the perception of partner's humility as the independent variable.

Hypothesis 8

Statement. Commitment will mediate the negative relationship between attachment anxiety, attachment avoidance, and relationship satisfaction.

Justification. Research has established a link between romantic commitment and higher couple satisfaction (see Cate, Levin, & Richmond, 2002 for a review; Le & Agnew, 2003; Markman, Stanley, & Blumberg, 1994; Rusbult, 1980, 1983; Rusbult & Buunk, 1993). Additionally, there is a well-established negative relationship between insecure attachment styles and relationship satisfaction

(Collins & Feeney, 2004; Collins & Read, 1990). Finally, differences have been discovered in insecurely attached (i.e., anxious and avoidant) individuals' willingness to commit and experience of romantic commitment (Mikulincer & Erev, 1991; Pistole, Clark, & Tubbs, 1995).

Analysis. The data are grouped (individuals nested within couples). Thus, I will use a two-level multilevel model with individuals (level 1) and couples (level 2). For this analysis, I will use a series of multilevel modeling regressions following the general three-step process outlined by Baron and Kenny (1986). First, I will establish that there is a significant relationship between the predictor variables (i.e., attachment anxiety and avoidance) and the outcome variable (i.e., relationship satisfaction). Second, I will establish that there is a significant relationship between the predictor variables (i.e., attachment anxiety and avoidance) and the mediator variable (i.e., commitment). Third, I will establish that there is a significant relationship between the mediator variable (i.e., commitment) and the outcome variable (i.e., relationship satisfaction), controlling for the predictor variables (i.e., attachment anxiety and avoidance). In this final model, if the relationships between the predictor variables (i.e., attachment anxiety and avoidance) and the outcome variable (i.e., relationship satisfaction) are not significant, this will indicate full mediation. If the relationships are significant but reduced in magnitude, this will indicate partial mediation.

Hypothesis 9

Statement. Commitment will mediate the positive relationship between the perception of partner's humility and relationship satisfaction.

Justification. Humility (Peters, Rowatt, & Johnson, 2011) and commitment (Le & Agnew, 2003; Rusbult, 1980, 1983; Rusbult & Buunk, 1993) have each been found to be positively associated with relationship satisfaction. Further, the constructs of relational humility and commitment share

important features, such as willingness to sacrifice personal desires for the benefit of the relationship (i.e., other-oriented stance; Sandage, 1999; Van Lange et al., 1997). A recent study found that level of commitment mediates the relationship between perception of a partner's humility and relationship satisfaction (Farrell et al., 2015).

Analysis. The data are grouped (individuals nested within couples). Thus, I will use a two-level multilevel model with individuals (level 1) and couples (level 2). For this analysis, I will use a series of multilevel modeling regressions following the general three-step process outlined by Baron and Kenny (1986). First, I will establish that there is a significant relationship between the predictor variable (i.e., perception of partner's humility) and the outcome variable (i.e., relationship satisfaction). Second, I will establish that there is a significant relationship between the predictor variable (i.e., perception of partner's humility) and the mediator variable (i.e., commitment). Third, I will establish that there is a significant relationship between the mediator variable (i.e., commitment) and the outcome variable (i.e., relationship satisfaction), controlling for the predictor variable (i.e., perception of partner's humility). In this final model, if the relationships between the predictor variable (i.e., perception of partner's humility) and the outcome variable (i.e., relationship satisfaction) are not significant, this will indicate full mediation. If the relationships are significant but reduced in magnitude, this will indicate partial mediation.

Hypothesis 10

Statement. Gender will moderate the relationship between attachment avoidance, attachment anxiety, and (self-reported) total humility. Specifically, I anticipate that for men (but not women), avoidant attachment will be related to lower levels of humility. Alternately, for women (but not men), anxious attachment will be related to lower levels of humility.

Justification. Some lines of research indicate that gender differences are present in regard to levels of attachment anxiety and avoidance, with men across cultures tending to report higher levels of attachment avoidance (i.e., dismissing style), while women may be more likely to report higher levels of attachment anxiety (i.e., preoccupied style) (Birnbaum, Reis, Mikulincer, Gillath, & Orpaz, 2006; Fenney, 1999; Schmitt et al., 2003). Other research suggests that, based upon a four-category attachment model, men are disproportionately represented in the dismissing-avoidant category, while women are disproportionately represented in the fearful-avoidant category (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Brennan, Shaver, & Tobey, 1991). However, research with Hazan and Shaver's model (1987) suggests that the distribution of attachment styles is independent of gender (Brennan, Shaver, & Tobey, 1991; Levy & Davis, 1988). Regardless of how attachment style is distributed between men and women, there is evidence that the relationship between attachment style and other variables (e.g., satisfaction, commitment) may be conditioned by gender role patterns and expectations (Kirkpatrick & Davis, 1994).

For instance, research has shown that, compared to insecure attachment, secure attachment is associated with greater satisfaction and commitment. Yet, the particular relationship between insecure attachment and satisfaction is impacted by gender. For instance, research has indicated that when female partners have an anxious-ambivalent attachment style, the relationship is viewed by both individuals as less satisfying (Collins & Read, 1990; Simpson, 1990). When male partners have an avoidant attachment style, research has consistently found that these men rate their relationships more negatively. However, findings are mixed regarding whether female partners are less satisfied with their relationships with an avoidant-attachment (Collins & Read, 1990; Kirkpatrick & Davis, 1994; Simpson, 1990).

Given the evidence that gender may alter the relationship between attachment style and other variables, I will consider whether gender differentially influences how attachment styles are related to humility.

Analysis. The data are grouped (individuals nested within couples). Thus, I will use a two-level multilevel model with individuals (level 1) and couples (level 2). For this analysis, self-reported total humility will be entered as the dependent variable and gender, attachment avoidance, attachment anxiety, and the product terms (gender x attachment avoidance, gender x attachment anxiety) will be entered as independent variables.

