

INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES IN PRONENESS TO PRIDE AND PRONENESS TO
HUBRIS

by

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A dissertation submitted to the Graduate Faculty of Psychology in partial fulfillment of
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Abstract

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Two studies were conducted to examine the validity of the inferences made from the scores on two new measures of proneness to pride and proneness to hubris. Proneness to pride is a tendency to experience the emotion of pride, which is characterized by specific appraisals of self-credit and feelings of accomplishment and enhanced capability. In comparison, proneness to hubris is a tendency to experience the emotion of hubris, an emotion characterized by global appraisals of self-credit and feelings of superiority and excessive self-confidence. New measures were developed because of the low reliability of the scores on the one existing measure of proneness to pride and proneness to hubris (the TOSCA-3, Tangney & Dearing, 2002). The development of adequate measures will facilitate the study of these theoretically and practically important constructs. For the first measure, new items similar to those used in the TOSCA-3 were written. The items for the second measure assessed the frequency with which respondents experienced states associated with pride or hubris. These measures were examined in two studies that made predictions related to inferences of construct validity.

In general, the results of the studies indicate that the psychometric characteristics and the evidence for inferences of construct validity were stronger for the frequency measure

than for the scenario measure. First, the evidence for the internal consistency of the scores on the frequency measure was greater than for the scores on the scenario measure. Second, the multi-trait, multi-method analyses indicated that the scores on the scenario measure were more influenced by the measurement method than the scores on the frequency measure. Third, the predicted relationships between affectivity and proneness to pride and hubris were supported for the frequency measure but not for the scenario measure. Fourth, the scores on the frequency measure, but not the scores on the scenario measure, predicted intentions to engage in goal-directed behavior. The theoretical implications of the results are discussed.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES IN PRONENESS TO PRIDE AND PRONENESS TO HUBRIS

In Western thought the emotion of pride has been viewed as both positive and negative. On the one hand, pride is associated with feelings of self-respect and confidence, but on the other hand, pride is sometimes considered excessive and associated with arrogance and contemptuousness (Neu, 2000). One possible explanation for this difference is that the word pride is sometimes used to refer to two different self-conscious emotions. First, the word pride is used to refer to the emotion of pride, which is characterized by feelings of self-confidence and self-respect (Lewis, 1992; Tracy & Robins, 2004). Second, the word pride is sometimes used to refer to the emotion of hubris, which is characterized by feelings of grandiosity and strong feelings of superiority (Lewis, 1992; Tracy & Robins, 2004).

Furthermore, pride and hubris can occur both as emotion states and as emotion traits. In other words, in addition to the ability of all individuals to experience states of pride or hubris, some individuals may be particularly prone to experience these emotions and therefore have frequent experiences of the emotion states (Tangney, 1990). These tendencies to experience pride or hubris have important effects on the thoughts and the behaviors of individuals that may be different from the effect of these state emotions (Lewis, 1992; Tangney, 1990). However, despite the importance, little research has addressed pride and hubris as affective traits. One possible reason for this lack of research is the absence of measures of proneness to pride and hubris that produce scores with adequate reliability (Tangney, 1990; Tangney & Dearing, 2002). This lack of score reliability precludes finding evidence of construct validity. Without adequate measures,

testing the theoretical propositions made about dispositional tendencies to experience pride or hubris is limited.

Thus, my first goal in this research is to develop measures of pride proneness and hubris proneness that produce reliable scores and evidence for structural validity. Consequently, items were written for two different measures of proneness to pride and hubris. One measure asks participants to indicate the likelihood of responding in a way that typifies the experience of pride or hubris in response to brief scenarios. This measure is based on previous attempts to measure pride proneness and hubris proneness (Tangney, 1990; Tangney & Dearing, 2002). The other measure asks respondents to indicate the frequency with which they experience thoughts and feelings associated with pride and hubris. As will be discussed later, the purpose of using two approaches to the measurement of trait pride and hubris is that each approach has important strengths and weaknesses.

My second goal is to assess the validity of the inferences made from the scores from the new measures. Evidence for construct validity will be sought in two ways. First, a criterion-related strategy will be employed by testing the relationships between the measures of proneness to pride and proneness to hubris, on the one hand, and measures of phenomenological experiences (i.e., duration of the experience of pride, satisfaction with success, and interpersonal conflict) on the other hand. Second, a convergent and discriminant validation approach will be used by situating the new measures within a nomological network of related constructs for each trait. The other constructs in the networks are self-esteem, narcissism, positive affectivity, negative affectivity, and global attribution tendencies. Each of these constructs was chosen because it serves as a

theoretically relevant construct that will allow for the assessment of the evidence for the convergent and discriminant relationships with the scores from the new measures of proneness to pride and proneness to hubris. By positioning the proneness to pride construct and the proneness to hubris construct within a broader nomological net, the validity of the inference that the scores from the new measures reflect dispositions to experience pride and hubris can be supported (Cronbach & Meehl, 1955; Pierce, Gardner, Cummings, & Dunham, 1989).

My third goal is to demonstrate the criterion-related validity (Binning & Barrett, 1989) of the scores on the new measures using a behavior of theoretical and practical importance -- performance. Specifically, two competing models will be tested. The first model predicts that both proneness to pride and proneness to hubris predict performance because both of these traits predict self-set goal difficulty, which leads to good performance (e.g., Diefendorff, 2004). However, a second model predicts that proneness to pride should be positively related to performance, but hubris proneness is not included in the model (Lewis, 1992). As discussed later, proneness to pride predicts performance because it is associated with behaviors that lead to success. In comparison, proneness to hubris is associated with cognitive reinterpretations of the situation in order to experience success and is unrelated to behaviors that lead to good performance. These two competing models will be examined in this research.

This research on proneness to pride and hubris is theoretically and practically important. Theoretically, this research makes several important contributions. First, it is important to understand individual tendencies to experience pride or hubris because these traits affect the frequency of experiencing the relevant state emotions (Lewis, 1992;

Tangney & Dearing, 2002). Second, it is important to study trait pride and trait hubris because these traits may affect how individuals interpret and respond to situations in ways that are distinct from the effect of state emotions (e.g., Lewis, 1992; Tangney & Dearing, 2002). For example, it is argued that individuals prone to pride or hubris are particularly attentive to goals and ready to respond to meet these goals in comparison to individuals not prone to pride.

Third, by distinguishing tendencies to experience pride from tendencies to experience hubris, this research attempts to clarify a conceptual inconsistency regarding pride. Specifically, within Western thought pride has been viewed both positively and negatively (Neu, 2000). It is argued that the positive and negative connotations of pride do not represent a single emotion of pride, but rather they represent two different emotions: pride and hubris (e.g., Lewis, 1992). Although both pride and hubris occur when individuals feel that they have succeeded at meeting a goal, the emotion of pride is associated with a focus on a specific action, which is associated with feelings of accomplishment and enhanced capability (Lewis, 1992; Tracy & Robins, 2004). In comparison, hubris is associated with a tendency to credit the global self for a success and is characterized by strong feelings of superiority and to the perception by others that the individual experiencing hubris is arrogant (Lewis, 1992; Tracy & Robins, 2004). Thus, the characteristics of hubris tend to describe the aspects of pride that are generally viewed as negative by our society, and the characteristics of pride describe aspects of pride that are generally viewed positively by our society. Consequently, individuals prone to the emotion of hubris are generally viewed negatively because of this emotional tendency, whereas individuals prone to experience pride are viewed more positively.

Fourth, this research advances the understanding of proneness to pride and hubris by examining the relationship of these constructs to the nomological network of related constructs. Of particular importance is the relationship between hubris proneness and narcissism because narcissism is arguably similar to hubris proneness. If the traits of narcissism and hubris proneness are distinct, then this would suggest that individuals can respond to success with feelings of superiority and contempt of others, without being narcissistic. Alternatively, if narcissism and hubris proneness are strongly related, then hubris proneness may be an emotional component of the narcissistic personality that has not been studied. The fifth theoretical contribution of these studies is that these studies will provide researchers with measurement instruments to further examine stable tendencies to experience pride and hubris. These measures will allow for further study of these traits.

The practical importance of these studies is that they examine a possible explanation for why success leads to hubris in some people and leads to pride in others. Understanding these differences in reactions to appraised success could be of interest to organizational psychologists seeking to understand phenomena such as why some CEOs experience hubris and ultimately make decisions that harm their company (Hayward & Hambrick, 1997). A second practical contribution of these studies for organizational psychologists is that hubris proneness may affect the effectiveness of feedback interventions because hubris-prone individuals might reinterpret negative feedback as positive (Lewis, 1992), precluding hubris-prone individuals from engaging in behaviors to improve poor performance (Kluger & DeNisi, 1996). A third contribution of these studies is that they are relevant to non-industrial/organizational psychologists as well. For

example, these studies examine whether or not proneness to pride and proneness to hubris predict performance in a college course. Evidence for a relationship between trait pride and performance or trait hubris and performance would lead to a better understanding of the influence that these affective traits have on a behavior of interest to educational psychologists. This research is also of interest to clinicians seeking to understand the behavior of their clients (e.g., why success leads some individuals to act arrogantly and thereby alienate the individuals they live and work with); to personality psychologists interested in understanding stable differences in the way individuals respond to success; to social psychologists who may be interested in how the traits of hubris and pride affect social interactions; and to developmental psychologists interested in how these traits develop as individuals age.

This theoretical review is organized into four sections. First, the states and traits of pride and hubris are defined and predictions are made for how these traits are related to the phenomenological experience of pride and hubris states. Furthermore, the relationship between the states of pride and hubris and the traits of pride and hubris are discussed and predictions are made for the validity of the inferences about the structure of the scores from these measures (i.e., structural validity). Second, the hypotheses for convergent and discriminant validity are developed by positioning these constructs in a nomological network of related traits. Third, hypotheses for the relationship between proneness to pride and proneness to hubris on the one hand, and performance on the other hand, are developed. Support for these hypotheses will provide evidence for the criterion-related validity of the measurement of these traits. Fourth, the two different methods of measuring proneness to pride and proneness to hubris are discussed. Based on this

discussion, it is argued that both methods have strengths and weaknesses and that two new measures based on these methods, as well as one existing measure (Tangney, 1990), should be examined for evidence of the discriminant and convergent validity using a multi-trait, multi-method framework.

State Pride, Trait Pride, State Hubris, and Trait Hubris

In this section, states and traits of pride and hubris are defined, and the relationship between states and traits of pride and hubris are discussed.

Qualitative Differences in States of Pride and Hubris

State pride is a transitory emotion that is triggered by a perceived success. The experience of the emotion state is associated with crediting a specific behavior for a success, feeling good about something that was done, feelings of accomplishment and achievement, feelings of enhanced capability, and focusing on the private relevance of the success (Lewis, 1992, 2000; Smith, Webster, Parrott, & Eyre, 2002; Tracy & Robins, 2004). State hubris is also a transitory emotional state that is triggered by the experience of success. In contrast to state pride, the experience of state hubris is associated with crediting the global self for a success, feelings of excessive self-confidence, feelings of superiority, desiring to boast to others, and focusing on the public relevance of the success (Lewis, 1992, 2000; Smith et al., 2002; Tracy & Robins, 2004).

The conceptual foundation for the above definitions of state pride and state hubris comes primarily from theory developed by Lewis (1992, 2000) and Tracy and Robins (2004). To distinguish pride from hubris as two qualitatively different emotions, Lewis (1992, 2000) proposed a cognitive-attributional theory of self-conscious emotions. This theory proposed that events that are evaluated as failures or successes signal the self. The

self then reflects on this signal and makes a self-attribution for the event. The emotions of hubris and pride are distinguished by whether or not the global self or a specific behavior, respectively, is credited for the success. Lewis based this distinction between global and specific attributions on the attribution model for depression (Abramson, Seligman, & Teasdale, 1978; Peterson et al., 1982), as well as work on implicit theories about the self (Dweck & Leggett, 1988). These theories suggest that individuals tend to form either global or specific explanations for their successes and failures.

Lewis (1992) further argued that appraisals of global or specific self-credit for a success are related to differences in the phenomenological experience of self-conscious emotions. That is, the experience of state pride is associated with an increased sense of capability and a feeling of achievement because the individual attributes his or her success to specific behaviors. In other words, state pride is associated with individuals' tendencies to think about what they did. This tendency allows individuals experiencing pride to see the success as an achievement (i.e., they did something in particular to bring about the success) and gain a sense of increased capability (i.e., they can now do something they were not able to do before). In contrast, state hubris is experienced as an excessive sense of pride and a belief in one's superiority because the global self is credited for a success (Lewis, 1992; Tracy & Robins, 2004). Consequently, the experience of success does not lead to a sense of achievement, but seemingly to a verification of the grandness of the self.

Findings from the study of shame and guilt may be applicable to the understanding of hubris and pride because all four emotions are referred to as self-conscious emotions and hence have some common denominators in that they result from

evaluations of the self and that the emotions are differentiated by whether or not they are associated with specific or global appraisals of blame or credit (Lewis, 1992; Tracy & Robins, 2004). More specifically, pride is considered to be the positively valenced counterpart to guilt whereas hubris is considered to be the positively valenced counterpart to shame (e.g., Lewis, 1992). Applying findings from research on state shame and guilt to the study of state pride and hubris implies that states of pride and hubris may be distinguished by a tendency to focus either on the private or on the public relevance of the success (Smith et al., 2002). Specifically, research has found that the negatively valenced counterpart to pride, the emotion of guilt, involves a focus on private transgressions as opposed to public transgressions. In contrast, research has found that shame, the negative counterpart to hubris, occurs when the blameworthy event occurred in public or is imagined to have occurred in public (Smith et al., 2002). This suggests that emotions based on specific self-attributions may involve a focus on the private relevance of successes or failures, whereas emotions based on global self-attributions may involve a focus on the public relevance of success or failure. Consequently, pride may be associated with a focus on the private relevance of a success (e.g., a focus on the self-improvement that an achievement signifies) and hubris may be associated with a focus on the public relevance of a success (e.g., a focus on how the achievement will lead others to see the individual as superior).

Qualitative Differences in Proneness to Pride and Proneness to Hubris

Whereas state emotions are transitory experiences, trait emotions are tendencies to frequently, or more readily, experience a particular state emotion (Lazarus, 1994; Tangney, 1990; Tangney & Dearing, 2002). Proneness to *pride* is defined as a tendency

to have frequent experiences of state pride (e.g., have feelings of accomplishment and increased capability) and a tendency to credit specific behaviors for successes (Tangney, 1990). Proneness to *hubris* is characterized by a tendency to have frequent experiences of hubris (e.g., feeling superior, excessively confident, and having a desire to boast) and a tendency to credit the global self for successes (Lewis, 1992; Tangney, 1990).

Tangney (1990; Tangney & Dearing, 2002), in particular, has emphasized individual differences in tendencies to experience self-conscious emotions. Paralleling Lewis's argument (1992), Tangney argued for the central role of global and of specific attributions in distinguishing proneness to hubris from proneness to pride. That is, individuals differ in the extent that they exhibit stable tendencies to form either global or specific appraisals of self-credit. Individuals who tend to form global appraisals of self-credit are prone to the emotion of hubris, whereas, individuals who form specific appraisals of self-credit are prone to the emotion of pride (Tangney, 1990; Tangney & Dearing, 2002). Consequently, hubris-prone individuals tend to frequently experience states of hubris and individuals prone to pride tend to frequently experience states of pride.

The Relationship of Trait Pride and Hubris with the Experience of State Pride and Hubris

Trait Pride-State Pride and Trait Hubris-State Hubris Relationships

Proneness to pride may also affect the phenomenological experience of state pride. Although there is no theory or research that suggests that the phenomenological experience of pride would differ for those less prone to pride from those more prone to pride, one possibility is that individuals prone to pride are able to prolong the pleasurable emotion. Research and theory on trait anger suggests that individuals high in trait anger

are unable to effectively cope with the negative emotion and therefore they cannot shorten the experience or regulate the negative consequences of anger (Deffenbacher et al., 1996). Analogously, individuals prone to pride may *extend* the experience of the state because pride is a pleasurable emotion that individuals enjoy. That is, in contrast to trait negative emotions like anger, individuals prone to pride do not fail to cope with the emotion, but rather have a capacity to extend the duration of the pleasurable emotion. Consequently:

Hypothesis 1: There is a significant positive correlation between proneness to pride and the duration for which individuals experience states of pride.

Similarly, hubris proneness may affect the experience of state hubris. Despite the fact that hubris is a pleasurable emotion, Lewis (1992) argued that for individuals prone to hubris, the emotion is very unsatisfying. This dissatisfaction occurs because hubris is a transient state that is difficult to reproduce because particular behaviors are not associated with the emotion. As a result, Lewis likened the hubris-prone individual to an addict, who in constant pursuit of the emotion, continuously alters his or her standards and goals to experience the transient emotion. In contrast, individuals not prone to hubris, may experience states of hubris as more satisfying and not have the same need to continually reproduce the emotion. Thus, hubris proneness may be negatively related to a tendency feel satisfied and gratified by the emotional experience of success.

Hypothesis 2a: There is a significant negative correlation between proneness to hubris and satisfaction with the emotional experience of success.

An alternative prediction, however, would suggest that hubris proneness does in fact lead to a feeling of satisfaction with success. First, Lewis argued that the emotion of

hubris is a pleasurable feeling (Lewis, 1992). Second, Lewis argued that individuals prone to hubris experience the emotion by cognitively reinterpreting events (e.g., taking credit for achievements that they had little role in or reinterpreting failures as successes). This cognitive fluidity associated with hubris proneness would suggest that individuals prone to hubris easily experience the pleasurable emotion of hubris. Thus, hubris proneness may lead to a high level of satisfaction because many outcomes can be construed by the hubris-prone individuals as successes due to the global self and thereby trigger the pleasurable emotional state. Thus, an alternative hypothesis to hypothesis 2a is:

Hypothesis 2b: There is a significant positive correlation between proneness to hubris and satisfaction with the emotional experience of success.

Trait Pride-State Hubris and Trait Hubris- State Pride Relationships

A parallel question to the above discussion is how does trait pride affect the experience of state hubris and how does trait hubris affect the experience of state pride? While there is no theoretical reason to suspect that one trait would affect the experience of the other emotion directly, it is possible that each trait can indirectly affect the other state. Specifically, individual differences in trait pride or hubris can affect the extent to which an individual feels either state pride or hubris in the event of a success (Tangney, 1990). In other words, individuals who are particularly prone to hubris will experience success by primarily experiencing hubris rather than pride, and individuals who are particularly prone to pride will experience success by primarily feeling pride rather than

hubris. Future research could examine this prediction by assessing proneness to pride and hubris, manipulating the experience of success, and then assessing state pride and hubris.¹

The Relationship between Proneness to Pride and Proneness to Hubris

Despite the differences between the emotions of pride and hubris and the dispositions to experience these emotions, another question is whether or not the emotion traits can co-occur in an individual. In other words, do individuals have tendencies to simultaneously appraise successes as resulting from their behavior and as resulting from their global self? One possible answer to this question is negative, and it comes from the literature on attribution tendencies. Peterson et al. (1982) argued that the tendency to make global self-attributions rather than specific self-attributions for negative events is a component in depression. Moreover, measures of attributions operationalize global and specific self-attributions as opposite ends of the same continuum (e.g., Feather & Tigge mann, 1984; Peterson et al., 1982). This approach to measurement assumes that the more individuals tend to make global attributions, the less they tend to make specific self-attributions. Consequently, the theory and measurement of attribution tendencies suggests that individuals cannot be prone to both pride and hubris.

However, research on dispositional tendencies to experience self-conscious emotions has conceptualized the tendency to experience emotions related to specific self-appraisals or related to global self-appraisals as two separate dimensions (Tangney, 1990). Additionally, this research has found that emotional dispositions related to global self-appraisals are correlated with dispositions to experience emotions that are related to specific self-appraisals (Tangney, 1990). Across a series of four studies, the correlation between shame proneness (based on global self-appraisals) and guilt proneness (based on

¹ Measures of state hubris did not exist at the time this research was conducted.

specific self-appraisals) ranged from $r = .43$ to $r = .48$. The moderate correlation that has been found between shame proneness and guilt proneness suggests that individuals may have some tendency to experience both emotions related to specific self-appraisals and emotions related to global self-appraisals.

Although the correlation between emotional dispositions based on global self-appraisals (i.e., proneness to shame) and those based on specific self-appraisals (i.e., proneness to guilt) has been empirically established, the reason for this relationship is not clear. Tangney (1990) argued that the negative content of shame and guilt proneness and the fact that both tendencies involve self-reproach explains the correlation between these traits. This argument suggests that the relationship between shame proneness and guilt proneness is not based on tendencies of individuals to make both specific and global self-appraisals, but rather on other aspects of these constructs, such as negative feelings of self-blame.

Another possible explanation for the positive correlation between trait pride and trait hubris is that individuals prone to experience emotions related to behavioral attributions (either guilt or pride) may also attribute their outcomes to the global self because they see the behavior as resulting from the global self (Fedewa, Burns, & Gomez, 2005). In contrast, individuals prone to experience emotions related to blaming or crediting the global self (i.e., shame or hubris respectively) cannot experience the corresponding emotion related to specific self-appraisals (i.e., guilt or pride) because they cannot cognitively disentangle the self from the outcome that elicited the emotion (Fedewa et al., 2005; Lewis, 1992). Therefore, this position argues that those prone to pride may experience hubris, but individuals prone to experience hubris will not

experience pride. Given these two different explanations (i.e., Fedewa et al., 2005; Tangney, 1990) for the relationship between emotions based on global appraisals and specific appraisals, proneness to hubris and proneness to pride are probably positively correlated, though the exact reason for this relationship is unclear (see Hypothesis 3). However, given the likelihood of a relationship between these two traits, the effects of one trait on another and the effects of each trait on other variables should be studied by methodologically controlling for the other trait by either using partial correlations, structural modeling, or other methodological techniques, as is done in this research (e.g., Fedewa et al., 2005; Parrott & Smith, 1993; Smith, Kim, & Parrott, 1988; Tangney, Wagner, Fletcher, & Gramzow, 1992).

Should a quantitative distinction be made between pride and hubris rather than a qualitative distinction?

Thus far, it has been argued that the states and traits of pride and hubris are two distinct emotions that are distinguished qualitatively. However, this qualitative distinction between pride and hubris contrasts with the common language use of the term hubris. Specifically, in common language the definition of hubris suggests that pride and hubris are a single emotion distinguished by the amount of pride felt relative to the situation. For example, *Webster's New American Dictionary* (1995) defines hubris as "exaggerated pride, or self-confidence" (p. 251). In other words, according to the dictionary, as a state emotion, hubris is defined as an excessive amount of pride, whereas, as a trait emotion, someone who repeatedly experiences excessive pride is defined as hubris-prone. Thus, the dictionary definition suggests that someone cannot experience a great deal of pride without experiencing hubris.

Although common language suggests that hubris and pride are a single state or a single trait, the usage of hubris as excessive pride demonstrates the linguistic confusion over these two distinct emotions rather than indicating a substantive difference (Lewis, 1992). In fact, defining hubris as excessive pride offers little in the way of explanation as to why the experience of hubris is phenomenologically different from the experience of pride (Lewis, 1992; Tracy & Robins, 2004). Moreover, it does not explain why some people can experience a great deal of pride without the negative features of hubris (Tracy & Robins, 2004). In order to explain the differences in the experience of the states of pride and hubris or the traits of pride and hubris, it is argued the two emotions need to be qualitatively, and not quantitatively, distinguished as is the case in current theory (Lewis, 1992; Tracy & Robins, 2004).

In summary, proneness to pride is a tendency to have frequent experiences of states of pride and to form specific appraisals of self-credit, whereas proneness to hubris is a tendency to have frequent experiences of state hubris to form global appraisals of self-credit. These traits may be associated with some differences in the phenomenological experiences of the emotions states and the traits of proneness to pride and proneness to hubris are positively correlated. Lastly, although common language would suggest that pride and hubris may be the same state or trait at different points on a continuum of the strength of the emotional experience, it is argued that pride and hubris are two qualitatively different emotions and traits.

Based on theory about the distinctions between proneness to pride and hubris reviewed above, I conclude that proneness to pride and hubris should be examined with separate measures. As previously discussed, it is predicted that hubris proneness and

pride proneness differ qualitatively, rather than quantitatively, and the traits are positively correlated. Thus the next hypothesis proposed in this research concerns the structural validity of the scores from the measures of proneness to pride and proneness to hubris.

Hypothesis 3: A model with two positively correlated latent factors, one representing proneness to pride and one representing proneness to hubris, demonstrates the best fit for the scores on the measures of proneness to pride and proneness to hubris compared to alternate models (see Figure 1).

Discriminant and Convergent Validity

This section discusses hypotheses for three types of validity evidence generated from the examination of the nomological networks for proneness to pride and for proneness to hubris. First, hypotheses are discussed for predictions of convergent relationships (Campbell & Fiske, 1959; Cronbach & Meehl, 1955). These hypotheses make predictions for a relationship between the scores from either a measure of proneness to pride or a measure of proneness to hubris, and the scores from a measure of a construct that is theoretically related to one of the two traits. However, while evidence for convergent validity will support the validity of the inference that the scores from the new measures reflect the traits of proneness to pride and hubris, the scores from the measures of two convergent constructs should also demonstrate discriminant validity. Thus, the second form of validity evidence sought in the following hypotheses is that scores from the new measures and scores from the measures of the convergent constructs reflect the measurement of different constructs (Campbell & Fiske, 1959; Cronbach & Meehl, 1955). Third, where appropriate, hypotheses are formulated for evidence that proneness to pride and proneness to hubris do not have overlapping positions in the

nomological network (Cronbach & Meehl, 1955). The nomological networks for proneness to pride and proneness to hubris include the traits of positive affectivity, negative affectivity, global attribution tendencies, self-esteem, and narcissism.

Positive Affectivity, Negative Affectivity, Proneness to Pride and Proneness to Hubris

Two well-studied affective dispositions are tendencies to experience positive and negative affect (Watson & Clark, 1984; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988; Watson & Tellegen, 1985). These largely orthogonal constructs are related to both emotional and general well-being (Diener, 1984; Tellegen, 1985; Watson & Clark, 1984). Trait negative affectivity refers to a stable tendency to feel upset and distressed, to react more strongly to negative situations, and view the self negatively (Watson & Clark, 1984). This trait is strongly related to the personality dimension of neuroticism (Meyer & Shack, 1989), but is different from it (Watson & Clark, 1994). Trait positive affectivity is a stable tendency to feel pleasant emotions and is strongly related to the personality trait of extraversion (Tellegen, 1985; Watson & Clark, 1984).

Convergent and discriminant relationships between proneness to pride, proneness to hubris, and positive affectivity and negative affectivity. The state emotions of pride and hubris are invoked when an individual credits his or her self, as in the case of hubris, or behavior, in the case of pride, for a positive outcome (Lewis, 2000; Tangney, 1999; Tracy & Robins, 2004). Consequently, individuals high in these traits (i.e., high proneness to pride or high proneness to hubris) may be more sensitive to positive events that occur, as compared to individuals low on these traits. In other words, individuals high in proneness to pride or proneness to hubris may be more sensitive to rewards and also have higher levels of trait positive affect (Gray, 1990, 1994a, 1994b; Larsen, Diener, & Lucas, 2002).

Alternatively, individuals prone to experiencing pride or hubris may be likely to have frequent experiences of positive affect (i.e., they are high on trait positive affectivity). In either case, trait positive affectivity should be positively correlated with proneness to pride and proneness to hubris. However, the scores from the measures of proneness to pride and from the measures of proneness to hubris should indicate that the measures of these traits assess constructs that are distinct from positive affect. Consequently;

Hypothesis 4a: A model with two positively correlated factors, one representing proneness to pride and one representing positive affectivity, demonstrates a better fit for the scores on the measures of proneness to pride and positive affectivity as compared to a one-factor model (see Figure 2).

Hypothesis 4b: A model with two positively correlated factors, one representing proneness to hubris and one representing positive affectivity, demonstrates a better fit for the scores on the measures of proneness to hubris and positive affectivity as compared to a one-factor model (see Figure 3).

Because trait negative affectivity is weakly correlated with trait positive affectivity (e.g., Watson et al., 1988), neither a strong relationship between negative affectivity and proneness to hubris nor between negative affectivity and proneness to pride is expected. This suggests that the relationship between both proneness to pride and proneness to hubris and trait positive affectivity is stronger than the relationship between both proneness to pride and proneness to hubris and trait negative affectivity.

Consequently, it is hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 4c: The correlation between proneness to pride and positive affectivity is significantly greater than the correlation between proneness to pride and negative affectivity.

Hypothesis 4d: The correlation between proneness to hubris and positive affectivity is significantly greater than the correlation between proneness to pride and negative affectivity.

Attribution Style and Proneness to Pride and Proneness to Hubris

If hubris proneness is related to a tendency to credit the global self for success and pride proneness is related to a tendency to credit one's behaviors for success, then do these emotional tendencies add to the understanding of human behavior beyond attribution style on the dimensions of stability, globality, and internal/external attributions (Abramson et al., 1978; Peterson et al., 1982)? In other words, to qualify as new, useful constructs in the psychological literature, proneness to pride needs to be differentiated from the tendency to make specific, internal self-attributions and proneness to hubris needs to be differentiated from the tendency to make global, internal self-attributions. This distinction between attribution tendencies and emotional dispositions requires making a distinction between knowledge, or the "facts" of the situation, and appraisal, or the implication that the "facts" have for the individual's well being (Smith, Haynes, Lazarus, & Pope, 1993).

In relation to state emotions, attributions are cold cognitions that are necessary but insufficient to form appraisals associated with different emotions (Smith et al., 1993). In order for attributions to become heated appraisals that produce emotions, there must be cognitions about the adaptive significance of the event for the individual (i.e., what the

implications are for the person's well-being). Moreover, Smith et al. showed that appraisals are more proximately and strongly related to emotional experiences than attributions are. Specifically, Smith et al. showed that appraisals added significantly more variance to predicting emotions over attributions (on average, 17% in each of two studies) relative to the amount of variance accounted for by attributions over appraisals (on average, 10% in the first study and 4% in the second study).

In the same way that appraisals are more strongly related to the experience of state emotions than attributions are, tendencies to experience emotions are more strongly associated with appraisal tendencies (e.g., Lazarus, 1994; Scherer, 1997) than with attribution tendencies. In other words, knowing individuals' attribution tendencies is insufficient to know if they are prone to experience pride or hubris. Specifically, global and specific attribution tendencies are not as strongly related to the frequent experience of hubris and pride than are global and specific appraisal tendencies of self-credit. Further evidence for claiming that emotional dispositions are distinct from attribution tendencies comes from research on the relationships between attribution tendencies and proneness to shame and guilt. Specifically, Tangney (1992) found that the magnitude of the correlations between attributional style and guilt proneness, and attributional style and shame proneness, were small to moderate. These small to moderate relationships would suggest that measures of emotional dispositions are distinct constructs from attribution tendencies, although the size of the relationships may be attenuated due to the unreliability of the measure of attribution tendencies.

Convergent and discriminant relationships between proneness to hubris, proneness to pride, and global attribution tendencies. Given that attributions are

necessary to form appraisals (Lazarus & Smith, 1988; Smith et al., 1993), it seems reasonable to expect that attribution tendencies are correlated with proneness to experience pride and hubris. Specifically, the tendency to make global attributions for positive events should be positively correlated with proneness to hubris because the emotion of hubris is associated with crediting the global self for positive events. However, as argued before, attribution tendencies are distinct from tendencies to experience emotions, suggesting that scores from the measures of proneness to hubris should demonstrate discriminant validity from the scores of attribution tendencies.

Consequently, I hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 5a: A model with two positively correlated factors, one representing proneness to hubris and one representing global attribution tendencies, demonstrates a better fit for the scores on the measures of proneness to hubris and global attributions as compared to a one-factor model (see Figure 4).

Furthermore, the tendency to make global attributions should be negatively correlated with proneness to pride because this emotional tendency is associated with specific appraisals of self-credit for positive outcomes. As with proneness to hubris, proneness to pride and global attribution tendencies are distinct constructs and the scores from these measures should demonstrate discriminant validity. Consequently, the next hypothesis is:

Hypothesis 5b: A model with two negatively correlated factors, one representing proneness to pride and one representing global attribution tendencies, demonstrates a better fit for the scores on the measures of proneness to pride and global attributions as compared to a one-factor model (see Figure 5).

Self-esteem, Proneness to Pride, and Proneness to Hubris

Brown and associates defined self-esteem as the level of affection for ones' self (Brown & Dutton, 1995; Brown, Dutton, & Cook, 2001). In comparison, feelings of self worth are transitory emotional states such as pride and shame that arise from positive or negative outcomes (Brown & Dutton, 1995; Brown et al., 2001). Thus, self-esteem and feelings of self worth are qualitatively different phenomena, although they are related. For example, research has found that individuals with high self-esteem may be good at protecting feelings of self-worth (Brown & Dutton, 1995; Brown & Marshall, 2001). Specifically, high self-esteem individuals seem to not experience negative feelings of low self-worth in the event of failure as much as those with low self-esteem (Brown & Dutton, 1995; Brown & Marshall, 2001). Additionally, another study provided evidence that high global self-esteem leads to more favorable specific self-evaluations (i.e., evaluations of specific abilities or personality characteristics), suggesting that the relationship between global self-esteem and feelings of self-worth may be mediated by self-evaluations (Brown et al., 2001). Consequently, high self-esteem may affect self-evaluations in response to positive outcomes that in turn lead to the experience of states of pride or hubris. This reasoning suggests that self-esteem is either a contributing factor or a primary determinant of the dispositions to experience emotions related to self-evaluations (i.e., self-conscious emotions of pride, hubris, guilt, and shame).

However, others have suggested that rather than higher levels of self-esteem leading to greater levels of pride, the experience of pride may increase levels of self-esteem (Barrett, 1995; Tangney, 2003). Consequently, high self-esteem may lead to frequent experiences of pride or hubris, or frequent experiences of pride or hubris may

lead to high self-esteem, or the relationship might be bidirectional. Whichever direction the causal effect is, research and theory suggest that self-esteem may be closely related to tendencies to experience pride or hubris. However, despite this close relationship, there are two reasons for hypothesizing that tendencies to experience pride or hubris are different constructs than global self-esteem.

First, trait self-esteem represents a stable sentiment directed at the self (Baumeister, 1998; Baumeister, Campbell, Krueger, & Vohs, 2003; Brown et al., 2001). That is, individuals' assessments of self-esteem at one time should be consistent with assessments made at a later time. As argued by Tangney and Dearing (2002), this consistency contrasts with emotional dispositions, which are tendencies to experience an emotion given an eliciting event. In other words, although a person's trait self-esteem should be fairly consistent from moment to moment, a person high in a trait emotion is not continuously experiencing that emotion; but rather, the emotion is frequently triggered by different events. A second reason for considering self-esteem and proneness to pride or hubris as separate constructs is that the relationship between proneness to shame (another self-conscious emotion), and self-esteem is moderate. In fact, Tangney and Dearing reported an average correlation of $r = -.42$ between shame-proneness and self-esteem. This finding suggests that trait self-conscious emotions, such as shame, are not the same as self-esteem, although self-conscious emotions are related to self-esteem.

Convergent and discriminant relationships between proneness to pride, proneness to hubris, and self-esteem. The theoretical relationships between proneness to pride and proneness to hubris on the one hand, and trait self-esteem on the other, suggest that both proneness to pride and proneness to hubris positively correlate with trait self-esteem.

However, both proneness to pride and proneness to hubris are different constructs than trait self-esteem. As a result, the scores from the measures of proneness to pride and self-esteem, as well as the scores from the measures of proneness to hubris and self-esteem should demonstrate discriminant validity. Consequently, it is hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 6a: A model with two positively correlated factors, one representing proneness to pride and one representing self-esteem, demonstrates a better fit for the scores on the measures of proneness to pride and self-esteem as compared to a one-factor model (see Figure 6).

Hypothesis 6b: A model with two positively correlated factors, one representing proneness to hubris and one representing self-esteem, demonstrates a better fit for the scores on the measures of proneness to hubris and self-esteem as compared to a one-factor model (see Figure 7).

An additional question is whether proneness to pride or proneness to hubris is more strongly related to self-esteem. Although Tracy and Robins (2004) hypothesized that both state pride and state hubris would enhance self-esteem (suggesting that proneness to pride or hubris are related to levels of self-esteem because of the frequent experience of these emotions), the relationship between self-esteem and hubris proneness may be greater than the relationship between self-esteem and pride proneness. Hubris proneness may be more strongly related to global self-esteem than is pride proneness because both hubris proneness and self-esteem involve global self evaluations. In comparison, proneness to pride involves a tendency to make a specific appraisal of self-credit for positive events, suggesting that this construct should not be as strongly related

to a global construct such as global self-esteem. Consequently, the next hypothesis is as follows:

Hypothesis 6c: The correlation between trait self-esteem and proneness to hubris is significantly greater than the correlation between self-esteem and proneness to pride.

Narcissism, Proneness to Pride, and Proneness to Hubris

Though narcissism has traditionally been conceived of as a clinical personality disorder, it can also be viewed as a personality characteristic that occurs at sub-clinical levels (Raskin & Hall, 1981). Narcissism is defined by the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (American Psychiatric Association, 1994) as a personality trait characterized by grandiosity and inflated self-importance; preoccupation with fantasies about the self involving success, power, intelligence, or attractiveness; tendencies toward exhibitionism; and a tendency to respond to criticism with indifference, or feelings of anger, inferiority, shame, humiliation, or defeat. Additionally, to be diagnosed as narcissistic, individuals should also have two or more of the following problems in interpersonal relationships: an attitude of entitlement, a tendency to exploit other individuals, relationships that alternate between over-idealization or devaluation, or a lack of empathy. As indicated in the above definition, a central feature of narcissists is that they exhibit behaviors and attitudes that suggest that they have an overly favorable impression of themselves (e.g., Campbell, Rudich, & Sedikides, 2002; Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001; Raskin & Terry, 1988). The Narcissistic Personality Inventory (NPI), a frequently used measure of narcissism focuses, in part, on the manifestations of this apparent inflated attitude about the self (Emmons, 1987; Raskin & Terry, 1988).

Specifically, the NPI measures individuals' strong beliefs in their self-capability, their tendency to see themselves as superior to other people, their desire to show off and be noticed, and vanity regarding their appearance, (Raskin & Terry, 1988). One of the effects of these overly positive views of the self is that narcissistic individuals tend to be contemptuous of other individuals, which tends to alienate others (Emmons, 1987; Raskin & Terry, 1988).

This description of the narcissistic personality sounds similar to the description of individuals prone to experiencing hubris, which suggests a relationship between narcissism and hubris proneness. As with narcissism, proneness to hubris leads to contemptuousness and provokes a negative response in others (Lewis, 1992, 2000; Tracy & Robins, 2004). Consequently, the first reason to consider narcissism and hubris proneness as related constructs is that individuals prone to frequent experiences of hubris may behave similarly to narcissistic individuals. Second, theorists of self-conscious emotions have suggested that narcissism and hubris are related in that narcissists are particularly prone to experiences of hubris (Lewis, 1992; Tracy & Robins, 2004). The descriptive similarities between proneness to hubris and narcissism, as well as the theoretical relationship between these constructs (Lewis, 1992; Tracy & Robins, 2004), suggest that proneness to hubris may be closely related to narcissism.

The relationships between narcissism and proneness to hubris described above raise an important question; why is it important to study hubris proneness in addition to narcissism? In answer to this question, it is argued that there are three reasons why hubris proneness should be studied in addition to narcissism. The first reason is that the narcissistic personality construct focuses on cognitions about the self (Emmons, 1987;

Raskin & Terry, 1988) whereas proneness to hubris represents the tendency to experience an affective state (Lewis, 2000; Tangney, 1999). Within the NPI, four factors have been found (Leadership/Authority, Self-Absorption/Self-Admiration, Superiority/Arrogance, and Exploiteness/Entitlement, Emmons, 1984; Emmons, 1987), all of which describe stable attitudes about the self and do not appear to represent any affective content.

Although the dimension of self-admiration may seem to reflect affective content, the items for this dimension focus on liking the self and body. Two example items from the NPI that illustrate this lack of affective content are “I am going to be a great person” and “I always know what I am doing.” In contrast, previous operationalizations of proneness to hubris contained an affective component along with a self-evaluation component. For example, two items that measure hubris from the Test of Self-Conscious Affect-3 (TOSCA-3) ask respondents to indicate how likely “You would feel happy with your appearance” in response to a compliment from a friend’s spouse, and “You would feel competent and proud of yourself” in response to receiving a bonus for successfully completing a project at work. Consequently, if hubris proneness and narcissism are highly related, then the study of hubris proneness may still be important because the tendency to experience hubris in narcissists may reflect a previously unstudied affective aspect of narcissism. Specifically, hubris proneness in narcissists may decrease feelings of low self-esteem and shame (Lewis, 1992; Reich, 1986). Lewis has argued that narcissists are preoccupied with the global self and as a result are prone to feelings of shame. In order to counteract feelings of shame, narcissists engage in emotional behavior that masks feelings of shame, that is, these individuals seek feelings of hubris to prevent feelings of shame. Similarly, Tracy and Robins (2004) argued that narcissists seek

opportunities to feel hubris to regulate their self-esteem. Consequently, I argue that it is important to study proneness to hubris in addition to narcissism even if these two constructs are strongly related because hubris proneness has not been studied in relation to narcissism and this emotion trait may function to regulate negative feelings of shame. However, this hypothesis cannot be studied until measures of hubris proneness are developed.

A second reason for studying hubris proneness in addition to narcissism is that hubris proneness may affect the behavior of narcissists in ways that are different from the effects of the other aspects of the construct. In particular, hubris proneness may cause states of hubris in narcissists that lead these individuals to boast excessively about an event that they perceive as a success. As such, hubris proneness may be a primary factor that leads to the perception that narcissists are arrogant. Consequently, the study of proneness to hubris may be worthwhile because the isolation of this aspect of narcissism would allow researchers to examine how hubris proneness affects the behavior and perception of narcissists separate from the other aspects of narcissism. This may lead to important theoretical and practical insights into the structure and operation of the narcissistic personality that would be missed if hubris proneness was assumed to be part of the narcissistic construct and not measured separately.

A third reason for studying hubris proneness in addition to narcissism is that even though a correlation between hubris proneness and narcissism may exist, some hubris-prone individuals may not be narcissistic, and conversely, some narcissists may not be hubristic. Evidence that hubris proneness is independent of narcissism in some individuals comes from the study of self-enhancement in narcissists. Specifically,

although narcissists seem to generally seek self-enhancement (Campbell, Reeder, Sedikides, & Elliot, 2000; John & Robins, 1994; Rhodewalt & Morf, 1998), there is evidence that narcissists only inflate ratings of themselves on agentic traits (i.e., traits that reflect egoistic biases or social dominance such as extraversion, openness to experience, and intelligence) and not on communal traits (i.e., traits that reflect moralistic bias and emphasize social connections such as agreeableness and conscientiousness, Campbell et al., 2002). Furthermore, although narcissism was positively related to ratings of intelligence and to how positive the trait of intelligence was considered to be, it was unrelated to self-ratings of morality and how positive morality was considered to be (Campbell et al., 2002). The finding that narcissists tend to self-enhance only on traits related to individual abilities and social dominance suggests that narcissists do not feel that meeting interpersonal and communal standards leads to the fulfillment of self-relevant goals. In contrast, discussions of hubris proneness do not argue that individuals high on this trait only view positive outcomes related to individual abilities or social dominance as important successes (e.g., Lewis, 1992). That is, individuals prone to hubris may also see communal traits as relevant to their identity-goals and consequently, some hubris-prone individuals may also experience hubris from interpreting interpersonal or pro-social situations as personal successes. Consequently, some individuals, who are not narcissistic, may be prone to hubris. Moreover, hubris proneness may have different implications for the behavior for narcissists than for non-narcissists.

Convergent and discriminant relationships between proneness to hubris and narcissism. The above discussion of proneness to hubris and narcissism suggests that although there may be a positive relationship between narcissism and proneness to

hubris, narcissism and hubris are separate constructs. Consequently, the next hypothesis is:

Hypothesis 7a: A model with two positively correlated factors, one representing proneness to hubris and one representing narcissism, demonstrates a better fit for the scores on the measures of proneness to hubris and narcissism as compared to a one-factor model (see Figure 8).

However, the relationship between narcissism and proneness to pride should be different than the relationship between narcissism and proneness to hubris. The reason for this differential relationship is that individuals prone to pride make behavioral attributions for their successes. Narcissists, on the other hand, are preoccupied with the global self and tend to evaluate events in terms of their relevance for the self (e.g., Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001; Raskin, Novacek, & Hogan, 1991; Tracy & Robins, 2004). Although narcissists may also make specific attributions and have frequent experiences of pride, they should be more prone to experiencing hubris than pride. Consequently, I predict:

Hypothesis 7b: The correlation between narcissism and proneness to hubris is significantly greater than the correlation between narcissism and proneness to pride.

Summary of the Nomological Network

In summary, the traits of positive affectivity, negative affectivity, global attribution tendencies, self-esteem, and narcissism represent constructs that occupy the nomological networks for proneness to pride and proneness to hubris. Evidence for the validity of the scores from the measures of proneness to pride and proneness to hubris can be found by examining the convergent and discriminant validity of the scores from

the measures of proneness to pride and proneness to hubris and the traits in the nomological network. Moreover, as discussed below, further validity evidence can come from the relationship between the scores from the measures of proneness to pride and proneness to hubris and behavioral outcomes. Thus, the next section discusses two models in which proneness to pride and proneness to hubris are examined as predictors of performance, specifically, classroom grades.

Criterion-Related Validity: Relationships between Proneness to Pride and Hubris and Performance

The utility of the constructs of proneness to pride and proneness to hubris would be advanced if they were shown to predict a behavior of practical importance. Thus, the next study discusses hypotheses related to criterion related validity using a behavioral criterion of practical importance – performance. Two models illustrate two alternative theoretical explanations of the relationships between proneness to pride, proneness to hubris, and performance. The hypothesized models describe predictive relationships in which proneness to pride and proneness to hubris are related to performance through the intervening effects of self-set goal difficulty and behavioral intentions to meet the goal. In the first model (see Figure 9), proneness to pride and proneness to hubris predict performance. In this model, both proneness to pride and proneness to hubris indirectly predict performance, through the mediation of self-set goal difficulty and behavioral intentions. More specifically, in the first model there is a direct effect for proneness to pride on self-set goal difficulty and behavioral intentions. Additionally, there is a direct effect for proneness to hubris on self-set goal difficulty and an indirect effect for

proneness to hubris on behavioral intentions. In turn, self-set goal difficulty and behavioral intentions predict performance.

The second model (see Figure 10) is a less complex model that does not include proneness to hubris as a predictor of performance. This model is based on Lewis's (1999) discussion of pride and hubris. Lewis argued that the hubristic individual experiences success through cognitively reinterpreting performance situations rather than by meeting standards of success. He further argued that individuals who experience pride are motivated to meet standards of success because the emotion is associated with a focus on the action that leads to good performance. Consequently, in the second model the relationship between proneness to pride and performance is mediated through the effect of behavioral intentions. Additionally, because self-set goal difficulty remains a likely predictor of behavioral intentions and grades, this variable is included in the model but only as an exogenous predictor of performance and behavioral intentions.

The theoretical and empirical bases for the aforementioned models are discussed below.

Theoretical Basis for Model One

Proneness to pride and hubris predict self-set goal difficulty. The relationships between trait pride, trait hubris, and performance are based on the notion that how an individual responds to his or her environment is in part influenced by his or her personality (Mischel & Shoda, 1999). An individual's personality sensitizes him or her to different features in their environment and this sensitization influences how he or she responds. For individuals prone to pride or hubris, one feature of the environment that is particularly salient are standards of performance (e.g., what grade constitutes good

performance; what time would be considered good in a race). Standards of performance are salient to individuals prone to pride or hubris because attention to standards of performance is necessary in order to experience pride or hubris (Tracy & Robins, 2004). Hence, individuals prone to pride or hubris will attend to standards of performance across a wide variety of domains (e.g., school, work, and social relationships).

Once individuals prone to pride or hubris attend to standards of performance in a given situation, these individuals begin to anticipate that they would feel pride or hubris, respectively, if they meet the standards. Theoretically, the anticipation of pride or hubris occurs because the frequent experience of a self-conscious emotion such as pride or hubris in the past leads to greater anticipation of that self-conscious emotion in new situations (McGregor & Elliot, 2005). A possible effect of this anticipation of pride or hubris is enhanced feelings of self-efficacy. Specifically, the recollection of past experiences of good performance may lead to feelings of enhanced capability (for the pride-prone individual) or feelings of superiority (for the hubris-prone individual). As a result, both the anticipation of pride in the pride-prone individual and the anticipation of hubris in the hubris-prone individual should be associated with increased self-efficacy. Furthermore, research has found that self-efficacy is positively related to self-set goal difficulty (Diefendorff, 2004; Phillips & Gully, 1997). Thus, pride proneness and hubris proneness are related to the difficulty of the goals individuals set for themselves (see Figure 9, path a and path b).

Proneness to pride predicts behavioral intentions. Although proneness to pride and proneness to hubris are both predicted to be positively related to self-set goal difficulty, the two traits are predicted to have different effects on cognitions about

behavioral intentions to meet these self-set goals. Specifically, only proneness to pride is predicted to have a direct relationship with intentions to engage in behaviors necessary to meet those goals. Individuals prone to pride anticipate feeling pride in situations where goals or standards are present. The anticipation of pride is associated with cognitions about the behaviors necessary to achieve the performance standard. As such, the anticipation of pride and the associated cognitions about goal directed behaviors energizes and directs individuals' behavior towards meeting the performance standard (Bagozzi, Baumgartner, & Pieters, 1998; Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001). That is, the anticipation of pride in individuals prone to pride leads to the formation of intentions to engage in goal directed behaviors (Bagozzi et al., 1998; Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001). Thus, pride proneness should be positively related to behavioral intentions (see Figure 9, path c).

Proneness to hubris is not directly related to behavioral intentions, but is indirectly related to behavioral intentions. Individuals prone to hubris anticipate feeling hubris and the anticipation of hubris is associated with the cognitions about the role of the global self in meeting standards of performance. For the hubris-prone, cognitions focus on how meeting the performance standard is a function of the capabilities of the person, not specific behaviors. Consequently, proneness to hubris energizes the individual to meet the goal, but does not lead to behavioral intentions aimed at meeting the goal. The result is that the individual prone to hubris may fail to meet performance standards and consequently cognitively reinterprets the situation in order to perceive that the goal was met (Lewis, 1992, 2000). Examples of this cognitive reinterpretation include altering the original standard or imagining that extraneous circumstances prevented the individual

from meeting the standard. Therefore, it is not predicted that hubris proneness has a direct relationship with intentions to engage in goal directed behaviors.

However, it is predicted that hubris proneness is *indirectly* related to behavioral intentions. As previously discussed, hubris proneness predicts self-set goal difficulty. Furthermore, the goals that individuals hold are believed to be related to the formation of behavioral intentions to meet those goals (Gollwitzer & Brandstätter, 1997; Locke, Bryan, & Kendall, 1968). Consequently, this would suggest that as the level of self-set goal difficulty increases, intentions to engage in behaviors to meet the goals would also increase (see Figure 9, see path d). As a result, hubris proneness is indirectly related to behavioral intentions through an effect on self-set goal difficulty (see Figure 9, path a and path d).

Self-set goal difficulty and behavioral intentions predict performance. Both behavioral intentions and self-set grade goal difficulty should be positively related to performance. In general, there is extensive research that supports a relationship between goal difficulty and performance (Locke & Latham, 2002). More specifically, research has found that, up to a point, the more difficult goal a person sets for his or herself, the higher the level of performance (Locke & Latham, 1990). Additionally, research supports the relationship between intentions to engage in a behavior and engaging in that behavior (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977; Bagozzi et al., 1998). More specifically, in goal directed situations, intentions to engage in goal directed behaviors predicts engaging in those behaviors (Bagozzi et al., 1998; Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001). Consequently, both behavioral intentions and self-set goal difficulty should be positively related to performance (see Figure 9, path e and path f).

Hypotheses for the relationships between proneness to pride and hubris, and performance. The theoretical relationships between proneness to pride, behavioral intentions, self-set goal difficulty, and performance described above (see Figure 9) suggest three indirect effects for pride proneness on performance, each contributing to the total effect of pride proneness on performance.

Hypothesis 8a: Proneness to pride is positively related to performance.

Hypothesis 8b: The relationship between proneness to pride performance is mediated by behavioral intentions (see Figure 9, path c and path f).

Hypothesis 8c: The relationship between proneness to pride performance is mediated by self-set goal difficulty (see Figure 9, path b and path e).

Hypothesis 8d: The relationship between proneness to pride and performance is mediated by self-set goal difficulty and behavioral intentions (see Figure 9, path b, path d, and path f).

The theoretical relationships between proneness to hubris, self-set goal difficulty, behavioral intentions, and performance also suggest two mediated paths between proneness to hubris and performance.

Hypothesis 9a: Proneness to hubris is positively related to performance.

Hypothesis 9b: The relationship between proneness to hubris performance is mediated by self-set goal difficulty (see Figure 9, path a and path e).

Hypothesis 9c: The relationship between proneness to hubris and performance is mediated by self-set goal difficulty and behavioral intentions (see Figure 9, path a, path d, and path f).

Theoretical Basis for Model Two

The second model is similar to the first model in that self-set goal difficulty and behavioral intentions are related to performance (Locke & Latham, 1990). As a result, for the second model it is also predicted that:

Hypothesis 10a: Self-set goal difficulty is positively related to performance.

Hypothesis 10b: Self-set goal difficulty is positively related to behavioral intentions.

However, in contrast to the first model, the alternative model does not make predictions for the relationships between proneness to hubris and performance. In his theoretical development of the states and traits of pride and hubris, Lewis (1992, 2000) argues that pride proneness facilitates meeting standards whereas hubris proneness does not. Specifically, Lewis argues that pride is associated with a focus on the actions that lead to success, thus pride acts as a motivational force. In contrast, individuals prone to hubris do not relate their experience of success to the actions that produced it. In fact, Lewis argues that hubristic individuals cognitively reinterpret situations (e.g., through altering their standards for success) in order to experience success.

Lewis's (1992, 2000) arguments for the relationship between pride proneness and performance are similar to the argument developed for the first model described above. Specifically, he argues that pride leads to improved performance because of the attention on behavior associated with the emotion. However, Lewis does not discuss a possible relationship between proneness to pride and the level of the goals that individuals set for themselves. As a result the alternative model does not predict proneness to pride is

related to self-set goal difficulty. Consequently, the hypotheses for the relationship between proneness to pride and performance are as follows (see Figure 10):

Hypothesis 11a: Proneness to pride is positively related to performance.

Hypothesis 11b: The relationship between proneness to pride and performance is mediated by behavioral intentions.

Currently, there are not adequate measures to test the hypotheses discussed above.

To rectify this situation, the next section discusses two approaches that were used to develop measures of proneness to pride and hubris.

Approaches to Measuring Proneness to Pride and Proneness to Hubris

Two different approaches to measuring proneness to pride and proneness to hubris will be examined in this research. One approach builds on Tangney's (1990) use of responses to scenarios to measure trait self-conscious emotions. The second approach asks respondents to indicate the frequency with which they experience states associated with the traits of pride and hubris. The strengths and weaknesses of these measurement approaches are discussed below.

Scenario Approach

Tangney (1990; Tangney & Dearing, 2002) has developed scenario based measures of proneness to pride and proneness to hubris (The Test of Self-Conscious Affect-3, TOSCA-3). Specifically, the items she has used to measure individual differences in self-conscious emotions ask respondents to indicate the likelihood of feeling or responding in a particular way in response to a particular situation. For example, an item from the TOSCA-3 asks respondents to respond to the following

situation: “For several days you put off making a difficult phone call. At the last minute you make the call and are able to manipulate the conversation so that all goes well.” The item for measuring proneness to hubris in response to this situation is “You would think: ‘I guess I’m more persuasive than I thought’.” The item for measuring proneness to pride is “You would think: ‘I did a good job’.” This scenario approach seems to represent an *If...then* approach to studying personality (Funder, 2001). That is, the respondent is asked to indicate that in a situation in which they experience a success (or a failure in the case of shame and guilt), how likely they would be to feel pride or hubris. Moreover, Tangney argued that when individuals experience an emotion across multiple situations, they can be considered high in that emotional trait. This measurement approach follows directly from the concept of proneness to a self-conscious emotion. For example, individuals prone to feeling guilt do not feel a constant level of guilt. However, when a negative outcome occurs they are likely to blame that outcome as resulting from a behavior that they engaged in (Tangney, 1990; Tangney & Dearing, 2002). Consequently, asking participants to respond how proud, hubristic, ashamed, or guilty they would feel across multiple situations indexes how easily individuals enter into the corresponding emotional state.

Tangney’s (1990) use of scenarios to measure self-conscious emotions should be viewed in the context of the history of the use of responses to scenarios as a means of measuring characteristics of individuals. In the personnel selection literature, situational judgment tests often involve participants reading a description of a situation and choosing the response that they feel is the most appropriate from a list of possible responses to situation (McDaniel, Morgeson, Finnegan, Campion, & Braverman, 2001). Similarly,

there is a history in personality assessment of using responses to scenarios to measure personality traits such as attribution tendencies (e.g., Peterson et al., 1982). More recently, conditional reasoning approaches to measuring personality ask individuals to make judgments in response to scenarios (James & Mazerolle, 2002). Finally, traditional reading comprehension tests require test-takers to read a passage and then answer a series of questions that refer to the passage (Sireci, Thissen, & Wainer, 1991).

Although broadly used, the use of responses to scenarios as a psychometric technique complicates measurement. In particular, the use of scenarios introduces an additional source of variance to the scores on the measure that should be treated as error variance. In other words, a source of the variation on a scenario based test stems from lasting but specific characteristics of individuals that affect how they respond to a particular scenario (Thorndike & Lindquist, 1951). This source of variance should be treated as error because it is related to a “chance” sampling of the particular scenario from the universe of all possible scenarios (Thorndike & Lindquist, 1951). In particular, Thorndike noted that if items are nested within a scenario, such as a passage on a reading comprehension test, and are included in two halves of the test in the assessment of split half reliability, the source due to the particular scenario will be treated as systematic variance and not as error. Consequently, the estimate of reliability will be inflated because a portion of the shared variance between the two test halves will be due to the particular scenarios used and not the construct being assessed. Furthermore, because internal consistency is essentially the average of all split-half reliabilities, internal consistency estimates will also be inflated if multiple items nested within scenarios are included in the set of items for which the internal consistency of the scores is being

assessed (Sireci et al., 1991). Nesting of items also leads to inflated estimates of the precision of measurement when standard item response theory techniques are used because the nesting of items violates the assumption of local independence (Sireci et al., 1991).

However, note the inflation of estimates of reliability discussed above occurs when the items nested within a scenario are measuring the *same* construct, and thus, the reliability of the scores on a scale are calculated based on a set of items that are nested within a scenario. In contrast, in Tangney's (1990) measure of self-conscious emotions, items nested within scenarios are assessing *different* constructs. Recall that Thorndike (1951) argued that the use of scenarios results in additional sources of variance, the variance due to sampling of a subset of scenarios from the universe of all possible scenarios. With Tangney's (1990) method of measuring self-conscious emotions, this source of variance will not be shared by items in the same scale and will be properly treated as error. Although the variance is properly being treated as error, the use of the scenarios introduces an additional source of error variance not found in non-scenario based measurement. As a result, Tangney and Dearing (2002) noted that one weakness of measures based on this method is that their scores are subject to low internal consistency. Specifically, the authors argued that because each item contains some variance that is unique to the particular situation depicted in it that is not shared with the other test items, there will be a larger unique variance component across the multiple scenarios than would be seen in measures that are not scenario based. As a result, ratings of these items do not tend to intercorrelate as well as ratings on non-scenario based measures. In three studies reported by Tangney and Dearing, the low internal consistencies of the scores on

the TOSCA-3 are particularly notable for the proneness to pride (α 's = .72, .41, and .48) and proneness to hubris scales (α 's = .72, .55, and .51). Tangney argued that the low internal consistencies of the scores from these five-item measures could be improved by lengthening the scale (Tangney, 2003).

The second problem with the scenario approach is that it requires stability in specific responses to different situations. Research on personality suggests that although there may be stability in general classes of behaviors across situations, there may be instability in specific behaviors across situations (Funder & Colvin, 1991). In other words, a person may act cheerfully across multiple situations, but the particular behavioral manifestations may vary across situations (e.g., he or she may smile in one situation and say cheerful things in another situation). Consequently, given that the TOSCA-3 and the new scenario items constructed for this study ask participants to indicate the likelihood of responding in specific ways for each situation, it may be difficult to find agreement in their responses across multiple situations.

As an alternative measurement approach, proneness to pride and proneness to hubris can be measured by assessing the frequency of experiencing the phenomenological states of pride and hubris. This approach is discussed below.

Global Adjective Frequency Approach

An alternative way to measure proneness to pride and proneness to hubris is to ask respondents to indicate how frequently they experience feelings and cognitions related to proneness to pride and proneness to hubris. For example, an item to measure proneness to pride would ask a respondent to indicate how frequently he or she "Feel(s) pleased with something you have done." This item would be answered using a seven

point response format ranging from *very infrequently* to *very frequently*. The frequency based measurement assumes that individuals prone to a particular emotion frequently experience that emotion state, whereas those not prone to an emotion infrequently experience that emotion. Given that this assumption follows from the definition of proneness to an emotion (Tangney, 1990), the frequency approach is an appropriate technique for assessing proneness to pride and hubris. However, this method of measurement has some limitations.

One problem with items that use a variety of adjectives to measure dispositions to experience emotions is that they often require respondents to have an above average vocabulary (Tangney & Dearing, 2002). Consequently, some respondents may not know the meaning of all of the words used which may lead to problems in measuring the construct. Although this issue can be alleviated by presenting alternative synonyms to help the respondent understand the terms used in the questions (e.g., explaining that feeling vain means to feel excessively proud), the number of possible synonyms that can be used is limited when multiple items are used to tap a single emotion. Specifically, when multiple items are used to tap a single construct, it may become difficult to provide synonyms for one adjective descriptor of a construct that do not overlap with another existing item. As a result, it may be difficult to clarify the meanings of a term used on one item without using terms referred to in other items.

A second problem is that some adjectives used will have clear evaluative implications. For example, in measuring hubris respondents may be asked to indicate how frequently they feel superior. Given that respondents will likely recognize that feeling superior may be perceived as arrogance, which is not a socially desirable

attribute, few respondents may report frequently feeling superior. The influence of socially desirable responding can be mitigated by measuring additional relevant traits, such as social desirability, and if necessary use them as controls in statistical analyses.

In short, both the scenario method and the frequency method of measuring proneness to pride and proneness to hubris have strengths and weaknesses. Consequently, measures based on both approaches were developed. The scores from these measures will be examined for evidence that they are measuring the same constructs and the extent to which the responses are biased by method effects. As discussed below, this analysis will be conducted using a multi-trait, multi-method analysis.

Multi-Trait, Multi-Method Hypotheses

When there are more than two measures for each of more than two constructs, the covariance matrix of the scores from these measures can be analyzed using a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) model for multi-trait, multi-method data (Byrne, 1998; Lance, Noble, & Scullen, 2002). As discussed later, this study examines three measures (one existing measure and two new measures) of proneness to pride and proneness to hubris. The multi-trait, multi-method analysis allows for an assessment of the convergent and discriminant validity of the scores from the three independent measures of the traits. Evidence for the convergent validity of the scores for the traits would suggest that the different methods are measuring the same traits. Support for the discriminant validity of the scores for the *traits* would suggest that independent methods of assessment diverge in the measurement of different traits (i.e., more than one trait is in fact being measured). In the assessment of the discriminant validity of the scores from the measures for the *methods*, evidence for discriminant validity of the methods would

indicate that method variance is not a significant problem. Consequently, the next hypotheses are (see Figures 11 and 12):

Hypothesis 12a: Scores from independent measures of proneness to pride and proneness to hubris demonstrate convergent validity of traits. That is, a correlated trait, correlated methods model fits better than a correlated methods model without trait factors.

Hypothesis 12b: Scores from independent measures of proneness to pride and proneness to hubris demonstrate discriminant validity of traits. That is, a correlated two trait factor model fits better than a single-factor model.

Hypothesis 12c: Scores from independent measures of proneness to pride and proneness to hubris will demonstrate discriminant validity of methods. That is, a multi-method factor model fits the data better than a single method factor model.

Comparing the Different Measures of Proneness to Pride and Proneness to Hubris

To determine which of the two proposed measures of proneness to pride and proneness to hubris is a better measure of these traits, the proposed frequency and scenario measures will be compared on the basis of the relative strength of the psychometric evidence for each measure. Specifically, the different approaches to measuring trait pride and trait hubris can be compared based on the evidence of the reliability of the scores, evidence of the discriminant and convergent validity with related traits in the nomological network, and on the basis of evidence of criterion-related validity. Evidence for better psychometric quality of one measure in comparison to the other would lead to the recommendation of the use of the superior measure in future research. This process of comparing multiple measures of the same construct on the basis

of reliability and validity evidence has been used in other studies that compared multiple measures of constructs such as self-esteem (Bosson, Swann, & Pennebaker, 2000) and general self-efficacy (Chen, Gully, & Eden, 2001).

The Current Studies

There are three goals for the research reported in this dissertation. The first is to develop two new measures of proneness to pride and proneness to hubris, validate, and cross-validate the structure of the scores from these two new measures. The second goal is to provide evidence for the validity of the inferences made from the scores from the new measures. This will be done by assessing the evidence for the discriminant and convergent validity of the scores from the measures of trait pride and hubris in a nomological network of related constructs. Additionally, evidence of the convergent and discriminant validity of the scores from the measures of trait pride and hubris will be examined in a multi-trait, multi-method framework (Campbell & Fiske, 1959; Cronbach & Meehl, 1955). I will also examine the new measures for evidence of criterion-related validity. Specifically, I will test to see if the scores from the measures predict hypothesized differences in the phenomenological experience of states of pride associated with the traits. Finally, the third goal is to further assess the evidence for criterion-related validity by examining whether or not scores from the measures of trait pride and hubris predict a behavior of practical interest – performance.

To meet these goals I have created two new measures of proneness to pride and proneness to hubris primarily based on the theoretical content of these traits developed in this paper. Additionally, I used data from an open-ended questionnaire and focus group discussions on the emotion of pride held with undergraduate students in order to ensure

that the language used in the items was accessible to future participants. These measures will be examined for evidence of validity in two separate studies.

Summary of Study 1. The first study examines seven sets of hypotheses. The first two sets of hypotheses make predictions for the relationship between proneness to pride and proneness to hubris and the phenomenological experience of states of pride and hubris. Support for these hypotheses will provide evidence for the criterion-related validity of the measures of proneness to pride and proneness to hubris. As stated earlier, these hypotheses are:

Hypothesis 1: There is a significant positive correlation between proneness to pride and the duration for which individuals experience states of pride.

Hypothesis 2a: There is a significant negative correlation between proneness to hubris and satisfaction with the emotional experience of success.

Hypothesis 2b: There is a significant positive correlation between proneness to hubris and satisfaction with the emotional experience of success.

The purpose of the third hypothesis is to specify the expected measurement model for the scores from the measures of proneness to pride and proneness to hubris. This hypothesis is:

Hypothesis 3: A model with two positively correlated factors, one representing proneness to pride and one representing proneness to hubris, demonstrates a better fit for the scores on the measures of proneness to pride and proneness to hubris as compared to a one-factor model (see Figure 1).

The next four sets of hypotheses predict relationships between the traits of proneness to pride and proneness to hubris and other trait constructs in the nomological

network. The purpose of these hypotheses is to provide evidence of validity by examining the relationships between the scores from the measures of proneness to pride and proneness to hubris and the scores from measures of other constructs in the nomological network. Additionally, these hypotheses predict that evidence for the discriminant validity of the scores from the measures of proneness to pride and proneness to hubris from the scores on the other related constructs will be found. These hypotheses are as follows:

Hypothesis 4a: A model with two positively correlated factors, one representing proneness to pride and one representing positive affectivity, demonstrates a better fit for the scores on the measures of proneness pride and positive affectivity as compared to a one-factor model (see Figure 2).

Hypothesis 4b: A model with two positively correlated factors, one representing proneness to hubris and one representing positive affectivity, demonstrates a better fit for the scores on the measures proneness to hubris and positive affectivity as compared to a one-factor model (see Figure 3).

Hypothesis 4c: The correlation between proneness to pride and positive affectivity is significantly greater than the correlation between proneness to pride and negative affectivity.

Hypothesis 4d: The correlation between proneness to hubris and positive affectivity is significantly greater than the correlation between proneness to pride and negative affectivity.

Hypothesis 5a: A model with two positively correlated factors, one representing proneness to hubris and one representing global attribution tendencies,

demonstrates a better fit for the scores on the measures of proneness to hubris and global attributions as compared to a one-factor model (see Figure 4).

Hypothesis 5b: A model with two negatively correlated factors, one representing proneness to pride and one representing global attribution tendencies, demonstrates a better fit for the scores on the measures of proneness to pride and global attributions as compared to a one-factor model (see Figure 5).

Hypothesis 6a: A model with two positively correlated factors, one representing proneness to pride and one representing self-esteem, demonstrates a better fit for the scores on the measures of proneness to pride and self-esteem as compared to a one-factor model (see Figure 6).

Hypothesis 6b: A model with two positively correlated factors, one representing proneness to hubris and one representing self-esteem, demonstrates a better fit for the scores on the measures of proneness to hubris and self-esteem as compared to a one-factor model (see Figure 7).

Hypothesis 6c: The correlation between trait self-esteem and proneness to hubris is significantly greater than the correlation between self-esteem and proneness to pride.

Hypothesis 7a: A model with two positively correlated factors, one representing proneness to hubris and one representing narcissism, demonstrates a better fit for the scores on the measures of proneness to hubris and narcissism as compared to a one-factor model (see Figure 8).

Hypothesis 7b: The correlation between narcissism and proneness to hubris is significantly greater than the correlation between narcissism and proneness to pride.

Evidence for the convergent and discriminant validity of the measures of proneness to pride and proneness to hubris will also be examined within a multi-method, multi-trait framework (see Figure 11).

Hypothesis 12a: Scores from independent measures of proneness to pride and proneness to hubris demonstrate convergent validity of traits. That is, a model that specifies two correlated trait factors fits better than model without any trait factors.

Hypothesis 12b: Scores from independent measures of proneness to pride and proneness to hubris demonstrate discriminant validity of traits. That, is a correlated two trait factor model fits better than a single-factor model.

Hypothesis 12c: Scores from independent measures of proneness to pride and proneness to hubris will demonstrate discriminant validity of methods. That is, a multi-method factor model fits the data better than a single method factor model.

Summary of Study 2. In study two I will cross-validate the structure of the scores from the measures of proneness to pride and hubris and examine two sets of hypotheses that make predictions for evidence of the criterion-related validity of the scores. The first hypotheses are based on a theoretical rationale that argues that proneness to pride and proneness to hubris should predict performance indirectly through their relationship with self-set goal difficulty and behavioral intentions (see Figure 9):

Hypothesis 8a: Proneness to pride is positively related to performance.

Hypothesis 8b: The relationship between proneness to pride performance is mediated by behavioral intentions.

Hypothesis 8c: The relationship between proneness to pride performance is mediated by self-set goal difficulty.

Hypothesis 8d: The relationship between proneness to pride and performance is mediated by self-set goal difficulty and behavioral intentions.

Hypothesis 9a: Proneness to hubris is positively related to performance.

Hypothesis 9b: The relationship between proneness to hubris performance is mediated by self-set goal difficulty.

Hypothesis 9c: The relationship between proneness to hubris and performance is mediated by self-set goal difficulty and behavioral intentions.

The second set of alternative hypotheses specifies a simpler model in which proneness to pride alone predicts performance. These hypotheses are as follows (see Figure 10):

Hypothesis 10a: Proneness to pride is positively related to performance.

Hypothesis 10b: The relationship between proneness to pride and performance is mediated by behavioral intentions.

Hypothesis 11a: Self-set goal difficulty is positively related to performance.

Hypothesis 11b: Self-set goal difficulty is positively related to behavioral intentions.

Next, I describe two pilot studies that were conducted to create new items to measure trait pride and trait hubris. The first study consisted of a qualitative analysis of experiences of pride and hubris. The purpose of this study was to explore possible items that describe the experiences of pride and hubris as well as situations that are perceived as successes in order to develop items to measure trait pride and hubris. In the second pilot study, the items written based on theory and the results from Pilot Study 1 were given to a sample of participants for the purposes of an initial examination of some psychometric properties (i.e., item means, standard deviations, corrected item-total correlations, and the reliability of the scores for each scale).

Chapter 2

Pilot Study 1 – Item Development

PILOT STUDY 1 – ITEM DEVELOPEMENT

Method

Although the theoretical discussions of pride and hubris are the primary sources for information about how to operationalize these traits, a qualitative study was also conducted to aid in item development. Understanding the variety of situations that individuals consider successes was of primary interest for the development of the scenario-based measure. Learning about the ways that individuals describe feelings of pride and hubris is important for the development of the frequency-based measure. In this pilot study, separate sessions were run in which participants were either asked about feelings of pride or asked about feelings of hubris. The study was comprised of two parts; respondents first completed a questionnaire of open ended questions about pride or hubris and then participated in a focus group.

Participants

Thirty-nine Introductory Psychology students from a large northeastern university participated in this study for the sessions that asked about pride and 28 students participated in the sessions that asked about hubris.

Measures

Questionnaire

Participants completed a questionnaire that was comprised of fifteen questions, twelve of which required open-ended responses (Wallbott & Scherer, 1989). The questionnaire asked participants to think of a situation in which they felt either pride or hubris. Participants completed either the pride or the hubris questionnaire, depending on which session they were in. Once they thought of a situation, participants were asked to

describe the situation, as well as the bodily reactions, feelings, and thoughts they had during their experience of the emotion. Two example items are “In your opinion, what words would best describe your emotion,” and “What did you do to try to control your emotions in this situation?” The complete list of items for pride is listed in Appendix A and in Appendix B for hubris. The only difference between the questionnaires was the emotion that they refer to. Additionally, hubris was defined for the participants as exaggerated pride or over-confidence.

Focus Group Questions

After they completed the questionnaire, participants were asked to participate in focus groups, in which they were asked to describe either feelings of pride or hubris by describing the situation, the people involved, the thoughts and feelings people had, and the actions they took (see Appendices C and D). Participants either answered questions about pride or hubris depending on which session they attended. As with the questionnaires used in this study, the only difference between the focus group questions for pride and hubris were the emotions that the questions referred to. Two example items are “If you were going to describe pride [or hubris] in a questionnaire, how would you do this,” and “What are some negative outcomes of pride [or hubris]?” The purpose of the focus group was to further explore the events that triggered pride or hubris and the way participants described the experience of pride or hubris.

Procedure

One to five participants were admitted to the laboratory at a time. Upon entering the laboratory, participants sat down at a computer. Next, participants read the statement of informed consent and completed the questionnaire online. Once all participants

finished the questionnaire, they sat around a table in preparation for beginning the focus group. At this time, participants were notified that the conversation would be tape-recorded. Participants then signed consent statements indicating that they agreed to a tape-recording of the discussion.

During the focus group, questions were asked in the order listed in Appendices C or D (depending on which emotion was being asked about). However, follow up questions were also asked during the course of the focus group. The follow-up questions were asked to seek an elaboration of something that a participant said, were intended to clarify a statement made by a participant, or asked others in the group if they agreed or disagreed with a statement made by a participant.

Results

Data Analysis

To analyze the qualitative data for both the questionnaire and the focus group questions, the statements made by participants were first organized into a matrix in which the unit of analysis was a single thought or statement. For the open-ended questionnaire, each complete answer written by a participant for one question was considered a complete statement. However, because of the fluidity of the conversation in some of the focus groups, a complete uninterrupted thought of an individual was treated as a statement for analysis for these data. That is, for the focus group responses, a statement included what the participant said from the time they began speaking until another member of the group spoke or until I asked the next question. Furthermore, each statement for both the focus group and the questionnaire could have multiple codes. For example, a respondent in the focus group on pride said “I think some people tend to boast

or brag [about] what they have accomplished. I don't think everybody does this, some people don't make such a big deal about it but can be happy and excited." This statement was coded for two themes, boasting and individual differences.

Separate coding schemes were generated for each question from the questionnaire and focus group responses from reading the participants' statements. That is, the coding themes were based on common themes identified in the participants' responses. Upon completion of the coding scheme, the statements made by participants for each question were coded using the appropriate code. In this study codes were created by the author, and I also coded all the data. Because the purpose of this qualitative research was primarily to generate possible ideas for situations and ways of phrasing experiences related to pride, multiple coders were not used. Moreover, past research using focus groups in questionnaire development have not discussed the use of multiple coders of qualitative data (e.g., Maurer, Howe, & Lee, 1992).

The coding schemes and the frequency of coded statements for each theme are in Tables 1-9 and Tables 10-19 for the questionnaire and the focus groups, respectively.

Responses for Pride

Questionnaire responses for pride. Tables 1 - 9 list the frequency of the codes for the questionnaire items. In order to summarize the results of the study, only the three most frequently mentioned coded responses are described below. Additionally, examples of responses given by participants are presented for the codes that are less concrete.

The most commonly stated locations where pride occurred were school (42.1% of statements, 41.0% of respondents), followed by home (13.2% of statements, 12.8% of respondents), and at work (10.5% of statements, 10.3% of respondents). Family (15.8%

of statements, 23.1% of respondents) and friends (14.0% of statements, 20.5% of respondents) were the most frequently involved individuals in the pride related situation, followed by classmates (12.3% of statements, 17.9% of respondents). The most frequently stated events that lead to feelings of pride were accomplishing a goal in general (16.7% of statements, 25.6% of respondents), getting a desired position such as a new job or an internship (11.7% of statements, 17.9% of respondents), and being recognized for good performance (10.0% of statements, 15.4% of respondents). The most frequently mentioned words used to describe pride were joy or happiness (18.9% of statements, 43.6% of respondents). Not surprisingly this was followed by the word pride (12.2% of statements, 10.7% of respondents). The third most commonly used word was confident (7.8% of statements, 17.9% of respondents). When asked what they said during the experience, the most common responses were expressing gratitude (15.6% of statements, 17.9% of respondents, e.g., “thanks to my supervisor”), saying nothing (15.6% of statements, 17.9% of respondents), and verbally expressing joy and excitement (13.3% of statements, 15.4% of respondents, e.g., “I did it! I did it! I did it!”). The most commonly stated bodily reactions were smiling (34.0% of statements, 46.2% of respondents), followed by feeling energetic or activated (20.8% of statements, 28.2% of respondents, e.g., “I...felt like I had lots of energy.”). Trembling or feeling shaky was the third most frequently mentioned bodily response (17.0% of statements, 23.1% of respondents, e.g., “I had butterflies in my stomach.”). When asked what they did to control their feelings of pride, participants most commonly stated that they did nothing (37.8% of statements, 35.9% of respondents). However, trying to calm their self (e.g., “I tried to get calm and I tried to control myself.”) was mentioned by ten individuals (27.0%

of statements, 25.6% of respondents) and three participants (8.1% of statements, 7.7% of responses) said they tried to not express their pride (e.g., “I tried not to brag about it and only mention it when someone asked.”). When asked to describe how they controlled their emotions, most participants said they did not try to control their feelings (40.0% of statements, 35.9% of respondents), followed by the use of cognitive strategies such as thinking of other things (25.7% of statements, 23.1% of respondents, e.g., “By focusing on something else.”), and verbal expressions of feeling (8.6% of statements, 7.7% of respondents, e.g., “I tried to sit around and express my emotions verbally rather than physically.”). The most common response to the question asking what the participant would have done differently was nothing (46.2% of statements, 46.2% of respondents), followed by decreasing the expression of the emotion (12.8% of statements, 12.8% of respondents, e.g., “I will stay quiet.”), and feeling more of the emotion (12.8% of statements, 12.8% of respondents, e.g., “Try [to] make it stronger.”).