CHAPTER 5

RESULTS

The overall purpose of this study was to examine the role of romantic attachment style and humility on relationship satisfaction. Before analyzing data, I checked the data for assumptions. There were a small number of outliers (less than 3% per variable). I adjusted outliers to three standard deviations above (or below) the mean. There were no problems with normality. Means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations for all variables are in Table 4. It is notable that for males in this sample, length of relationship was not significantly correlated with any other variables. However, for females in this sample, as relationship length increased, there was a significant decrease in both attachment anxiety and self-enhancement. As a preliminary analysis, a series of multilevel modeling regressions were conducted to compare mean differences by gender. Females reported higher levels of attachment anxiety ($M = 3.83, SD = 1.18$) than males ($M = 3.49, SD = 1.30, t = 2.18, p = .031$). Females self-reported higher levels of interpersonal humility ($M = 3.90, SD = .76$) than males ($M = 3.70, SD = .81, t = 2.02, p = .044$). Males self-reported higher levels of intrapersonal humility ($M = 4.41, SD = .61$) than females ($M = 4.24, SD = .68; t = -2.23, p = .028$). Males reported higher levels of commitment ($M = 4.81, SD = .76$) than females ($M = 4.63, SD = .62, t = -2.33, p = .022$). Therefore, I controlled for gender throughout the data analysis process.

Hypothesis 1

My first hypothesis was that the partner-report measure of total humility would be more strongly negatively related to the measure of self-enhancement than the self-report measure of humility. This hypothesis was tested using a multilevel modeling regression, with self-enhancement as the dependent variable and self-report humility and partner-reported humility as predictor

variables. This hypothesis was not supported. Neither self-report humility ($\beta = .04$, $SE = .03$, $p = .149$) nor partner-report humility ($\beta = .02$, $SE = .03$, $p = .379$) were significantly related to self-enhancement.

Hypothesis 2

My second hypothesis was that both attachment anxiety and avoidance would be significant negative predictors of total humility. This hypothesis was tested using a multilevel modeling regression, with (self-report) total humility as the dependent variable and attachment anxiety and avoidance as the predictor variables. This hypothesis was supported. Both attachment anxiety ($\beta = -.11$, $SE = .03$, $p = .002$) and attachment avoidance ($\beta = -.07$, $SE = .03$, $p = .040$) were significant predictors of total humility.

Hypothesis 3

My third hypothesis was that attachment anxiety would be a significant negative predictor of intrapersonal humility. Attachment avoidance was hypothesized to not be a significant predictor of intrapersonal humility. This hypothesis was tested using a multilevel modeling regression, with (self-report) intrapersonal humility as the dependent variable and attachment anxiety and avoidance as predictor variables. This hypothesis was supported. Attachment anxiety ($\beta = -.09$, $SE = .04$, $p = .028$) was a significant, negative predictor of intrapersonal humility. However, attachment avoidance did not reach significance ($\beta = -.08$, $SE = .04$, $p = .058$).

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Hypothesis 4

My fourth hypothesis was that attachment avoidance would be a significant negative predictor

of interpersonal humility. Attachment anxiety was hypothesized to not be a significant predictor of interpersonal humility. This hypothesis was tested using a multilevel modeling regression, with (self-report) interpersonal humility as the dependent variable and attachment anxiety and avoidance as predictor variables. This hypothesis was not supported. Attachment anxiety ($\beta = -.17$, $SE = .05$, $p = .001$), but not attachment avoidance ($\beta = -.08$, $SE = .05$, $p = .115$), was a significant, negative predictor of interpersonal humility.

Hypothesis 5

My fifth hypothesis was that humility would mediate the negative relationship between attachment anxiety, attachment avoidance, and relationship satisfaction. This hypothesis was tested using a multilevel modeling regression. In Step 1, relationship satisfaction was entered as the dependent variable, and attachment anxiety and avoidance were entered as predictor variables. In this analysis, attachment avoidance ($\beta = -.23$, $SE = .04$, $p < .001$), but not attachment anxiety ($\beta = -.04$, $SE = .04$, $p = .258$), was a significant, negative predictor of relationship satisfaction (see Figure 1).

In Step 2, (self-report) total humility was entered as the dependent variable and attachment anxiety and avoidance were entered as predictor variables. In this analysis, both attachment anxiety ($\beta = -.11$, $SE = .03$, $p = .002$) and attachment avoidance ($\beta = -.07$, $SE = .03$, $p = .040$) were significant predictors of overall humility.

In Step 3, relationship satisfaction was entered as the dependent variable and attachment anxiety, attachment avoidance, and (self-report) total humility were entered as predictor variables. The relationship between humility and relationship satisfaction was positive and significant ($\beta = .11$, $SE = .04$, $p = .002$). In this step, the relationship between attachment anxiety and relationship satisfaction remained non-significant ($\beta = -.02$, $SE = .04$, $p = .614$).