Focus group responses for pride. The frequencies with which different coded responses were mentioned for each of the focus group questions are listed in Tables 10-19. Below, the three most frequently given responses are described in order to capture common ways that people think about feelings of pride. As with the questionnaire responses, examples of participant responses are given for some of the codes to further illustrate the meaning of the codes.

The most frequently mentioned causes of pride were accomplishing a goal in general (17.7% of statements, 28.2% of respondents, e.g., “achieving a goal that you have established for yourself.”), helping others achieve goals (12.9% of statements, 20.5% of respondents, e.g., “I think pride is when you help someone.”), and receiving recognition

from others (9.7% of statements, 15.4% of respondents, e.g., “When people get rewards or recognition.”). Next, participants were asked what it was about those events that made people feel proud. The most common responses were the effort expended (16.7% of statements, 20.5% of respondents, e.g., “That you put effort into something”), the recognition received (16.7% of statements, 20.5% of respondents, e.g., “Recognition is also important, when you do a good job and people tell you that you did a good job it feels good.”), and that the effort you expend and a quality of the self (14.6% of statements, 17.9% of respondents, e.g., “I think it is either/or. Like when you achieve something that is something you work for. At the same time you can be proud of your background or a car and it depends on the person.”). The most common action that participants felt individuals experiencing pride do was boast (15.0% of statements, 23.1% of respondents, e.g., “I think some people tend to boast or brag about what they have accomplished.”). However, several individuals felt that what an individual did depended on the person feeling pride (13.3% of statements, 20.5% of respondents). For example one participant said:

I think [bragging or boasting] is not really feeling proud, that is something else, like being stuck up. Pride essentially [is], I would say hey did you see what I did and look for someone to say good job. It’s not in a negative way, not like I am better than you. I think it’s just a different attitude for some people.

The third most common response was that individuals smile when they feel pride (8.3% of statements, 12.8% of respondents).

Next, participants were asked if there were things that individuals did when feeling pride that they might later regret. The most common response was mentioned four

times (20.0% of statements, 10.3% of respondents) and indicated that sometimes individuals felt pride about things that they should not have felt pride about, such as engaging in socially unacceptable behavior. Bragging too much was mentioned by three participants (15.0% of statements, 7.7% of respondents) and three participants (15.0% of statements, 7.7% of respondents) mentioned being overexcited.

To understand the social aspects of pride, participants were asked if they thought of themselves in relation to other individuals when feeling pride. The most common response was that participants said that they made favorable social comparisons when they felt pride (34.9% of statements, 38.5% of respondents, e.g., “You compare yourself to someone else, like you could do that and they didn’t.”). Nine participants (20.9% of statements, 23.1% of respondents) felt that how people thought about themselves in relation to others depended on the person feeling pride (e.g., “I guess it depends on the person you are.”) and five participants (11.6% of statements, 12.8% of respondents) thought about how close others were proud of them. For example, one participant said, “Thinking about people like your family, like they would feel proud too, proud of you, which would make you feel proud.” The next question asked was similar. Specifically, participants were asked whether or not individuals experiencing pride are concerned with how others will see them. Seven statements (29.2% of statements, 17.9% of respondents) indicated that it depends on the person feeling proud (e.g., “[For] some people, it’s almost like being a people pleaser, their pride is based on what others are expecting,”). Four individuals (16.7% of statements, 10.3% of respondents) thought that pride was primarily an internal experience (e.g., “If it is something your proud about, it is internal, it doesn’t

really have to do with anyone else.”), although four others thought it depended on the situation (16.7% of statements, 10.3% of respondents). For example one participant said:

I would see it as, you have to pick and choose your battles. There are times when you try to be humble about it and you think I just tried my best, but there are other times when you know you did better. I think it matters what people think of you, it comes down to that we are a society that is run by other people’s beliefs, so we do care, but sometimes you do enjoy your own pride, your own accomplishment.

Next, the participants were asked whether or not pride makes people feel more capable and if so, how. Fourteen individuals (43.8% of statements, 35.9% of respondents) stated that pride does make individuals feel more capable; six individuals (18.8% of statements, 15.4% of respondents) indicated that it makes you want to take on new challenges (e.g., “If you have just achieved something or you are proud for someone, you feel like you can conquer anything.”), and three (9.4% of statements, 7.7% of respondents) said that it gives you more self-esteem. The most commonly used words to describe pride were confident or capable (14.0% of statements, 15.4% of respondents), self-satisfied or self-esteem (14.0% of statements, 15.4% of respondents), and happy (11.6% of statements, 12.8% of respondents). When asked about the positive outcomes of feeling pride, nine participants (45.0% of statements, 23.1% of respondents) said increased self-confidence or self-esteem, four participants (20.0% of statements, 10.3% of respondents) said it makes you work harder, and two participants (10.0% of statements, 5.1% of respondents) said it makes you feel good. When asked about the negative aspects of feeling pride, eleven participants (26.2% of statements, 28.2% of respondents) said that it makes individuals act or feel superior or conceited, ten

individuals (23.8% of statements, 25.6% of respondents) said that it makes you overestimate yourself or your abilities, and five people (11.9% of statements, 12.8% of respondents) said that it makes you too self-focused (i.e., “you are talking about yourself, so you don’t care about others.”)

Summary of questionnaire and focus group responses for pride. On the whole, the findings from this study seem consistent with theory. Feelings of pride occur in response to events where goals were accomplished, people feel excited and energized by moments of pride, and they desired to talk to others about the experience or just exclaim their excitement (Lazarus, 1991; Lewis, 1992; Tracy & Robins, 2004). Additionally, the majority of participants did not try to control their feelings of pride and some tried to increase the feeling. That some people try to increase feelings of pride is consistent with the argument made in this dissertation that individuals prone to pride will extend feelings of pride.

Responses for Hubris

Questionnaire responses for hubris. The most commonly stated locations where hubris occurred were at an athletic venue (e.g., a gym or a basketball court, 28.6% of statements, 28.6% of respondents) followed by work (21.4% of statements, 21.4% of respondents) and school (21.4% of statements, 21.4% of respondents). An authority or decision maker such as a coach or leader was the most frequently mentioned person involved in the participants’ hubris experiences (33.3% of statements, 39.3% of respondents). Additionally, there were four statements (12.1% of statements, 14.3% of respondents) indicating that either teammates or coworkers were involved in the

situation, and four statements (12.1% of statements, 14.3% of respondents) indicating that friends were involved in the situation.

The most frequently stated descriptions of the events that involved feeling hubris were winning or thinking about winning a game or contest (22.6% of statements, 25.0% of respondents, e.g., “my team won the summer basketball championship and I was named MVP of the tournament,”). The second most frequently stated type of events was meeting a goal such as earning a good grade or graduating (16.1% of statements, 17.9% of respondents, e.g., “I studied really hard and I got a 90 on my test.”). The third most frequently mentioned type of event was that the participants indicated that they were thinking they were going to win or succeed but failed because of overconfidence (12.9% of statements, 14.3% of respondents). For example, one participant said:

I told my husband that I have a math test scheduled for next day, and he advised me to start studying as soon as possible. As soon as he left home for work, instead of following his advice, I spent the whole afternoon watching television, because I was confident that I have always been good at math, so I will pass the test very easily. The next day during the test I was completely lost, and I failed the test.

The most frequently stated words or phrases associated with feelings of hubris were happiness or joy (14.3% of statements, 28.6% of respondents), pride (10.7% of statements, 21.4% of respondents), and feeling better than others or superior (8.9% of statements, 17.9% of respondents). When asked what they said during the experience, the most common response was expressing gratitude (20.8% of statements, 17.9% of respondents, e.g., “I said thank you to my ___ leader.”), followed by saying nothing (20.8% of statements, 17.9% of respondents). Additionally, four of the statements made

(16.7% of statements, 14.3% of respondents) indicated that the individual expressed confidence in winning or their future success (e.g., “I have a great chance of getting in!”).

The most commonly stated bodily reactions were smiling or displaying cheerful facial expressions (20.0% of statements, 28.6% of respondents, e.g., “I was smiling, sweating, very cheerful expressions.”) and feeling butterflies in the stomach, trembling, or feeling shaky (20.0% of statements, 28.6% of respondents, e.g., “I was shaking and clapping along with everyone else.”). The third most frequently stated bodily reaction was acting shocked or speechless (12.5% of statements, 17.9% of respondents, e.g., “My bodily reaction at first was that I gave a surprised facial expression because I was shocked that I was needed.”).

When asked what they did to control their feelings of hubris, participants most commonly stated that they tried specifically not to act hubristically, superior, or cocky (40.7% of statements, 39.3% of respondents, e.g., “I tried not to seem too cocky because of what the other team might think”), this was followed by avoiding the situation, trying not to speak too much, or seeking distraction by doing other things (22.2% of statements, 21.4% of respondents, e.g., “I tried to distract myself by doing other activities,” and “I wouldn't speak unnecessarily.”). The third most common response was indicating that he or she did not do anything to control his or her emotions (18.5% of statements, 17.9% of respondents). When asked to describe how they controlled their emotions, most participants said they either tried to not think about the success or distracted their selves with the task or another activity (29.6% of statements, 28.6% of respondents, e.g., “I just didn't say anything and focus on work”). The second most common response was that the participants just tried to act normal and not show feelings or facial expressions during the

experience (22.2% of statements, 21.4% of respondents, e.g., “I would try not to show my feeling so much, by just acting normal.”). The third most common statements were to do nothing (14.8% of statements, 14.3% of respondents) and not being able to control their reactions (14.8% of statements, 14.3% of respondents, e.g., “I couldn't control my giggling, and sense of pride however.”).

The most common response to the question asking what the participant would have done differently was nothing (34.6% of statements, 32.1% of respondents), followed by decreasing the expression of the emotion (19.2% of statements, 17.9% of respondents, e.g., “I would not be as cocky and conceited even though I was really confident in myself.”), and trying to feel less hubris (19.2% of statements, 17.9% of respondents, e.g., “I would not reach that feeling of hubris because as I found out, there is always a chance of losing.”).

Focus group responses for hubris. The most frequently mentioned causes of hubris, each mentioned three times (11.1% of statements, 10.7% of respondents), were general or non-specific goal accomplishment (e.g., “I would say when people achieve their goals in the activity that they do.”), academic goal accomplishment (e.g., “recently I got a good math score.”), recognition or getting a special award or reward (e.g., “I think when a manager tells you that you are the only one who can perform well on a task.”), and playing sports (e.g., “Mostly sports I think, playing sports in particular.”). Next, participants were asked what it was about those events that made people feel hubris. The most common response was feeling superior (21.1% of statements, 14.3% of respondents e.g., “It makes you feel like they are looking up to you like your better than them”), followed by accomplishing a goal (15.8% of statements, 10.7% of respondents, e.g.,

“Like when you are trying for something and you do it.”) and being admired or looked up to (e.g., “Or when you are a leader or looked up to by others, when others look to you for advice or when people set their standards up to what you have set.”). The most common things that participants felt individuals experiencing hubris did was act arrogantly, superior, or brag (38.9% of statements, 25.0% of respondents, e.g., “They put others down. They try to make others fear them or be intimidated by them, be loud and everything.”). Additionally the following statements were each made twice (11.1% of statements, 7.1% of respondents): the experience of hubris depends on the person (e.g., “It depends on who the person is and how they can handle it.”), hubris increases self-confidence (e.g., “you feel confident and you think the other person is not up to your level”), hubris makes you want to repeat an action (e.g., “Do the same action again.”), and hubris makes you feel more power and unconcerned with problems. For example, one participant said:

I also think that maybe your daily problems and everything that you deal with everyday become smaller, and you feel like everything is good now.

Next, participants were asked if there were things that individuals did when feeling hubris that they might later regret. Feeling overconfidence, decreasing effort, or attention to the task was the most frequently mentioned response (55.6% of statements, 35.7% of respondents, e.g., “One time we were playing the state championships and we were overconfident and we lost.”), followed by hurting peoples feelings (22.2% of statements, 14.3% of respondents, e.g., “They might make others feel bad about themselves.”) and bragging (11.1% of statements, 7.1% of respondents, e.g., “Rubbing it in, at the moment they felt that confidence,”).

To understand the social aspects of hubris, participants were asked if they thought of themselves in relation to other individuals when feeling hubris. The most common response was that people feeling hubris only focus on themselves (44.4% of statements, 20.5% of respondents, e.g., “Not really. When they are overconfident they don’t care about anybody.”). The second most common response was that participants said that people make favorable self-comparisons to others or feel superior when they felt hubris (33.3% of statements, 15.4% of respondents). For example one participant said:

Say they have somebody that does that, they rub it in, they make themselves feel superior, they say that are better than everybody else.

Additionally, three participants (16.7% of statements, 7.7% of respondents) said that whether or not a person compares themselves to another person when feeling hubris depends on the person (e.g., “It depends on the person.”). The next question asked was similar. Specifically, participants were asked whether or not individuals experiencing hubris are concerned with how others will see them. Eight people (50.0% of statements, 28.6% of respondents) stated that individuals feeling hubris are only focused on the self and are not concerned with how other people see them (e.g., “On the other hand if you have too much pride in yourself, you don’t care what other people think. You just think you are on top of the world and nobody else matters.”). However, five individuals (31.3% of statements, 17.9% of respondents) thought when people feel hubris they do care about how people view them (e.g., “Some people like to have a certain image above everyone else,”). Additionally, one statement (6.3% of statements, 31.3% of respondents) was made for each of the following categories: others can increase the feeling of hubris by

noticing your accomplishment, it depends on the person, and when feeling hubris you think others see you as superior.

Next, the participants were asked whether or not hubris makes people feel more capable and if so, how. Sixteen individuals (88.9% of statements, 57.1% of respondents) stated that hubris makes you feel more capable, confident, stronger, or more powerful (e.g., “I guess so because in a way they are more confident, they feel more powerful.”), one person (5.6% of statements, 3.6% of respondents) said that hubris increases your self-esteem and one person (5.6% of statements, 3.6% of respondents) said that hubris can lead to feeling that “Nothing can stop you.” The most commonly used words or expressions to describe hubris were pride (9.7% of statements, 10.7% of respondents), superior to others (9.7% of statements, 10.7% of respondents), and untouchable or invincible (9.7% of statements, 10.7% of respondents). When asked about the positive outcomes of feeling pride, five participants (31.3% of statements, 17.9% of respondents) said feeling accomplished or good (e.g., “You feel good about yourself.”). Four participants (25.0% of statements, 14.3% of respondents) said individuals work harder or are more motivated when they feel hubris (e.g., “Strive for more.”), and three participants (18.8% of statements, 10.7% of respondents) said hubris increased self-confidence or self-esteem. For example, one participant said:

You’re not scared to face other problems you just go do it. You take the good things out of that feeling and you use them for the future you can achieve more difficult things.

When asked about the negative aspects of feeling hubris, four participants (25.0% of statements, 14.3% of respondents) said that it makes people overestimate themselves

or have too much confidence (e.g., “Overconfidence.”). Three participants (18.8% of statements, 10.7% of respondents) said that hubris can lead to later disappointment if one fails to meet one’s or others’ expectations. For example one participant said:

You can make yourself look foolish. You’re so overconfident that you build yourself up and then you collapse in front of everybody. Like you’re “I am going to take this guy down”, and then you lose in front of everybody, then you become a big laughing stock.

Additionally, two statements (12.5% of statements, 7.1% of respondents) were made indicating that hubris can cause someone to make other people feel bad (e.g., “You can hurt somebody else’s feelings,”) and two statements (12.5% of statements, 7.1% of respondents) indicated that hubris does not last long (e.g., “After a few days you come back down, your just back to normal.”).

Summary of questionnaire and focus group responses for hubris. Consistent with theory, the experience of hubris was most often associated with accomplishing a goal or winning or thinking about winning a contest. An additional finding that was consistent with theory was that respondents frequently indicated that the experience of hubris occurred on a time when they felt overconfident and subsequently lost. Words such as pride, happiness, feeling superior were commonly associated with hubris. The fact that the word pride was associated with hubris may reflect the common use of the term to describe hubris as well as the emotion of pride.

Given that the emotion of hubris is theoretically described as leading to the perception that the individual feeling the emotion is experiencing arrogance (Lewis, 1992), it was surprising to find that despite feeling hubris, respondents frequently

indicated that they expressed gratitude while feeling the emotion. Attempting to control the expression of hubris was another common response to the emotion. This response seems inconsistent with theory. Hubris is described as leading to the perception that the individuals experiencing the emotion are arrogant and conceited (Lewis, 1992) and therefore, it is surprising to find that many respondents said they tried not to express the emotion. One possibility is that they tried and did not succeed in suppressing the expression of hubris. This conjecture may be supported by the fact that four statements were made indicating that the individual could not control their feelings of hubris. Alternatively, individuals may have been responding in a socially desirable way when they say they tried to control the expression of hubris. The top three responses are shown in Tables 20 and 21 for the questionnaire and focus group questions respectively.

Discussion of Experiences of Pride and Hubris

There were some experiences that seemed to differentiate feeling pride from feeling hubris. When asked about what types of events lead people to feel pride or hubris, participants who were asked about feeling pride frequently mentioned helping others achieve their goals. None of the participants who were asked about feeling hubris gave this response. Additionally, respondents asked in the focus group about pride frequently mentioned that expending effort or making a sacrifice to achieve a goal was associated with feeling pride, whereas this response was infrequently given by those who were asked about hubris. Unlike the participants asked about hubris, participants asked about pride in the focus group also frequently indicated that recognition from others legitimized or increased the experience of pride.

Many of the answers for pride were similar to the answers for hubris. The questionnaire responses indicated that both emotions were associated with accomplishing goals, recognition or being rewarded. Additionally, the questionnaire demonstrated that both pride and happiness or joy were words that individuals would use to describe pride and hubris. Another similarity was that individuals indicated similar responses to feelings of pride and hubris. The responses to the questionnaire also indicated that expressing gratitude or saying nothing, feeling excited or energetic, smiling, and trembling were frequent responses to feeling pride and hubris. Similarly, individuals frequently indicated that they either did not try to control the feeling of pride or hubris or tried to relax or not express the emotion. For both emotions, respondents generally tried to accomplish this by distracting themselves or calming themselves down.

Furthermore, the responses to the focus group questions also showed several similarities in the experience of pride and hubris. Both emotions were associated with a tendency to brag too much or “rub it in”, make favorable self comparisons to other people, that individuals feeling either emotion are not concerned with what others think about them, both emotions make you feel more capable, confident, and motivated, and overestimating your abilities is a potential negative result from either emotion.

The similarities in the responses given for pride and hubris suggest that some of the reactions that should theoretically distinguish hubris from feelings of pride were associated with both of the emotions. In particular, some negative aspects of pride identified by participants such as feeling too excited, bragging, and feeling superior to others, should theoretically be linked to feelings of hubris and not pride. One possibility is that these negative aspects are actually descriptions of hubris. Because the word pride

is often used to refer to hubris (Lewis, 1992) and hubris is defined in *Webster's New American Dictionary* (1995) as exaggerated pride, it is possible that some of the negative aspects of pride described by participants reflect incidences of hubris.

Despite the apparent overlap in the responses for pride and hubris, an additional theme emerged from the data from participants asked about pride, and particularly from the data from the focus group discussions of this emotion. This theme was that some participants seemed to be distinguishing between two forms of pride. As previously stated, one participant felt that bragging was related to something other than pride. For example, one respondent stated:

I think some people boast or brag [about] what they have accomplished. I don't think everybody does this; some people don't make such a big deal about it but can be happy and excited.

Another respondent stated:

I think that would touch on the subject of personality, because you can have an outgoing person who you know wants to be the main event and wants everyone to know that they are better than everyone else or you can have someone who is just proud of what they have done and it doesn't matter if everyone knows. It depends on the personality.

A third example of a statement made that also seemed to make this distinction was:

It's like the negative aspect of it [pride]; you can make the person feel very low. Like I am better and they can't do it, that is the negative part of it, like looking down on somebody else, but that emotion is stuck up.

Theoretically, these comments seem to reflect the distinction between pride and hubris. That is, some people seem to associate some aspects of pride such as feelings of superiority and treating others contemptuously with a distinct emotion, which would theoretically correspond to the distinction between pride and hubris (Lewis, 1992; Tracy & Robins, 2004). However, because of the semantic confusion between pride and hubris discussed by Lewis (1992), the design of the study does not allow a confirmation of this. Consequently, this qualitative study can only be viewed as generative of possible relationships between the language participants used and the constructs of proneness to pride and proneness to hubris, as opposed to involving theory testing.

The next pilot study discussed is an initial examination of the items that will be used to measure proneness to pride and proneness to hubris in Study 1 and Study 2.

Chapter 3

Pilot Study 2 – Measure Development

PILOT STUDY 2 – MEASURE DEVELOPMENT

In order to begin to more adequately test the theory behind proneness to hubris and proneness to pride, items were constructed based on theory (Lewis, 1992; Tangney, 1990; Tracy & Robins, 2004). Additionally, the language used by participants in Pilot Study 1 was also used to write the items, although the participants' statements were classified as relating to pride or hubris on the basis of theory. Consequently, for the second pilot study, theory and the results from the first pilot study were used to operationalize proneness to pride and proneness to hubris.

Method

Participants

Eighty-five Introductory Psychology students from a large northeastern university participated in this study in exchange for partial course credit.

Measures

Frequency Measure of Proneness to Pride and Proneness to Hubris

For the frequency measure, 15 items to measure proneness to pride and 17 items to measure proneness to hubris were written (see Appendix E). Specifically, to operationalize proneness to pride and hubris using the frequency approach, items were written that ask respondents how frequently they experience states associated with the phenomenological experiences of pride and hubris. Specifically, the hubris proneness items asked how frequently individuals feel overconfident, feel a broad sense of self-importance, boast, feel a sense of superiority, feel cocky, focus on the public relevance of success, and feel grandiose. In addition to these terms being consistent with theory, these terms were also consistent with experiences of hubris described in Pilot Study 1. The

items for pride proneness ask respondents the frequency with which they feel proud, have an increased sense of self-esteem or self-respect, feel accomplished, feel proud of something they did, or feel more capable. As with the hubris items, these terms are theoretically related to the content of proneness to pride. Moreover, they are consistent with the descriptions of pride given by participants.

Some example items for proneness to pride are “Feel accomplished”, “Feel proud”, “Feel proud of having done something well.” Some example items for proneness to hubris are “Feel better than others”, “Feel self-important”, and “Feel pleased with myself.” These items were rated on a scale of 1 (*very infrequently*) – 7 (*very frequently*). One item, “Feel humble,” was reverse scored and was recoded for all analyses. A brief justification for each item can be found in Table 22 for hubris proneness and in Table 23 for pride proneness.

Scenario Measure of Proneness to Pride and Proneness to Hubris

For the scenario measure, 21 items to measure hubris proneness and 21 items to measure pride proneness were written (see Appendix F). This method was based on Tangney’s (1990; Tangney & Dearing, 2002) measure of these constructs (TOSCA-3) and asks participants to respond to short scenarios. Specifically, scenarios were written to reflect success in a variety of domains of life (e.g., successes in interpersonal relationships, successes in one’s career, and successes in community activities). Some of the ideas for the types of scenarios used came from Pilot Study 1. For example, in Pilot Study 1, some respondents said that volunteering and helping others made them feel proud. Consequently, some of the scenarios ask the respondent to imagine that they have worked as a volunteer or helped someone with a problem. Additionally, some scenarios

were added to expand the range of domains that may lead to feelings of pride and hubris even though they did not reflect a situation described by a participant in Pilot Study 1. For example, one scenario describes a successful civic action (getting an unfair law repealed).

For each scenario, items were written to assess the likelihood of responding to the success described in the scenario in a way that is consistent with the response of someone who is prone to hubris and the likelihood of responding in a way that is consistent with the response of someone prone to pride (Tangney, 1990). More specifically, these items primarily focus on the respondents' likelihood of crediting the global self (for hubris proneness) or crediting a specific behavior (for pride proneness) for the success described in the scenario. Brief justifications for each item can be found in Table 24 for proneness to hubris and in Table 25 for proneness to pride.

An example item for hubris is indicating the likelihood that "You would feel pleased that you are such a good worker," in response to a scenario that asks the participant to imagine that they met a difficult deadline at work. An example item for pride in response to the same scenario is "You would feel happy that you dedicated so much effort to work." Participants responded to these items using a scale ranging from 1 (*not likely*) to 5 (*very likely*). Additionally, both the new scenario measure and the TOSCA-3 (described below) were presented under the TOSCA-3 directions.

Test of Self-Conscious Affect-3 (TOSCA-3)

In addition to the new measures of proneness to pride and hubris, participants also completed the TOSCA-3 (Tangney & Dearing, 2002). This measure contains scales for dispositional tendencies to experience shame, guilt, pride (beta-pride), hubris (alpha-

pride), externalization, and detachment, of which the scales for proneness to pride and proneness to hubris are of primary interest. For the TOSCA-3, respondents read a brief scenario of a situation and then rated how likely they are to respond in the way described by several alternatives. The rating scale was five points ranging from 1 (*not likely*) to 5 (*very likely*). An example scenario for a measure of pride and hubris is “For several days you put off making a difficult phone call. At the last minute you make the call and are able to manipulate the conversation so that all goes well.” After reading the scenario, the respondent rated the likelihood of his or her responding to this scenario in one of four ways. The item for hubris is, “You would think: ‘I guess I’m more persuasive than I thought’”. The item for pride in this example is, “You would think: ‘I did a good job’.” Pride is measured with five items and the reported internal consistency of the scores found in three studies were .72, .55, and .51, respectively (Tangney & Dearing, 2002). Hubris was also measured with five items and the internal consistencies of the scores in three studies were .72, .41, and .48, respectively (Tangney & Dearing, 2002). Scores for hubris proneness and pride proneness were summed to create two composite measures.

Procedure

Participants were admitted into the laboratory in groups of five to ten individuals. Upon entering the laboratory, participants sat at a computer and read the statement of informed consent presented on the screen. Next, participants completed the new frequency measure of proneness to pride and proneness to hubris. The pride proneness and hubris items shown in Appendix E were randomly mixed. After completing this measure, participants completed the new scenario measure. The items for this measure were presented in the same order listed in Appendix F. After completing the new scenario

measure participants completed the TOSCA-3 items. These items were presented under the same instructions as the instructions used for the new scenario items. Finally, participants completed a demographics questionnaire.

Results

The mean item scores, standard deviations, and the corrected item-total correlations for the proneness to pride and the proneness to hubris frequency measures, are shown in Tables 26 and 27, respectively. The scores from both measures demonstrated adequate internal consistency ($\alpha = .88$ for proneness to pride and $\alpha = .88$ for proneness to hubris).

The item mean scores, standard deviations, and the corrected item-total correlations for the proneness to pride and proneness to hubris scenario measures, are shown in Tables 28 and 29, respectively. The internal consistency estimate of the reliability of the scores on the scale demonstrated that the scores were reliable ($\alpha = .93$ for proneness to pride and $\alpha = .90$ for proneness to hubris).

The internal consistencies for the TOSCA-3 scores were similar to findings in previous research (e.g., Tangney & Dearing, 2002): proneness to pride ($\alpha = .53$), proneness to hubris ($\alpha = .60$), proneness to shame ($\alpha = .76$), and proneness to guilt ($\alpha = .78$).

Discussion

The results for the frequency measure suggested adequate internal consistency of the scores ($\alpha = .88$, for both proneness to pride and proneness to hubris). Similarly, the results for the scenario measure also indicate adequate internal consistency of the scores

as estimated by coefficient alpha ($\alpha = .93$, for proneness to pride and $\alpha = .90$, for proneness to hubris).

Consistent with previous research, the internal consistency of the scores from the TOSCA-3 proneness to pride ($\alpha = .53$) and proneness to hubris ($\alpha = .60$) measures were low.

Below, two proposed studies that examine evidence of the validity and reliability of the scores from the new measures are described. There are three goals for the first study. The first is to examine the evidence of structural validity in the relationships between the scores from the proneness to pride and proneness to hubris items, and to examine the reliability of the scores from the new measures. The second goal is to examine the discriminant and convergent validity of the scores from the measures. This will be done by examining the three measures of proneness to pride and hubris (i.e., the two new measures and the TOSCA-3) in a multi-trait, multi-method analysis (Byrne, 1998), and by examining the convergent and discriminant validity of the scores from the new measures with scores from measures of related constructs (Cronbach & Meehl, 1955). The third goal is to examine the criterion-related validity of the measures by correlating the scores from the measures with measures of subjective experience of pride and hubris that differ for individuals high and low on the traits. The goal of the second study is to further examine the scores on the measures for evidence of criterion-related validity by using them to predict performance.

Chapter 4

Study 1

STUDY 1

Method

Participants

Four hundred thirty one Introductory Psychology students from a large northeastern university participated in this study in exchange for partial course credit. An a priori power analysis indicated that this sample size was large enough to have power of .80 for the covariance structure hypotheses (see MacCallum, Browne, & Sugawara, 1996). Additionally, this sample is large enough to have power of .80 to detect the medium sized correlations and the medium sized differences between correlations predicted in this study for $\alpha = .05$ (Cohen, 1992). Of the participants, 46.5% were female; 35.6% of the participants were Asian, 25.3% were Caucasian, 18.1% were Hispanic, 8.1% were African American, 0.9% were Pacific Islanders, and 11.9% indicated their racial-ethnic identity as “other.” The age of the participants ranged from 18 to 54 years of age with a mean of 20.4 years.

Measures

Measures of Pride and Hubris

Scenario based measurement of proneness to pride and hubris. The scenario measures of proneness to pride and proneness to hubris were discussed in Pilot Study 2. However, two of the hubris items for the scenario measure were modified. The first of these items was “You would feel proud but worry about making others envious of your success.” Because this item is “double-barreled”, the item was changed to “Your success would lead you to worry about making others envious.” The second item that was modified was “You would feel proud of who you are.” Although the phrase “who you

are” was intended to reflect global attributions and therefore assess hubris proneness, the use of the word “proud” may reflect the content of trait pride more than trait hubris. Consequently, this item was changed to “You would feel that you are a superior person.” See appendix F for all of the items.

Frequency based measurement of proneness to pride and hubris. The frequency measures of proneness to pride and proneness to hubris were discussed in the section on Pilot Study 2. However, based on the results from the focus groups, two additional items were added to the frequency measure of proneness to pride and two additional items were added to the frequency measure of proneness to hubris. The pride proneness items were “Feel like jumping because you accomplished something,” and “Feel flushed (a warm face) after a success.” The hubris proneness items were “Feel cocky,” and “Feel that you are invincible.” The items were added because they reflected the theoretical content of pride proneness and hubris proneness in the colloquial style of participants. See Appendix E for all of the items.

Test of Self-Conscious Affect-3 (TOSCA-3). The TOSCA-3 was discussed in Pilot Study 2. The internal consistency of the scores for the hubris proneness ($\alpha = .65$) and pride proneness ($\alpha = .58$) items was less than adequate.

Measures of Other Traits for Convergent and Discriminant Analysis

Positive affect and negative affect. The wellbeing and stress reactions subscales of the Multidimensional Personality Questionnaire-Brief Form (Patrick, Curtin, & Tellegen, 2002, see Appendix D) were used to measure trait positive affect and trait negative affect respectively. Patrick et al. state that these two scales “represent direct counterparts to positive and negative emotional dispositions, respectively” (p. 151). These scales ask

respondents whether a series of descriptive statements intended to reflect tendencies associated with the respective traits are true or false. The wellbeing and stress reactions scales are comprised of twelve items each. Two example items for wellbeing are “It is easy for me to become enthusiastic about things I am doing” and “Most days I have moments of real fun or joy.” Two example items for negative affect are “My feelings are hurt rather easily” and “I often lose sleep over my worries.” Adequate internal consistency of the scores was found for the brief form wellbeing scale ($\alpha = .80$) and for the brief form of the stress reactions scale ($\alpha = .79$).

Global attribution tendencies. A scale that was based on the Attribution Style Questionnaire (ASQ, Peterson et al., 1982) but includes more items was used to measure global attribution style (Feather & Tiggemann, 1984). Like the ASQ, this scale asks respondents to imagine that they are in the situations presented on the questionnaire. The measure includes eight situations that describe a good outcome. For example, two of the good situations are “You do very well in a sporting contest,” and “You go out on a date and it goes very well.” For each situation, respondents were asked to write down what they think the cause of the event was. After doing so, they were asked to rate the cause they wrote down on the dimension of globality. The measure of globality is “Is the cause something that just influences (the event), or does it also influence other areas of your life?” Participants responded to this item using a scale ranging from *influences just this particular situation* to *influences all situations in my life*. Adequate internal consistency was found for the scores on the global attributions for positive events items ($\alpha = .79$).

Trait self-esteem. The Rosenberg self-esteem scale was used to measure self-esteem (see Appendix F, Rosenberg, 1965). This scale has ten items that ask respondents

to rate the degree to which they agree with the items on a four point scale ranging from 0 *strongly disagree* to 3 *strongly agree*. Two sample items are “I feel that I have a number of good qualities” and “On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.” Adequate internal consistency of the scores was found in this study ($\alpha = .87$).

Narcissism. The most commonly used measure of narcissism is the Narcissistic Personality Inventory (Emmons, 1984, 1987; Raskin & Hall, 1981; Raskin & Terry, 1988). This measure of non-pathological narcissism is based on the description of narcissism in the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of the American Psychiatric Association. Variations of the measure include a 54-item version (Raskin & Hall, 1981), a 40-item version (Raskin & Terry, 1988), and a 37-item version (Emmons, 1987). Factor analytic studies of these versions have produced both a seven-component (Raskin & Terry, 1988) factor solution of the measure and a four-component solution (Emmons, 1984, 1987). Of these, the four-component solution has been replicated and past research has calculated scale scores based on this solution (e.g., Campbell, Goodie, & Foster, 2004; Gramzow & Tangney, 1992). Consequently, this version of the measure was used (see Appendix K). The four components are leadership/authority (nine items), self-absorption/self-admiration (nine items), superiority/arrogance (eleven items), and exploitiveness/entitlement (eight items). Furthermore, a composite score of all of the items of the measure has been used in research as an overall narcissism score (e.g., Campbell et al., 2004; Gramzow & Tangney, 1992). The 37-item version of the NPI uses a true/false response format (Morf & Rhodewalt, 1993). Two sample items include “I would prefer to be a leader” and “I insist upon getting the respect I deserve.” The 37-item measure demonstrated adequate internal consistency for the scores ($\alpha = .87$). The internal

consistency of the sub-scales ranged from adequate to less than adequate:

leadership/authority ($\alpha = .76$), self-absorption/self-admiration ($\alpha = .70$), superiority/arrogance ($\alpha = .67$), and exploitiveness/entitlement ($\alpha = .53$).

Measures of Phenomenological Experiences Related to Proneness to Pride and Proneness to Hubris

Duration of experiences of states of pride. To measure the duration of typical experiences of pride, I used two items based on a measure of duration of state emotion experience (Sonnemans & Frijda, 1994). The instructions for the measure were “Please indicate the duration for which you typically experience the feeling of pride after success.” This was followed by two questions: “How long does the whole emotion last?,” and “How long do the bodily changes last (the bodily change longest duration)?” Participants responded to these items using a five point response scale ranging from *0-5 seconds* to *more than 1 hour*. I conducted an exploratory factor analysis on these two items. The results indicated that the responses to these items were unidimensional. Specifically, the first eigenvalue was 1.57 and explained 79% of the variance in the items. The second eigenvalue was .43 and explained 21% of the variance in the items. Additionally, a parallel analysis indicated that the eigenvalue expected by chance with 430 participants and two items is .96 (Humphreys & Montanelli Jr., 1975; Zwick & Velicer, 1986). Consequently, the parallel analysis also suggests that a single-factor explains the scores on the duration items because the value expected by chance was greater than the value of .43 found with the scores on the duration items. The items demonstrated adequate internal consistency ($\alpha = .73$). See Appendix L for the items.

Satisfaction with success. To the best of my knowledge, there are no existing measures of emotional satisfaction with success. Consequently, I used one satisfaction item and created two new items to measure this construct. The first item that I used to measure satisfaction with success was based on a measure of overall life satisfaction (Nickerson, Schwarz, Diener, & Kahneman, 2003). However, rather than referring to life satisfaction, the question that was used referred to satisfaction with success. Specifically, the item read “In general, how satisfied are you with your emotional experience of success?” This was answered on a five-point scale ranging from *very unsatisfied* to *very satisfied*. However, Lewis’s (1992) argument that hubris-prone individuals find the emotion to be unsatisfying because they cannot replicate it through behaviors suggests that the transitory experience of hubris may be satisfying but that overall, the experience of success does not seem to meet a deep personal need and is not very gratifying. Consequently, two additional questions were written to measure satisfaction with success to reflect the lack of gratification from success. The first question was “In general, how gratifying is the emotional experience of success for you?” This was answered on a five point scale ranging from *very ungratifying* to *very gratifying*. The second additional question was “In general, how satiated (feeling that a need was met) do you feel by the emotional experience of success?” Respondents answered this item using a five point scale ranging from *very unsatiated* to *very satiated*. I conducted an exploratory factor analysis on these three items. The results indicated that the responses to these items were unidimensional. Specifically, the first eigenvalue was 2.19 and explained 73% of the variance in the items. The second eigenvalue was .41 and explained 14% of the variance in the items. Furthermore, a parallel analysis indicated that the second eigenvalue

expected by chance was 1.00 (Humphreys & Montanelli Jr., 1975; Zwick & Velicer, 1986). Consequently, because the second eigenvalue expected from chance covariation among the scores on the items exceeded the value of the second eigenvalue found from the scores on the three satisfaction items, the parallel analysis provides further evidence of the unidimensionality of the scores on the satisfaction items. Additionally, these items demonstrated adequate internal consistency ($\alpha = .81$). See Appendix M for the full measure.

Social desirability. Social desirability was measured as a potential control variable. To measure social desirability, the impression management items from the Balanced Inventory of Desirable Responding were used (Paulhus, 1991). This scale includes 20 items that are answered on a seven-point scale ranging from *not true* to *very true*. Although Paulhus intended for the scale to be scored dichotomously by assigning one point for individuals who mark 6 or 7 on the scale and zero points for individuals who mark less than that, the scale was scored continuously in this study. The scale was scored continuously because previous research using Paulhus's scale has shown that continuous scoring results in higher estimates of reliability for the scale scores and in stronger convergent relationships with other measures of socially desirable responding than dichotomous scoring (Stoeber, Dette, & Musch, 2002). Adequate internal consistency of the scores was found for these items ($\alpha = .79$). Two example items are "I never swear" and "I never cover up my mistakes." Some of the items on this scale are keyed so that a "true" response indicates greater social desirability in responding, but for other items, a "false" response indicates greater social desirability in responding.

Consequently, items were recoded so that higher scores on the scale indicated greater social desirability in responding. See Appendix N for the full scale.

Demographics. Participants completed a series of demographic questions assessing their sex, ethnicity, age, working status, English fluency, and the amount of time they have lived in the United States. See Appendix O for the items.

Procedure

Participants completed the measures in groups of up to ten individuals. The measures were presented in three different orders to control for possible order effects (See Table 30 for the order of the measures). In all cases, the measures of hubris proneness and pride proneness were answered first because they are the central focus of the study. In particular, I was concerned that if these measures appeared at the end of the questionnaire, participants would be fatigued from answering all of the items in the questionnaire when they came to the measures of proneness to pride and hubris and that this may negatively impact the structural validity of the scores on these measures. After completing these measures participants were thanked and debriefed. The testing sessions ranged from approximately 40 minutes to one hour.

Results for Study 1

Data Preparation

Missing Data

Seven surveys were not submitted because of computer problems (e.g., Windows automatically restarted after updating while the participant was completing the survey) or because participants took an exceptionally long time and did not come close to completing the survey within the one-hour time period. Additionally, one individual

submitted a survey without answering more than 60% of the questions. This case was deleted from the sample because of the large amount of missing data for this individual. Two additional participants did not complete the demographic variables and consequently their data were deleted from the sample when calculating residual scores when controlling for sex and race/ethnicity (discussed below). For the remaining 428 cases, missing data were handled using direct maximum likelihood estimation in all confirmatory factor analyses. The direct maximum likelihood estimation method of treating missing data estimates the parameters for the model being tested using the available data and then uses these estimates to recalculate the model parameters for the full data set (Roth, 1994; Schafer & Graham, 2002). Direct maximum likelihood estimation is preferable to pairwise and listwise deletion because it requires less stringent assumptions about the mechanism for the missing data (Schafer & Graham, 2002).

Specifically, pairwise and listwise deletions require that data are missing completely at random (MCAR) and missing at random (MAR). Satisfaction of the MCAR assumption requires that the probability that data are missing is neither a function of the variable with the missing data nor a function of other variables. For example, the assumption of MCAR would be violated if a respondent did not complete a survey of job satisfaction if he or she was depressed or dissatisfied with the job. In comparison, the assumption of MAR is met if the probability that data are missing is not related to the variable for which the data are missing. MAR would be violated only if a respondent did not complete a question about job satisfaction because he or she was dissatisfied with his or her job.

In contrast to pairwise and listwise deletion, direct maximum likelihood estimation only requires that data are MAR. In short, in many situations the use of direct maximum likelihood estimation to handle missing data leads to less biased estimates of the parameters being analyzed than pairwise or listwise deletion (Schafer & Graham, 2002).

Control Variables

Social desirability, age, sex, ethnicity, and level of English understanding were included in the study as possible control variables. To examine the utility of these variables as control variables, the variables were correlated with each of the items from the two new measures developed and the scale scores for the existing measures. Control variables that had significant correlations greater than $|.20|$ with any of the study variables were controlled for (Keppel & Zedeck, 1989). Of the control variables, sex and ethnicity demonstrated correlations greater than $|.20|$ with the study variables and were controlled for by testing the hypotheses using the unstandardized residuals of the study variables with the variance due to sex and ethnicity partialled out of the item covariances. Correlations between study variables and control variables that exceeded $|.20|$ are shown in Table 31.

Assessment of Order Effects

Next, I examined whether or not the order of the measures in the questionnaires affected the responses to the measures (see Table 30 for the three orders that the scales were presented in). To do this a one-way ANOVA of the scale scores for each of the variables in this study using the order of the questionnaires as the independent variable was conducted. The results indicated only one significant effect for the order of the

questionnaires for narcissism, $F(2, 427) = 4.46, p < .05, \eta^2 = .02$. Specifically, post hoc analyses using Tukey's highest significant difference test indicated that individuals who took version A of the questionnaire reported greater levels of narcissism ($M = .51$) than individuals who took version C of the questionnaire ($M = .44$), $p < .05$. Given that only one of the dependent variables indicated a weak statistically significant order effect, it appears that questionnaire order was not an important factor in the responses to the items. Thus, the order of the questionnaires was not controlled for.

Data Analysis for the Hypothesized Measurement Structure for the Scores on the Measures of Proneness to Pride and Hubris

Confirmatory factor analyses were conducted using Mplus 5.0 (Muthen & Muthen, 1998-2007).

The third hypothesis of the study was examined for each of the three measures using confirmatory factor analysis. It was predicted that:

Hypothesis 3: A model with two positively correlated factors, one representing proneness to pride and one representing proneness to hubris, demonstrates a better fit for the scores on the measures of proneness to pride and proneness to hubris as compared to a one-factor model (see Figure 1).

Factor Structure of the Frequency Measure of Proneness to Pride and Hubris

As discussed previously, sex and race/ethnicity were controlled for because these variables correlated with some of the study variables.

The third hypothesis predicted that a model with two positively correlated factors, one factor representing proneness to pride and one factor representing proneness to hubris, would fit the data better than a single-factor model. However, for the original item

pool, the overall fit statistics indicated that the two-factor model did not fit the data well (χ^2 (593, N = 428) = 1938.49, RMSEA = .09, CFI = .74 and SRMR = .09, see Table 32). Additionally, the single-factor model did not fit the data well (χ^2 (594, N = 428) = 2724.69, RMSEA = .09, CFI = .59 and SRMR = .10).

Alternative models based on exploratory data analysis. Next, I used exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis in an exploratory manner to find a model that fit the data adequately. Using the modification indices and theory as a guide, I fit several models, none of which fit the data adequately. The first of these ill-fitting models was a two-factor model based on a reduced item pool. Specifically, an exploratory factor analysis was conducted and items were eliminated when scores from the items loaded on inappropriate factors if the elimination of the items could be theoretically justified. Additionally, using confirmatory factor analysis in an exploratory manner, items were eliminated if the errors of the scores from the items correlated strongly with the errors of the scores from other items and if the items seemed to be redundant in content.

Two three-factor models were examined in addition to the two-factor model because an exploratory factor analysis, using parallel analysis (Horn, 1965) as the method for determining the number of factors present, indicated that three factors explained the covariance between the item scores. The three factors found in the exploratory factor analysis were a pride proneness factor, a hubris proneness factor, and a factor related to feelings of superiority. The first of these three factor models allowed scores from the items to load on the three factors and to cross-load on other factors, as identified in the exploratory factor analysis. However, not only did this model not fit the data well, but it also resulted in large standard errors, that is, the solution was improper (Brown, 2006;

Byrne, 1998). A second three factor model, in which items with cross loadings were eliminated, when theoretically justifiable, was examined as well. However, this model also did not fit the data adequately ($\chi^2 = (185, N = 428) = 446.83$, RMSEA = .06, CFI = .90 and SRMR = .06).

Alternative a priori models. Rather than using modification indices to find a model that adequately fit the data, I next attempted to fit alternative models in accord with Bollen's (1989) suggestion for re-specifying poor fitting models. The fitting of alternative models was done to find a model that both fit the data well and was theoretically justifiable. The first alternative model allowed errors for several items to correlate in recognition of the fact that some of the items within the pride proneness and hubris proneness scales shared some similarities among them. Specifically, errors from the scores from two subsets of three items each were correlated for the hubris proneness scale. Additionally, errors from a subset of four items and two subsets of two items each from the scores from the pride proneness scale were allowed to correlate. However, this alternative model with the correlated errors specified above also failed to fit the data well ($\chi^2 = (579, N = 428) = 1744.52$, RMSEA = .07, CFI = .77 and SRMR = .09, see Table 32).

Rather than represent the similarity among the items discussed above in the model by allowing their errors to correlate, a similar approach used was to model the error correlations as five method factors with loadings on the respective items. As is typically done in structural models with method factors, the correlations between the method factors and trait factors were constrained to zero (Brown, 2006). The fit of this method

factor model was inadequate ($\chi^2(569, N = 428) = 1698.81$, RMSEA = .07, CFI = .78 and SRMR = .08, see Table 32).

To develop a second alternative model, I reviewed the list of the original items and chose the items from the proneness to hubris and the proneness to pride measures that were content valid, clearly written, and concise. First, items were chosen for inclusion if they were related to an important part of the theoretical construct domain. Second, ease of reading was evaluated on the basis of the Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level. The Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level value is determined based on sentence length and number of syllables per word. The specific formula is $(.39 \times \text{number of words in the item}) + (11.8 \times \text{average number of syllables}) - 15.59$. In general, all items chosen were below eighth grade reading level. However, two exceptions, “Feel like boasting of your accomplishments to everyone,” and “Feel satisfied with an achievement,” were above eight grade reading level but were retained because no other items reflected the content of these item (see Tables 33 and 34). Third, items were eliminated if the items used an expression that might not be well known or used an obscure word. Moreover, to reduce inter-item correlations that could potentially lead to sub-factors in the measurement structure, the clearest and most concise item was selected from multiple items with very similar content. Tables 33 and 34 give the specific reasons why items were chosen or not chosen for the measures of pride proneness and hubris proneness, respectively. This process resulted in the inclusion of 11 items, five to measure proneness to pride and six to measure proneness to hubris. The final list of items used to measure proneness to hubris was as follows:

1. Feel cocky.
2. Feel unbeatable.

3. Feel vain (excessive pride).
4. Feel like boasting of your accomplishments to everyone.
5. Feel that you are flawless.
6. Feel superior.

The final list of items used to measure proneness to pride was as follows:

1. Feel pleased with the work you have done.
2. Feel proud of having done something well.
3. Feel satisfied with an achievement.
4. Feel more capable of doing something.
5. Feel pleased with improving yourself.

The fit of the eleven-item model to the data was acceptable, although the CFI value was .01 below the cutoff value of .95 ($\chi^2(43, N = 428) = 115.62$, RMSEA = .06, CFI = .94 and SRMR = .05, see Table 32).

It may be informative to compare the fit of the model based on the reduced item pool with the fit of the model arrived at using EFA and modification indices. In comparison to the reduced item pool model described above, the model arrived at using exploratory factor analysis and modification indices with the original item pool resulted in a model with more items: eight hubris proneness items and 12 pride proneness items. However, of the items I chose based on content that are listed above, all are retained in the model arrived at using the modification indices/EFA except the hubris proneness item “Feel like boasting of your accomplishments to everyone.” The main problem with model arrived at using EFA in conjunction with the modification indices was that the model constructed using modification indices did not fit the data as well ($\chi^2(169, N = 428) = 455.82$, RMSEA = .06, CFI = .90 and SRMR = .06).

Next, the fit of the hypothesized two-factor model was compared to a single-factor model. The model fit statistics indicated that the single-factor model did not fit the

data as well as the two-factor model ($\chi^2(44, N = 428) = 499.68$, RMSEA = .16, CFI = .60 and SRMR = .12). Moreover, the single-factor model fit the data significantly worse than the two-factor model ($\Delta\chi^2(1, N = 428) = 384.06$, $p < .001$, see Table 35). Thus, the single-factor model was rejected. As predicted, the pride proneness and hubris proneness factors were positively correlated ($r = .32$, $p < .05$) and all factor loadings were significant (see Table 36). Additionally, the internal consistency of the scores was adequate for the pride proneness items ($\alpha = .78$) and the hubris proneness items ($\alpha = .78$). The descriptive statistics for the scores on the final set of items are shown in Table 37.

Factor Structure of the Scenario Measure of Proneness to Pride and Hubris

As discussed previously, sex and race/ethnicity were controlled for because these variables correlated with some of the study variables.

It was predicted that a two-factor model in which proneness to pride was positively correlated with proneness to hubris would fit better than a single-factor model (Hypothesis 3). This hypothesis was tested using the scenario measures of proneness to pride and proneness to hubris. The scenario measure consisted of 21 scenarios describing achievements. For each scenario, respondents indicated the likelihood of responding in a way that is consistent with pride proneness and hubris proneness. The factor structure model was examined using CFA. However, for the original item pool of 42 items, the two-factor model did not converge to a solution. This lack of convergence was probably a result of the model being grossly misspecified (Brown, 2006). When a CFA (or SEM) model is tested, a fitting function is derived by iteratively calculating the discrepancy between the values of the sample covariance matrix and the values found for the expected covariance matrix. These iterations are accomplished by trying different parameter values

in the specified model. Nonconvergence occurs when subsequent iterations of the fitting function do not produce increasingly smaller discrepancies between the sample and the expected covariance matrix. As a result a solution cannot be found for the model. If, for example, a two-factor model is specified when in fact a five factor model is necessary to explain the data, the SEM program will attempt to reproduce the sample covariance matrix by trying a range of values for the parameters for a two-factor model. However, because this model is far from the correct model the iterations of different parameter estimates may not lead to a minimization of the difference between the sample and the expected covariance matrices. As a result of the failed convergence for the analysis of the hypothesized model, several alternative models were examined.

Alternative two trait factor model with correlated errors. The first alternative model that I tested was a two-factor model in which items that were responses to the same scenarios were allowed to have errors that correlated. Recall that the scenario measure of pride proneness and hubris proneness consists of 21 scenarios for which respondents indicate the likelihood of responding in a way consistent with pride proneness and the likelihood of responding in a way consistent with hubris proneness. Consequently, pairs of scores from the pride proneness items and the hubris proneness items may be related because the responses to the items are determined in part by the shared scenario. To model this potential effect, a model was specified with two factors, one for proneness to pride and one for proneness to hubris, but also allowed for the errors for the scores between pairs of items that involve responses to the same scenario to correlate. However, this model did not converge to a solution either.

Alternative models with a single trait factor. As a second alternative, I fit a single-factor model to the data. This model would suggest that pride proneness and hubris proneness are a single factor as assessed by this measure. Because the majority of the items for the scenario measure distinguish pride proneness from hubris proneness on the basis of making specific versus global appraisals of self-credit, an acceptable fit of this model to the data would suggest that pride proneness and hubris proneness cannot be distinguished on the basis of the globality of appraisals of self-credit. Although this model did converge to a solution, it did not fit the data well ($\chi^2(819, N = 428) = 2643.47$, RMSEA = .07, CFI = .64 and SRMR = .09, see Table 38). The third alternative model I fit was a single-factor model in which the errors between items that were responses to the same scenario were allowed to correlate. The fit of this model was also inadequate ($\chi^2(798, N = 428) = 2439.32$, RMSEA = .07, CFI = .67 and SRMR = .08, see Table 38).

Alternative models with method factors. Another alternative model series that I tested was one where method factors were specified for item wording effects. Specifically, of the 42 items on the pride proneness and hubris proneness scales, 15 items began with the phrase “You would think”, 21 items began with the phrase “You would feel”, and four items began with the phrase “You would be.” The first of these models specified two trait factors, one for proneness to pride and one for proneness to hubris, and three method factors for each of the aforementioned groups of item wordings. For this model, the method factors were specified as being uncorrelated with the trait factors as is typically done in models with method factors (Brown, 2006). However, this model resulted in a non-positive definite latent variable matrix and the calculation of a correlation between two latent variables exceeding 1.0. A non-positive definite matrix

can occur because of excessive multicollinearity between two or more variables so that the variance in one or more variables is determined by one or more other variables (Brown, 2006). In fact, the latent variable matrix indicated that the correlations among the three method factors ranged from 1.01 to 1.10. Thus, the first attempt I made to remedy this problematic solution was to fit a single trait factor model to the data to solve the problem of the potential multicollinearity of the latent variables. However, this did not remedy the problem and the latent variable matrix remained non-positive definite. As an alternative, I estimated a two trait factor model but with a single method factor. Combining the items from the three method factors into a single trait factor would result in a method factor with 40 of the 42 items loading on it. Consequently, this as well as the possible excessive multicollinearity between the method factors suggested the presence of a single method factor representing a response bias across all items (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Thus, a model with a single method factor that was uncorrelated with the trait factors was specified (Brown, 2006). Although this model did result in a positive definite latent variable matrix, the CFI indicated that the model did not fit the data well ($\chi^2(776, N = 428) = 1570.80$, RMSEA = .05, CFI = .84 and SRMR = .05, see Table 38). To improve the fit of the model, errors were allowed to correlate between items that were responses to the same scenario. Again, the overall fit statistics presented a mixed picture of the fit of this model ($\chi^2(756, N = 428) = 1291.06$, RMSEA = .04, CFI = .89 and SRMR = .04, see Table 38). Moreover, this model resulted in some large standard errors for the factor loadings, particularly the loadings for the hubris proneness items which had an average standard error of .51, and consequently the majority of the

factor loadings were not significant (3 of 21 for pride proneness, 0 of 21 for hubris proneness, and 15 of 42 for the method factor).

The next approach was to reduce the number of items by eliminating one problematic item and items with similar wording. Specifically, one pride proneness item, “Your success would lead you to worry about making others envious”, was thrown out because the content may not be representative of the pride proneness construct (e.g., the content could be more reflective of anxiety than pride proneness). After discarding this item, items that began with the same words were grouped together. Items that have similar wordings may result in method factors because similarities in wordings can lead to correlations between responses that are not related to the traits. From the groups of items with similar wording, one item was chosen at random for use in the model. This resulted in a model with six hubris proneness items and 11 pride proneness items. However, this model did not fit the data well either ($\chi^2(118, N = 428) = 386.60$, RMSEA = .07, CFI = .79 and SRMR = .07, see Table 38). Next, this model was modified to include correlations between items based on the same scenario. This model also failed to fit the data well ($\chi^2(113, N = 428) = 312.28$, RMSEA = .06, CFI = .84 and SRMR = .07, see Table 38). Next, I modified this model by adding a general method factor with loadings for each item. In other words, each item either loaded on hubris proneness or pride proneness, and the method factor. This model fit the data adequately ($\chi^2(98, N = 428) = 145.68$, RMSEA = .04, CFI = .96 and SRMR = .03, see Table 38). However, only one of the pride proneness items had a statistically significant factor loading. This appears to be because the factor loadings were small. Specifically, nine of 11 factor

loadings were less than an absolute value of .17. Consequently, although the model specifications seem reasonable, the results were not theoretically interpretable.

Alternative models with situational method factors. Responses to the pride proneness and hubris proneness items may have been affected not only by these two traits, but also by the types of situations that the items were nested within. For example, individuals may tend to feel pride across different situations, but may have stronger feelings of pride in response to work achievements than in response to other types of situations. Consequently, scores from items that involve feeling pride in response to work accomplishments would be more related to one another than to the scores from items related to accomplishments in other areas. In other words, scores may be affected by both the trait factor (i.e., pride proneness or hubris proneness) and by factors related to the situation types. The next set of models examined attempted to model similarities among the scenarios used in the measure by classifying situations into different types of events (see Table 39).

To classify the scenarios I generated a list of six situation event types based on scenarios used in the measure. These types of events were physical accomplishments, social accomplishments, work accomplishments, civic duty scenarios, self-less acts or doing something for others, and taking a career risk. I then coded the scenarios into these six types. Next, four additional raters were asked to identify which type of event best described the scenarios. After these ratings were made, inter-rater agreement was assessed for the five judges using the Kappa statistic (Fleiss, 1971). The Kappa statistic indicated that there was substantial agreement among the raters ($Kappa = .74, p < .05$). Furthermore, for 18 of the 21 scenarios there was either perfect agreement among the

judges or agreement among four out of the five judges. Because there was more disagreement among the judges for three of the items, these items were thrown out (without these three items the inter-rater reliability increased slightly, $Kappa=.83, p < .05$). After removing these scenarios there were two scenarios classified as a physical accomplishment (i.e., “You decide that you are going to run a marathon even though you are not a runner. The first month of training is really hard and you would really like to give up, however you stick with it and in six months you successfully run and finish the marathon”, and “While playing a basketball game with your friends, you make a difficult basket at the last second and win the game for your team”). Additionally, three scenarios were classified as social accomplishments (e.g., “There is a person that you know who you really want to ask out on a date, but you’re nervous to do it. You finally get up the courage to ask them out to dinner and they say yes,” and “You have recently moved to a new city and have been trying to make friends. It has been difficult to do. One night you were out with some new friends and they start talking about how you are very funny and enjoyable to be with”). Five scenarios were classified as work accomplishments (e.g., “You complete an important project successfully at work. As a result, your boss mentions considering you for a promotion into a very desirable position” and “You are swamped at work and have an important deadline to meet by the end of the day. During the day you really focus on your work. At 6 O’clock you realize you met the deadline and also finished several other tasks”). Only one scenario was classified as civic duty (i.e., “You feel very strongly that a proposed new law your city is trying to pass is unfair. You attend several city council meetings to try and raise awareness of the negative aspects of the new law. After several months of talking to people, the people vote down the law”). Five

scenarios were classified as selfless acts (e.g., “You volunteer at a center for kids with terminal illnesses. Spending so much time with terminal children has been emotionally draining. One day a parent comes up to you and informs you that their child looks forward to seeing you everyday at the center”, and “You have been caring for a terminally ill relative for the past 6 months. Although it has been time consuming and physically and emotionally taxing, you continue caring for the relative until their death. After their death, several family members thank you for being so supportive, and inform you that the ill relative greatly appreciated your help”). Finally, two scenarios were classified as taking a career risk (i.e., “You decide to start a small business. Though you know it is very risky and you are uncertain whether you have the financial means to start the business you decide to take a chance. Within two years the business is making a profit,” and “You decide to change careers and go back to school for new training. It is difficult to manage work and the additional training. In time, you graduate and receive a job offer in your new career.”).

Six method factors were modeled to account for the similarities among the scenarios. However, the statistics for the fit of this model presented a mixed picture of the fit of the model ($\chi^2(542, N = 428) = 1025.82$, RMSEA = .05, CFI = .88 and SRMR = .04, see Table 38). Although the RMSEA and SRMR statistics were acceptable, the CFI was below the acceptable level. To improve the fit of this model I fit a second model that allowed the errors for scores on the items that were related to the same scenarios to correlate. However, this model resulted in a latent variable matrix that was not positive definite. Specifically, the correlations between the latent variables for the situation factors

were close 1.0 and one exceeded 1.0. Consequently, this model was unacceptable because it lead to a problematic solution.

Rather than modeling the different scenario types as separate factors, I next selected at random a scenario, and corresponding items, from each scenario type. This resulted in a model with six pride proneness items and six hubris proneness items. However, the fit of this model was below acceptable levels ($\chi^2(53, N = 428) = 216.52$, RMSEA = .09, CFI = .83 and SRMR = .07, see Table 38). Next, I modified this model by allowing the errors to correlate between the items based on the same scenario. The fit of this model was acceptable ($\chi^2(47, N = 428) = 93.67$, RMSEA = .05, CFI = .95, and SRMR = .05, see Table 38).²

Next the fit of the two correlated factors model was compared to a single-factor model. The model fit statistics indicated that the single-factor model fit the data significantly worse than the two-factor model ($\chi^2(48, N = 428) = 340.78$, RMSEA = .12, CFI = .69 and SRMR = .09), $\Delta\chi^2(1, N = 428) = 247.11$, $p < .05$ (see Table 40).

The factor loadings are presented in Table 41. As predicted, the factor loadings are positive and statistically significant for pride proneness and hubris proneness. Additionally, pride proneness and hubris proneness were positively correlated ($r = .36$, $p < .05$). The six correlations between the errors ranged from -.06 to .32. Of these six

² The model that included situation factors rather than eliminating items (see preceding paragraph) may be considered preferable to the final model chosen despite the less acceptable fit indices because fewer modifications were made to the items chosen. However, this model resulted in several theoretically incongruent results, most notably, a strong negative correlation between the pride and hubris proneness factors ($r = -.81$). However, this finding may indicate that the hypothesis was not supported rather than a problematic model specification, and the model based on randomly selected items fit well and supported the hypothesis because of chance selection. To examine this possibility, I tested four other models where I randomly selected an item for each model. Three of the four models fit the data acceptably well and had theoretically consistent parameter estimates (i.e., positive and statistically significant loadings and factor correlations). The fourth model did not fit well because one of the hubris items had a strong loading on the pride factor.

correlations, three were statistically significant. This suggests that pairs of hubris proneness and pride proneness items nested within a scenario share variance that is not accounted for by the hubris proneness and pride proneness factors. Descriptive statistics for the scores on the final items are shown in Table 42.

The internal consistency of the scores on the scenario measure was low for the hubris proneness items ($\alpha = .69$) although it was adequate for the pride proneness items ($\alpha = .76$). The final items are shown in Appendix R.

Factor Structure of the TOSCA Measure of Proneness to Pride and Hubris

Next, I tested the hypothesis for the structural validity of the TOSCA measure (Tangney & Dearing, 2002). Specifically, hypothesis 3 predicted that a two-factor model in which proneness to pride was positively correlated with proneness to hubris would fit better than a single-factor model. However, the two-factor model did not fit the data well ($\chi^2(34, N = 426) = 543.59$, RMSEA = .19, CFI = .63 and SRMR = .10, see Table 43) and produced a warning that the latent variable matrix was not positive definite. Specifically, the correlation between the hubris proneness factor and the pride proneness factor was 1.34, thus, it exceeded the range of permissible values. This suggests that the two latent factors are nearly perfectly correlated or that the model may be misspecified (Brown, 2006).

To correct for the problem of model misspecification a second model was tested. As with the scenario measure previously discussed, the TOSCA pride proneness and hubris proneness scales consist of five scenarios for which respondents indicate the likelihood of responding in a way consistent with pride proneness and the likelihood of responding in a way that is consistent with hubris proneness. Consequently, pairs of

scores from pride proneness items and hubris proneness items may be related because the responses are determined in part by the common scenario. To model this potential effect, a model was specified with the same factor structure as the first model tested but allowed for the errors for the scores between pairs of items that involve responses to the same scenario to correlate. This model fit the data adequately ($\chi^2(29, N = 426) = 32.22$, RMSEA = .02, CFI = 1.00 and SRMR = .03, see Table 43), but also produced a warning that the latent variable correlation matrix was not positive definite (the correlation between the pride proneness and hubris proneness factors was $r = 1.02$).

Because both models tested suggested that the pride proneness and hubris proneness factors were nearly perfectly correlated, I tested a single-factor model that also allowed the errors of the scores between items related to a common scenario to correlate. This model fit the data well ($\chi^2(30, N = 426) = 33.29$, RMSEA = .02, CFI = 1.00 and SRMR = .03, see Table 43). Additionally, the fit of the single-factor model was similar to the fit of the two-factor model ($\Delta\chi^2(1, N = 426) = 1.07, p = .30$), although the estimation for the two-factor model was questionable because the latent variable matrix was not positive definite. Thus, hypothesis three was rejected. This finding suggests it cannot be inferred from scores on the TOSCA-3 (Tangney & Dearing, 2002) that proneness to pride and proneness to hubris are separate constructs.

Table 44 presents the factor loadings for the single-factor model, all of which were positive and statistically significant.

Because the analyses suggested that a single-factor model was preferable to a two-factor model, and consequently, the hypothesis for the structural validity of the scores was not supported, the TOSCA-3 measure was not used in any further analyses.

*Data Analysis for the Hypotheses Related to the Nomological Networks for Proneness to
Pride and Proneness to Hubris*

The next hypotheses made predictions regarding the relationships between the traits of proneness to pride and proneness to hubris and other traits in the nomological networks for these traits. Each set of hypotheses was first tested using the frequency measure of proneness to pride and proneness to hubris, followed by the test of the hypotheses using the scenario measure of proneness to pride and proneness to hubris. A partial correlation matrix, controlling for sex and race/ethnicity, of the scale scores for the measures of pride and hubris proneness and the other constructs in the nomological networks for these traits are shown in Table 45. Sex and race/ethnicity were controlled for because they correlated greater than $|.20|$ with some of the study variables. Table 46 shows the zero-order correlations between the scale scores for the study variables.

*Relationships between Positive and Negative Affectivity and Proneness to Pride and
Proneness to Hubris- Hypotheses 4a, 4b, 4c, and 4d*

The first set of nomological network hypotheses concerned the relationship between proneness to pride and trait positive affectivity and the relationship between proneness to hubris and trait positive affectivity. These hypotheses were:

Hypothesis 4a: A model with two positively correlated factors, one representing proneness to pride and one representing positive affectivity, demonstrates a better fit for the scores on the measures of proneness pride and positive affectivity as compared to a one-factor model (see Figure 2).

Hypothesis 4b: A model with two positively correlated factors, one representing proneness to hubris and one representing positive affectivity, demonstrates a

better fit for the scores on the measures proneness to hubris and positive affectivity as compared to a one-factor model (see Figure 3).

Hypothesis 4c: The correlation between proneness to pride and positive affectivity is significantly greater than the correlation between proneness to pride and negative affectivity.

Hypothesis 4d: The correlation between proneness to hubris and positive affectivity is significantly greater than the correlation between proneness to pride and negative affectivity.

Nomological relationships with positive and negative affectivity using the frequency measure. A model in which pride proneness and positive affectivity are two positively correlated factors fit the data better ($\chi^2(118, N = 428) = 188.96$, RMSEA = .04, CFI = .95 and SRMR = .05) than the single-factor model ($\chi^2(118, N = 428) = 558.41$, RMSEA = .09, CFI = .69 and SRMR = .09). Moreover, this difference was statistically significant, $\Delta\chi^2(1, N = 428) = 369.45$, $p < .05$, see Table 47). The correlation between the pride proneness and positive affectivity factors was positive and statistically significant, $r = .35$, $p < .05$. Thus, hypothesis 4a was supported.

The two-factor model for hubris proneness and positive affectivity also fit the data ($\chi^2(134, N = 428) = 252.84$, RMSEA = .05, CFI = .92 and SRMR = .05) better than the alternative single-factor model ($\chi^2(135, N = 428) = 675.26$, RMSEA = .10, CFI = .65 and SRMR = .09). The difference in the fit of these two models was statistically significant, $\Delta\chi^2(1, N = 428) = 422.42$, $p < .05$, see Table 47. The two-factors were positively correlated and the correlation was statistically significant, $r = .34$, $p < .05$. Thus, hypothesis 4b was supported.

As reported earlier, the correlations between sex and ethnicity with the study variables were greater than $|.20|$. Consequently, partial correlations were used to test hypotheses 4c and 4d in order to control for the effect of these variables. Specifically, partial correlations were calculated for the relationships between proneness to pride, proneness to hubris, positive affectivity, and negative affectivity. A test of the difference between dependent correlations (see Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003) indicated that the correlation between positive affectivity and pride proneness ($pr = .30$) was significantly greater than the correlation between negative affectivity and pride proneness ($pr = -.17$, $t(427) = 8.68$, $p < .05$). Similarly, the correlation between positive affectivity and hubris proneness ($pr = .28$) was significantly greater than the correlation between negative affectivity and hubris proneness ($pr = -.08$, $t(427) = 6.45$, $p < .05$). Thus, hypotheses 4c and 4d were supported.

Nomological relationships with positive and negative affectivity using the scenario measure. The correlated two-factor model for pride proneness and positive affectivity fit the data better ($\chi^2(134, N = 428) = 198.31$, RMSEA = .04, CFI = .95 and SRMR = .04) than the single-factor model ($\chi^2(135, N = 428) = 636.85$, RMSEA = .09, CFI = .63 and SRMR = .10). Moreover, this difference was statistically significant, $\Delta\chi^2(1, N = 428) = 438.54$, $p < .05$, see Table 47). The correlation between the pride proneness and positive affectivity factors was positive, although, not statistically significant ($r = .11$, $p = .07$). Thus, hypothesis 4a was partially supported.

Additionally, the two-factor model for hubris proneness and positive affectivity also fit the data ($\chi^2(134, N = 428) = 224.48$, RMSEA = .04, CFI = .93, and SRMR = .04) better than the alternative single-factor model ($\chi^2(135, N = 428) = 529.36$, RMSEA =

.08, CFI = .69, and SRMR = .08). The difference in the fit of these two models was statistically significant, $\Delta\chi^2(1, N = 428) = 304.88, p < .05$, see Table 47. The two-factors were positively correlated and the correlation was statistically significant, $r = .18, p < .05$. Thus, hypothesis 4b was supported.

Ostensibly, the correlation between positive affectivity and pride proneness ($pr = .09, p = .08$) was greater than the correlation between negative affectivity and pride proneness ($pr = .03, p = .59$). However, because both partial correlations did not differ significantly from zero, the difference between the correlations would not be statistically significant. Similarly, the correlation between positive affectivity and hubris proneness ($pr = .15, p < .05$) was greater than the correlation between negative affectivity and hubris proneness ($pr = .05, p = .35$), although this difference was not statistically significant $t(427) = 1.73, p = .08$. Thus, hypotheses 4c and 4d were not supported.

Relationships between Global Attributions and Proneness to Pride and Proneness to Hubris- Hypotheses 5a and 5b

Hypotheses 5a and 5b predicted that:

Hypothesis 5a: A model with two positively correlated factors, one representing proneness to hubris and one representing global attribution tendencies, demonstrates a better fit for the scores on the measures of proneness to hubris and global attributions as compared to a one-factor model (see Figure 4).

Hypothesis 5b: A model with two negatively correlated factors, one representing proneness to pride and one representing global attribution tendencies, demonstrates a better fit for the scores on the measures of proneness to pride and global attributions as compared to a one-factor model (see Figure 5).

Nomological relationships with global attributions using the frequency measure.

The initial model that specified global attributions and hubris proneness as two positively correlated factors did not fit the data well ($\chi^2(76, N = 428) = 260.14$, RMSEA = .08, CFI = .85 and SRMR = .06). One modification index was particularly large and indicated that there was significant correlation between the errors of the scores for the global attribution items “You start a small business and it’s a success,” and “You apply for a job that you want badly and you get it.” This error correlation was probably a method effect because these two items both involved work situations. Thus, the correlation between the error terms was freed to correlate. This change resulted in a model with generally acceptable fit, although the CFI value was somewhat low ($\chi^2(75, N = 428) = 197.62$, RMSEA = .06, CFI = .90 and SRMR = .05, see Table 48). This two-factor model did fit the data better than the single-factor model ($\chi^2(76, N = 428) = 691.25$, RMSEA = .14, CFI = .51 and SRMR = .14) and this difference was statistically significant ($\Delta\chi^2(1, N = 428) = 493.64$, $p < .05$, see Table 48). However, because of the low CFI value for the fit of the factor model and because the correlation between the two-factors was not statistically significant, $r = .08$, $p = .21$), hypothesis 5a was partially supported.

The correlation between the two errors for the scores of the global attribution items discussed above were also allowed to correlate in examining the correlated two-factor model for pride proneness and global attributions. The two-factor model fit the data ($\chi^2(63, N = 428) = 153.01$, RMSEA = .06, CFI = .92 and SRMR = .06) better than the single-factor model ($\chi^2(64, N = 428) = 642.69$, RMSEA = .14, CFI = .51 and SRMR = .13, see Table 48). Moreover, the difference in fit was statistically significant, $\Delta\chi^2(1, N = 428) = 489.68$, $p < .05$. Contrary to prediction, the correlation between the pride

prone to hubris and the global attribution factors was positive, rather than negative, and statistically significant, $r = .18, p < .05$. Thus, hypothesis 5b was not supported.

Nomological relationships with global attributions using the scenario measure.

As with the analysis for the frequency measure, the initial two-factor model that specified hubris proneness and global attributions as two positively correlated factors did not fit the data well ($\chi^2(76, N = 428) = 223.76$, RMSEA = .07, CFI = .85 and SRMR = .07). Again, one modification index was particularly large and indicated that there was significant correlation between the errors of the scores for the global attribution items “You start a small business and it’s a success,” and “You apply for a job that you want badly and you get it.” As with the analysis done with scores from the frequency measure, the error terms for the scores on these items were allowed to correlate.

The revised model fit the data adequately ($\chi^2(75, N = 428) = 160.41$, RMSEA = .05, CFI = .92 and SRMR = .05). Moreover, the correlation between hubris proneness and global attributions was positive and statistically significant ($r = .18, p < .05$). In comparison to the two-factor model, the single-factor model did not fit the data as well, ($\chi^2(76, N = 428) = 457.29$, RMSEA = .11, CFI = .62 and SRMR = .10) and this difference was statistically significant ($\Delta\chi^2(1, N = 428) = 493.64, p < .05$, see Table 48). Thus, hypothesis 5a was supported.

The correlation between the two errors for the scores of the global attribution items discussed above were allowed to correlate in examining the correlated two-factor model for pride proneness and global attributions. The two-factor model fit the data ($\chi^2(75, N = 428) = 142.36$, RMSEA = .05, CFI = .94 and SRMR = .05) better than the single-factor model ($\chi^2(76, N = 428) = 544.71$, RMSEA = .12, CFI = .58 and SRMR = .11).

Moreover, the difference in fit was statistically significant, ($\Delta\chi^2(1, N = 428) = 402.35, p < .05$, see Table 48). Contrary to prediction, the correlation between the pride proneness and the global attribution factors was positive, as opposed to negative. This correlation was statistically significant, $r = .22, p < .05$. Thus, hypothesis 5b was not supported.

*Relationships between Self-Esteem and Proneness to Pride and Proneness to Hubris-
Hypotheses 6a, 6b, and 6c*

Next, the relationships between trait self-esteem and proneness to pride and hubris were examined. It was predicted that:

Hypothesis 6a: A model with two positively correlated factors, one representing proneness to pride and one representing self-esteem, demonstrates a better fit for the scores on the measures of proneness to pride and self-esteem as compared to a one-factor model (see Figure 6).

Hypothesis 6b: A model with two positively correlated factors, one representing proneness to hubris and one representing self-esteem, demonstrates a better fit for the scores on the measures of proneness to hubris and self-esteem as compared to a one-factor model (see Figure 7).

Hypothesis 6c: The correlation between trait self-esteem and proneness to hubris is significantly greater than the correlation between self-esteem and proneness to pride.

Nomological relationships with self-esteem using the frequency measure. To test hypothesis 6a, a two-factor model was fit to the scores on the measures of hubris proneness and the self-esteem. The initial two-factor model of the relationship between proneness to pride and self-esteem did not fit the data well ($\chi^2(89, N = 428) = 441.89$,

RMSEA = .10, CFI = .85 and SRMR = .07). The lack of fit may be explained by previous research findings that indicated that the positively and negatively worded items on the Rosenberg self-esteem scale (Rosenberg, 1965) result in correlations between the errors of the scores for the items that are positively worded and correlated errors of the scores for the items that are negatively worded (e.g., Marsh, 1996). Consequently, I examined a model that allowed both the errors of the scores for the positively worded items and the errors for the scores for negatively worded items to correlate. This model fit the data adequately ($\chi^2(69, N = 428) = 178.93$, RMSEA = .06, CFI = .95, and SRMR = .05, see Table 49). The correlation between proneness to pride and self-esteem was positive and statistically significant, $r = .52, p < .05$. The two-factor model was then compared to a single-factor model. The single-factor model did not fit the data well ($\chi^2(69, N = 428) = 439.44$, RMSEA = .11, CFI = .83, and SRMR = .09) and the fit of the single-factor model was significantly worse than the two-factor model ($\Delta\chi^2(1, N = 428) = 260.51, p < .05$, see Table 49). Thus, hypothesis 6a was supported.

Next, hypothesis 6b was examined by comparing the fit of a two-factor model in which hubris proneness and self-esteem are specified as two separate correlated factors with a single-factor model. Again, the correlated error model of self-esteem was used. The fit of the two-factor model was somewhat poor, ($\chi^2(83, N = 428) = 251.86$, RMSEA = .07, CFI = .92 and SRMR = .05). However, the two-factor model fit the data better than the single-factor model ($\chi^2(84, N = 428) = 570.37$, RMSEA = .12, CFI = .92 and SRMR = .05) and the difference in fit was statistically significant, ($\Delta\chi^2(1, N = 428) = 318.51, p < .05$, see Table 49). A statistically significant positive correlation between hubris proneness and self-esteem was found, $r = .37, p < .05$.

Hypothesis 6c predicted that the correlation between hubris proneness and self-esteem would be greater than the correlation between pride proneness and self-esteem. In fact, the correlation between proneness to pride and self-esteem ($pr = .42$) was greater than the correlation between proneness to hubris and self-esteem ($pr = .28$, $t(427) = 2.63$, $p < .05$). Thus hypothesis 6c was not supported.