Table 4

Intercorrelations of Humility, Attachment Style, Self-Enhancement, and Relationship Satisfaction

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. ECR Avoidance	2.39	.90	--	.03	-.38**	-.12	-.10	-.16	-.18*	-.16	-.22*	.16	-.11	-.11
2. ECR Anxiety	3.67	1.25	.27**	--	-.20*	-.02	-.15	-.18	-.09	-.22*	-.28**	.03	.01	-.19*
3. PRCQTotal	6.36	.61	-.53**	-.07	--	.16	.07	.26**	.12	.44**	-.21*	.08	.43**	-.09
4. Global humility (Self-report)	3.72	.86	-.01	-.08	.12	--	-.03	.40**	.18*	.18*	-.02	.10	.10	.02
5. Intrapersonal humility (Self-report)	4.31	.66	-.19*	-.19*	.17	.15	--	-.08	.05	.24*	.02	.09	-.05	-.05
6. Interpersonal humility (Self-report)	3.81	.79	-.11	-.28**	.23*	.39**	.01	--	.03	.20*	.43**	-.02	.11	-.02
7. Global humility (Other-report)	4.09	.84	-.32**	-.13	.40**	.26**	.26**	-.03	--	.13	.46**	-.10	.10	-.02
8. Intrapersonal humility (Other-report)	4.00	.87	-.36**	-.30**	.54**	.08	.29**	.29**	.28**	--	.001	.02	.26**	.10
9. Interpersonal humility (Other-report)	4.00	.80	-.40**	-.22*	.27**	-.01	.12	.30**	.43**	.23*	--	-.15	.06	-.04
10. OCQBias	1.12	.38	.01	.004	.10	.05	.22*	.07	-.02	.20*	-.02	--	-.13	-.30**
11. Commitment	4.73	.69	-.32**	.07	.47**	.13	.06	.16	.24*	.27**	.09	-.03	--	.11
12. Relationship Length (months)	21.57	16.86	.04	-.03	-.01	-.02	-.03	-.03	-.06	-.11	-.03	-.06	.12	--

* correlation significant at .05 level. **correlation significant at .01 level. *Note:* Does not include those participants identifying as “other” gender ($n = 2$). Female-top right, Male-bottom left. ECR: Experiences in Close Relationships (attachment style); PRCQ: Perceived Relationship Quality Components (relationship satisfaction/quality); OCQ: Over-Claiming Questionnaire (self-enhancement)

The relationship between attachment avoidance and relationship satisfaction remained negative and significant ($\beta = -.22$, $SE = .04$, $p < .001$). Therefore, humility did not mediate the relationship between attachment style and relationship satisfaction.

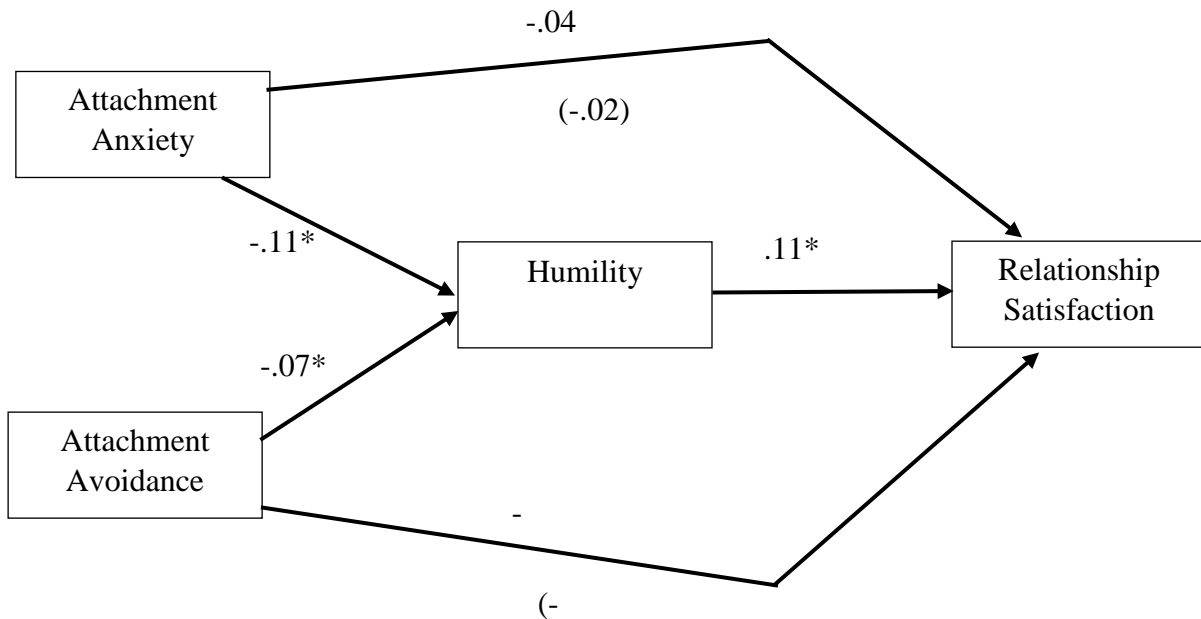


Figure 1. Mediator effects of humility on the relationship between attachment anxiety, attachment avoidance and relationship satisfaction. The number in parenthesis is the effect of the predictor variable on the criterion variable with the mediator in the model. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Hypothesis 6

My sixth hypothesis was that the partner's attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance would be a significant negative predictor of the target's relationship satisfaction. This hypothesis was tested using a multilevel modeling regression, with the target's relationship satisfaction as the dependent variable and the partner's attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance as predictor variables. This hypothesis was partially supported. The partner's attachment avoidance ($\beta = -.12$, $SE = .04$, $p = .006$), but not the partner's attachment anxiety ($\beta = -.03$, $SE = .04$, $p = .430$), was a significant negative predictor of the target's relationship satisfaction.

Hypothesis 7

My seventh hypothesis was that the partner's perceived level of humility would be a significant positive predictor of the target's relationship satisfaction. This hypothesis was tested using a multilevel modeling regression, with the target's relationship satisfaction as the dependent variable and the target's perception of their partner's total humility as the predictor variable. This hypothesis was supported. The partner's perceived level of humility was a significant positive predictor of the target's relationship satisfaction ($\beta = .24$, $SE = .04$, $p < .001$).