Nomological relationships with self-esteem using the scenario measure. Next, hypothesis 6a was tested for the scenario measure. As in the examination of the self-esteem hypotheses with the frequency measure, I allowed the errors of the scores on the negatively worded items and the errors of the scores on the positively worded items to inter-correlate when specifying the two-factor model. However, this model resulted in a non-positive definite residual matrix. As an alternative I specified the two-factor model without allowing the errors to correlate on the self-esteem measure. I then inspected the modification indexes and freed the error term correlations between two pairs of positively worded items and one pair of negatively worded items. This resulted in a model with acceptable fit that did not have any estimation problems ($\chi^2(100, N = 428) = 214.12$, RMSEA = .05, CFI = .94 and SRMR = .05). The correlation between the pride proneness and self-esteem factors was positive and statistically significant ($r = .15$, $p < .05$). Additionally, the two-factor model fit better than the single-factor model ($\chi^2(101, N = 428) = 598.43$, RMSEA = .11, CFI = .76 and SRMR = .10). This difference was statistically significant, ($\Delta\chi^2(1, N = 428) = 384.31$, $p < .05$, see Table 49). Consequently, hypothesis 6a was supported.

To test hypothesis 6b using the scenario measure, a correlated two-factor model was fit to the data. As was previously done in the test of hypothesis 6a using the scenario

measure, the errors of the scores between two pairs of positively worded items and one pair of negatively worded items were allowed to correlate. The two-factor model fit the data adequately ($\chi^2(100, N = 428) = 232.77$, RMSEA = .06, CFI = .93 and SRMR = .05). The correlation between the pride proneness and self-esteem factors was positive and statistically significant ($r = .15, p < .05$). Additionally, the two-factor model fit better than the single-factor model ($\chi^2(101, N = 428) = 537.06$, RMSEA = .10, CFI = .77 and SRMR = .10). This difference was statistically significant, ($\Delta\chi^2(1, N = 428) = 304.29, p < .05$, see Table 49). Consequently, hypothesis 6b was supported.

Hypothesis 6c predicted that the correlation between hubris proneness and self-esteem would be greater than the correlation between pride proneness and self-esteem. In fact, the correlation between proneness to pride and self-esteem ($pr = .16$) was greater than the correlation between proneness to hubris and self-esteem, although the difference was not statistically significant ($pr = .15, t(427) = 0.17, p = .86$). Thus hypothesis 6c was not supported.

*Relationships between Narcissism and Proneness to Hubris and Proneness to Pride-
Hypotheses 7a and 7b*

Next the relationships between proneness to hubris and narcissism and proneness to pride and narcissism were examined. The following hypotheses concerned these relationships:

Hypothesis 7a: A model with two positively correlated factors, one representing proneness to hubris and one representing narcissism, demonstrates a better fit for the scores on the measures of proneness to hubris and narcissism as compared to a one-factor model (see Figure 8).

Hypothesis 7b: The correlation between narcissism and proneness to hubris is significantly greater than the correlation between narcissism and proneness to pride.

Nomological relationships with narcissism using the frequency measure. The initial two-factor model for proneness to hubris and narcissism (Hypothesis 7a) did not fit the data well ($\chi^2(859, N = 428) = 2274.69$, RMSEA = .06, CFI = .64 and SRMR = .07). Because the fit of the model with the narcissism and hubris proneness factor model fit the data so poorly, I first developed an adequately fitting measurement model for the responses on the narcissism measure.

Emmons (1984) found a four-factor solution for the NPI using exploratory factor analysis. To account for the four factors, a model was fit to the data that specified a single narcissism factor that also allowed the errors for the scores on the items within each subscale to inter-correlate. This approach allowed one narcissism factor to be modeled while also modeling the variance shared among items from the same subscale (Brown, 2006). The initial model did not meet the conventional criterion for acceptable fit for the CFI ($\chi^2(474, 428) = 960.71$, RMSEA = .05, CFI = .85 and SRMR = .06). An inspection of the modification indices indicated that the errors from the scores on the arrogance subscale item “I am a born leader” correlated with the errors from the scores on the leadership subscale items “I see myself as a good leader,” and “I would prefer to be a leader.” Because of the similarities among these three items, the errors of the scores on the items were allowed to correlate. Although the CFI for the new model was still below conventional levels of acceptable fit, the RMSEA and SRMR values were acceptable CFI

($\chi^2(474, N = 428) = 960.71$, RMSEA = .05, CFI = .87 and SRMR = .05). This model was used for the hypothesis tests.

The two-factor model fit the data ($\chi^2(702, N = 428) = 1255.01$, RMSEA = .04, CFI = .86 and SRMR = .05, see Table 50) adequately based on the RMSEA and SRMR fit indexes, but the CFI value was low. As hypothesized, the correlation between narcissism and hubris proneness was positive ($r = .59$, $p = .05$). Additionally, the two-factor model fit the data better than the single-factor model ($\chi^2(703, N = 428) = 1504.79$, RMSEA = .05, CFI = .80 and SRMR = .06) and the difference in fit was statistically significant ($\Delta\chi^2(1, N = 428) = 249.78$, $p < .05$, see Table 50). However, because the value for the CFI cannot was not approaching .95 (Brown, 2006; Hu & Bentler, 1999), hypothesis 7a was only partially supported.

Hypothesis 7b predicted that the correlation between narcissism and hubris proneness ($pr = .51$) would be greater than the correlation between narcissism and pride proneness ($pr = .31$). The difference between the two correlations was statistically significant ($t(427) = 4.02$, $p < .05$), and thus, hypothesis 7b was supported.

To further examine the relationships between pride proneness and hubris proneness on the one hand, and narcissism on the other, I examined the correlations between each trait emotion and narcissism while controlling for the other trait emotion as a post hoc analysis. The correlation between pride proneness and narcissism with hubris proneness controlled for was ($pr = .21$, $p < .05$), whereas the relationship between hubris proneness and narcissism with pride proneness controlled for was ($pr = .47$, $p < .05$).

Nomological relationships with narcissism using the scenario measure. The same measurement model established for narcissism in the test of hypothesis 7a for the

frequency measure was used to test hypothesis 7a for the scenario measure. The CFI value was low, although the RMSEA and SRMR indexes suggested adequate fit ($\chi^2(702, N = 428) = 1261.52$, RMSEA = .04, CFI = .85 and SRMR = .06, see Table 50). The correlation between proneness to hubris and narcissism was positive and statistically significant ($r = .49, p < .05$). The single-factor model did not fit as well as the two-factor model ($\chi^2(703, N = 428) = 1444.57$, RMSEA = .05, CFI = .80 and SRMR = .06, see Table 50), and the difference in fit was statistically significant, $\Delta\chi^2(1, N = 428) = 183.05, p < .05$. However, once again, because the CFI value was not approaching the cutoff of .95 (Brown, 2006; Hu & Bentler, 1999) hypothesis 7a was only partially supported.

Hypothesis 7b predicted that the correlation between narcissism and hubris proneness ($pr = .49$) would be greater than the correlation between narcissism and pride proneness ($pr = .09$). This hypothesis was supported ($t(427) = 6.98, p < .05$).

Furthermore, as a post hoc analysis, I examined the correlations between each trait emotion and narcissism while controlling for the other trait emotion. The correlation between pride proneness and narcissism with hubris proneness controlled for was not statistically significant ($pr = -.05, p = .29$), whereas the relationship between hubris proneness and narcissism with pride proneness controlled for was positive and statistically significant ($pr = .48, p < .05$).

Hypotheses for Differences in Phenomenological States

Three hypotheses specified the relationship between the constructs of proneness to pride and proneness to hubris and phenomenological states associated with these traits. Specifically, it was predicted that:

Hypothesis 1: There is a significant positive correlation between proneness to pride and the duration for which individuals experience states of pride.

Hypothesis 2a: There is a significant negative correlation between proneness to hubris and satisfaction with the emotional experience of success.

Or,

Hypothesis 2b: There is a significant positive correlation between proneness to hubris and satisfaction with the emotional experience of success.

The partial correlation matrix of the scale scores for the measures of proneness to pride and hubris, duration of the experience of pride, and satisfaction with the emotional experience is shown in Table 51. Ethnicity and sex were controlled for because these variables correlated greater than $|.20|$ with the study variables. The zero-order correlation matrix is shown for these variables in Table 52.

Examination of differences in phenomenological states using the frequency measure. Hypotheses 1, 2a, and 2b were tested using partial correlations where the effects of race/ethnicity and sex were controlled for because, as previously discussed, some of the study variables correlated with these control variables. Hypothesis 1 predicted that proneness to pride would be positively correlated with duration of the experience of pride. This hypothesis was supported ($pr = .12, p < .05$). Hypotheses 2a and 2b predicted competing hypotheses for the relationship between proneness to hubris and satisfaction with experience of success. However, neither of the hypotheses was supported. Proneness to hubris was not significantly related to satisfaction ($pr = .09, p = .06$), although the relationship was in the direction predicted by hypothesis 2b.

Examination of differences in phenomenological states using the scenario measure. Hypotheses 1, 2a, and 2b were also tested using the scenario measure with partial correlations that controlled for the effects of race/ethnicity and sex. Hypothesis 1 predicted that proneness to pride would be positively correlated with duration of the experience of pride. This hypothesis was supported ($pr = .20, p < .05$). Hypotheses 2a and 2b predicted competing hypotheses for the relationship between proneness to hubris and satisfaction with experience of success. However, neither of the hypotheses was supported. Proneness to hubris was not significantly related to satisfaction ($pr = .06, p = .22$). Thus, hypotheses 2a and 2b were rejected.

Multi-trait, multi-method hypotheses. The next set of hypotheses specify predictions for the convergent and discriminant validity of the scores on the scenario and frequency measures of proneness to pride and proneness to hubris (Tangney & Dearing, 2002). Specifically, these hypotheses were:

Hypothesis 12a: Scores from independent measures of proneness to pride and proneness to hubris demonstrate convergent validity of traits. That is, a model that specifies two correlated trait factors fits better than a model without any trait factors.

Hypothesis 12b: Scores from independent measures of proneness to pride and proneness to hubris demonstrate discriminant validity of traits. That is, a correlated two trait factor model fits better than a single-factor model.

Hypothesis 12c: Scores from independent measures of proneness to pride and proneness to hubris will demonstrate discriminant validity of methods. That is, a multi-factor model fits the data better than a single method factor model.

To evaluate these hypotheses, I used a multi-trait, multi-method model (MTMM, Byrne, 1998). The correlated traits, correlated methods model was specified with two trait factors, one for pride proneness and one for hubris proneness, and two method factors, one for the frequency measure and one for the scenario measure. The pride proneness items from both of the measures were allowed to load on the pride proneness factor and the hubris proneness items were allowed to load on the hubris proneness factor. Similarly, the items from the frequency measure were allowed to load on the frequency method factor and the items from the scenario measure were allowed to load on the scenario method factor. To set the scale for the latent variables, the variance for the trait and method factors were set at 1.0.

The correlated traits, correlated methods model fit the data adequately ($\chi^2(199, N = 428) = 331.91$, RMSEA = .04, CFI = .94 and SRMR = .04, see Table 53). To test for convergent validity (hypothesis 12a), the correlated traits, correlated methods model was compared to the no traits, correlated methods model. The no traits, correlated methods model fit significantly worse than the correlated traits, correlated method model ($\Delta\chi^2(30, N = 428) = 872.01$, $p < .05$, see Table 54). Thus, hypothesis 12a was supported.

To test for discriminant validity among the traits (hypothesis 12b), the fit of correlated traits, correlated method model was compared to the fit of the perfectly correlated traits, freely correlated methods model. The fit of the perfectly correlated traits model was significantly worse than the correlated traits, correlated method model ($\Delta\chi^2(1, N = 428) = 116.60$, $p < .05$, see Table 54). Thus, hypothesis 12b was supported.

To test for discriminant validity among the methods (hypothesis 12c), the fit of the correlated traits, correlated methods model was compared to the fit of the freely

correlated traits, perfectly correlated methods model. The latter model fit significantly worse ($\Delta\chi^2(1, N = 428) = 141.64, p < .05$, see Table 54). Thus, hypothesis 3c was supported.

Although the formal tests of hypotheses suggested that there is good evidence for convergent and discriminant validity of the scores for the pride proneness and hubris proneness items at the matrix level, an examination of the factor loadings suggested that the evidence is considerably weaker at the parameter level (see Table 55). For the scenario measure pride proneness items, the trait factor loadings were generally small (.09 - .21, mean $\lambda = .16$), and they were smaller than the method factor loadings (.46 - .66, mean $\lambda = .55$). Furthermore, the confidence intervals do not overlap for the method and trait factor loadings do not overlap (see Table 56). In other words, when the pride proneness items were combined to form a single trait, the common variance among the two measures of pride proneness was weakly related to the scenario pride proneness items. Thus, scores on the pride proneness scenario items were primarily determined by the method of measurement. Similarly, scores on hubris proneness on the frequency measure were influenced by the method factor, although to a lesser extent. Specifically, for the frequency measure, hubris proneness items, the trait factor loadings were smaller (.21 - .57, mean $\lambda = .36$) than for the method factor (.23 - .73, mean $\lambda = .55$).

Additionally, the correlation between pride proneness and hubris proneness was significant ($r = .14, p = .05$) and the correlation between the method factors was not significant ($r = -.07, p = .38$).

Discussion

Evidence for Inferences of Structural Validity and Reliability

Evidence supporting the inferences for the theoretical measurement structure of proneness to pride and proneness to hubris was found for the new frequency and scenario measures (Hypothesis 3). Specifically, for both measures, a model with two positively correlated factors fit the data better than a single-factor model. However, for both measures, the hypothesis was only supported after examining several different measurement models and ultimately using a sub-sample of the original item pools. On the one hand, the use of a sub-sample of items is to be expected because more items are typically generated than are included in a final scale (Clark & Watson, 1995; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). On the other hand, discarding items from the original item pool also raises the possibility that important theoretical content of the constructs is no longer assessed, and that items were not included or included based on chance sampling variation.

The process of choosing which items to retain and which to discard, involved several judgments. In particular, for the frequency measure, some items were discarded because they were judged to be more difficult to understand than other items that sampled a similar portion of the construct domain. Thus, two decisions were made in eliminating items, one about the difficulty of understanding the items and one about the similarity of the item to other items. However, the decisions about the difficulty of items were aided by formulas used to evaluate the reading grade-level of the items. This decreased the reliance on the authors judgment in choosing items based on readability. Decisions about similarity between items relied more heavily on the author's judgments that may have

been incorrect. Yet, some of these judgments were not difficult to make, such as identifying the similarity between the item “Feel pleased with something you have done,” and the item “Feel pleased with the work you have done.” Furthermore, to protect against changes in the meaning of scores on the new measures the final list of items was reviewed to make sure that they reflected the breadth of the hubris proneness and pride proneness constructs prior to examining the items using statistical analyses. Thus, it is believed that although several items were discarded, the final set of items still reflect the theoretical content of the constructs. The concern over sampling variation will be addressed in Study 2 when the final measurement models from Study 1 are replicated in a second sample.

A notable finding is that the model for the scenario measure only fits the data adequately once the correlations between the uniquenesses for the items nested within the same scenario are freed. Moreover, half of these correlations are statistically significant and of moderate size (.20 or greater). This suggests that the scores on the items on the pride proneness and hubris proneness share variance related to the scenario, a possibility referred to by Tangney and Dearing (2002). The implication of this finding is that researchers using an observed scale score on the scenario measure for pride proneness or hubris proneness may find misleading relationships between the scores on these measures and the scores on other measures because some of the variance in the observed scores will be attributable to the scenario rather than to the construct of interest.

The factor loadings for the scores on the proneness to pride (mean $\lambda = .64$) and proneness to hubris (mean $\lambda = .60$) items on the frequency measure are somewhat larger than the factor loadings for the proneness to pride (mean $\lambda = .56$) and proneness to hubris

(mean $\lambda = .52$) scores on the scenario measure. This suggests that the indicators for the frequency measure are somewhat more reliable than the indicators for the scenario measure. However, for both measures, the factor loadings are somewhat small. The small factor loadings suggest that the scores on the items have a weak relationship to the constructs the items are purported to measure. However, given the adequate fit found for the structural models, the variance in the items not explained by the common factor is also not related to unmodeled variation in the scores on the other items retained in the models.

Contrary to prediction, the hypothesis for the structural validity of the scores for the TOSCA-3 was not supported. Specifically, a single-factor model adequately represents the structure of the covariances of the scores on this measure rather than a two-factor model. However, this model only fit the data once the errors in the scores for pairs of items nested within a scenario were allowed to correlate. This suggests that the only factors present are related to the content of each of the scenarios. In fact, a post-hoc model that specified five correlated scenario factors fit the data well ($\chi^2(25, N = 428) = 23.64$, RMSEA $< .01$, CFI = 1.00 and SRMR = .02).³ This finding indicates that one interpretation of the scores on the TOSCA items is that they are determined by the scenarios and not pride and hubris proneness.

The good fit of the single trait factor model for the TOSCA items is particularly surprising given that a two-factor structure fits the data better than a single-factor structure for the new scenario items, even though the new scenario items were similar to

³ However, it could be said that the data fit the model too well. That the model used five factors to explain the covariances among scores on 10 items probably explains this “too good” of fit. One manifestation of fitting a large number of factors relative to the number of items is the fact that the CFI equaled 1.0 because the χ^2 was greater than the degrees of freedom.

the TOSCA items. In fact, an additional reading of the scenario items used in the final scenario measure in this study and of the TOSCA items did not reveal any notable differences in the wording and content of the items. Because the single-factor structure found for the scores on the TOSCA items is inconsistent with the hypothesized structure, it was decided not to examine the remaining hypotheses in Study 1 and Study 2 using the scores from the TOSCA items.

Finally, the internal consistency estimates of the reliability of the scores on the measures indicate that scores on the frequency measure are more reliable than scores on the scenario measure.

Evidence for Inferences of Convergent and Divergent Validity

Hypotheses 4a – 7b made predictions for relationships that if supported, would provide evidence of the inferences of convergent and divergent validity made from the scores on the two measures of proneness to pride and proneness to hubris. The results of Study 1 support inferences for the divergent validity of scores on both the frequency measure and the scenario measure of these constructs and the related constructs in the nomological networks. However, not all of the predictions for the convergent relationships between proneness to pride and proneness to hubris and the related constructs are supported for the two measures. Overall, more of the convergent validity hypotheses are at least partially supported for the frequency measure (9 out of 11) than for the scenario measure (7 out of 11). Specifically, predictions are not supported for the relationships with trait affectivity, global attributions, and self-esteem.

The hypothesis that proneness to pride and positive affectivity are positively correlated is not supported for scores on the scenario measure (the hypothesis is

supported for the frequency measure). This finding is inconsistent with theory because both traits should be associated with individual's tendencies to experience frequent positive events and/or individual's tendencies to be more sensitive to positive stimuli (Gray, 1990, 1994a, 1994b; Larsen et al., 2002). Additionally, for the scores on the scenario measure items, the correlation between proneness to pride and positive affectivity is not greater than the correlation between proneness to pride and negative affectivity. Similarly, the correlation between proneness to hubris and positive affectivity is not significantly greater than the correlation between proneness to hubris and negative affectivity. These findings are also inconsistent with theory. Thus, evidence for the relationships between scores on the scenario measure of proneness to pride and hubris, and scores on the measures of negative and positive affectivity, suggest a lack of supporting evidence for the construct validity of the scores on the scenario measure.

One of the critical theoretical distinctions between proneness to pride and proneness to hubris is that proneness to hubris is associated with global appraisals of self-credit and pride proneness is associated with specific appraisals of self-credit. Consequently, hypothesis 5a predicts that hubris proneness is positively related to global attributions and hypothesis 5b predicts that pride proneness is negatively related to global attributions. However, the relationship between pride proneness and global attributions is positive for both the frequency and the scenario measure. Moreover, hubris proneness is only positively correlated with global attributions for the scenario measure. The lack of support for the hypotheses involving global attributions for both the frequency and scenario measures suggests that global attribution tendencies may not be a distinguishing

characteristic of proneness to pride and proneness to hubris (see the general discussion for the theoretical relevance of this finding).

Self-esteem was predicted to be more strongly correlated with proneness to hubris than with proneness to pride because trait self-esteem is related to a global self-evaluations and hubris proneness is predicted to be related to global appraisals of self-credit. However, trait self-esteem is more strongly related to proneness to pride than to proneness to hubris for the frequency measure. Furthermore, for the scenario measure there is not a significant difference in the correlation between self-esteem and hubris proneness and the correlation between self-esteem and pride proneness. It is possible that pride proneness is more related to an authentic sense of self-esteem, whereas hubris proneness is more strongly related to narcissistic self-esteem (Tracy & Robins, 2007). The two emotional traits could be important components of the affective processes associated with self-esteem and narcissism. Hubris proneness may be related to feelings of hubris that suppress feelings of shame in narcissists and pride proneness may be related to feelings of pride that promote self-esteem (Tracy & Robins, 2003, 2007). The relationship between hubris proneness and narcissism, discussed below, is consistent with this proposition.

For both the scenario and frequency measures, the scores for hubris proneness are positively correlated with narcissism (hypothesis 7a). Moreover, for each of the measures, the correlation between the scores on hubris proneness and the scores on narcissism is greater than the correlation between pride proneness and narcissism (hypothesis 7b). Thus, the evidence for the relationships with narcissism is equally supportive for inferences of construct validity for each of the two measures.

Overall, the tests of the convergent hypotheses for the nomological networks for proneness to pride and proneness to hubris suggest that there is greater evidence for the inferences of construct validity made for the frequency measure than for the scenario measure.

Evidence for Inferences of Criterion-related Validity

The results for the relationships between proneness to pride and proneness to hubris and the phenomenological states argued to be associated with these traits are equally supportive for both measures. First, it was hypothesized that the duration of the typical experience of pride would be positively correlated with proneness to pride. This hypothesis is supported for both the frequency and the scenario measure. Second, it was predicted that proneness to hubris would either be negatively correlated with satisfaction with the emotional experience of success (hypothesis 2a) or positively correlated with satisfaction with the emotional experience of success (hypothesis 2b). The results indicate that neither hypothesis is supported for either measure.

Multi-Method, Multi-Trait Results

Hypotheses 12a - 12c were tested using a multi-trait, multi-method analysis of the scores from the scenario and the frequency measures. At the matrix level, all three hypotheses are supported, providing evidence for inferences about the convergent and divergent validity of the scores on the two measures for proneness to pride and proneness to hubris. However, an examination of the parameters suggests a less positive interpretation. In particular, the factor loadings for the scores on the pride proneness items of the scenario measure are generally small and considerably smaller than the method factor loadings. As shown in Table 56, the 95% confidence intervals for the pride

proneness method and factor loadings do not overlap for any of the items. Consequently, although the formal tests of the hypotheses suggest that both the scenario measure and frequency measure are assessing the same constructs, an inspection of the parameters suggests that the measurement of pride proneness using the scenario measure in particular is weak with a large proportion of the variance in the scores accounted for by the measurement method.

The next section discusses the method for Study 2. Study 1 provided evidence of the, structural validity, the criterion-related validity, and the construct validity of the scores from the new measures of proneness to pride and proneness to hubris. Study 2 replicates the structural validity of the scores from the new measures as well as examines the criterion-related validity of proneness to pride and hubris using a criterion of practical significance - performance.

Chapter 5

Study 2

STUDY 2

Method

Participants

Introductory Psychology students from a large northeastern university participated in this study in exchange for partial course credit.

An a priori power analysis indicated that this study would require approximately 240 participants to have power of .80 for the tests of close fit and not-close fit using the RMSEA fit statistic (see MacCallum et al., 1996). Data were collected from 287 participants. Women comprised 50.5% of the sample. Additionally, 37.6% of the participants were Asian, 20.6% were Caucasian, 17.4% were Hispanic, 8.0% were African American, 1.0% were Pacific Islander, and 13.9% indicated their racial-ethnic identity as “other.” The age of the participants ranged from 18 years of age to 46 years of age with a mean age of 21.3 years.

Measures

Proneness to Pride and Proneness to Hubris

The same items used in Study 1 were used to measure proneness to pride and proneness to hubris in Study 2.

Intentions to Engage in Goal Directed Behaviors

Two items developed by Leone et al. (1999) to measure intentions to engage in goal directed behaviors were used. However, these items were modified slightly to fit the context of the study. Although this modification prevents previous psychometric data from being applied to the current study, the modification was necessary to fit the items to the context of the study. The original items asked students about their intentions to study

for all of their college classes in the next seven days. The amount of time used to anchor the scales was based on the average response given by students for a typical seven day time period, not a time period near an exam. In this study, I am interested in their intentions to study for one course, the participants' Introduction to Psychology course, during a typical week. The first item was "Please express the likelihood that you intend to study for your introduction to psychology class more than 1 hour per day in a typical week. Participants responded to this item using a seven-point scale ranging from unlikely to likely. The second item that was used was "I plan to study for more than 1 hour per day in a typical week for my introduction to psychology class." This item was answered using a seven-point response scale ranging from *false* to *true*. The internal consistency of the scores from these items was adequate ($\alpha = .80$).

The scores from the two items were averaged together to calculate a scale score. The scale score had a mean of 4.05, and a standard deviation of 1.94.

Grade Goals

Students' self-set grade goals were measured at the beginning of the semester. To assess the grade goals of the participants, four items developed by Locke and Bryan (1968) were used. In their study, Locke and Bryan asked student to state what grade they "hoped for", the grade they "expected", the grade that would be "minimally satisfying", and the grade they would "actually try for." All four items are listed in Appendix Q. An additional fifth item that simply asks "What is your grade goal for the Psychology 1001 class?" was also used to measure grade goals. Participants responded to each of the grade goal items using a twelve-point scale ranging from *F* to *A*. An exploratory factor analysis indicated that the five items were unidimensional. Specifically, the first factor had an

eigenvalue of 2.92 and explained 58.31% of the variance. The eigenvalue for the second factor was .75 and explained 14.98% of the variance. Thus, the five items were treated as measures of the same factor. Scores from the five items demonstrated adequate internal consistency ($\alpha = .78$).

Scores on the five items on the grade goal scale were averaged to compute a scale score. Predictably, the average rating on the eleven-point scale was negatively skewed with a mean of 9.91 (an A- was scored 10) and a standard deviation of .89.

Social Desirability

Social desirability was measured as a potential control variable because the responses to the measures of proneness to pride and proneness to hubris may be affected by self-presentation biases (see Appendix N). This effect of self-presentation biases could alter the relationship between hubris proneness and performance and the relationship between pride proneness and performance. As with Study 1, the impression management items from the Balanced Inventory of Desirable Responding were used (Paulhus, 1991). As in Study 1, the scale was scored continuously because continuous scoring has been shown to result in better psychometric characteristics than dichotomous scoring (Stoeber et al., 2002). The scores from these items demonstrated adequate internal consistency ($\alpha = .83$).

Demographics

Students also completed a series of questions assessing their demographic characteristics (e.g., sex and ethnicity). See Appendix O for the demographics items.

Course Grade

Each student entered a form number with their survey responses if they agreed to the use of their Introductory Psychology grades in the study. These form numbers were used to match grades retrieved from the registrar at the end of the semester to the students' survey responses. Grades were scored on a twelve-point scale ranging from *F* (0) to *A* (11). However, three students elected not to allow their grades to be used in the study. Additionally, four students had duplicate form numbers entered in with their surveys (i.e., there were two pairs of duplicate form numbers). Thus, grade data was available for 280 participants, or 97.6% of the sample.

The average course grade was 6.56 on the twelve point scale, or approximately half way between a C+ and a B-. The standard deviation was 3.20.

Design and Procedure

The purpose of the second study was to examine the criterion-related validity of the scores for the measurement of proneness to pride and proneness to hubris. To do this, students were asked to indicate their course grade goal, complete the measures of proneness to pride, proneness to hubris, and intention to study for Psychology 1001 prior to the first test of the semester. The participants were also asked to permit me to retrieve and use their course grades at the end of the semester. Finally at the end of the semester, grades were retrieved for the students who permitted their use.

First wave of Data Collection

Participants entered the laboratory in groups not larger than 10 during the first three weeks of the semester and prior to when students took their first midterm exam. In the consent statement participants were told that the study was about how people

typically feel and respond to different situations. After consenting to participate, participants were asked if they would permit the researchers to have access to their course grades at the end of the semester. Prior to the debriefing, participants were not informed as to why the grades were being collected. Next, participants completed the measures for proneness to pride and proneness to hubris. After this they read the following text. “The next section of this survey will ask you questions about your grade goals for your psychology 1001 class. All of the questions refer to your psychology 1001 class only and not your other courses.” Participants were then asked to complete the measure of their course grade goals. The measure of course grade goals was followed by the measure of intentions to engage in goal directed behaviors. Next, participants completed the measure of social desirability. Lastly, participants completed the demographic questions. After this participants were thanked for their participation and debriefed.

Second Wave of Data Collection

At the end of the semester Psychology 1001 grades were retrieved from the registrar’s office.

Results

Data Preparation

Missing Data

As in Study 1, missing data for responses to the measures of proneness to pride, proneness to hubris, grade goals, and intentions to engage in goal directed behaviors were handled using direct maximum likelihood estimation. In addition, course grades were not available for seven participants because of administrative errors or these participants choosing not to have their grades used in the study. These missing data were also handled

using direct maximum likelihood estimation. Eight students (2.8%) received a grade of ABS indicating that they were absent from the final and had earned an average grade of 50% or better prior to the final, nine students (3.1%) received a grade of incomplete indicating that they had earned a grade of better than 50% but that their work for the course was incomplete, and nine students (3.1%) received a grade of W indicating that they withdrew from the course. There are two explanations for these grades. On the one hand, students were earning low grades in a course may have chosen to withdraw from the course, failed to take the final exam, or failed to complete other course work.

Alternatively, students may withdraw or fail to take a final exam or complete other work because of lack of interest, personal conflicts, health problems, or other issues not related to the grade the student would have earned had he or she completed the course requirements. The first explanation suggests that the grade data for students receiving an ABS, incomplete, or W are not missing at random because the lack of grade is related to the grade the student would have received. The second explanation suggests that the data are missing at random because the lack of grade is unrelated to the grade the student would have received. Given the lack of understanding of the missingness mechanism in this situation, the data were treated as missing at random and direct maximum likelihood estimation was used (Allison, 2003; Roth, 1994; Schafer & Graham, 2002). This procedure resulted in a sample size of 281.

Control Variables

As in Study 1, sex and race/ethnicity were used as control variables in Study 2 (see Table 57). This was done because some of the correlations between sex and ethnicity and the study variables were greater than $|.20|$ (Keppel & Zedeck, 1989). Partial and zero

–order correlations between the study variables are shown in Tables 58 and 59, respectively.

Data Analysis for Replication of Structural Validity of Measures

The fit of the measurement models for the frequency measure, the scenario measure, and the TOSCA-3 were cross validated in the sample from the second study. The two-factor model for the frequency measure ($\chi^2 = (43, N = 281) = 85.86$, RMSEA = .06, CFI = .94 and SRMR = .05) and for the scenario measure ($\chi^2 (47, N = 281) = 76.85$, RMSEA = .05, CFI = .93, and SRMR = .05) fit the data adequately in the second sample. As in Study 1, the single-factor model fit the data adequately for the TOSCA-3 measures ($\chi^2 = (30, N = 281) = 44.56$, RMSEA = .04, CFI = .98 and SRMR = .04).

Tables 60 and 61 show the standardized factor loadings found in Study 1 and Study 2 for the scores on the items from the frequency and scenario measures, respectively. As in the first study, all of the factor loadings were statistically significant. Moreover, the factor loadings for the scores on the items from both measures were similar in magnitude in the two studies. The correlation between hubris proneness and pride proneness for the frequency measure was smaller in Study 1 ($r = .32, p < .05$) than in Study 2 ($r = .47, p < .05$). However, for the scenario measure, the correlation between the factors was the same size in both studies ($r = .36, p < .05$).

Data Analysis for Tests of Hypotheses

Two different models were developed for predicting the relationship between individual differences in tendencies to experience pride and hubris and grades. The six hypotheses for the first model were:

Hypothesis 8a: Proneness to pride is positively related to performance.

Hypothesis 8b: The relationship between proneness to pride performance is mediated by behavioral intentions.

Hypothesis 8c: The relationship between proneness to pride and performance is mediated by self-set goal difficulty and behavioral intentions.

Hypothesis 9a: Proneness to hubris is positively related to performance.

Hypothesis 9b: The relationship between proneness to hubris performance is mediated by self-set goal difficulty.

Hypothesis 9c: The relationship between proneness to hubris and performance is mediated by self-set goal difficulty and behavioral intentions.

The second model predicted the relationship between proneness to pride and performance. There were three hypotheses for this model:

Hypothesis 10a: Proneness to pride is positively related to performance.

Hypothesis 10b: The relationship between proneness to pride and performance is mediated by behavioral intentions.

Hypothesis 11a: Self-set goal difficulty is positively related to performance.

Hypothesis 11b: Self-set goal difficulty is positively related to behavioral intentions.

A partial correlation matrix, controlling for sex and race/ethnicity, for the scale scores for the variables used in this study is shown in Table 58. As previously mentioned, sex and race/ethnicity were controlled for because these variables correlated greater than $|.20|$ with some of the study variables. The zero-order correlations are shown in Table 59.

The results for the frequency measure of the examination of these two models are presented first followed by the results for the scenario measure.

Tests of Hypotheses for the Relationship between Proneness to Pride, Proneness to Hubris, and Class Performance, using the Frequency Measure.

Test of the measurement model for pride proneness, hubris proneness and grade goals. To test the hypotheses I used a two step approach in which I first examined the fit of the measurement model prior to the test of the full structural model (Kline, 2005). The measurement model was tested by specifying a confirmatory factor analysis model in which all of the latent and observed variables (i.e., pride proneness, hubris proneness, grade goals, behavioral intentions, and the observed variable, course grade) were allowed to correlate. The initial measurement model did not fit the data well ($\chi^2(141, N = 281) = 299.24$, RMSEA = .06, CFI = .90 and SRMR = .06, see Table 62). The modification indices suggested that the errors of the scores for the items “Indicate the grade you hope to receive in your General Psychology class (PSY 1001).” and “What is your grade goal for your General Psychology class (PSY 1001)?” were correlated. Given that hoped for grades and grade goals are similar concepts, these errors were allowed to correlate. This improved the fit of the model, but the fit was a little below acceptable cutoff levels ($\chi^2(140, N = 281) = 276.61$ RMSEA = .06, CFI = .91 and SRMR = .06) and the modification indices suggested a second logical correlation between the errors of the scores for two items: “Indicate the grade that you are actually trying for in your General Psychology class (PSY 1001).” and “What is your grade goal for your General Psychology class (PSY 1001)?”. Consequently, the errors for these scores were allowed to correlate. This slightly improved the fit of the model ($\chi^2(139, N = 281) = 103.20$,

RMSEA = .06, CFI = .92 and SRMR = .06, see Table 62). At this point, the modification indices did not suggest any additional theoretically permissible modifications.

Test of the hypotheses of the relationship between proneness to pride, proneness to hubris, and performance. The structural model with a fully mediated relationship between proneness to hubris and proneness to pride and course grade fit the data adequately ($\chi^2(144, N = 281) = 262.57$, RMSEA = .05, CFI = .92 and SRMR = .06, see Table 62). Although the CFI was below the criteria of .95, it was approaching that value and therefore deemed acceptable (Brown, 2006; Hu & Bentler, 1999).

Hypothesis 8a was not supported. The sum of the three indirect relationships between proneness to pride and self-set goal difficulty was not significant ($\beta < .01, p < .92$). Hypothesis 8b was not supported. Although proneness to pride was significantly related to behavioral intentions ($\beta = .18, p < .05$), behavioral intentions were not related to performance ($\beta = -.09, p = .16$). Hypothesis 8c was not supported. Pride proneness was not significantly related self-set goal difficulty ($\beta = .07, p = .45$), although self-set goal difficulty did predict performance ($\beta = .33, p < .05$). Hypothesis 8d was not supported. As mentioned previously, proneness to pride was not significantly related to self-set goal difficulty ($\beta = .07, p = .45$), and although self-set goal difficulty was related to behavioral intentions ($\beta = .24, p < .05$), as previously mentioned, behavioral intentions did not predict performance ($\beta = -.09, p = .16$, see Figure 12).

Hypothesis 9a was not supported. The sum of the indirect effects of proneness to hubris on performance was not significant ($\beta = .04, p = .13$). Hypothesis 9b was not supported. The relationship between proneness to hubris and self-set goal difficulty was not significant ($\beta = .14, p = .11$), although the relationship between self-set goal difficulty

and performance was significant ($\beta = .33, p < .05$). Hypothesis 9c was also not supported. As previously mentioned, the relationship between proneness to hubris and self-set grade goals was not significant ($\beta = .14, p = .11$), and although the relationship between self-set goal difficulty and intentions was significant ($\beta = .24, p < .05$), the relationship between behavioral intentions and performance was not significant ($\beta = -.09, p = .16$, see Figure 12).

Test of the measurement model for pride proneness and grade goals. Next the measurement model to test the relationship between proneness to pride and performance was examined. The fit statistics were slightly below the standards for acceptable fit ($\chi^2(60, N = 281) = 149.41$, RMSEA = .07, CFI = .92 and SRMR = .06). As was done for the measurement model for model 1, two error correlations were allowed. Specifically, the errors of the scores on the items “Indicate the grade you hope to receive in your General Psychology class (PSY 1001).” and “What is your grade goal for your General Psychology class (PSY 1001)?”, and the errors for the scores on the items “Indicate the grade that you are actually trying for in your General Psychology class (PSY 1001).” and “What is your grade goal for your General Psychology class (PSY 1001)?” were correlated. This improved the fit of the model ($\chi^2(58, N = 281) = 103.20$, RMSEA = .06, CFI = .95 and SRMR = .05, see Table 62). At this point, the model fit was judged adequate and the modification indices did not suggest any additional theoretically permissible modifications.

Test of the hypotheses for the relationship between proneness to pride and performance. The fit of the structural model in which the relationship between proneness

to pride and course grades was adequate ($\chi^2(59, N = 281) = 111.36$, RMSEA = .06, CFI = .95 and SRMR = .06, see Table 62).

Next, the model parameters were examined to test hypotheses 10a -11. Hypothesis 10a was not supported. The indirect effect of proneness to pride and performance was not significant ($\beta = -.02, p = .22$). Hypothesis 10b was not supported. Although proneness to pride was positively related to behavioral intentions ($\beta = .18, p < .05$), behavioral intentions did not predict performance ($\beta = -.09, p = .16$).

Hypothesis 11a and 11b were supported. Self-set goal difficulty was positively related to performance ($\beta = .33, p < .05$) and to behavioral intent ($\beta = .24, p < .05$, see Figure 13).

Tests of Hypotheses for the Relationship between Proneness to Pride, Proneness to Hubris, and Class Performance, using the Scenario Measure

Hypotheses 8a-11b were tested using the scenario measure developed in Study 1.

Test of the measurement model for pride proneness, hubris proneness and grade goals. The initial model did not fit the data well ($\chi^2(155, N = 281) = 276.67$, RMSEA = .05, CFI = .90 and SRMR = .06) and the modification indices suggested a theoretically plausible modification. As was found for the analysis of the scores on the frequency measure, the modification indices suggested that the errors of the scores for the items “Indicate the grade you hope to receive in your General Psychology class (PSY 1001).” and “What is your grade goal for your General Psychology class (PSY 1001)?” were correlated. Given that hoped for grades and grade goals are similar concepts, these errors were allowed to correlate. As with the frequency measure, this led to a small

improvement in fit ($\chi^2(154, N = 281) = 254.97$, RMSEA = .05, CFI = .91 and SRMR = .06). Again, the modification indices suggested a logical correlation between the errors of the scores for two items: “Indicate the grade that you are actually trying for in your General Psychology class (PSY 1001).” and “What is your grade goal for your General Psychology class (PSY 1001)?”. Thus, the errors for these scores were allowed to correlate. This resulted in a model with acceptable fit ($\chi^2(153, 281) = 238.61$, RMSEA = .05, CFI = .93 and SRMR = .05, see Table 63).