Hypothesis 8

My eighth hypothesis was that commitment would mediate the negative relationship between attachment anxiety, attachment avoidance, and relationship satisfaction. This hypothesis was tested using a multilevel modeling regression. In Step 1, relationship satisfaction was entered as the dependent variable, and attachment anxiety and avoidance were entered as predictor variables. In this analysis, attachment avoidance ($\beta = -.23$, $SE = .04$, $p < .001$), but not attachment anxiety ($\beta = -.04$, $SE = .04$, $p = .258$), was a significant, negative predictor of relationship satisfaction (see Figure 2).

In Step 2, commitment was entered as the dependent variable and attachment anxiety and avoidance were entered as predictor variables. In this analysis, attachment avoidance ($\beta = -.12$, $SE = .04$, $p = .007$), but not attachment anxiety ($\beta = .04$, $SE = .04$, $p = .352$) was a significant, negative predictor of relationship commitment.

In Step 3, relationship satisfaction was entered as the dependent variable and attachment anxiety, attachment avoidance, and commitment were entered as predictor variables. The relationship between commitment and relationship satisfaction was positive and significant ($\beta =$

.23, $SE = .03$, $p < .001$). In this step, the relationship between attachment anxiety and relationship satisfaction remained non-significant ($\beta = -.06$, $SE = .03$, $p = .093$). The relationship between attachment avoidance and relationship satisfaction remained negative and significant, though it decreased in size ($\beta = -.19$, $SE = .03$, $p < .001$). To test the significance of the indirect effect, I conducted a follow-up analysis utilizing the procedure outlined by Bauer, Preacher, and Gil (2006). The indirect (mediated) effect of attachment avoidance on relationship satisfaction through commitment was not significant ($est. = -.046$, $SE = .04$, $95\% CI = -.122$ to $.031$).

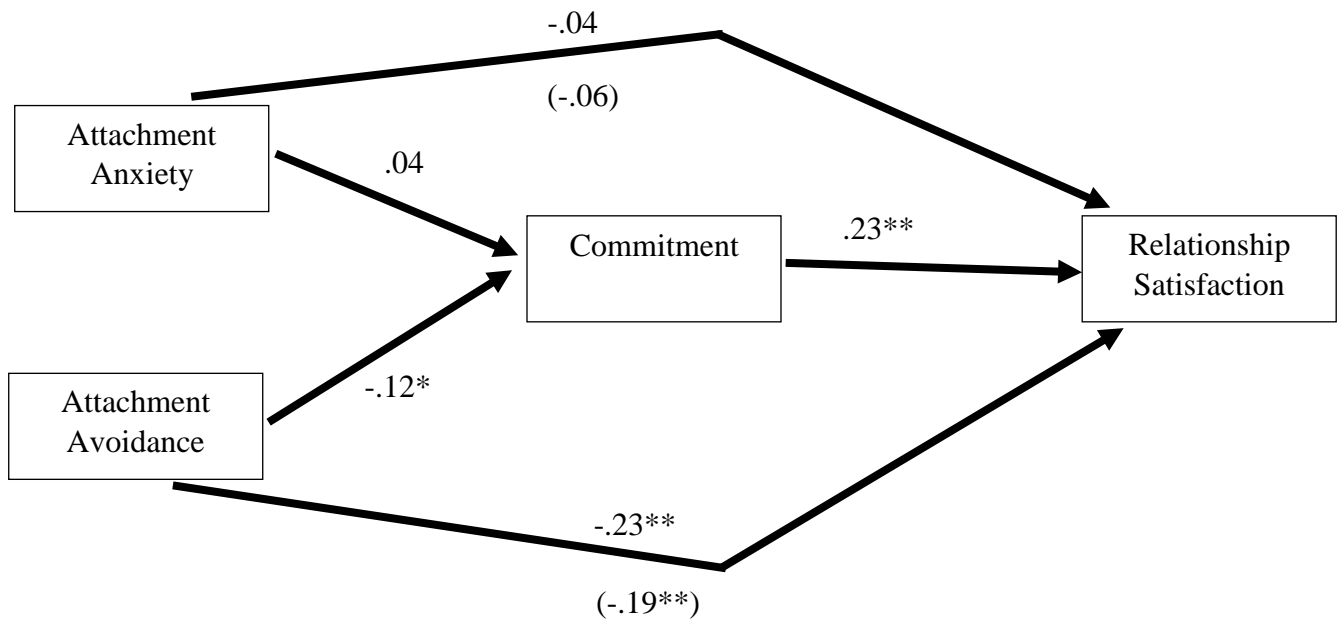


Figure 2. Mediator effects of commitment on the relationship between attachment anxiety, attachment avoidance and relationship satisfaction. The number in parenthesis is the effect of the predictor variable on the criterion variable with the mediator in the model. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Hypothesis 9

My ninth hypothesis was that the target person's commitment would mediate the positive relationship between the perception of partner's humility and relationship satisfaction. This hypothesis was tested using a multilevel modeling regression. In Step 1, relationship satisfaction was entered as the dependent variable, and perception of partner's humility was entered as the

predictor variable. In this analysis, perception of partner’s humility was a significant, positive predictor of relationship satisfaction ($\beta = .24$, $SE = .04$, $p < .001$; see Figure 3).

In Step 2, commitment was entered as the dependent variable and perception of partner’s humility was entered as the predictor variable. In this analysis, perception of partner’s humility was a significant, positive predictor of commitment ($\beta = .13$, $SE = .04$, $p = .002$).

In Step 3, relationship satisfaction was entered as the dependent variable, and perception of partner’s humility and commitment were entered as predictor variables. The relationship between commitment and relationship satisfaction was positive and significant ($\beta = .23$, $SE = .03$, $p < .001$). In this step, the relationship between perception of partner’s humility and relationship satisfaction remained positive and significant ($\beta = .20$, $SE = .03$, $p < .001$), though it decreased in size. To test the significance of the indirect effect, I conducted a follow-up analysis utilizing the procedure outlined by Bauer, Preacher, and Gil (2006). The indirect (mediated) effect of perception of partner’s humility on relationship satisfaction through commitment was not significant ($est. = .047$, $SE = .05$, $95\% CI = -.051$ to $.145$).