Test of the hypotheses of the relationship between proneness to pride, proneness to hubris, and performance. The structural model fit the data adequately ($\chi^2(156, N = 281) = 241.32$, RMSEA = .04, CFI = .93 and SRMR = .06, see Table 63).

Hypothesis 8a was not supported. The sum of the indirect relationships between proneness to pride and performance was not significant ($\beta = .04$, $p = .21$). Hypothesis 8b was not supported. Pride proneness was not significantly related to behavioral intentions ($\beta = -.01$, $p = .95$) and behavioral intentions was not related to performance ($\beta = -.10$, $p = .15$). Hypothesis 8c was not supported. Pride proneness was not related to self-set goal difficulty ($\beta = .12$, $p = .17$), although self-set goal difficulty did predict performance ($\beta = .34$, $p < .05$). Hypothesis 8d was not supported. Pride proneness was not related to self-set goal difficulty ($\beta = .12$, $p = .17$), and although self-set goal difficulty was related to behavioral intentions ($\beta = .27$, $p < .05$), behavioral intentions did not predict performance ($\beta = -.10$, $p = .15$, see Figure 14).

Hypothesis 9a was not supported. The indirect effect of hubris proneness performance was not statistically significant ($\beta = -.01$, $p = .35$). Hypothesis 9b was not supported. Hubris proneness was not related to self-set goal difficulty ($\beta = -.02$, $p = .81$)

although self-set goal difficulty was positively related to performance ($\beta = .34, p < .05$). Hypothesis 9c was not supported. Hubris proneness was not related to self-set goal difficulty ($\beta = -.02, p = .81$), and although self-set goal difficulty did predict behavioral intentions ($\beta = .27, p < .05$), behavioral intentions did not predict performance ($\beta = -.10, p = .15$, see Figure 14).

The results from the test of the first model using the scenario model differed from the results of the test from first model using the frequency measure in one way; unlike the results based on the scores from the frequency measure, the results based on the scores from the scenario measure did not support a relationship between proneness to pride and behavioral intentions.

Test of the measurement model for pride proneness and grade goals. The measurement model was tested by specifying a CFA model in which all of the latent variables (i.e., pride proneness, grade goals, and behavioral intentions) and the one observed variable (i.e., course grade) were allowed to correlate. The fit statistics were somewhat below the standards for acceptable fit ($\chi^2 (72, N = 281) = 156.23$, RMSEA = .07, CFI = .90 and SRMR = .06). As was found for the model that included hubris proneness, the modification indices suggested that the errors of the scores for the items “Indicate the grade you hope to receive in your General Psychology class (PSY 1001).” and “What is your grade goal for your General Psychology class (PSY 1001)?” were correlated. Given that hoped for grades and grade goals are similar concepts, these errors were allowed to correlate. As with the frequency measure, this led to some, but insufficient, improvement in fit. Again, the modification indices suggested a logical correlation between the errors of the scores for two items: “Indicate the grade that you are

actually trying for in your General Psychology class (PSY 1001).” and “What is your grade goal for your General Psychology class (PSY 1001)?”. Thus, the errors for these scores were allowed to correlate. This resulted in a model with acceptable fit ($\chi^2(70, 281) = 117.95$, RMSEA = .05, CFI = .94 and SRMR = .05, see Table 63).

Test of the hypotheses of the relationship between proneness to pride and performance. The fit of the structural model was adequate ($\chi^2(70, N = 281) = 120.49$, RMSEA = .05, CFI = .94 and SRMR = .05, see Table 63).

Next, the model parameters were examined to test hypotheses 10a -11. Hypothesis 10a was not supported. The indirect relationship between proneness to pride and performance was not significant ($\beta = -.001, p = .95$). Hypothesis 10b was not supported. The relationship between proneness to pride and behavioral intentions was not significant ($\beta = .01, p = .95$) and the relationship between behavioral intentions and performance was not significant ($\beta = -.10, p = .15$). Hypothesis 11a and 11b were supported. Self-set goal difficulty was positively related to performance ($\beta = .34, p < .05$) and to behavioral intent ($\beta = .27, p < .05$). The structural model is shown in Figure 15.

Unlike the results based on the scores from the frequency measure, the results based on the scores from the scenario measure did not indicate a relationship between behavioral intentions and performance. Aside from this difference, the results based on the scores from the two measures were comparable.

Discussion

The two-factor structure model replicated adequately for both the scenario and the frequency measure. This suggests that the fit of the final model was not the result of

sampling variation for the scores of the particular items retained, but rather, reflects a reliable measurement structure.

Additionally, in this study, two models were compared to see if proneness to pride and proneness to hubris predicted classroom performance. The first model predicted that both proneness to hubris and proneness to pride are directly related to performance. However, neither trait predicts performance for either measure. Additionally, proneness to pride predicts behavioral intentions for the frequency measure only. The second model only included proneness to pride in the prediction of performance. It was hypothesized that proneness to pride would predict performance through an effect on behavioral intentions to study (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977; Bagozzi et al., 1998). However, evidence did not support this hypothesis for either the frequency or the scenario method. For the frequency measure, proneness to pride does predict behavioral intentions, but behavioral intentions do not predict performance. For the scenario measure, proneness to pride does not predict behavioral intentions, and behavioral intentions do not predict performance. In the models for both measures, performance was predicted by self-set grade goals.

Although the results of the study suggest that proneness to hubris and proneness to pride do not predict performance, proneness to pride did predict behavioral intentions to study. Surprisingly, intentions to study did not predict performance. Given the reasonably large variation in grades and intentions, it does not seem that this lack of relationship can be explained by restriction of range on the intention variables or course grades. The lack of a relationship between intentions to study and course grades was unexpected because extensive research and theory (Ajzen, 1991; Bagozzi, 1992) would suggest that intentions should predict behaviors. And yet, either this was not the case or

differences in studying did not predict classroom performance. Moreover, the effect of proneness to pride on intentions was only found for the frequency measure; these results provide further evidence for the criterion-related validity of the frequency measure, though, not for the scenario measure.

Given the lack of support for either model using scores from either measure, I conducted an exploratory analysis of an alternative model. I focused on the frequency measure because there was only evidence for the relationships between the trait emotions and the other constructs in the model for this measure. Additionally, I focused on the relationships with pride proneness because hubris proneness was unrelated to the other constructs in the model.

Using the scores from the frequency measure I found one model in which pride proneness predicts performance. This model specified a path from pride proneness to performance in which pride proneness predicted behavioral intentions, behavioral intentions predicted grade goals, and grade goals predicted performance. This model fit the data adequately ($\chi^2(61, 281) = 114.56$, RMSEA = .06, CFI = .95 and SRMR = .06). Moreover, the indirect relationship was statistically significant and positive ($\beta = .02$, $p < .04$), although the relationship was very small. The relationship between pride proneness and behavioral intentions was significant and positive ($\beta = .21$, $p < .05$), as was the relationship between behavioral intentions and self-set goal difficulty ($\beta = .26$, $p < .05$) and the relationship between self-set goal difficulty and performance ($\beta = .31$, $p < .05$).

This model, in which intentions predict goals, which in turn predict performance, essentially suggests that in a performance situation, individuals decide the amount of effort they are willing to expend and set their goals accordingly. Although theory about

the relationships between goals, actions, and performance suggest that goals determine of behavioral intentions and behaviors (Locke & Latham, 2002; Tubbs & Ekeberg, 1991), behavioral intentions may also affect goal choice (Tubbs & Ekeberg, 1991). As argued by Tubbs and Ekeberg, individuals may consider the feasibility of an action plan in the process of setting an overall objective. They argue that rather than first deciding on a goal and then formulating behavioral intentions as part of an action plan, individuals may jointly decide upon the goal and the behavioral intentions. Thus, through the joint consideration of behavioral intentions and goals, individuals' behavioral intentions may predict the goals that they hold for their performance in the class. That is, individuals may first consider what behaviors they are willing and able to do and use this information to inform their choice of goal. This reasoning is consistent with the post-hoc model for the relationship between proneness to pride and performance.

Chapter 6
General Discussion

GENERAL DISCUSSION

The studies presented here have three goals: (a) develop two new measures of proneness to pride and proneness to hubris and assess the structural validity of the scores from the measures, (b) assess the convergent and discriminant validity, as well as the criterion-related validity of the scores on each of the new measures, and (c) demonstrate the criterion-related validity of the scores on the new measures using a practically relevant measure of performance as the criterion. To meet these goals I conducted two pilot studies to aid in measure development; and two studies were conducted to examine the measurement properties of the two new measures. In the first study, I examined the structural validity and reliability of the scores, examined the relationships between the scores on these measures and the scores on measures of theoretical differences in the phenomenological experience of states of pride and hubris, and correlated scores on the hubris and pride proneness measures with scores on the measures of other constructs in the respective nomological networks (Cronbach & Meehl, 1955). In the second study, I confirmed the factor structure of the new measures, and examined the criterion-related validity of the scores on proneness to pride and hubris by testing the relationship between these constructs and course performance. Next, I discuss the evidence for the inferences of validity from the scores on the measures, followed by a discussion of the theoretical and practical relevance of the findings.

Evidence for Inferences of Structural, Construct, and Criterion-Related Validity

I made several predictions for the aforementioned studies to examine the validity of the inferences made from the scores and the utility of the new measures. A summary of the hypotheses that received partial and full support is shown in Table 64. In Study 1,

the results indicate that the scores from the new items I have written load on two-factors, a proneness to pride factor and a proneness to hubris factor for both measures. In Study 1, I also found evidence that the scores on the measures are correlated with phenomenological differences in the experience of states of pride and hubris for individuals prone to these emotions. Specifically, for both measures, pride proneness predicts the duration of the experience of state pride as self-reported by participants. However, contrary to prediction, proneness to hubris did not predict satisfaction with the emotional experience of success for the frequency measure, nor for the scenario measure.

In Study 1, I expected to find evidence for the convergent and discriminant validity of the scores for proneness to pride and proneness to hubris and other constructs in the nomological networks for these constructs. Although not all hypotheses were supported, the evidence generally supports the inference that the scores on the proneness to pride and the proneness to hubris frequency items are a reflection of those constructs. However, the evidence is less strong for the scenario measure. In particular, the failure to find that proneness to pride is positively correlated with positive affectivity, the failure to find that the correlation between proneness to pride and positive affectivity is stronger than the correlation between proneness to pride and negative affectivity, and the failure to find that the correlation between proneness to hubris and positive affectivity is stronger than the correlation between proneness to hubris and negative affectivity, calls into question the interpretations that can be made from the scores on the scenario measure. Furthermore, the evidence from the multi-trait, multi-method analyses suggested that the scores on the scenario measure reflect a greater proportion of measurement variance than the scores on the frequency measure. Thus, Study 1 suggests that there is greater evidence

for inferring that the frequency measure assesses pride proneness and hubris proneness than for inferring that the scenario measure assesses these constructs.

The results of Study 2 indicate that in the prediction of performance, the evidence for an inference of criterion-related validity is stronger for the frequency measure scores than for the scenario measure scores. Although, the hypothesis that proneness to pride predicts performance is not supported for the scores on either measure, for the frequency measure, this hypothesis was not supported because behavioral intentions do not predict performance. However, frequency measure scores for pride proneness do predict behavioral intentions. In contrast to the results for pride, there was not support for the criterion-related validity prediction for either measure of hubris.

The results of both Study 1 and Study 2 raise the question of why the construct validity evidence is stronger for the frequency measure than for the scenario measure. One possibility is that because the scenario measure primarily used tendencies to make appraisals of specific or global self-credit, the items did not sample the broad affective content (e.g., feelings of accomplishment or superiority) related to these traits. This deficient sampling of the construct domain could have resulted in the lack of evidence for the construct validity for the scores. In particular, the lack of adequate sampling of the affective content of proneness to pride and proneness to hubris may explain the lack of support for the relationships between these constructs and positive and negative affectivity.

Theoretical and Practical Implications of the Results for the Frequency Measure

Given that the evidence is stronger for the conclusion that the scores on the frequency measure reflect the proneness to pride and proneness to hubris constructs than

the scores on the scenario measure, I will discuss the theoretical implications of findings for the frequency measure only.

Results that are Consistent with the Hypotheses

Nomological Network Hypotheses

Support was found for many of the predicted theoretical relationships for the constructs of proneness to pride and proneness to hubris. Both constructs are related to positive affectivity and this relationship is stronger than the relationship with negative affectivity. These results suggest that individuals prone to experiencing pride or hubris tend to have more frequent experiences of positive emotional states and may be more sensitive to positive information in the environment (Gray, 1990, 1994a, 1994b; Larsen et al., 2002).

In addition, the results indicate that hubris proneness is positively related to narcissism, and that narcissism is significantly more strongly related to hubris proneness than it is to pride proneness. Furthermore, although hubris proneness and narcissism are strongly related, the evidence indicates that the scores on the measures of proneness to hubris and narcissism reflect two different constructs. Future research should examine additional relationships between narcissism and hubris proneness. For example, does hubris proneness predict variance in attitudes and behaviors above and beyond the variance predicted by narcissism?

The relationships between narcissism and hubris proneness also suggest that understanding the interplay between these constructs may have practical implications for understanding how narcissistic individuals behave. For example, hubris proneness may function in conjunction with narcissism to regulate feelings of shame. When a narcissist

experiences a failure, hubris proneness may cause the individual to cognitively reinterpret the situation to experience the feeling of success (Lewis, 2000).

Criterion-Related Validity Hypotheses

Results show that individuals prone to pride are able to extend states of pride, paralleling findings on the prolonged experiences of state emotions in those prone to the emotions, such as the experience of anger by the anger prone (Deffenbacher et al., 1996). This result suggests that pride proneness alters the phenomenological experience of state pride. However, post-hoc analyses indicate that hubris proneness also correlates with duration of pride. The relationship between duration of pride and hubris proneness may be the result of the items used to measure duration of pride. Specifically, participants were asked to indicate how long the emotion of pride and the bodily experiences of pride typically last. The use of the word pride in this statement could have been interpreted as both pride and hubris given the use of the word pride to refer to both emotions (Lewis, 1992). Alternatively, individuals prone to hubris may also experience prolonged states of pride. Future research should examine the relationship between the traits of pride proneness and hubris proneness and the duration of experiences of state pride using more detailed operationalizations of the emotion pride and examine how trait hubris may be related to state pride.

Two models were proposed to examine the effects of proneness to pride and proneness to hubris on performance. The first model was developed based on the theory that both pride proneness and hubris proneness are related to performance. The second model was developed based on the rationale that hubris proneness is not related to performance (Lewis, 1992), and thus, only pride proneness was included in the model.

Because the results indicate that hubris proneness was not related to performance or self-set grade goal, the following discussion will focus on the results from the second model.

Although none of the hypotheses were supported, the analysis indicates that pride proneness is related to intentions to engage in behaviors to meet goals. It was argued that the relationship between pride proneness and behavioral intentions would lead to higher levels of performance by individuals prone to pride. Specifically, individuals prone to pride would form cognitions in performance situations, such as intentions, about engaging in behaviors to meet a performance standard. The results suggest this may be the case. Individuals more prone to pride do have intentions to study more frequently for a class than individuals less prone to pride. Intentions were predicted to then lead to behaviors to meet the performance standard and to subsequent higher performance (Ajzen, 1991; Bagozzi, 1992). However, the results indicate that intentions to study more for a class do not translate into performance gains. One possibility is that a relationship was not found because of restriction of range on either the scores on the intention items or the in the student's grades. However, this does not seem likely given that means were near the midpoint, and the standard deviations were not excessively small, on both the average of the intention items ($M = 4.05$, $SD = 1.94$, on a seven-point scale) and the student's grades ($M = 6.56$, $SD = 3.20$, on a twelve-point scale).

A second possible explanation for the lack of relationship between intentions to study and grades is that stated intentions to study for the class did not predict studying during the semester. Although, this conclusion is contrary to research and theory that claims a relationship between stated intentions and behavior (e.g., Ajzen, 1991; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977), there are occasions when intentions do not translate into behaviors.

Intentions to engage in a behavior may not lead to the behavior when individuals accurately perceive that they have little control over the behavior (Madden, Ellen, & Ajzen, 1992). In the current study, participants may have intended to study frequently for their Introduction to Psychology course in the beginning of the term, but during the course of the term they may have had little control over the behavior. For example, participants may not have anticipated the workload required for other courses or the need to engage in paid work outside of school. These exogenous factors may have had a direct influence on the time spent studying for the course that counteracted the effect of intentions to study for the course.

A third possibility is that students with greater intentions to study more than one hour a day did engage in this behavior, but that studying did not predict performance. The amount of time spent studying may not have predicted performance because students who study more may also tend to have greater difficulty with school. Consequently, studying more did not translate into higher grades. Although research has found a positive correlation between studying time and grades, the relationship is frequently weak (Plant, Ericsson, Hill, & Asberg, 2005).

A fourth possible explanation for the lack of relationship between pride proneness and performance is that the causal sequence of the variables was misspecified in the model. This possibility was tested in a post-hoc analysis that modeled the pride proneness–performance relationship as a mediated relationship in which pride proneness predicted intentions, intentions predicted goals, and goals predicted performance. Although theory suggests that such a sequence may not be completely implausible because individuals may concurrently consider both what they intend to do and what their goals are (Tubbs &

Ekeberg, 1991), this finding would have to be replicated before it could be given serious consideration as an alternative model.

Although pride proneness did not predict performance, the relationship with behavioral intentions suggests that there may be situations in which pride proneness does predict performance. Specifically, there may be situations in which individuals form performance goals and perceive correctly that they have control over the behavior necessary to reach those goals. In those situations, pride proneness may predict performance. Thus, one practical implication of this study is the relationship between pride proneness and behavioral intentions may improve the understanding of individual performance.

Results that are Inconsistent with the Hypotheses

Although several of the hypotheses are supported, some are not. The hypotheses not supported suggest possible theoretical modifications to the understanding of the constructs of proneness to pride and proneness to hubris. Specifically, predictions are not supported for the relationship between proneness to pride and proneness to hubris on the one hand, and global attributions, self-esteem, and satisfaction with the emotional experience of success, on the other hand. Each will be discussed next.

One of the central theoretical distinctions between proneness to pride and proneness to hubris is the tendency to form global or specific appraisals of self-credit. Specifically, individuals prone to hubris are argued to form global appraisals of self-credit and individuals prone to pride are expected to form specific appraisals of self-credit (Lewis, 1992; Tangney, 1990). Thus, it was predicted that hubris proneness is positively correlated with global attribution tendencies, and pride proneness is negatively

correlated with global attribution tendencies. However, contrary to these predictions, hubris proneness is not significantly correlated with global attribution tendencies.

Furthermore, pride proneness is positively correlated with global attribution tendencies.

A possible explanation for the failure to find the predicted relationships between pride proneness, hubris proneness, and global attributions may have resulted from differences between attribution tendencies and what can be referred to as appraisal tendencies, that is, stable tendencies to form appraisals that elicit an emotion. Although theoretical discussions of states of pride and hubris have tended to use the words appraisals and attributions interchangeably (e.g., Parrott, 2004; Tracy & Robins, 2007), cognitive appraisal theories of emotions, as well as research, suggests that appraisals are more strongly related to emotion states than attributions (Lazarus, 1991; Smith et al., 1993). The primary distinction between attributions and appraisals is that the former are “cold” cognitions (i.e., dispassionate knowledge about a situation) and the latter are “hot” cognitions that include evaluations of the relevance of a situation for the self (Smith et al., 1993). In this framework, attributions may lead to emotions, but only once the situation is evaluated in terms of the significance of the event and appraisals are formed on the basis of the attributions. Paralleling the distinction between the relevance of appraisals and attributions to emotion states, emotion traits may be more strongly related to appraisal tendencies than to attribution tendencies. Here, I am drawing a distinction between tendencies to form dispassionate judgments about situations (i.e., appraisal tendencies) and tendencies to form emotionally relevant cognitions about situations that have significance for the self (i.e., appraisal tendencies). Thus, trait pride and hubris are more strongly related to appraisal tendencies than attribution tendencies because,

consistent with appraisal theory, appraisals are more proximate elicitors of emotions than appraisals (Smith et al., 1993). In other words, attribution tendencies might be less related to trait emotions because trait emotions require more than attribution tendencies, they require appraisal tendencies that invoke the significance of events to the self and not just the causal locus of those events. Consequently, support for the attribution tendency hypotheses may not have been found because the predictions should have been made for appraisal tendencies.

A second set of hypotheses that was not supported in this study involved the relationships between proneness to pride, proneness to hubris, and self-esteem. Specifically, it was predicted that self-esteem would be more strongly correlated with hubris proneness than with pride proneness because self-esteem involves a global self-evaluation (Baumeister et al., 2003). However, this relationship is not supported by the data. Rather, the relationship between pride proneness and self-esteem is significantly larger than the relationship between hubris proneness and self-esteem. Interestingly, the hypothesis that hubris proneness is more strongly related to narcissism than pride proneness is supported by the results of the study. Together, these findings suggest that pride proneness is more strongly related to an authentic sense of self-esteem than hubris proneness, and hubris proneness is more strongly associated with a narcissistic form of self-esteem than pride proneness (Tracy & Robins, 2007). Consequently, proneness to pride and proneness to hubris may play an important role in authentic self-esteem regulation and narcissistic self-esteem regulation, respectively (Tracy & Robins, 2004). Future research should examine how pride proneness and hubris proneness are related to

states of pride and hubris when different events occur. The changes in these states may be related to changes in self-esteem and narcissistic attitudes and behaviors.

A third set of hypotheses that was not supported predicted that hubris proneness is either negatively correlated, (Hypothesis 2a) or positively correlated (Hypothesis 2b), with satisfaction with the emotional experience of success. The results seem to suggest that there may not be a relationship between the emotional experience of success and hubris proneness. One possible explanation for this is that the measurement of the emotional experience of success was poor. This construct is a difficult one to articulate and because an existing measure was not found, an un-validated measure was developed for this study. However, the scores on the items demonstrated evidence of both unidimensionality and adequate internal consistency. This provides some support for the adequate measurement of the construct, but the lack of validity evidence for the scores on the measure leaves some room for doubt.

However, an alternative explanation is that hubris proneness and the emotional experience of success are indeed unrelated, rather than negatively or positively related. Lewis (1999) stated that “people prone to hubris derive little satisfaction from the emotion.” This statement suggests a lack of relationship between hubris proneness and satisfaction with success. Consequently, what may be a more important consideration for a theoretical understanding of hubris proneness and pride proneness is that satisfaction with emotional experience of success is more strongly related to pride proneness than to hubris proneness. Some support for this explanation was found through a post hoc analysis that indicates that pride proneness is positively correlated with satisfaction with the emotional experience of success once sex and race are controlled for ($pr = .33, p <$

.05). Sex and race were controlled for in this analysis because these variables were found to be correlated with other study variables.

Strengths and Weaknesses of the Research

This research has five major strengths. First, by using two different methods of operationalizing the constructs of proneness to pride and proneness to hubris, I increased the probability of finding a method with adequate psychometric properties. Second, the design of Study 1 provided a thorough examination of the evidence for the validity of the inferences made from the scores on the measures of proneness to pride and proneness to hubris. I chose constructs that allow for an examination of the convergent validity of the scores on the pride proneness and hubris proneness measures. Third, the design allowed a test of the discriminant validity of the scores from the measurements of the constructs. By choosing constructs that are similar to proneness to pride and proneness to hubris, I was able to examine whether or not these new measures are measuring constructs that are new and different from existing constructs. A fourth strength of the studies was the design used for a test of the criterion-related validity of the scores for proneness to hubris and pride in Study 2. By measuring pride and hubris proneness at one point in the semester and then acquiring the respondents grade information at a later point in the semester, I eliminated the potential that performance in the class may affect responses to the measures of these affective dispositions. A fifth strength of Study 2 was that I used objective criterion data as a measure of performance, that is, students' course grades.

Despite these strengths, the studies have some limitations. One potential weakness is that respondents may have answered the questions in a socially desirable way. Respondents may not have wanted to report feeling in ways that are congruent with

hubris proneness (e.g., feeling superior to others and self-important). However, social desirability bias is a potential limitation of all self-report research, and consequently is not unique to this study. Furthermore, I measured tendencies to respond in a socially desirable way and examined whether or not there was a relationship of large enough magnitude with the other constructs to consider using it as a control variable. However, there was not a very strong relationship between social desirability and the other constructs ($r < .20$). So, although a potential problem, it seems that social-desirability did not harm the validity of the results from this research.

A second potential limitation of the studies is that they are construct validation studies of measures of traits that have had little empirical examination. As a result, hypotheses that are not supported could mean that either the measure is not actually measuring the desired construct or that the theory behind the relationship is incorrect (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). However, this is an inherent problem in construct validation research. By having two methods of measurement, it was more likely that evidence would support the construct validity of the scores from at least one of the two measurement approaches. The results indicated that it is reasonable to make inferences of construct validity from the scores of the frequency measures.

A third potential limitation of these studies pertains to the hypotheses in Study 1 that make predictions for the comparative strength of the relationships between two different variables. Such comparisons may not be appropriate because of differences in the quality of measurement of the constructs involved in the comparisons (Cooper & Richardson, 1986). Specifically, there are four comparative hypotheses of this type:

Hypothesis 4c: The correlation between proneness to pride and positive affectivity is significantly greater than the correlation between proneness to pride and negative affectivity.

Hypothesis 4d: The correlation between proneness to hubris and positive affectivity is significantly greater than the correlation between proneness to pride and negative affectivity.

Hypothesis 6c: The correlation between trait self-esteem and proneness to hubris is significantly greater than the correlation between self-esteem and proneness to pride.

Hypothesis 7b: The correlation between narcissism and proneness to hubris is significantly greater than the correlation between narcissism and proneness to pride.

Although hypotheses 4c, 4d, and 7b were supported, the differences in the strengths of relations found for the constructs in these hypotheses could mean either that there is evidence that the relationships do differ or that a biased comparison was made (Cooper & Richardson, 1986). Inappropriate comparisons in measurement studies can occur under conditions such as if one of the variables is less adequately operationalized or if there is artifactual overlap between the two of the measures (Cooper & Richardson, 1986). Although the possibility of making a biased comparison is an important consideration for any study in which comparisons are made, arguably, a potentially biased comparison is not a significant threat in Study 1. To test the hypotheses in Study 1, existing validated measures and new measures that are comprised of items which were carefully written to reflect the content of the construct being measured were used.

Consequently, it is unlikely that one measure is less well operationalized than another in a way that would bias the results to support the predictions made.

A fourth potential limitation of this study was the amount of revision required to achieve a model that fit the data well for the two new measures. This process required several judgments about which items to retain and which items to discard. As discussed previously, this may have altered the content of the constructs being assessed and also may have resulted in a measurement model based on sampling variation. However, efforts were made to prevent either problem from occurring. First, effort was made to preserve all of the construct content in the revised measures. Second, steps were taken to reduce the reliance on the author's judgment in making decisions about which items to include and which to discard. In particular, scores based on formulas for calculating the items readability were used as a method of choosing items to discard for the frequency measure and multiple raters were used to make judgments about the similarity of scenarios for the scenario measure. Third, the factor structures were replicated in a second sample. The replication of the factor structure in a second sample suggests that the measurement model reflects a reliable factor structure for the scores on the items retained.

However, despite these limitations this research has made a contribution to the literature on proneness to pride and hubris. Two new measures of proneness to pride and hubris were developed and assessed for evidence of construct and criterion-related validity. Additionally, a third existing measure of proneness to pride and hubris, the TOSCA-3 was analyzed. The results indicate support for the hypothesized factor structure for the scores on the frequency measure. However, the analyses of the scores on

the two scenario based measures, the TOSCA-3 and the new scenario measure, suggest that the scenario method of assessing traits of pride and hubris is more problematic. For the TOSCA-3, the covariance among the scores on the items can be explained adequately by the scenarios in which the items are nested rather than by the proneness to pride and hubris constructs. For the new scenario measure, in order to find a model that fit the data adequately, the errors of the scores on the items nested within scenarios had to be allowed to correlate. The error correlations suggest a complicated factor structure for the scenario measure scores on the new measure. Thus, the first contribution to the assessment of proneness to pride and hubris made by this study was demonstrating that the scenario method of measurement is problematic.

The results also indicate support for the inferences of discriminant validity for the scores on both of the new measures. And, for the frequency measure at least, there was adequate evidence for inferences of the convergent validity from the scores. Furthermore, the scores from the frequency measure of pride proneness did predict the criterion of behavioral intentions, although the hypothesized relationship with performance was not supported. Consequently, although the measurement of proneness to hubris and proneness to pride would benefit from further psychometric research, the research presented herein is a significant contribution to the assessment of and theoretical understanding of these constructs.

In conclusion, this research has demonstrated that the frequency measure of proneness to pride and proneness to hubris is a promising approach to measuring these theoretically and practically important constructs.

Chapter 7

Appendixes

Table 1

Questionnaire Responses to “Where did the situation occur?”

Code Description	Pride Frequency			Hubris Frequency		
	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 38)	% of Sample (n = 39)	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 28)	% of Sample (n = 28)
School	16	42.1	41.0	6	21.4	21.4
At an event not inside a place of employment, home or school	5	13.2	12.8	0	0	0
Application process	5	13.2	12.8	0	0	0
Work	4	10.5	10.3	6	21.4	21.4
Home	4	10.5	10.3	0	0	0
Geographic Location Gave name of city or country	2	5.3	5.1	3	10.7	10.7
Relatives Home	1	2.6	2.6	1	3.6	3.6
Non-specific	1	2.6	2.6	2	7.1	7.1
Athletic Venue	0	0	0	8	28.6	28.6
Friends House	0	0	0	1	3.6	3.6
Taking a non-school test	0	0	0	1	3.6	3.6

Table 2

Questionnaire Responses to “Who was involved?”

Code Description	Pride Frequency			Hubris Frequency		
	# of Responses	% of Responses (total =57)	% of Sample (n = 39)	# of Responses	% of Responses (total =33)	% of Sample (n = 28)
Family (not parents)	9	15.8	23.1	1	3.0	3.6
Friend(s)	8	14.0	20.5	4	12.1	14.3
Classmates	7	12.3	17.9	2	6.1	7.1
Coworkers/peers/teammates	6	10.5	15.4	4	12.1	14.3
Teacher/professor	5	8.8	12.8	0	0.0	0.0
Significant Other (e.g., spouse, boyfriend, or girlfriend)	4	7.0	10.3	2	6.1	7.1
Authority figure/decision maker. Examples - a boss, selection committee, coach	4	7.0	10.3	11	33.3	39.3
Alone	4	7.0	10.3	2	6.1	7.1
Parents	4	7.0	10.3	1	3.0	3.6
Audience/Strangers	3	5.3	7.7	3	9.1	10.7
A third party performing	1	1.8	2.6	0	0.0	0.0
Customer, client	1	1.8	2.6	2	6.1	7.1
General Public	1	1.8	2.6	0	0.0	0.0
Employees	0	0.0	0.0	1	3.0	3.6

Table 3

Questionnaire Responses to “What exactly happened?”

Code Description	Pride Frequency			Hubris Frequency		
	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 60)	% of Sample (n = 39)	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 31)	% of Sample (n = 28)
Got a good grade, graduated, or met other goal. Does not include occasions when individual was singled out for recognition for performance	10	16.7	25.6	5	16.1	17.9
Got an internship, job, promotion, or other desired role	7	11.7	17.9	2	6.5	7.1
Singled out for a reward. This does not include general accomplishment such as graduating high school.	6	10.0	15.4	2	6.5	7.1
Focuses on having done better than others. Must explicitly state a comparison of his/her performance relative to others.	5	8.3	12.8	2	6.5	7.1
Mentions being surprised by the success or accomplishment	5	8.3	12.8	1	3.2	3.6

Code Description	Pride Frequency			Hubris Frequency		
	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 60)	% of Sample (n = 39)	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 31)	% of Sample (n = 28)
Description makes reference to recognition occurring in front of others or references pride inducing event occurring in front of others. Does not include recognition in front of close others.	5	8.3	12.8	0	0.0	0.0
Others demonstrate worth or feel worth is demonstrated. Does not include demonstration of worth through accomplishment	4	6.7	10.3	0	0.0	0.0
Feeling proud/hubristic for helping others in need	3	5.0	7.7	1	3.2	3.6
Discusses effort or behaviors engaged in that brought about success.	3	5.0	7.7	1	3.2	3.6
Others spoke of the person's value	2	3.3	5.1	0	0.0	0.0
Stood up for one's self as an act of self value or demonstrated self respect	2	3.3	5.1	2	6.5	7.1
Accepts responsibility entrusted to him or her	2	3.3	5.1	0	0.0	0.0

Code Description	Pride Frequency			Hubris Frequency		
	# of Responses	% of Responses (total =60)	% of Sample (n = 39)	# of Responses	% of Responses (total =31)	% of Sample (n = 28)
Felt pride because of performance of an individual or group the individual identifies with.	2	3.3	5.1	0	0.0	0.0
Feeling proud/hubristic for a close others accomplishments	1	1.7	2.6	0	0.0	0.0
Felt pride because of membership in a high status group (e.g., a good school)	1	1.7	2.6	0	0.0	0.0
Mentioned others admiring him or her	1	1.7	2.6	1	3.2	3.6
Could not classify	1	1.7	2.6	0	0.0	0.0
Winning or thinking they were going to succeed or win a game or sports contest	0	0.0	0.0	7	22.6	25.0
Thinking they were going to win or succeed but lost because of overconfidence	0	0.0	0.0	4	12.9	14.3
Performance was being evaluated (no mention of outcome)	0	0.0	0.0	3	9.7	10.7

Table 4

Questionnaire Responses to “In your opinion, what words would best describe your emotion?”

Code Description	Pride Frequency			Hubris Frequency		
	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 90)	% of Sample (n = 39)	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 56)	% of Sample (n = 28)
Happiness, joy	17	18.9	43.6	8	14.3	28.6
Pride	11	12.2	28.2	6	10.7	21.4
Confident	7	7.8	17.9	2	3.6	7.1
Negative reaction (e.g., bad feelings, failure, anxiety, etc.)	5	5.6	12.8	4	7.1	14.3
Short term emotional experience	4	4.4	10.3	1	1.8	3.6
Satisfaction	3	3.3	7.7	2	3.6	7.1
Accomplished	3	3.3	7.7	3	5.4	10.7
Worthy, self-esteem	3	3.3	7.7	1	1.8	3.6
Excitement	2	2.2	5.1	3	5.4	10.7
Better than other people or superior	2	2.2	5.1	5	8.9	17.9
Feel good or pleasant	2	2.2	5.1	3	5.4	10.7
On top of the world	2	2.2	5.1	0	0.0	0.0
Self-Satisfaction	2	2.2	5.1	0	0.0	0.0
Phenomenal	2	2.2	5.1	0	0.0	0.0
Fantastic	2	2.2	5.1	0	0.0	0.0

Code Description	Pride Frequency			Hubris Frequency		
	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 90)	% of Sample (n = 39)	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 56)	% of Sample (n = 28)
Relieved	2	2.2	5.1	0	0.0	0.0
Motivated, eager	1	1.1	2.6	2	3.6	7.1
Invincible	1	1.1	2.6	2	3.6	7.1
Powerful	1	1.1	2.6	0	0.0	0.0
Show off, boast	1	1.1	2.6	1	1.8	3.6
Careful	1	1.1	2.6	1	1.8	3.6
Felt hot	1	1.1	2.6	0	0.0	0.0
Big headed	1	1.1	2.6	0	0.0	0.0
Intelligent	1	1.1	2.6	0	0.0	0.0
Character	1	1.1	2.6	0	0.0	0.0
Grateful	1	1.1	2.6	0	0.0	0.0
Ignorant	1	1.1	2.6	0	0.0	0.0
Rewarding	1	1.1	2.6	0	0.0	0.0
Touched	1	1.1	2.6	0	0.0	0.0
Extraordinary	1	1.1	2.6	0	0.0	0.0
Incredible	1	1.1	2.6	0	0.0	0.0
Terrific	1	1.1	2.6	0	0.0	0.0
Wonderful	1	1.1	2.6	0	0.0	0.0
Flying	1	1.1	2.6	0	0.0	0.0
Love	1	1.1	2.6	0	0.0	0.0

Code Description	Pride Frequency			Hubris Frequency		
	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 90)	% of Sample (n = 39)	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 56)	% of Sample (n = 28)
Correct	1	1.1	2.6	0	0.0	0.0
Acknowledgement	1	1.1	2.6	0	0.0	0.0
Relief	0	0.0	0.0	2	3.6	7.1
Deserving to win	0	0.0	0.0	1	1.8	3.6
Cocky	0	0.0	0.0	1	1.8	3.6
Unstoppable, unbeatable, untouchable	0	0.0	0.0	2	3.6	7.1
High or buzz	0	0.0	0.0	1	1.8	3.6
Humble	0	0.0	0.0	1	1.8	3.6
Arrogant of full of yourself	0	0.0	0.0	1	1.8	3.6
Overconfident/can do no wrong	0	0.0	0.0	2	3.6	7.1
Successful	0	0.0	0.0	1	1.8	3.6

Table 5

Questionnaire Responses to “What did you say?”

Code Description	Pride Frequency			Hubris Frequency		
	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 45)	% of Sample (n = 39)	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 24)	% of Sample (n = 28)
Expressed gratitude to others	7	15.6	17.9	5	20.8	17.9
Said nothing	7	15.6	17.9	5	20.8	17.9
Verbally rejoiced, screamed, or expressed excitement	6	13.3	15.4	0	0.0	0.0
Thought of how proud they were of themselves or what an accomplishment the event was. That is, the person feeling pride thought about how proud they were of their self.	5	11.1	12.8	1	4.2	3.6
Said something humble or modest such as “glad it was good enough”	3	6.7	7.7	0	0.0	0.0
Told others of accomplishment or directed others attention to accomplishment.	3	6.7	7.7	2	8.3	7.1
Spoke of feeling good, happy	3	6.7	7.7	1	4.2	3.6
Offered to help others	2	4.4	5.1	0	0.0	0.0

Code Description	Pride Frequency			Hubris Frequency		
	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 45)	% of Sample (n = 39)	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 24)	% of Sample (n = 28)
Thought to himself or herself about the hard work required for accomplishment or of behaviors or skills they relied on for success.	2	4.4	5.1	0	0.0	0.0
Expressed a desire to others to repeat the triggering event	1	2.2	2.6	0	0.0	0.0
Expressed shock	1	2.2	2.6	0	0.0	0.0
Joked with others	1	2.2	2.6	0	0.0	0.0
Cried	1	2.2	2.6	0	0.0	0.0
Asked others about the thing that made the respondent feel proud	1	2.2	2.6	0	0.0	0.0
Wished experience to repeat	1	2.2	2.6	0	0.0	0.0
Thought to self about surprise	1	2.2	2.6	0	0.0	0.0
Expressed self or groups superiority	0	0.0	0.0	2	8.3	7.1
Expressed optimism for future success	0	0.0	0.0	4	16.7	14.3
Focused on task	0	0.0	0.0	2	8.3	7.1
Taunted	0	0.0	0.0	1	4.2	3.6
Expressed anger about losing	0	0.0	0.0	1	4.2	3.6

Table 6

Questionnaire Responses to “What were your bodily reactions?”