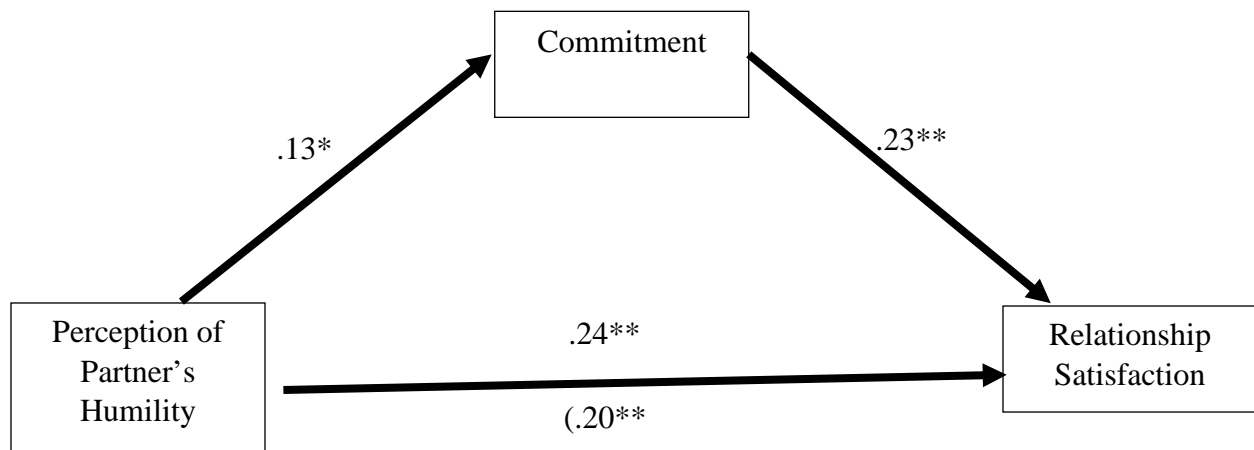


Figure 3. Mediator effects of commitment on the relationship between perception of a romantic partner’s humility and relationship satisfaction. The number in parenthesis is the effect of the predictor variable on the criterion variable with the mediator in the model. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Hypothesis 10

My tenth hypothesis was that gender would moderate the relationship between attachment avoidance, attachment anxiety, and (self-reported) total humility. This hypothesis was tested using multilevel modeling, with self-reported total humility entered as the dependent variable, gender, attachment avoidance, and attachment anxiety entered in Step 1, and product terms (gender x attachment avoidance, gender x attachment anxiety) entered in Step 2. This hypothesis was not supported. Gender did not moderate the relationship between either attachment anxiety and humility ($t = 1.05, p = .296$), or attachment avoidance and humility ($t = -.99, p = .324$).

CHAPTER 6

DISCUSSION

The purpose this study was to examine the relationship between romantic attachment style and humility, and to consider how each of these constructs impacts relationship outcomes (i.e., satisfaction, commitment). Importantly, this study found that insecure attachment (both anxiety and avoidance dimensions) predicted lower levels of overall relational humility. Attachment anxiety, though not attachment avoidance, was related to decreased levels of both intrapersonal humility (e.g., accurate view of self) and interpersonal humility (e.g., being other-oriented, respectful).

Additionally, this study found that an individual's relationship satisfaction was related to their romantic partner's attachment avoidance (but not attachment anxiety), as well as their perception of their partner's humility. Thus, individuals tended to report higher relationship satisfaction when: (a) their partner was lower on attachment avoidance, and (b) they considered their partner humble.

The remaining discussion will highlight in greater depth the findings of the study and how these findings relate to previous theory and research (when available). I will also explore the strengths and limitations of my study, directions for future research, and clinical implications of this research.

For my first hypothesis, I found that neither self-report of humility nor partner-report of humility were significantly related to self-enhancement. One of aspect of the definition of humility involves having an accurate view of self and willingness to acknowledge limitations (for a review of definitions, see Davis, Worthington, & Hook, 2010). Thus, humble individuals were expected to be less likely to distort information to make themselves feel better (i.e., to self-

enhance) (Peterson & Seligman, 2004). Our study finding is inconsistent with previous theorizing, which may be a measurement issue (see Study Strengths, Limitations, and Future Directions).

For my second hypothesis, I found that both attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance were significant, negative predictors of total humility. In other words, as an individual's insecure attachment increases, humility declines. One important contribution of this study is examining the evidence for a relationship between attachment style and humility, a relationship which has only been examined in three previous empirical studies. Our findings in this study were consistent with the limited previous research, which has tended to demonstrate a significant, negative relationship between attachment style and humility (Dwiwardani et al., 2014; Jankowski & Sandage, 2014). It seems likely that in order to practice humility well, individuals must have developed a positive view of self and others, a characteristic of secure attachment (Dwiwardani et al., 2014).

After finding that attachment style and total humility are related, I aimed to explore whether each attachment dimension (i.e., anxiety, avoidance) was specifically related to each relational humility dimension (i.e., intrapersonal, interpersonal; Hypotheses 3 and 4). As a brief refresher, intrapersonal humility has been defined as having an accurate view of self, whereas interpersonal humility involves having an other-oriented stance, openness, respect, and empathy (for a review of definitions, see Davis, Worthington, & Hook, 2010). Attachment anxiety is related to fears of abandonment and sensitivity to rejection, while attachment avoidance is associated with discomfort with intimacy and closeness (Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters, & Wall, 1978). According to a four-category approach by Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991), attachment anxiety can be understood as an individual's model of self (positive or negative),

while attachment avoidance is understood as an individual's model of others (positive or negative).