Code Description	Pride Frequency			Hubris Frequency		
	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 53)	% of Sample (n = 39)	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 40)	% of Sample (n = 28)
Smiled	18	34.0	46.2	8	20.0	28.6
Felt a sense of energy, activity, or excitement. Jumped	11	20.8	28.2	3	7.5	10.7
Trembled or felt shaky	9	17.0	23.1	8	20.0	28.6
Felt sense of calmness	3	5.7	7.7	1	2.5	3.6
Cried	3	5.7	7.7	0	0.0	0.0
Felt heart race or increase	3	5.7	7.7	2	5.0	7.1
Felt flushed, blood boiling	3	5.7	7.7	0	0.0	0.0
Laughed	2	3.8	5.1	1	2.5	3.6
Unclassified, didn't seem to fit question	1	1.9	2.6	0	0.0	0.0
Felt confident	0	0.0	0.0	3	7.5	10.7
Non-specific facial expressions or gestures	0	0.0	0.0	1	2.5	3.6
Loud or more confident voice	0	0.0	0.0	3	7.5	10.7
Felt cold	0	0.0	0.0	1	2.5	3.6
Low voice	0	0.0	0.0	2	5.0	7.1

Code Description	Pride Frequency			Hubris Frequency		
	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 53)	% of Sample (n = 39)	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 40)	% of Sample (n = 28)
Expressed anger	0	0.0	0.0	1	2.5	3.6
No expression	0	0.0	0.0	1	2.5	3.6
Shocked/ speechless	0	0.0	0.0	5	12.5	17.9

Table 7

Questionnaire Responses to “What did you do to try to control your emotions?”

Code Description	Pride Frequency			Hubris Frequency		
	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 37)	% of Sample (n = 39)	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 27)	% of Sample (n = 28)
Person said they did not try to control his or her emotions	14	37.8	35.9	5	18.5	17.9
Tried to calm down, relax	10	27.0	25.6	1	3.7	3.6
Tried to not express pride/hubris; acted humbly; avoided boasting	3	8.1	7.7	11	40.7	39.3
Spoke with others to control emotions	3	8.1	7.7	0	0.0	0.0
Left event; watched TV; talked with others about unrelated things	3	8.1	7.7	6	22.2	21.4
Laughed; laughed it off	2	5.4	5.1	0	0.0	0.0
Thanked God; thanked others	2	5.4	5.1	0	0.0	0.0
Tried not to think of success or downplayed success	0	0.0	0.0	3	11.1	10.7
Focused on task	0	0.0	0.0	1	3.7	3.6

Table 8

Questionnaire Responses to "How did you do that?"

Code Description	Pride Frequency			Hubris Frequency		
	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 35)	% of Sample (n = 39)	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 27)	% of Sample (n = 28)
Person said they did not try to control his or her emotions	14	40.0	35.9	4	14.8	14.3
Tried to think of other things, suppressed responses, distracted self with other activity, focused on task	9	25.7	23.1	8	29.6	28.6
Person expressed feelings verbally	3	8.6	7.7	2	7.4	7.1
Person does not know how they controlled their feelings	3	8.6	7.7	0	0.0	0.0
Cognitively reinterpreted the event as not one that should induce feelings of pride/hubris or shifted credit externally (e.g., by showing appreciation)	3	8.6	7.7	0	0.0	0.0
Person could not control feelings and expressions	2	5.7	5.1	4	14.8	14.3

Code Description	Pride Frequency			Hubris Frequency		
	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 35)	% of Sample (n = 39)	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 27)	% of Sample (n = 28)
Person tried not to talk	1	2.9	2.6	2	7.4	7.1
Expressed gratitude	0	0.0	0.0	1	3.7	3.6
Remained calm, hid feelings	0	0.0	0.0	6	22.2	21.4

Table 9

Questionnaire Responses to “What would you have done differently?”

Code Description	Pride Frequency			Hubris Frequency		
	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 39)	% of Sample (n = 39)	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 26)	% of Sample (n = 28)
Wouldn't change what they did	18	46.2	46.2	9	34.6	32.1
Not speak, express feelings less	5	12.8	12.8	5	19.2	17.9
Person would increase expression of the emotion, or express more	5	12.8	12.8	0	0.0	0.0
Comment cannot be classified or was unrelated to the individual's emotional experience, or did not relate to feelings of pride.	4	10.3	10.3	0	0.0	0.0
Try to increase feelings of pride/hubris or happiness	3	7.7	7.7	1	3.8	3.6
Would express gratitude to another person	1	2.6	2.6	0	0.0	0.0
Try to be more aware of their reactions	1	2.6	2.6	0	0.0	0.0
Try not to have so much pride/hubris	1	2.6	2.6	5	19.2	17.9
Person would express the emotion in another way (e.g., rather than cry, he or she would jump up and down).	1	2.6	2.6	0	0.0	0.0

Code Description	Pride Frequency			Hubris Frequency		
	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 39)	% of Sample (n = 39)	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 26)	% of Sample (n = 28)
Doesn't know	0	0.0	0.0	1	3.8	3.6
Avoided the situation	0	0.0	0.0	1	3.8	3.6
Would not be surprised, know what is expected	0	0.0	0.0	3	11.5	10.7
Let it go	0	0.0	0.0	1	3.8	3.6

Table 10

Focus Group Responses to “What types of events do you think cause people to feel pride/hubris?”

Code Description	Pride			Hubris		
	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 62)	% of Sample (n = 39)	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 27)	% of Sample (n = 28)
Goal accomplishment in general, no specific event given	11	17.7	28.2	3	11.1	10.7
Helping others achieve goals	8	12.9	20.5	0	0.0	0.0
Recognition, getting an award	6	9.7	15.4	3	11.1	10.7
Belonging to a group or BIRG-ing in a groups success	5	8.1	12.8	0	0.0	0.0
Academic goals such as graduating, good grades, etc.	4	6.5	10.3	3	11.1	10.7
Hard work, succeeding at something that was difficult	3	4.8	7.7	0	0.0	0.0
Something that makes you unique	3	4.8	7.7	0	0.0	0.0
Doing well at a job; getting a job	3	4.8	7.7	0	0.0	0.0
Proud of material possessions, having unique things	2	3.2	5.1	1	3.7	3.6

Code Description	Pride Frequency			Hubris Frequency		
	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 62)	% of Sample (n = 39)	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 27)	% of Sample (n = 28)
Succeed at doing something they couldn't or hadn't done before	2	3.2	5.1	0	0.0	0.0
Coping with a difficult situation	2	3.2	5.1	0	0.0	0.0
Something that is unexpected or different	2	3.2	5.1	0	0.0	0.0
Being proud of your back ground or heritage	2	3.2	5.1	0	0.0	0.0
Something that makes you better than others	1	1.6	2.6	1	3.7	3.6
Things can make you feel proud that others would not take hubris in	1	1.6	2.6	1	3.7	3.6
Outperforming others generally	1	1.6	2.6	1	3.7	3.6
Giving up something for an accomplishment	1	1.6	2.6	0	0.0	0.0
Being given increased responsibility	1	1.6	2.6	0	0.0	0.0
Winning a sports contest or game	1	1.6	2.6	0	0.0	0.0

Code Description	Pride Frequency			Hubris Frequency		
	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 62)	% of Sample (n = 39)	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 27)	% of Sample (n = 28)
Giving a presentations	1	1.6	2.6	0	0.0	0.0
Playing sports (does not mention winning or thinking of winning)	0	0.0	0.0	3	11.1	10.7
Positive events in general (not a specific event)	0	0.0	0.0	2	7.4	7.1
Excessive praise	0	0.0	0.0	2	7.4	7.1
Admiration, being respected by others, being seen as a leader	0	0.0	0.0	2	7.4	7.1
Negative events in general (not a specific event)	0	0.0	0.0	1	3.7	3.6
When a person feels he or she is perfect	0	0.0	0.0	1	3.7	3.6
Exciting events/ feeling an adrenaline rush	0	0.0	0.0	1	3.7	3.6
Having power	0	0.0	0.0	1	3.7	3.6
Achieving a new status such as becoming a citizen	0	0.0	0.0	1	3.7	3.6

Code Description	Pride			Hubris		
	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 62)	% of Sample (n = 39)	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 27)	% of Sample (n = 28)
Feeling proud of who you are as a person	1	1.6	2.6	0	0.0	0.0
Doing things you enjoy	1	1.6	2.6	0	0.0	0.0

Table 11

Focus Group Responses to “What is it about those events makes people proud/hubristic? Does the pride/hubris come from something people do [such as studying hard for a test]? Does the pride/hubris come from something about people [such as being good at a subject]?”

Code Description	Pride Frequency			Hubris Frequency		
	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 48)	% of Sample (n = 39)	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 19)	% of Sample (n = 28)
Expending effort/making a sacrifice to meet a goal	8	16.7	20.5	1	5.3	3.6
Recognition of others for success, rewarded	8	16.7	20.5	1	5.3	3.6
Pride/Hubris is about both effort and your self	7	14.6	17.9	2	10.5	7.1
Increased self-confidence or self-efficacy	4	8.3	10.3	0	0.0	0.0
When the accomplishment makes you unique; few people achieve what you have done	4	8.3	10.3	1	5.3	3.6
Accomplishing a goal	4	8.3	10.3	3	15.8	10.7

Code Description	Pride Frequency			Hubris Frequency		
	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 48)	% of Sample (n = 39)	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 19)	% of Sample (n = 28)
To feel pride/hubris you need to meet socially determined standards	3	6.3	7.7	0	0.0	0.0
Feelings of pride/hubris or self satisfaction, or self-esteem	2	4.2	5.1	2	10.5	7.1
Feeling like you belong to a group, others care for you	2	4.2	5.1	0	0.0	0.0
People feel pride/hubris in different ways and it depends on the person as to what makes them proud.	2	4.2	5.1	0	0.0	0.0
Pride/Hubris is about something about who you are as a person	1	2.1	2.6	0	0.0	0.0
Makes a favorable comparison of self with others, being told that they are superior, feeling superior	1	2.1	2.6	4	21.1	14.3

Code Description	Pride Frequency			Hubris Frequency		
	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 48)	% of Sample (n = 39)	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 19)	% of Sample (n = 28)
You can feel proud/hubristic about meeting a goal without extending effort. For example getting an A grade in an easy class	1	2.1	2.6	0	0.0	0.0
You can feel pride/hubris in other people's accomplishments	1	2.1	2.6	0	0.0	0.0
Admired/Being looked up to	0	0.0	0.0	3	15.8	10.7
Excessive praise	0	0.0	0.0	1	5.3	3.6
Importance of the goal	0	0.0	0.0	1	5.3	3.6
False Self-Confidence	0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0	0.0

Table 12

Focus Group Responses to “When people feel pride/hubris is there something they do about it? [For example, people might feel like telling others about their accomplishment or repeat doing the thing that made them feel pride/hubris.]”

Code Description	Pride Frequency			Hubris Frequency		
	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 60)	% of Sample (n = 39)	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 18)	% of Sample (n = 28)
Pride/Hubris makes people feel like telling everyone (not in a negative boastful way)	9	15.0	23.1	1	5.6	3.6
Experiences of pride/hubris differ for different people. Peoples reactions to success depend on the person	8	13.3	20.5	2	11.1	7.1
Smile	5	8.3	12.8	0	0.0	0.0
Shows concern about appearing that he or she is bragging; concern that they will display too much hubris an annoy others	4	6.7	10.3	0	0.0	0.0
Yelled or felt like yelling or screaming	4	6.7	10.3	0	0.0	0.0
Experience increased self confidence	4	6.7	10.3	2	11.1	7.1

Code Description	Pride			Hubris		
	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 60)	% of Sample (n = 39)	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 18)	% of Sample (n = 28)
Person may act with humility	4	6.7	10.3	0	0.0	0.0
Do not do anything	4	6.7	10.3	0	0.0	0.0
Want to tell close others	3	5.0	7.7	0	0.0	0.0
Stand up straight, strut	3	5.0	7.7	0	0.0	0.0
Can't express verbally	2	3.3	5.1	0	0.0	0.0
Act arrogantly, ego trip, "rubbing it in", bragging, acting superior), more negative than telling friends and family of accomplishment	2	3.3	5.1	7	38.9	25.0
Pride/Hubris is positive and is not about bragging or feelings of superiority, it can be a private experience	2	3.3	5.1	0	0.0	0.0
Cry	2	3.3	5.1	0	0.0	0.0
Feel excited or happy	1	1.7	2.6	1	5.6	3.6

Code Description	Pride Frequency			Hubris Frequency		
	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 60)	% of Sample (n = 39)	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 18)	% of Sample (n = 28)
You want other people to recognize your success, but you don't want to have to bring it to their attention	1	1.7	2.6	0	0.0	0.0
The pat on the back is a gesture that indicates hubris	1	1.7	2.6	0	0.0	0.0
Expression is socially determined	1	1.7	2.6	0	0.0	0.0
Depends on situation	0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0	0.0
Repeat an action that lead to the feeling	0	0.0	0.0	2	11.1	7.1
Feel more power	0	0.0	0.0	2	11.1	7.1
Fail because of overconfidence	0	0.0	0.0	1	5.6	3.6

Table 13

Focus Group Responses to “Do you think that on occasions when people feel pride/hubris they ever do anything that they might regret? [Bragging too much?]”

Code Description	Pride Frequency			Hubris Frequency		
	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 20)	% of Sample (n = 39)	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 18)	% of Sample (n = 28)
Felt proud/hubristic about something but later regretted doing what lead to the hubris.	4	20.0	10.3	0	0.0	0
People sometimes brag too much, or “rub it in”	3	15.0	7.7	2	11.1	7.1
Become overly excited	3	15.0	7.7	0	0.0	0
Later felt that the accomplishment should not have lead to that great of a level of pride/hubris.	2	10.0	5.1	0	0.0	0
Try not to brag too much; recognizes this is a problem	1	5.0	2.6	0	0.0	0
Concerned about making people feel inferior	1	5.0	2.6	0	0.0	0
Feeling pride/hubris leads you to find another goal to feel the emotion again	1	5.0	2.6	0	0.0	0
Make people feel inferior or hurt their feelings	1	5.0	2.6	4	22.2	14.3

Code Description	Pride Frequency			Hubris Frequency		
	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 20)	% of Sample (n = 39)	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 18)	% of Sample (n = 28)
It just involves other peoples' judgment of you.	1	5.0	2.6	0	0.0	0
People won't express fault because of their sense of pride/hubris	1	5.0	2.6	0	0.0	0
Take too much credit	1	5.0	2.6	0	0.0	0
Celebrate too much	1	5.0	2.6	0	0.0	0
Depends on the person and the situation	0	0.0	0	1	5.6	3.6
Feel overconfident, decrease effort or attention to the task	0	0.0	0	10	55.6	35.7
Lose touch with reality	0	0.0	0	1	5.6	3.6

Table 14

Focus Group Responses to “When you felt pride/hubris, did you think about yourself in relation to other people? [Did you feel better than someone?]”

Code Description	Pride Frequency			Hubris Frequency		
	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 43)	% of Sample (n = 39)	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 18)	% of Sample (n = 28)
Compare self to others favorably	15	34.9	38.5	6	33.3	15.4
Whether people compare themselves to others when they are feeling pride/hubris depends on their personality	9	20.9	23.1	3	16.7	7.7
When other people recognize your accomplishment it legitimizes your pride/hubris or increases the experience	6	14.0	15.4	1	5.6	2.6
Thought about how close others felt proud of them; wanted others to feel proud of them	5	11.6	12.8	0	0.0	0.0
Feeling pride/hubris can be a personal experience	3	7.0	7.7	0	0.0	0.0
You shouldn't compare your self to others but people often do	2	4.7	5.1	0	0.0	0.0
Connected to others sharing success	1	2.3	2.6	0	0.0	0.0

Code Description	Pride Frequency			Hubris Frequency		
	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 43)	% of Sample (n = 39)	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 18)	% of Sample (n = 28)
Feel unique in relation to other people	1	2.3	2.6	0	0.0	0.0
Focused on the self only	1	2.3	2.6	8	44.4	20.5

Table 15

Focus Group Responses to “When people feel pride/hubris, do you think they think about how other see them or is this unimportant? [Did you think of how others would have more respect for you? Or envy you?]”

Code Description	Pride Frequency			Hubris Frequency		
	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 24)	% of Sample (n = 39)	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 16)	% of Sample (n = 28)
Depends on person, some people need others recognition, others do not.	7	29.2	17.9	1	6.3	3.6
Pride/Hubris is an internal experience, you don't care what others think about you	4	16.7	10.3	8	50.0	28.6
Whether you think about how others will see you depends on the situation	4	16.7	10.3	0	0.0	0.0
You need others to recognize your accomplishments, you can't do it yourself.	3	12.5	7.7	0	0.0	0.0
Boast to some people	3	12.5	7.7	0	0.0	0.0
Expresses a desire to boast of accomplishment	1	4.2	2.6	0	0.0	0.0
You might consider telling others but you fear making them envious	1	4.2	2.6	0	0.0	0.0
Others see as better	1	4.2	2.6	1	6.3	3.6

Code Description	Pride Frequency			Hubris Frequency		
	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 24)	% of Sample (n = 39)	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 16)	% of Sample (n = 28)
Others can increase hubris if they notice your accomplishment	0	0.0	0.0	1	6.3	3.6
You are concerned with how others see you (non-specific as to type of concern).	0	0.0	0.0	5	31.3	17.9

Table 16

Focus Group Responses to “Does feeling pride/hubris make you feel more capable? How so?”

Code Description	Pride Frequency			Hubris Frequency		
	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 32)	% of Sample (n = 39)	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 18)	% of Sample (n = 28)
Makes you feel more capable, confident, or powerful	14	43.8	35.9	16	88.9	57.1
Makes you want to take on new unrelated challenges; you feel powerful	6	18.8	15.4	0	0.0	0.0
Makes you want to repeat similar task	4	12.5	10.3	0	0.0	0.0
Pride/Hubris boosts your self-esteem	3	9.4	7.7	1	5.6	3.6
Hubris can make you feel unstoppable	2	6.3	5.1	1	5.6	3.6
Pride/Hubris can be addictive in that you seek to repeat the experience	1	3.1	2.6	0	0.0	0.0
First time you do something, hubris is greater than the second time you do it.	1	3.1	2.6	0	0.0	0.0
Want to do better	1	3.1	2.6	0	0.0	0.0

Table 17

Focus Group Responses to “If you were going to describe pride/hubris in a questionnaire, how would you do this? [How would you describe the feeling of pride/hubris to someone who is not familiar with the concept?] [What words would you use to describe pride/hubris?]”

Code Description	Pride Frequency			Hubris Frequency		
	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 43)	% of Sample (n = 39)	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 31)	% of Sample (n = 28)
Confident or capable	6	14.0	15.4	1	3.2	3.6
Satisfied, self-esteem	6	14.0	15.4	2	6.5	7.1
Happy	5	11.6	12.8	2	6.5	7.1
Exhilaration, joy, or happiness	5	11.6	12.8	0	0.0	0.0
Condescending	4	9.3	10.3	1	3.2	3.6
Stimulated, excited, energetic	2	4.7	5.1	1	3.2	3.6
Flying	2	4.7	5.1	0	0.0	0.0
Flattered when praised	1	2.3	2.6	0	0.0	0.0
Dominant	1	2.3	2.6	0	0.0	0.0
Cool	1	2.3	2.6	0	0.0	0.0
Achievement, accomplished	1	2.3	2.6	1	3.2	3.6
Unique or special	1	2.3	2.6	0	0.0	0.0
Powerful	1	2.3	2.6	2	6.5	7.1
Relief	1	2.3	2.6	0	0.0	0.0
Successful	1	2.3	2.6	0	0.0	0.0

Code Description	Pride Frequency			Hubris Frequency		
	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 43)	% of Sample (n = 39)	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 31)	% of Sample (n = 28)
Motivated to do more or increase goals	1	2.3	2.6	0	0.0	0.0
Boastful	1	2.3	2.6	0	0.0	0.0
Smiling	1	2.3	2.6	0	0.0	0.0
Crying	1	2.3	2.6	0	0.0	0.0
Content	1	2.3	2.6	0	0.0	0.0
Anxious	0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0	0.0
Arrogant, full of yourself	0	0.0	0.0	2	6.5	7.1
Conceited	0	0.0	0.0	1	3.2	3.6
Pride	0	0.0	0.0	3	9.7	10.7
Too much pride or false pride	0	0.0	0.0	2	6.5	7.1
Cocky	0	0.0	0.0	3	9.7	10.7
Superior or better than others	0	0.0	0.0	1	3.2	3.6
Worthy	0	0.0	0.0	1	3.2	3.6
Stubborn	0	0.0	0.0	1	3.2	3.6
Untouchable or invincible	0	0.0	0.0	3	9.7	10.7
Self assured	0	0.0	0.0	1	3.2	3.6
Fear	0	0.0	0.0	1	3.2	3.6

Code Description	Pride			Hubris		
	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 43)	% of Sample (n = 39)	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 31)	% of Sample (n = 28)
Humble	0	0.0	0.0	1	3.2	3.6
Lost touch with reality	0	0.0	0.0	1	3.2	3.6

Table 18

Focus Group Responses to “What are some positive outcomes of pride/hubris?”

Code Description	Pride Frequency			Hubris Frequency		
	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 20)	% of Sample (n = 39)	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 16)	% of Sample (n = 28)
Increases self-confidence, self-esteem	9	45.0	23.1	3	18.8	10.7
Work harder at a task; more motivated	4	20.0	10.3	4	25.0	14.3
Other people are proud of you	2	10.0	5.1	1	6.3	3.6
Pride/Hubris feels good, feel accomplished	2	10.0	5.1	5	31.3	17.9
Help others	1	5.0	2.6	0	0.0	0.0
Feel more self confident but worry if you can do it again	1	5.0	2.6	0	0.0	0.0
Anticipate feeling pride/hubris	1	5.0	2.6	0	0.0	0.0
Feel powerful	0	0.0	0.0	1	6.3	3.6
Feel like a leader	0	0.0	0.0	1	6.3	3.6
Depends on the situation	0	0.0	0.0	1	6.3	3.6

Table 19

Focus Group Responses to “What are some negative outcomes of pride/hubris?”

Code Description	Pride Frequency			Hubris Frequency		
	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 42)	% of Sample (n = 39)	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 16)	% of Sample (n = 28)
Acting or feeling superior; conceited	11	26.2	28.2	1	6.3	3.6
Over estimate your self or abilities	10	23.8	25.6	4	25	14.3
Focus too much on yourself, disregard others, think too much about success, guilt from sacrifice	5	11.9	12.8	0	0	0
Do something in the moment of celebrating that you regret like drink too much, spend too much money.	3	7.1	7.7	0	0	0
Leads to excessive boasting which is off-putting to others	3	7.1	7.7	1	6.3	3.6
Feeling is distracting	1	2.4	2.6	0	0	0
Act violently	1	2.4	2.6	1	6.3	3.6
Negatively fosters excessive competition	1	2.4	2.6	0	0	0
Cause pride/hubris in yourself	1	2.4	2.6	0	0	0

Code Description	Pride Frequency			Hubris Frequency		
	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 42)	% of Sample (n = 39)	# of Responses	% of Responses (total = 16)	% of Sample (n = 28)
Hubris can lead to later disappointment when you fail to meet your or others expectations	1	2.4	2.6	3	18.8	10.7
You feel guilty, like others are inferior to you now because they didn't do what you did.	1	2.4	2.6	0	0	0
Feel regret about what you did	1	2.4	2.6	0	0	0
Two forms of pride/hubris, one is more like conceit	1	2.4	2.6	0	0	0
Pride/Hubris is bad when it is constant	1	2.4	2.6	0	0	0
Some accomplishments you cannot show too much pride/hubris	1	2.4	2.6	0	0	0
Stubbornness, won't admit wrongdoing	0	0.0	0	1	6.3	3.6
You make others feel bad	0	0.0	0	2	12.5	7.1
Lack of motivation	0	0.0	0	1	6.3	3.6
The feeling doesn't last	0	0.0	0	2	12.5	7.1

Table 20

Top Three Questionnaire Responses for Pride and Hubris

	Responses for Pride	Responses for Hubris
<i>“Where did the situation occur?”</i>		
1 st	School	Athletic venue
2 nd	At an event not inside a place of employment, home or school	School
3 rd	Application process	Work
<i>“Who was involved?”</i>		
1 st	Family (not parents)	Authority figure/decision maker. Examples - a boss, selection committee, coach
2 nd	Friend(s)	Friend(s)
3 rd	Classmates	Coworkers/peers/teammates
<i>“What exactly happened?”</i>		
1 st	Got a good grade, graduated, or met other goal. Does not include occasions when individual was singled out for recognition for performance	Winning or thinking they were going to succeed or win a game or sports contest
2 nd	Got an internship, job, promotion, or other desired role	Thinking they were going to win or succeed but lost because of overconfidence
3 rd	Singled out for a reward. This does not include general accomplishment such as graduating high school.	Performance was being evaluated (no mention of outcome)

	Responses for Pride	Responses for Hubris
	<i>“In your opinion, what words would best describe your emotion?”</i>	
1 st	Happiness, joy	Happiness, joy
2 nd	Pride	Pride
3 rd	Confident	Better than other people or superior
	<i>“What did you say?”</i>	
1 st	Expressed gratitude to others	Expressed gratitude to others
2 nd	Said nothing	Said nothing
3 rd	Verbally rejoiced, screamed, or expressed excitement	Expressed optimism for future success
	<i>“What were your bodily reactions?”</i>	
1 st	Smiled	Smiled
2 nd	Felt a sense of energy, activity, or excitement. Jumped	Trembled or felt shaky
3 rd	Trembled or felt shaky	Shocked/ speechless
	<i>“What did you do to try to control your emotions?”</i>	
1 st	Person said they did not try to control his or her emotions	Tried to not express pride/hubris; acted humbly; avoided boasting
2 nd	Tried to calm down, relax	Left event; watched TV; talked with others about unrelated things
3 rd	Tried to not express pride/hubris; acted humbly; avoided boasting	Person said they did not try to control his or her emotions
	Spoke with others to control emotions	
	Left event; watched TV; talked with others about unrelated things	

	Responses for Pride	Responses for Hubris
	<i>“How did you do that?”</i>	
1 st	Person said they did not try to control his or her emotions	Tried to think of other things, suppressed responses, distracted self with other activity, focused on task
2 nd	Tried to think of other things, suppressed responses, distracted self with other activity, focused on task	Remained calm, hid feelings
3 rd	Person expressed feelings verbally Person does not know how they controlled their feelings Cognitively reinterpreted the event as not one that should induce feelings of pride/hubris or shifted credit externally (e.g., by showing appreciation)	Person said they did not try to control his or her emotions Person tried not to talk
	<i>“What would you have done differently?”</i>	
1 st	Wouldn't change what they did	Wouldn't change what they did
2 nd	Not speak, express feelings less	Not speak, express feelings less
3 rd	Person would increase expression of the emotion, or express more	Try not to have so much pride/hubris

Table 21

Top Three Focus Group Responses for Pride and Hubris

	Responses for Pride	Responses for Hubris
	<i>“What types of events do you think cause people to feel pride/hubris?”</i>	
1 st	Goal accomplishment in general, no specific event given	Goal accomplishment in general, no specific event given
2 nd	Helping others achieve goals	Academic goals such as graduating, good grades, etc.
3 rd	Recognition, getting an award	Recognition, getting an award Playing sports (does not mention winning or thinking of winning)
	<i>“What is it about those events makes people proud/hubristic? Does the pride/hubris come from something people do [such as studying hard for a test]? Does the pride/hubris come from something about people [such as being good at a subject]?”</i>	
1 st	Expending effort/making a sacrifice to meet a goal	Makes a favorable comparison of self with others, being told that they are superior, feeling superior
2 nd	Recognition of others for success, rewarded	Accomplishing a goal
3 rd	Pride/Hubris is about both effort and your self	Admired/Being looked up to

	Responses for Pride	Responses for Hubris
	<i>“When people feel pride/hubris is there something they do about it? [For example, people might feel like telling others about their accomplishment or repeat doing the thing that made them feel pride/hubris.]”</i>	
1 st	Pride/Hubris makes people feel like telling everyone (not in a negative boastful way)	Act arrogantly, ego trip, “rubbing it in”, bragging, acting superior), more negative than telling friends and family of accomplishment
2 nd	Experiences of pride/hubris differ for different people. Peoples reactions to success depend on the person	Repeat an action that lead to the feeling Feel more power Experiences of pride/hubris differ for different people. Peoples reactions to success depend on the person Experience increased self confidence
3 rd	Smile	
	<i>“Do you think on that on occasions when people feel pride/hubris that they ever do anything that they might regret? [Bragging too much?]”</i>	
1 st	Felt proud/hubristic about something but later regretted doing what lead to the hubris.	Feel overconfident, decrease effort or attention to the task
2 nd	People sometimes brag too much, or “rub it in”	Make people feel inferior or hurt their feelings
3 rd	Become overly excited	People sometimes brag too much, or “rub it in”

	Responses for Pride	Responses for Hubris
	<i>“When you felt pride/hubris, did you think about your self in relation to other people? [Did you feel better than someone?]”</i>	
1 st	Compare self to others favorably	Focused on the self only
2 nd	Whether people compare themselves to others when they are feeling pride/hubris depends on their personality	Compare self to others favorably
3 rd	When other people recognize your accomplishment it legitimizes your pride/hubris or increases the experience	Whether people compare themselves to others when they are feeling pride/hubris depends on their personality
	<i>“When people feel pride/hubris, did you think they think about how other see them or is this unimportant? [Did you think of how others would have more respect for you? Or envy you?]”</i>	
1 st	Depends on person, some people need others recognition, others do not.	Pride/Hubris is an internal experience, you don’t care what others think about you
2 nd	Pride/Hubris is an internal experience, you don’t care what others think about you	You are concerned with how others see you (non-specific as to type of concern).
3 rd	Whether you think about how others will see you depends on the situation	Depends on person, some people need others recognition, others do not. Others see them as better Others can increase hubris if they notice your accomplishment

	Responses for Pride	Responses for Hubris
	<i>“Did feeling pride/hubris make you feel more capable? How so?”</i>	
1 st	Makes you feel more capable, confident, or powerful	Makes you feel more capable, confident, or powerful
2 nd	Makes you want to take on new unrelated challenges; you feel powerful	Pride/Hubris boosts your self-esteem
3 rd	Makes you want to repeat similar task	Hubris can make you feel unstoppable
	<i>“If you were going to describe pride/hubris in a questionnaire, how would you do this? [How would you describe the feeling of pride/hubris to someone who is not familiar with the concept?] [What words would you use to describe pride/hubris?]”</i>	
1 st	Confident or capable	Pride
2 nd	Satisfied, self-esteem	Cocky
3 rd	Happy Exhilaration or joy	Untouchable or invincible
	<i>“What are some positive outcomes of pride/hubris?”</i>	
1 st	Increases self-confidence, self-esteem	Pride/Hubris feels good, feel accomplished
2 nd	Work harder at a task; more motivated	Increases self-confidence, self-esteem
3 rd	Other people are proud of you Pride/Hubris feels good, feel accomplished	Work harder at a task; more motivated

	Responses for Pride	Responses for Hubris
	<i>“What are some negative outcomes of pride/hubris?”</i>	
1 st	Acting or feeling superior; conceited	Over estimate yourself or abilities
2 nd	Over estimate your self or abilities	Hubris can lead to later disappointment when you fail to meet your or others expectations
3 rd	Focus too much on yourself, disregard others, think too much about success, guilt from sacrifice	You make others feel bad The feeling doesn't last

Table 22

Hubris Proneness Frequency Items and the Justification for Each Item

Item	Justification
1. Feel larger than life	Based on theoretical definition that hubris proneness is associated with frequent feelings of grandiosity and excessive pride (Lewis, 1992).
2. Feel audacious (bold, daring, fearless).	Based on qualitative study that hubris is associated with overconfidence and those prone to the emotion will frequently feel overly confident.
3. Think about how others will praise you.	Based on the idea that hubris-prone individuals are focused on the public relevance of their success (Smith et al., 2002).
4. Feel that all of my opinions are important.	Based on theoretical definition that hubris-prone individuals make frequent global appraisals of self-credit and therefore see themselves as capable across many areas (Tangney, 1990; Tracy & Robins, 2004).
5. Feel unbeatable.	Based on theoretical definition that hubris proneness is associated with frequent feelings of grandiosity and excessive pride (Lewis, 1992).
6. Feel humble (R)	Based on theoretical definition that individuals' subject to frequent feelings overweening pride should rarely feel humble (Lewis, 1992).
7. Feel self-important.	Based on theoretical definition that hubris proneness is associated with conceit(Lewis, 1992).
8. Feel vain (excessively proud).	Based on theoretical definition that hubris proneness is associated with frequent feelings of excessive pride (Lewis, 1992).
9. Feel like boasting of my accomplishments to everyone.	Based on theoretical definition that hubris proneness is associated with tendencies to boast about successes (Lewis, 1992).
10. Feel that you are the "chosen one" when you are successful.	Based on theoretical definition that hubris proneness is associated with tendencies to feel excessively proud when successful (Lewis, 1992).

Item	Justification
11. Feel that you can do no wrong.	Based on theoretical definition and qualitative study which indicate that hubris proneness associated with frequent feelings of over-confidence (Lewis, 1992).
12. Feel that your success demonstrates that you are without fault.	Based on theoretical definition that hubris proneness is associated with tendencies to see oneself as superior (Lewis, 1992).
13. Feel pleased with your whole self	Based on the theoretical proposition that hubris-prone individuals are form global appraisals for success (Lewis, 1992; Tangney, 1990).
14. Feel superior	Based on theoretical definition that hubris proneness is associated with tendencies to see oneself as superior (Lewis, 1992).
15. Feel that you are better than others	Based on theoretical definition that hubris proneness is associated with tendencies to see oneself as superior (Lewis, 1992).
16. Feel pleased that others see you as superior	Based on theoretical definition that hubris proneness is associated with tendencies to see oneself as superior and leads to a focus on the public relevance of a success (Lewis, 1992; Smith et al., 2002).
17. Feel triumphant	Based on theoretical definition that hubris proneness is associated with frequent feelings of excessive pride (Lewis, 1992; Tangney, 1990).
18. Feel cocky. (Item not included in Pilot Study 2)	Cocky was frequently used in the pilot studies to describe the feelings of hubris.
19. Feel invincible. (Item not included in Pilot Study 2)	Feeling invincible was mentioned as an aspect of feeling hubris in the pilot studies.

Table 23

Pride Proneness Frequency Items and the Justification for Each Item

Item	Justification
1. Worry that your pride will make others envious.	Based on qualitative study in which participants expressed concern about pride making people feeling inferior or envious and were concerned with acting humbly. This may distinguish pride proneness from hubris proneness.
2. Feel proud.	Based on theoretical definition that people prone to pride frequently feel proud (Tangney, 1990).
3. Feel pleased with the work you have done.	Based on theoretical definition that people prone to pride make frequent specific appraisals of self-credit (Tangney, 1990).
4. Feel surprised by your success.	Based on qualitative study that found some participants that indicated that surprise played a role in feeling pride. Because surprise at success seems incompatible with the definition of hubris, individuals prone to pride may frequently feel surprised by their success.
5. Feel happy from a sense of self-respect.	Based on theoretical definition that pride proneness is associated with frequent feelings of enhanced sense of self (Tangney, 1990; Tracy & Robins, 2004).
6. Feel proud of the effort you put into accomplishing something.	Based on theoretical definition that proneness to pride is associated with frequent make specific appraisals of self-credit (Tangney, 1990; Tracy & Robins, 2004).
7. Feel proud of having done something well.	Based on theoretical definition that pride proneness is associated with frequent specific appraisals of self-credit (Tangney, 1990).
8. Feel accomplished	Based on theoretical definition that pride proneness is associated with feelings of accomplishment (Lewis, 1992; Tangney, 1990; Tracy & Robins, 2004).

Item	Justification
9. Pleased with something you have done	Based on theoretical definition that pride proneness is associated with frequent specific appraisals of self-credit (Lewis, 1992; Tangney, 1990).
10. Feel pleased when I make a well thought out statement of my opinion on something.	Based on theoretical definition that pride proneness is associated with frequent specific appraisals of self-credit(Lewis, 1992; Tangney, 1990).
11. Feel satisfied with an achievement	Based on theoretical definition that pride proneness is associated with frequent specific appraisals of self-credit and qualitative study that found pride results from a sense of achievement (Lewis, 1992; Tangney, 1990; Tracy & Robins, 2004).
12. Feel more capable of doing something.	Based on theoretical definition that pride proneness is associated with frequent experiences of increased capability as well as the results from the qualitative study (Lewis, 1992; Tangney, 1990; Tracy & Robins, 2004).
13. Feel glad that things turned out well	Based on qualitative study that found some participants that indicated that surprise played a role in feeling pride. Because surprise at success seems incompatible with the definition of hubris, individuals prone to pride may frequently feel surprised by their success.
14. Feel pleased with improving your self	Based on theoretical definition that pride proneness is associated with frequent experiences of self improvement and that individuals focus on the private relevance of success(Lewis, 1992; Smith et al., 2002; Tangney, 1990; Tracy & Robins, 2004).

Item	Justification
15. Praise yourself for an accomplishment.	Based on theoretical definition of pride proneness that states that this trait is associated with appraisals of self-credit for accomplishments and that individuals focus on the private relevance of an accomplishment (Lewis, 1992; Smith et al., 2002; Tangney, 1990; Tracy & Robins, 2004).
16. Feel like jumping because you accomplished something. (Item not included in Pilot Study 2)	Based on pilot study data that indicated individuals who felt pride felt like jumping.
17. Feel flushed (a warm face) after a success. (Item not included in Pilot Study 2)	Based on pilot study data that pride leads people to feel flush or hot.

Table 24

Hubris Proneness Scenario Items and the Justification for Each Item

Item	Justification
1. You would think that other people would see you as highly capable.	Based on proposition that hubris-prone individuals are focused on the public aspect of their success (Smith et al., 2002).
2. You would think: "I am a caring person."	Based on theoretical definition that hubris prone individuals make frequent global appraisals of self-credit (Tangney, 1990).
3. You would feel very satisfied with who you are.	Based on theoretical definition that hubris-prone individuals make frequent global appraisals of self-credit (Tangney, 1990).
4. You would feel pleased that you are such a good worker.	Based on theoretical definition that hubris-prone individuals make frequent global appraisals of self-credit (Tangney, 1990).
5. You would think: "I must be a good political organizer."	Based on theoretical definition that hubris-prone individuals make frequent global appraisals of self-credit (Tangney, 1990).
6. You would boast to everyone about the new job.	Based on theoretical definition that hubris proneness is associated with tendencies to boast (Tangney, 1990).
7. You would think: "I am a very entertaining person."	Based on theoretical definition that hubris-prone individuals make frequent global appraisals of self-credit (Tangney, 1990).
8. You would think: "I am really good at business."	Based on theoretical definition that hubris-prone individuals make frequent global appraisals of self-credit (Tangney, 1990).
9. You would think: "I am a natural athlete."	Based on theoretical definition that hubris-prone individuals make frequent global appraisals of self-credit (Tangney, 1990).
10. You would feel proud because you enabled your spouse to realize their goal.	Based on theoretical definition that hubris-prone individuals make frequent global appraisals of self-credit (Tangney, 1990).

Item	Justification
11. You would feel confident in your ability to deal with stressful situations.	Based on theoretical definition that hubris-prone individuals make frequent global appraisals of self-credit (Tangney, 1990).
12. You would feel proud of who you are.	Based on theoretical definition that hubris-prone individuals make frequent global appraisals of self-credit (Tangney, 1990).
13. You would be happy that you are a caring person.	Based on theoretical definition that hubris-prone individuals make frequent global appraisals of self-credit (Tangney, 1990).
14. You would feel pleased because you're an attractive person.	Based on theoretical definition that hubris-prone individuals make frequent global appraisals of self-credit (Tangney, 1990).
15. You would be satisfied with yourself for being such a great business person.	Based on theoretical definition that hubris-prone individuals make frequent global appraisals of self-credit (Tangney, 1990).
16. You would feel like you should tell other people that you're the kind of person who would make a good counselor.	Based on theoretical definition that hubris-prone individuals make frequent global appraisals of self-credit and tendencies to boast (Lewis, 1992; Tangney, 1990).
17. You would feel happy that you are such a funny and sociable person.	Based on theoretical definition that hubris-prone individuals make frequent global appraisals of self-credit (Tangney, 1990).
18. You would think: "I'm a really trustworthy person."	Based on theoretical definition that hubris-prone individuals make frequent global appraisals of self-credit (Tangney, 1990).
19. You would think: "I hope my friends notice what a great ball player I am."	Based on theoretical definition that hubris-prone individuals make frequent global appraisals of self-credit (Tangney, 1990).
20. You would think: "I am much better at handling problems than my sibling."	Based on theoretical definition that hubris-prone individuals feel superior to others after a success (Lewis, 1992).