Given how these various components have been defined and conceptualized, I anticipated that an individual's model of self (i.e., attachment anxiety) would be significantly related to intrapersonal humility (e.g., having an accurate view of self), while an individual's model of others (i.e., attachment avoidance) would be significantly related to interpersonal humility (e.g., being other-oriented, respectful). In fact, I found that attachment anxiety was a significant, negative predictor of both intrapersonal humility (as expected) and interpersonal humility. On the other hand, attachment avoidance did not significantly predict either intrapersonal or interpersonal humility, though it approached significance in predicting intrapersonal humility. This study was unique in examining the relationships between specific aspects of attachment style and humility. Based on these findings, it can be concluded that holding a positive model of self is the most important factor in the ability to demonstrate relational humility, both in regard to having an accurate view of self and relating to others in an open, respectful, empathic manner.

For my fifth hypothesis, I examined whether humility mediated the relationship between attachment style and relationship satisfaction. Research has found that secure attachment style and greater humility are each related to more positive relationship outcomes (Feeney, 1999; Van Tongeren et al., 2014). Further, my study has demonstrated a significant relationship between attachment style and humility thus far (see Hypotheses 2-4). Unexpectedly, I found that humility did not mediate the relationship between attachment style and relationship satisfaction. Further, another variable in this study, commitment, did not serve as a significant mediator between attachment style and relationship satisfaction (Hypothesis 8). This is somewhat surprising, given that previous research that has found attachment style to influence commitment to one's partner,

and subsequent relationship satisfaction (Ho et al., 2012; Dandurand, Bouaziz, & Lafontaine, 2013).

For hypotheses 6 and 7, I aimed to better understand how a romantic partner's qualities (i.e., attachment style and perceived level of humility) influenced a target person's relationship satisfaction. I found that a partner's attachment avoidance (i.e., model of others), but not attachment anxiety (i.e., model of self) was significantly related to the target person's relationship satisfaction. Given that each insecure attachment style is associated with particular beliefs, emotions, and behaviors, and that these styles have been found to impact relationship quality (Fraley & Shaver, 2000; Simpson, Collins, Tran, & Haydon, 2007), it is surprising that both insecure attachment styles were not related to a target person's relationship satisfaction. It might be that having a partner with a negative model of others, associated with attachment avoidance, is the more damaging factor in how a target person experiences the relationship. While attachment anxiety is related to hyperactivating strategies in times of distress, which may lead to exaggerated efforts to gain support, it is also expected that an anxiously attached partner is more willing to remain committed to the relationship and seek increased closeness. Conversely, during times of distress and conflict, an avoidant partner is expected to rely on deactivating strategies, resulting in creating distance, decreased desire for commitment and closeness, as well as increased self-reliance (Cassidy & Berlin, 1994; Cassidy & Kobak, 1988; Crittenden, 1992, 1997; Hazan & Shaver, 1987; Main, 1990). Perhaps while an anxiously-attached partner may be taxing for the target individual during times of distress, an avoidant partner may withdraw or disconnect from the relationship, potentially resulting in greater relationship dissatisfaction in the target person.

In this study, we found that a partner's perceived level of humility was a significant and positive predictor of a target person's relationship satisfaction. In other words, when an individual views their romantic partner as more humble, they experience higher relationship satisfaction. This finding aligns well with previous research, which has shown humility is linked to positive relationship outcomes and is an important characteristic to consider when selecting a potential mate (Peters, Rowatt, & Johnson, 2011; Van Tongeren et al., 2014).

For hypothesis 9, I attempted to replicate previous research which has shown that perception of a partner's humility impacts relationship commitment, which ultimately impacts relationship satisfaction (Farrell et al., 2015). Unexpectedly, I found that commitment did not have a significant effect on the relationship between a partner's perceived humility and relationship satisfaction. This finding is surprising given that previous research indicates humility is a quality individuals value in relationship partners (Van Tongeren et al., 2014).

For hypothesis 10, I examined whether the relationship between attachment style and total humility would differ between men and women. Previous research has suggested that the way attachment styles relate to other variables (e.g., relationship satisfaction) may be conditioned by gender role patterns and expectations (Kirkpatrick & Davis, 1994). However, no known previous studies have specifically examined how gender may differentially influenced the relationship between attachment style and humility. In this study, gender did not moderate the relationship between attachment insecurity and humility. Thus, for both men and women, attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance were significant, negative predictors of total humility.

Study Strengths, Limitations, and Future Directions

There are several important limitations to note about the current study. First, the sample consists of undergraduate students. The sample is predominantly composed of young ($M = 21.23$ years), White (65.1%) individuals. All couples analyzed in this study described themselves as heterosexual. Therefore, caution should be taken in generalizing findings to the general population—particularly non-White, older adults, and LGB identified relationships. Indeed, some research suggests that relationships between lesbian women, gay men, and heterosexual couples may differ on certain dimensions, such as autonomy and intimacy (Kurdek, 1998). An important future research endeavor will be examining how attachment style, humility, and relationship outcomes are related in the context of different sample demographic characteristics.

The goal of the current study was to focus on committed, dating relationships. Thus, couples were recruited who had been dating for at least six months ($M = 21.57$ months; $SD = 16.86$ months). Research findings with married couples, or those casually dating, may be much different. Relationships have been conceptualized as existing along a continuum of commitment (Kamp Dush & Amato, 2005), from casual dating relationships at the lowest point, to marital relationships at the highest point on the continuum. Therefore, the role of commitment as a mediator may change based on the type of relationship examined.

Other research suggests that full-fledged attachment bonds take approximately two years for romantic partners to develop (Fraley & Davis, 1997; Hazan & Zeifman, 1994). In the meantime, state-specific attachment anxiety may be a normative, expected experience in relationship formation, which aids in activating the attachment system (Eastwick & Finkel, 2008). Although participants were asked to report attachment behaviors, thoughts, and feelings,

based on how they *generally* are in adult relationships, it is possible that having couples who had been dating less than two years impacted responses to attachment items, as attachment bonds may not yet have been fully formed. Future research could explore the relationships between these variables with different types of relationships, especially casual dating relationships and marital relationships, in which attachment bonds and commitment levels will presumably differ from the current sample.

Another limitation of this study was our use of a cross-sectional design. While present results provide a “snapshot” of how these variables relate to each other, they cannot inform how the relationships change over time, or causality. In addition, we examined the relationships between a limited number of variables, based on previous studies and theorizing. However, it is certainly possible that additional variables may prove to be important mediators (e.g., mental health variables) or moderators (e.g., type of attachment measurement, whether self-report or interview) of the relationships that were observed. I encourage future research that can provide a clearer picture and understanding of causality between the variables examined in this study, either through experimental or longitudinal designs. Further, I encourage future research to consider various mediators and moderators that were not measured in the present study.

This study had several noteworthy strengths. First, both romantic partners took part in the study. This allowed me to examine how an individual’s relationship satisfaction was influenced by their partner’s characteristics (see Hypotheses 6 and 7). Second, humility was measured with both self-report and romantic partner-report scales. Researchers have suggested that humility may be subject to the “modesty effect,” such that truly humble individuals underreport their humility, while narcissistic individuals may over-report their humility (Davis et al., 2010). For this reason, I expected that a partner-report measure of humility would more

accurately predict self-enhancement. Instead, I found that neither self-report nor partner-report of humility was significantly related to self-enhancement. It may be that for this sample, the modesty effect was not a major factor. Also, it may be that self-report measures of humility are less problematic than originally thought. Indeed, although some past theory has posited a “modesty effect” for self-report measures of humility, there has been little empirical data that has supported the notion that self-report measures of humility are inherently problematic. Most researchers now advocate for using multiple methods of measurement for studying humility (Davis et al., 2010; Worthington, Davis, & Hook, 2017). Self-report and other-report data have been suggested to predict unique information, and other-reports tend to be most accurate when several raters who know a target person well are used (Connelly & Ones, 2010). Thus, future research may benefit from utilizing multiple measures of humility and self-enhancement, neither of which yet have a gold standard for measurement (Davis et al., 2010; Krueger & Wright, 2011).

Third, and perhaps most importantly, this study filled a gap in the research literature by empirically examining the relationship between attachment style and humility, which has only been done in three previous studies (Dwiwardani et al., 2014; Jankowski & Sandage, 2014; Zhao, 2012). Additionally, this study included measures of self-enhancement, commitment, and relationship satisfaction, which allowed me to explore more complex relationships between attachment style and humility.

Clinical Implications

Based on findings from the present study, there are several implications for clinical practice. These implications may be particularly relevant to couples’ counseling, especially in

cases where couples are attempting to deal more effectively with conflict, a context which activates the attachment system (Kobak & Duemler, 1994) and can make it difficult to practice humility (Davis et al., 2010).

Strategies used by insecurely attached individuals to achieve felt security in a romantic relationship have potential negative consequences for relationship functioning. For instance, those high on attachment anxiety may become clinging or controlling, while those high on avoidance may emphasize self-reliance and independence during times of distress (Mikulincer, Shaver, & Pereg, 2003). In particular, this study demonstrated that those individuals high on attachment anxiety will display decreased total humility, intrapersonal humility (e.g., accurate view of self) and interpersonal humility (e.g., other-oriented stance). Based on this research, those individuals high on attachment avoidance will display decreased total humility. Additionally, partners of avoidant-attached individuals noted lower relationship satisfaction. It would be beneficial for a clinician to assess and consider a couples' behaviors, thoughts, and feelings within the attachment system context. As noted here, and in previous research (Feeney & Noller, 1992; Kirkpatrick & Davis, 1994; Mikulincer & Erev, 1991) each insecure attachment style can result in unique relationship outcomes and dynamics.

If one or both partners is insecurely attached, a referral for individual therapy may be warranted. Research suggests that the client-therapist relationship contains qualities of an attachment relationship and that the therapist may act as an attachment figure for the client. Thus, therapy may facilitate clients' attachment security through deconstruction and reappraisal of their internal working models of self and others (Mallinckrodt, 2000; Slade, 2008). It has been suggested that the therapeutic relationship may provide a corrective emotional experience for the client (Dozier, Cue, & Barrett, 1994; Bernier & Dozier, 2002; Slade, 2008). It is

necessary to look for signals that the client is attempting to act out an insecure relationship with the therapist. The therapist may be cued into this possibility if the client is self-enhancing or lacks humility in the relationship with the therapist. It is important for the therapist to not be drawn into the insecure attachment pattern that the client anticipates in his/her relationships.

With clients seeking interpersonal distance, the therapist may attempt to increase their awareness of emotional processes and deepen their emotional engagement in therapy. Conversely, for clients coming across as needy and emotionally-dependent, the therapist may work to help increase clients' sense of autonomy and self-efficacy. In short, a corrective emotional experience may be accomplished by simply not taking part in the insecure attachment relationship a client is expecting and pulling for from the therapist (Skourteli & Lennie, 2011).

Research has shown that securely attached individuals are more confident in their ability to manage and regulate their emotions, whereas those who are insecurely attached have been shown to struggle with emotion dysregulation and, subsequently, symptoms of anxiety and depression (Cooper, Rowe, Penton-Voak, & Ludwig, 2009; Mickelson, Kessler, & Shaver, 1997; Marganska, Gallagher, & Miranda, 2013; Tasca et al., 2009). Thus, a clinician can strive to help an insecurely attached client learn to better regulate their emotions and cope with distress in times of conflict. Emotion regulation is defined as the repertoire of strategies that an individual uses to enhance or suppress their emotional experience (Gross, 1998). Techniques such as cognitive reappraisal—working to shift thoughts regarding a future event to neutralize its expected negative impact or enhance its positive impact—may be useful in this endeavor. Indeed, cognitive reappraisal is associated with lower negative affect and better interpersonal functioning (Gross & John, 2003). Another possibility is for clients to utilize mindfulness

training and practice nonjudgmental acceptance of emotions (Chambers, Gullone, & Allen, 2009).

While understanding attachment styles of romantic partners will provide a framework and predictability for a clinician conducting couples' therapy, this study was useful in providing another potential factor to help improve couples relationships. Specifically, the current research shows that perceiving a romantic partner as humble is associated with increased relationship satisfaction. This finding is not surprising in light of previous research suggesting that humility is an important characteristic to consider when selecting a potential mate (Van Tongeren et al., 2014) and can help repair social bonds when they have been damaged by conflict (Davis et al., 2011). The ability to practice humility in a relationship, particularly during times of conflict, will serve romantic partners well. Given previous research indicating that virtues such as empathy and self-compassion result in positive relationship behaviors, stability, and adjustment (Davis & Oathout, 1987; Franzoi, Davis, & Young, 1985; Long & Andrews, 1990; Neff & Beretvas, 2013), it is even less surprising that the virtue of humility serves a positive relationship function.

To target humility directly, the therapist may encourage relationship partners to identify instances in which they or their partner put the relationship first and sacrificed for each other, thereby promoting an other-oriented stance. Partners may benefit from discussing their needs and working together to formulate ways to meet each other's needs. In helping couples work on the intrapersonal aspect of humility (accurate view of self), it may be useful to have each individual identify a time when they were in the wrong, followed by giving their partner an apology in a non-defensive manner. The therapist could also provide psycho-education regarding the relationship between attachment style and humility, as well as the associations

between attachment style and relationship functioning (i.e. insecure attachment is related to less satisfaction in romantic relationships) and humility and relationship functioning (humility is related to positive relationship outcomes) (Collins & Feeney, 2004; Collins & Read, 1990; Van Tongeren et al., 2014).

Conclusion

Attachment style and humility are important contributors to relationship outcomes. Also, these constructs are related, such that insecure attachment is associated with decreased humility. Importantly, humility may enhance romantic relationship functioning through increasing relationship satisfaction. For clinicians, understanding both of these constructs and how they interact may improve services offered in couples' therapy. I hope that future research will continue to advance the understanding of how attachment style and humility are related to each other, as well as relationship outcomes.

APPENDIX
DEMOGRAPHICS QUESTIONNAIRE

Demographics Questionnaire

1. What is your gender? [Male; Female; Transgender; Other_____]
2. What is your age? _____
3. What is your ethnicity? [Hispanic or Latino; Not Hispanic or Latino]
4. What is your race? [White; Black/African American; American Indian/Alaska Native; Asian; Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander; Multiracial; Other _____]
5. What is your sexual orientation? [Heterosexual; Bisexual; Gay; Lesbian; Other_____]
6. What is your religious affiliation? [Christian-Catholic; Christian-Evangelical Protestant; Christian-Mainline Protestant; Christian-Black Protestant; Christian-Other; Latter-Day Saints; Muslim; Buddhist; Hindu; Jewish; Atheist; Agnostic; None; Other_____]
7. What is your marital status? [Single; Married; Separated; Divorced; Widowed; Other_____]
8. Please estimate your current family income. _____
9. Please estimate the family income in the household in which you grew up. _____
10. Do you have a disability? If so, please list. [No; Yes_____]
11. In which country were you born? _____
12. In what OTHER countries have you lived for at least three months during your lifetime? _____
13. What is your nationality (American, Nigerian)? _____
14. What was your primary language growing up (you may mark BOTH English and Other. Please specify Other)? [English; Other_____]

15. What is your highest level of education? [Less than HS diploma or GED; HS diploma or GED; Some college; Associates degree; Bachelor's degree; Master's degree; Doctoral degree]
16. What is your current occupation?_____
17. What year are you in school? [First Year Undergraduate; Second Year Undergraduate; Third Year Undergraduate; Fourth Year Undergraduate; Fifth Year Undergraduate; Graduate Student; Other_____]
18. Use one of the following numbers to indicate your political views in the accompanying categories.
- a. Foreign policy issues [Very liberal; Liberal; Slightly liberal; Middle of the road; Slightly conservative; Conservative; Very conservative]
 - b. Economic issues [Very liberal; Liberal; Slightly liberal; Middle of the road; Slightly conservative; Conservative; Very conservative]
 - c. Social issues [Very liberal; Liberal; Slightly liberal; Middle of the road; Slightly conservative; Conservative; Very conservative]

Relationship History

1. How long have you been involved in a romantic relationship with your current partner?
_____.
2. How many **previous** romantic partners have you had (NOT including your current partner)?
_____.
3. How much do you like your partner?
- (1) Not at all
 - (2)
 - (3)
 - (4)
 - (5) A great deal
4. How likely are you to marry your partner?
- (1) Not at all likely

- (2)
- (3)
- (4)
- (5) Very likely

5. How likely are you to leave your relationship (break-up with your partner) in the next 6 months?

- (1) Not at all likely
- (2)
- (3)
- (4)
- (5) Very likely

6. How much have you and your partner discussed the future of your relationship?

- (1) Not at all
- (2)
- (3)
- (4)
- (5) A lot

7. Approximately how much of your FREE time do you spend with your partner?

- (1) 10%
- (2) 20%
- (3) 30%
- (4) 40%
- (5) 50%
- (6) 60%
- (7) 70%
- (8) 80%
- (9) 90%
- (10) 100%

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