Item	Justification
21. You would think that everyone should recognize what you accomplished.	Based on theoretical definition that hubris-prone individuals feel superior to others after a success and focus on the public relevance of a success(Lewis, 1992; Smith et al., 2002; Tangney, 1990).

Table 25

Pride Proneness Scenario Items and the Justification for Each Item

Item	Justification
1. You would feel proud but worry about making others envious of your success.	Based on qualitative study in which participants expressed concern about pride making people feeling inferior or envious and were concerned with acting humbly. This may distinguish pride proneness from hubris proneness.
2. You would be proud that you spent your time helping others.	Based on theoretical definition that individuals prone to pride make specific appraisals of self-credit (Tangney, 1990).
3. You would feel your planning paid off.	Based on theoretical definition that individuals prone to pride make specific appraisals of self (Tangney, 1990).
4. You would feel happy that you managed to do it all on time.	Based on theoretical definition that individuals prone to pride make specific appraisals of self (Tangney, 1990).
5. You would feel pleased to have gotten the law repealed.	Based on theoretical definition that individuals prone to pride make specific appraisals of self (Tangney, 1990).
6. You would feel proud because you got the job.	Based on theoretical definition that individuals prone to pride make specific appraisals of self (Tangney, 1990).
7. You would feel glad that you make your new friends laugh.	Based on theoretical definition that individuals prone to pride make specific appraisals of self (Tangney, 1990).
8. You would feel happy about the fact that your idea was the best.	Based on theoretical definition that individuals prone to pride make specific appraisals of self (Tangney, 1990).
9. You would think: "All of my training paid off."	Based on theoretical definition that individuals prone to pride make specific appraisals of self (Tangney, 1990).

Item	Justification
10. You would feel proud because you enabled your spouse to realize their goal.	Based on theoretical definition that individuals prone to pride make specific appraisals of self (Tangney, 1990).
11. You would feel proud that you made a good presentation despite the stressful conditions you had to work under.	Based on theoretical definition that individuals prone to pride make specific appraisals of self (Tangney, 1990).
12. You would feel proud of what you accomplished.	Based on theoretical definition that individuals prone to pride make specific appraisals of self (Tangney, 1990).
13. You feel happy about being able to help the relative.	Based on theoretical definition that individuals prone to pride make specific appraisals of self (Tangney, 1990).
14. You would feel on top of the world because you asked them out.	Based on theoretical definition that individuals prone to pride make specific appraisals of self-credit (Tangney, 1990).
15. You would feel terrific that you were able to build a successful business.	Based on theoretical definition that individuals prone to pride make specific appraisals of self-credit (Tangney, 1990).
16. You would be pleased with yourself for paying attention to what your friend was saying and being helpful.	Based on theoretical definition that individuals prone to pride make specific appraisals of self-credit (Tangney, 1990).
17. You would think: "Even though I didn't feel like going, I really made the most of it."	Based on theoretical definition that individuals prone to pride make specific appraisals of self-credit (Tangney, 1990).
18. You would think: "I am glad I did a good job."	Based on theoretical definition that individuals prone to pride make specific appraisals of self-credit (Tangney, 1990).
19. You would feel proud you made the shot.	Based on theoretical definition that individuals prone to pride make specific appraisals of self-credit (Tangney, 1990).
20. You would think: I am glad that I helped my sibling."	Based on theoretical definition that individuals prone to pride make specific appraisals of self-credit (Tangney, 1990).

Item	Justification
21. You would feel proud of what you have done.	Based on theoretical definition that individuals prone to pride make specific appraisals of self-credit (Tangney, 1990).

Table 26

Descriptive Statistics for the Pride Proneness Frequency Measure

Item	Mean	SD	Item-Total Correlation
Worry that my pride will make others envious of you.	2.91	1.51	0.12
Feel proud.	4.50	1.29	0.67
Feel pleased with the work you have done.	4.74	1.30	0.59
Feel surprised by your success.	4.24	1.26	0.25
Feel happy from a sense of self-respect.	4.79	1.32	0.61
Feel proud of the effort you put into accomplishing something.	5.02	1.34	0.58
Feel proud of having done something well.	5.54	1.21	0.69
Feel accomplished	4.00	1.18	0.59
Pleased with something you have done	4.95	1.27	0.66
Feel pleased when I make a well thought out statement of my opinion on something.	5.18	1.19	0.45
Feel satisfied with an achievement	5.09	1.14	0.74
Feel more capable of doing something.	4.85	1.16	0.51
Feel glad that things turned out well	5.37	1.25	0.49
Feel pleased with improving your self	5.02	1.24	0.68
Praise yourself for an accomplishment.	4.28	1.43	0.55

Table 27

Descriptive Statistics for the Hubris Proneness Frequency Measure

Item	Mean	SD	Item-Total Correlation
Feel larger than life	3.43	1.51	.60
Feel audacious (bold, daring, fearless).	4.02	1.47	.15
Think about how others will praise you.	3.93	1.66	.50
Feel that all of my opinions are important.	4.37	1.27	.42
Feel unbeatable.	3.43	1.40	.55
Feel humble (R)	2.99	1.19	.15
Feel self-important.	4.41	1.34	.60
Feel vain (excessively proud).	2.79	1.41	.66
Feel like boasting of my accomplishments to everyone.	3.51	1.46	.49
Feel that you are the “chosen one” when you are successful.	2.95	1.75	.64
Feel that you can do no wrong.	2.63	1.44	.48
Feel that your success demonstrates that you are without fault.	3.21	1.60	.61
Feel pleased with your whole self	4.11	1.29	.47
Feel superior	2.99	1.50	.72
Feel better than others	3.06	1.43	.63
Feel pleased that others see you as superior	3.50	1.56	.65
Feel triumphant	3.99	1.31	.53

Table 28

Descriptive Statistics for the Pride Proneness Scenario Measure

Item	Mean	SD	Item-Total Correlation
You would feel proud but worry about making others envious of your success.	2.51	1.32	0.02
You would be proud that you spent your time helping others.	4.47	0.74	0.58
You would feel your planning paid off.	4.18	1.02	0.61
You would feel happy that you managed to do it all on time.	4.47	0.75	0.68
You would feel pleased to have gotten the law repealed.	4.32	0.80	0.61
You would feel proud because you got the job.	4.45	0.77	0.78
You would feel glad that you make your new friends laugh.	4.35	0.74	0.65
You would feel happy about the fact that your idea was the best.	4.42	0.83	0.80
You would think: "All of my training paid off."	4.43	0.80	0.70
You would feel proud because you enabled your spouse to realize their goal.	4.30	1.00	0.63
You would feel proud that you made a good presentation despite the stressful conditions you had to work under.	4.40	0.73	0.69
You would feel proud of what you accomplished.	4.35	0.81	0.73
You would be happy that you are a caring person.	4.43	0.75	0.69
You would feel on top of the world because you asked them out.	3.91	1.17	0.30
You would feel terrific that you were able to build a successful business.	4.36	0.93	0.80
You would be pleased with yourself for paying attention to what your friend was saying and being helpful.	4.14	0.98	0.67

Item	Mean	SD	Item-Total Correlation
You would think: “Even though I didn’t feel like going, I really made the most of it.”	4.14	0.91	0.46
You would think: “I am glad I did a good job.”	4.05	0.94	0.45
You would feel proud you made the shot.	4.44	0.85	0.77
You would think: I am glad that I helped my sibling.”	4.35	0.84	0.64
You would feel proud of what you have done.	4.40	0.78	0.78

Table 29

Descriptive Statistics for the Hubris Proneness Scenario Measure

Item	Mean	SD	Item-Total Correlation
You would think that other people would see you as highly capable.	3.86	0.96	0.47
You would think: "I am a caring person."	3.68	1.05	0.54
You would feel very satisfied with who you are.	4.01	0.90	0.49
You would feel pleased that you are such a good worker.	4.14	1.05	0.39
You would think: "I must be a good political organizer."	3.22	1.17	0.60
You would boast to everyone about the new job.	3.08	1.38	0.57
You would think: "I am a very entertaining person."	3.57	1.04	0.59
You would think: "I am really good at business."	3.72	1.17	0.75
You would think: "I am a natural athlete."	2.30	1.14	0.47
You would feel proud because you enabled your spouse to realize their goal.	3.30	1.24	0.69
You would feel confident in your ability to deal with stressful situations.	3.99	0.87	0.30
You would feel proud of who you are.	4.17	0.91	0.46
You would be happy that you are a caring person.	3.99	0.90	0.34
You would feel pleased because you're an attractive person.	3.30	1.07	0.55
You would be satisfied with yourself for being such a great business person.	3.97	0.82	0.51
You would feel like you should tell other people that you're the kind of person who would make a good counselor.	2.34	1.23	0.37
You would feel happy that you are such a funny and sociable person.	3.72	0.89	0.55

Item	Mean	SD	Item-Total Correlation
You would think: "I'm a really trustworthy person."	3.64	1.13	0.67
You would think: "I hope my friends notice what a great ball player I am."	3.07	1.35	0.57
You would think: "I am much better at handling problems than my sibling."	2.25	1.21	0.29
You would think that everyone should recognize what you accomplished.	2.70	1.25	0.58

Table 30

The Three Orders of Presentation of the Measures for Study 2

Version A	Version B	Version C
Frequency Measure of Pride and Hubris Proneness	TOSCA-3	Scenario Measure of Pride and Hubris Proneness
Scenario Measure of Pride and Hubris Proneness	Scenario Measure of Pride and Hubris Proneness	TOSCA-3
TOSCA-3	Frequency Measure of Pride and Hubris Proneness	Frequency Measure of Pride and Hubris Proneness
Duration of Pride	Narcissism	Positive and Negative Affectivity
Satisfaction with Success	Positive and Negative Affectivity	Narcissism
Global Attribution Tendencies	Self-Esteem	Global Attribution Tendencies
Self-Esteem	Global Attribution Tendencies	Self-Esteem
Positive and Negative Affectivity	Duration of Pride	Duration of Pride
Narcissism	Satisfaction with Success	Satisfaction with Success

Table 31

Correlations between Study Variables and Control Variables Greater than |.20|

Scale	Study Variable	Control Variables		
		Female	White	Asian
Hubris - Frequency	Feel cocky.	-0.23	0.21	
Hubris - Frequency	Feel superior.	-0.23		
Hubris - Frequency	Feel that you are better than others.	-0.22		
Hubris - Scenario	You would think: "I am a natural athlete."	-0.20		
Pride - Scenario	Your success would lead you to worry about making others envious.			0.20
Pride - Scenario	You would feel pleased to have gotten the law repealed.			-0.23
Pride - Scenario	You would feel satisfied with the effort you put into your career.	0.20		-0.20
Pride - Scenario	You would feel proud that you made a good presentation.			-0.21
Pride - Scenario	You would feel on top of the world because you asked them out.	-0.20		
Pride - Scenario	You would be pleased with yourself for paying attention to what your friend was saying and being helpful.	0.20		
Tosca- Pride	You would feel great that you had helped others.	0.21		
Satisfaction with Success	In general, how gratifying is the emotional experience of success for you?			-0.24
Global Attribution	Is the cause something that just influences the event, or does it also influence other areas of your life?	0.21		

Scale	Study Variable	Control Variables		
		Female	White	Asian
Self-Esteem	I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others.			-0.24
Self-Esteem	I feel that I have a number of good qualities.			-0.27
Self-Esteem	All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.			-0.33
Self-Esteem	I feel I do not have much to be proud of.			-0.20
Self-Esteem	I wish I could have more respect for myself.			-0.26
Self-Esteem	I certainly feel useless at times.			-0.23
Self-Esteem	At times I think I am no good at all.			-0.25
Negative Affect	I am often troubled by guilt feelings.			0.20
Narcissism	I am more capable than other people.	-0.20		
Narcissism	I see myself as a good leader.			-0.36
Narcissism	I think I am a special person.			-0.20
Narcissism	I am going to be a great person.			-0.20
Narcissism	I am a born leader.			-0.29
Narcissism	People can learn a great deal from me.			-0.21
Narcissism	I can usually talk my way out of anything.			-0.23
Narcissism	I am apt to show off if I get the chance.	-0.21		

Note: Correlations less than $|\cdot 20|$ are not shown.

Table 32

Fit of Different Structural Models for the Frequency Measure of Pride and Hubris

Model	<i>df</i>	χ^2	RMSEA (90% CI)	CFI	SRMR
Hypothesized model	593 (n=428)	1938.49	.07 (.07, .08)	.74	.09
Alternative correlated error model	579 (n=428)	1744.52	.07 (.07, .07)	.77	.09
Alternative multiple method factors model	569 (n=428)	1698.81	.07 (.06, .07)	.78	.08
Alternative short version*	43 (N=428)	115.62	.06 (.05, .08)	.94	.05

Note. RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; CFI = comparative fit index; SRMR = standardized root mean square residual

* Final model.

Table 33

Reading Grade Level of Items and Reasons for Including or Not Including the Original Pride Proneness Items in the Short Version of the Frequency Measure

Pride Proneness Items	Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level	Reason why the item was chosen/not chosen
Worry that your pride will make others envious.	5.2	This item was originally based on a focus group comment but could be related to trait levels of anxiety.
Feel proud.	0.0	The word proud is also used to refer to feelings of hubris.
Feel pleased with the work you have done.	0.0	This item is related to the construct of pride proneness because it refers to feeling pleasure in having done something.
Feel surprised with your success.	2.8	This item could be related to feelings of relief rather than pride.
Feel happy and capable.	6.6	This item is double barreled.
Feel proud of the effort you put into accomplishing something.	8.3	This item is very similar to the item "Feel proud of having done something well," and the reading grade level was above eighth grade level.
Feel proud of having done something well.	3.9	This item was chosen because of the relevance to the construct, feeling pride in doing something.
Feel accomplished.	8.7	This item was above eighth grade level.
Feel like jumping because you accomplished something.	9.0	This item came from focus groups on pride but there is no theory to suggest that the physiological reactions differ for the experience of hubris and pride. Also, the reading grade level was above eighth grade.
Feel pleased with something you have done.	2.3	This item is very similar to the item "Feel pleased with the work you have done," and had a slightly higher reading grade level.

Pride Proneness Items	Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level	Reason why the item was chosen/not chosen
Feel pleased when you make a well thought out statement of your opinion of something.	7.5	This item is wordy and had a relatively high grade reading level.
Feel flushed (a warm face) after a success.	2.2	This item was based on focus group responses but there is no theory to suggest that the physiological reactions differ for the experience of hubris and pride.
Feel satisfied with an achievement.	9.9	Although this item had a high reading level it was the only item that referenced satisfaction with an achievement.
Feel more capable of doing something.	6.4	This item is related to the construct of pride proneness because it refers to feelings of enhanced capability.
Feel glad that things turned out well.	0.0	This item could be as much related to relief as to feelings of pride.
Feel pleased with improving yourself.	5.2	This item is related to the construct of pride proneness because it is about feelings of improvement.
Praise yourself for an accomplishment.	7.6	This item could also be related to hubris because hubristic individuals may also praise themselves for an accomplishment. Also the phrase "praise yourself" may be related to making global attributions.

Note. Items in bold type were chosen for the short measure.

Table 34

Reading Grade Level of Items and Reasons for Including or Not Including the Original Hubris Proneness Items in the Short Version of the Frequency Measure

Hubris Proneness Items	Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level	Reason why the item was chosen/not chosen
Feel cocky.	2.8	This item means overly self-confident and is therefore central to the concept of hubris. Feeling cocky was also mentioned frequently in the hubris focus groups.
Feel that you are invincible.	5.2	This item was also intended to tap feelings of over-confidence and was therefore redundant with the items and "Feel Unbeatable" and "Feel cocky."
Feel larger than life.	0.7	The phrase "larger than life" may not be well understood by all respondents.
Feel audacious (bold, daring, fearless).	7.6	The word audacious is somewhat obscure and required including the use of synonyms to define it.
Think about how others will praise you.	2.3	This item was not based strictly on the current theoretical descriptions of hubris but on an extension of theory on the self-conscious emotion of shame. As such, there was less theoretical support to include this item.
Feel that all of your opinions are important.	6.7	The reference of this item to opinions may be too specific given that most items focus on general feelings or accomplishments.
Feel unbeatable.	0	This item was chosen because of the low grade level reading score and its relevance to the construct, specifically, it captures feelings of overconfidence.
Feel self-important.	0	This item was intended to assess feelings similar to that of feelings of superiority. Because the item "Feel superior" was included, this item was not.

Hubris Proneness Items	Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level	Reason why the item was chosen/not chosen
Feel vain (excessively proud).	6.6	This item was chosen because of the low grade level score and it's relevance to the construct, specifically feelings of excessive pride.
Feel like boasting of your accomplishments to everyone.	8.1	This item had a high reading grade level, however, it was included because it was the only item that referenced boasting which is an important part of the hubris proneness construct.
Feel that you are the "chosen one".	0.6	The phrase "chosen one" may be jargon that is not well understood by all participants.
Feel that you can do no wrong.	0.0	This item and the item "Feel that you are flawless" both focus on a sense of grandiosity and over confidence. Also both items start with the phrase "Feel that you" which could also lead to some unintended covariation in responses to the items. Additionally, feeling that you can do no wrong seemed may also be related to pride proneness because of the focus on action.
Feel that you are flawless.	0.5	See above.
Feel pleased with your whole self.	0.0	Although the item seems strongly related to global attributions, the term "pleased" may be too modest to be related to hubris.
Feel superior.	0.0	This item was chosen because of the low grade level score and it's relevance to the construct.

Hubris Proneness Items	Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level	Reason why the item was chosen/not chosen
Feel that you are better than others.	2.3	This item is similar to "Feel superior" but less concise and contains the phrase "Feel that you" which is also used in another item.
Feel pleased that others see you as superior.	5.2	Similar to "Feel superior" but less concise.
Feel triumphant.	8.7	This item had a high reading grade level value.
Feel humble.	2.8	This item was intended as a reverse scored measure of hubris. However, the item may not differentiate hubris proneness from pride proneness because individuals prone to pride may also not feel humble.

Note. Items in bold type were chosen for the short version of the measure.

Table 35

Comparison of Single-factor and Two-factor Models for the Frequency Measure of Proneness to Pride and Proneness to Hubris

Model	<i>df</i>	χ^2	RMSEA (90% CI)	CFI	SRMR	$\Delta\chi^2$
One-factor model	44 (N=428)	499.68	.16 (.14, .17)	.60	.12	NA
Two-factor model	43 (N=428)	115.62	.06 (.05, .08)	.94	.05	384.06*

* $p < .05$

Table 36

Factor Loadings and R² for the Confirmatory Factor Model of Pride Proneness and Hubris Proneness Frequency Items

Measure and item	Unstandardized factor loading	SE	Completely standardized factor loading	R ²
Hubris Proneness				
Feel cocky.	1.00	.00	.47	.22
Feel unbeatable.	1.25*	.16	.60	.36
Feel vain.	1.36*	.18	.62	.38
Feel like boasting of your accomplishments to everyone.	1.15*	.16	.50	.25
Feel that you are flawless	1.28*	.17	.60	.36
Feel superior.	1.80*	.21	.81	.66
Pride Proneness				
Feel pleased with the work you have done.	1.00	.00	.57	.33
Feel proud of having done something well.	1.20*	.12	.71	.50
Feel satisfied with an achievement.	1.19*	.13	.68	.46
Feel more capable of doing something.	1.04*	.11	.65	.42
Feel pleased with improving yourself.	.98*	.11	.59	.35

* $p < .05$

Table 37

Descriptive Statistics for the Frequency Measure

Measure and item	Mean	SD
Hubris Proneness		
Feel cocky.	3.37	1.65
Feel unbeatable.	3.58	1.57
Feel vain.	3.19	1.66
Feel like boasting of your accomplishments to everyone.	3.59	1.70
Feel that you are flawless	2.58	1.58
Feel superior.	3.27	1.68
Scale	3.27	1.14
Pride Proneness		
Feel pleased with the work you have done.	4.92	1.38
Feel proud of having done something well.	5.54	1.33
Feel satisfied with an achievement.	5.17	1.39
Feel more capable of doing something.	5.06	1.29
Feel pleased with improving yourself.	5.35	1.32
Scale	5.20	.98

Table 38

Fit of Different Structural Models for the Scenario Measures of Pride and Hubris

Model	<i>df</i>	χ^2	RMSEA (90% CI)	CFI	SRMR
Hypothesized model	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Alternative two-factor correlated error model	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Alternative single-factor model	861	2643.47	.07 (.07, .08)	.64	.09
Alternative single-factor correlated error model	798	2439.32	.07 (.07, .07)	.67	.08
Alternative two trait factors and single method factor model	776	1570.80	.05 (.05, .05)	.84	.05
Alternative two trait factors and single method factor model with correlated errors	755	1291.06	.04 (.04, .04)	.89	.04
Reduced item two trait factor model	118	386.60	.07 (.07, .08)	.79	.07
Reduced item two trait factor model with correlated errors	113	312.28	.06 (.06, .07)	.84	.07
Reduced item two trait factor model with correlated errors and a common method factor	98	145.68	.04 (.02, .05)	.96	.03
Two trait model with situation type factors	542	1025.82	.05 (.04, .05)	.88	.04

Model	<i>df</i>	χ^2	RMSEA (90% <i>CI</i>)	CFI	SRMR
Two trait model with item reduction to remove situation types	53	216.52	.09 (.07, .10)	.83	.07
Two trait model with item reduction to remove situation types with correlated errors*	47	93.67	.05 (.03, .06)	.95	.05

Note. RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; CFI = comparative fit index; SRMR = standardized root mean square residual; NA = model failed to converge.

* Final model.

Table 39

Scenarios Grouped by Similarities in the Types of Events

Personal physical accomplishment

You decide that you are going to run a marathon even though you are not a runner. The first month of training is really hard and you would really like to give up, however you stick with it and in six months you successfully run and finish the marathon.

While playing a basketball game with your friends, you make a difficult basket at the last second and win the game for your team.

Personal social accomplishment

You have recently moved to a new city and have been trying to make friends. It has been difficult to do. One night you were out with some new friends and they start talking about how you are very funny and enjoyable to be with.

There is a person that you know who you really want to ask out on a date, but you're nervous to do it. You finally get up the courage to ask them out to dinner and they say yes.

Reluctantly, you go to a party you were invited to where you don't know many people. By the end of the night you're laughing with and having a good time with most of the people there.

Personal work accomplishment

You complete an important project successfully at work. As a result, your boss mentions considering you for a promotion into very desirable position.

You are swamped at work and have an important deadline to meet by the end of the day. During the day you really focus on your work. At 6 O'clock you realize you met the deadline and also finished several other tasks.

You apply for a competitive job you really want with a prestigious company. Later you find out they were impressed with your interview and you got the job.

Your boss asks several people at work to come up with ideas for improving the business. You work to come up with several ideas and chose the one you think is best. In a meeting your boss tells you that your idea was the best.

Unexpectedly, you are told that you have to give a presentation at work later that day. You work on it all day and the presentation goes very well.

Civic duty accomplishment

You feel very strongly that a proposed new law your city is trying to pass is unfair. You attend several city council meetings to try and raise awareness of the negative aspects of the new law. After several months of talking to people, the people vote down the law.

Accomplishment that benefited others

You volunteer at a center for kids with terminal illnesses. Spending so much time with terminal children has been emotionally draining. One day a parent comes up to you and informs you that their child looks forward to seeing you everyday at the center.

You have been caring for a terminally ill relative for the past 6 months. Although it has been time consuming and physically and emotionally taxing, you continue caring for the relative until their death. After their death, several family members thank you for being so supportive, and inform you that the ill relative greatly appreciated your help.

One day your friend comes to talk to you about a problem they are having with their girlfriend/boyfriend. You listen and give them the best advice you can think of. The next day your friend thanks you for talking with them because they are now feeling much better about the situation.

A relative asks you if you could baby-sit their young child for a weekend. It turns out to be a lot of work watching the child. When your relatives return, they tell you that you are one of the few people they can trust to look after their child.

Your sibling comes to you very distressed and starts talking about a personal problem they are having. After talking to them for a while, you notice that they look much more cheerful than before and are now laughing and joking around.

Taking a risk with your career

You decide to start a small business. Though you know it is very risky and you are uncertain whether you have the financial means to start the business you decide to take a chance. Within two years the business is making a profit.

You decide to change careers and go back to school for new training. It is difficult to manage work and the additional training. In time, you graduate and receive a job offer in your new career.

Note. Situations in bold were the items used in the short measure.

Table 40

Comparison of Single-factor and Two-factor Models for the Scenario Measure of Proneness to Pride and Proneness to Hubris

Model	<i>df</i>	χ^2	RMSEA (90% CI)	CFI	SRMR	$\Delta\chi^2$
One-factor model	48 (N=428)	340.78	.12 (.11, .13)	.69	.09	NA
Two-factor model	47	93.67	.05 (.03, .06)	.95	.05	247.11*

* $p < .05$

Table 41

Factor Loadings and R² for the Confirmatory Factor Model of Pride Proneness and Hubris Proneness Scenario Measure

Measure and item	Unstandardized factor loading	SE	Completely standardized factor loading	R ²
Hubris Proneness				
You would think: "I am a caring person."	1.00	0.00	0.44	0.20
You would think: "I must be a good political organizer."	1.12*	0.18	0.44	0.19
You would boast to everyone about the new job.	1.43*	0.24	0.48	0.23
You would think: "I am a very entertaining person."	1.43*	0.19	0.61	0.37
You would think: "I hope my friends notice what a great ball player I am."	1.65*	0.25	0.58	0.34
You would think everyone should notice what you accomplished.	1.50*	0.23	0.57	0.33
Pride Proneness				
You would be proud that you spent your time helping others.	1.00	0.00	0.43	0.19
You would feel pleased to have gotten the law repealed.	1.13*	0.18	0.44	0.19
You would feel satisfied with the effort you put into your career.	1.43*	0.19	0.62	0.38

Measure and item	Unstandardized factor loading	<i>SE</i>	Completely standardized factor loading	<i>R</i> ²
You would feel glad that you make your new friends laugh.	1.11*	0.17	0.49	0.24
You would feel proud you made the shot.	1.53*	0.20	0.69	0.48
You would feel proud of what you have done.	1.49*	0.20	0.68	0.46

* $p < .05$

Table 42

Descriptive Statistics for the Scenario Measure

Measure and item	Mean	SD
Hubris Proneness		
You would think: "I am a caring person."	3.76	1.06
You would think: "I must be a good political organizer."	3.08	1.18
You would boast to everyone about the new job.	3.02	1.28
You would think: "I am a very entertaining person."	3.57	1.10
You would think: "I hope my friends notice what a great ball player I am."	2.90	1.34
You would think everyone should notice what you accomplished.	2.72	1.23
Scale	3.21	.74
Pride Proneness		
You would be proud that you spent your time helping others.	4.48	.77
You would feel pleased to have gotten the law repealed.	4.36	.88
You would feel satisfied with the effort you put into your career.	4.30	.77
You would feel glad that you make your new friends laugh.	4.40	.74
You would feel proud you made the shot.	4.58	.71
You would feel proud of what you have done.	4.56	.77
Scale	4.02	.46

Table 43

Fit of Different Structural Models for the TOSCA Measure of Pride and Hubris

Model	<i>df</i>	χ^2	RMSEA (90% CI)	CFI	SRMR
Hypothesized model	34	543.59	.19 (.17, .20)	.63	.10
Alternative two-factor correlated error model	29	32.22	.02 (.00, .04)	1.00	.03
Alternative single- factor model	35	641.89	.20 (.19, .22)	.56	.10
Alternative single- factor correlated error model*	30	33.29	.02 (.00, .04)	1.00	.03

Note. RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; CFI = comparative fit index; SRMR = standardized root mean square residual

* Final model.

Table 44

Factor Loadings and R² for the Confirmatory Factor Model of the Pride Proneness and Hubris Proneness TOSCA Items

Measure and item	Unstandardized factor loading	SE	Completely standardized factor loading	R ²
Pride Proneness/Hubris Proneness				
You would feel pleased to have made such a good impression.	1.00	.00	.51	.26
You would think: "I did a good job."	.99*	.15	.56	.31
You would be proud that you repaid your debts.	.84*	.13	.49	.24
You would feel your hard work had paid off.	.89*	.14	.47	.22
You would feel great that you had helped others.	.61*	.11	.39	.15
You would feel happy with your appearance and personality.	1.00*	.09	.54	.29
You would think "I guess I'm more persuasive than I thought."	.96*	.16	.46	.22
You would think: "I am a trustworthy person."	1.09*	.16	.54	.29
You would feel competent and proud of yourself.	1.04*	.15	.53	.28
You would feel very satisfied with yourself.	.97*	.14	.53	.28

* $p < .05$

Table 45

Partial Correlation Matrix for the Scale Scores for Pride and Hubris Proneness, Positive Affectivity, Negative Affectivity, Global Attribution Tendencies, Self-Esteem, and Narcissism Controlling for Gender and Race/Ethnicity.

	Hubris Proneness- Frequency	Pride Proneness- Frequency	Hubris Proneness - Scenario	Pride Proneness- Scenario	Positive Affectivity
Hubris Proneness -Frequency	1.00				
Pride Proneness- Frequency	0.26	1.00			
Hubris Proneness - Scenario	0.41	0.11	1.00		
Pride Proneness- Scenario	-0.03	0.21	0.27	1.00	
Positive Affectivity	0.28	0.30	0.14	0.08	1.00
Negative Affectivity	-0.08	-0.17	0.07	-0.02	-0.30
Global Attributions	0.04	0.21	0.10	0.17	0.26
Self-Esteem	0.28	0.42	0.13	0.22	0.49
Narcissism	0.50	0.27	0.43	0.13	0.39

	Negative Affectivity	Global Attributions	Self- Esteem	Narcissism
Negative Affectivity	1.00			
Global Attributions	-0.04	1.00		
Self-Esteem	-0.45	0.23	1.00	
Narcissism	0.03	0.27	0.33	1.00

Table 46

Zero-order Correlation Matrix for the Scale Scores for Pride and Hubris Proneness, Positive Affectivity, Negative Affectivity, Global Attribution Tendencies, Self-Esteem, and Narcissism.

	Hubris Proneness- Frequency	Pride Proneness- Frequency	Hubris Proneness - Scenario	Pride Proneness- Scenario	Positive Affectivity
Hubris Proneness -Frequency	1.00				
Pride Proneness- Frequency	.26	1.00			
Hubris Proneness - Scenario	.40	.09	1.00		
Pride Proneness- Scenario	-.06	.23	.23	1.00	
Positive Affectivity	.30	.32	.13	.10	1.00
Negative Affectivity	-.10	-.21	.07	-.04	-.32
Global Attributions	.04	.23	.09	.21	.27
Self-Esteem	.26	.46	.10	.28	.51
Narcissism	.51	.30	.41	.13	.42

	Negative Affectivity	Global Attributions	Self- Esteem	Narcissism
Negative Affectivity	1.00			
Global Attributions	-.07	1.00		
Self-Esteem	-.48	.27	1.00	
Narcissism	-.03	.28	.37	1.00

Table 47
Comparison of Single-factor and Two-factor Models for Pride Proneness and Positive Affectivity, and Hubris Proneness and Positive Affectivity, -Hypotheses 4a and 4b

Model	<i>df</i>	χ^2	RMSEA (90% CI)	CFI	SRMR	$\Delta\chi^2$	Factor Correlation
Pride Proneness and Positive Affectivity							
Frequency Measure							
Two-factor model	118 (N=428)	188.96	.04 (.03, .05)	.95	.05	NA	.35*
One-factor model	119 (N=428)	558.41	.09 (.09, .10)	.69	.09	369.45*	NA
Scenario Measure							
Two-factor model	134 (N=428)	198.31	.03 (.02, .04)	.95	.04	NA	.11
One-factor model	135 (N=428)	636.85	.09 (.09, .10)	.63	.10	438.54*	NA
Hubris Proneness and Positive Affectivity							
Frequency Measure							
Two-factor model	134 (N=428)	252.84	.05 (.04, .05)	.92	.05	NA	.34*
One-factor model	135 (N=428)	675.26	.10 (.09, .10)	.65	.09	422.42*	NA
Scenario Measure							
Two-factor model	134 (N=428)	224.48	.04 (.03, .05)	.93	.04	NA	.18*
One-factor model	135 (N=428)	529.36	.08 (.08, .09)	.69	.08	304.88*	NA

* $p < .05$

Table 48

Comparison of Single-factor and Two-factor Models for Hubris Proneness and Global Attributions and Pride Proneness and Global Attributions-Hypotheses 5a and 5b

Model	<i>df</i>	χ^2	RMSEA (90% CI)	CFI	SMRS	$\Delta\chi^2$	Factor Correlation
Hubris Proneness and Global Attributions							
Frequency Measure							
Two-factor model	75 (N=428)	197.61	.06 (.05, .07)	.90	.05	NA	.08
One-factor model	76 (N=428)	691.25	.14 (.13, .15)	.51	.14	493.64*	NA
Scenario Measure							
Two-factor model	75 (N=428)	160.42	.05 (.04,.06)	.92	.05	NA	.18*
One-factor model	76 (N=428)	457.28	.11 (.10, .12)	.62	.10	296.86*	NA
Pride Proneness and Global Attributions							
Frequency Measure							
Two-factor model	63 (N=428)	153.01	.06 (.05, .07)	.92	.06	NA	.18*
One-factor model	64 (N=428)	642.69	.14 (.13, .15)	.51	.13	489.68*	NA
Scenario Measure							
Two-factor model	75 (N=428)	142.36	.05 (.03,.06)	.94	.05	NA	.22*
One-factor model	76 (N=428)	544.71	.12 (.11, .13)	.58	.11	402.35*	NA

* $p < .05$

Table 49

Comparison of Single-factor and Two-factor Models for Pride Proneness and Self-Esteem, and Hubris Proneness and Self-esteem-Hypotheses 6a and 6b

Model	<i>df</i>	χ^2	RMSEA (90% CI)	CFI	SMRS	$\Delta\chi^2$	Factor Correlation
Pride Proneness and Self-esteem							
Frequency Measure							
Two-factor model	69 (N=428)	178.93	.06 (.05, .07)	.95	.05	NA	.52*
One-factor model	70 (N=428)	439.44	.11 (.10, .12)	.83	.09	260.51*	NA
Scenario Measure							
Two-factor model	100 (N=428)	214.12	.05 (.04, .06)	.94	.05	NA	.30*
One-factor model	101 (N=428)	598.43	.11 (.10, .12)	.76	.10	384.31	NA
Hubris Proneness and Self-esteem							
Frequency Measure							
Two-factor model	83 (N=428)	251.86	.07 (.06, .08)	.92	.05	NA	.37
One-factor model	84 (N=428)	570.37	.12 (.11, .13)	.78	.13	318.51*	NA
Scenario Measure							
Two-factor model	100 (N=428)	232.77	.06 (.05, .07)	.93	.05	NA	.15*
One-factor model	101 (N=428)	537.06	.10 (.09, .11)	.77	.09	304.29*	NA

* $p < .05$

Table 50

Comparison of Single-factor and Two-factor Models for Hubris Proneness and Narcissism-Hypothesis 7a

Model	<i>df</i>	χ^2	RMSEA (90% CI)	CFI	SMRS	$\Delta\chi^2$	Factor Correlation
Frequency Measure							
Two-factor model	702 (N=428)	1255.01	.04 (.04, .05)	.86	.05	NA	.59*
One-factor model	703 (N=428)	1504.79	.05 (.05, .06)	.79	.06	249.78*	NA
Scenario Measure							
Two-factor model	702 (N=428)	1261.52	.04 (.04, .05)	.85	.06	NA	.49*
One-factor model	702 (N=428)	1444.57	.05 (.05, .05)	.80	.06	183.05*	NA

* $p < .05$

Table 51

Partial Correlation Matrix for the Scale Scores for Pride and Hubris Proneness, Duration of Pride, and Emotional Satisfaction with Success, Controlling for Gender and Race/Ethnicity.

	Hubris Proneness- Frequency	Pride Proneness- Frequency	Hubris Proneness- Scenario	Pride Proneness- Scenario	Duration of Pride	Satisfaction
Hubris Proneness -Frequency	1.00					
Pride Proneness- Frequency	0.26	1.00				
Hubris Proneness - Scenario	0.41	0.11	1.00			
Pride Proneness- Scenario	-0.03	0.21	0.27	1.00		
Duration of Pride	0.26	0.12	0.23	0.20	1.00	
Satisfaction	0.09	0.33	0.06	0.27	0.25	1.00

Table 52

Zero-order Correlation Matrix for the Scale Scores for Pride and Hubris Proneness, Duration of Pride, and Emotional Satisfaction with Success.

	Hubris Proneness- Frequency	Pride Proneness- Frequency	Hubris Proneness- Scenario	Pride Proneness- Scenario	Duration of Pride	Satisfaction
Hubris Proneness -Frequency	1.00					
Pride Proneness- Frequency	.26	1.00				
Hubris Proneness - Scenario	.40	.09	1.00			
Pride Proneness- Scenario	-.06	.23	.23	1.00		
Duration of Pride	.25	.12	.23	.20	1.00	
Satisfaction	.09	.35	.04	.30	.26	1.00

Table 53

Fit of the Four MTMM Models

Model	χ^2	<i>df</i>	RMSEA (90% CI)	CFI	SRMR
Correlated Traits/Correlated Methods	331.91 (N=428)	199	.04 (.03, .05)	.94	.04
NoTraits/Correlated Methods	1203.92 (N=428)	229	.10 (.09, .11)	.57	.10
Perfectly Correlated Traits/Freely Correlated Methods Model	448.52 (N=428)	200	.05 (.05, .06)	.89	.05
Freely Correlated traits/Perfectly Correlated Methods	473.55 (N=428)	200	.06 (.05, .06)	.88	.05

Table 54

Tests of MTMM Hypotheses

Hypothesis	Model Comparison	Δdf	$\Delta\chi^2$
Hypothesis 12a: Convergent Validity	Correlated Traits/Correlated Methods - NoTraits/Correlated Methods	30	872.01*
Hypothesis 12b: Discriminant Validity of Traits	Correlated Traits/Correlated Methods - Perfectly Correlated Traits/Freely Correlated Methods Model	1	116.60*
Hypothesis 12c: Discriminant Validity of Methods	Correlated Traits/Correlated Methods - Freely Correlated traits/Uncorrelated Methods	1	141.64*

* $p < .05$

Table 55

MTMM Trait and Method Standardized Factor Loadings

Model	Trait Factor Loading	Method Factor Loading
Scenario Measure Items		
Hubris Proneness		
You would think: "I am a caring person."	.32*	.28*
You would think: "I must be a good political organizer."	.39*	.10
You would boast to everyone about the new job.	.59*	.10
You would think: "I am a very entertaining person."	.49*	.28*
You would think: "I hope my friends notice what a great ball player I am."	.55*	.17*
You would think everyone should notice what you accomplished.	.61*	.09
Pride Proneness		
You would be proud that you spent your time helping others.	.15*	.46*
You would feel pleased to have gotten the law repealed.	.11*	.43*
You would feel satisfied with the effort you put into your career.	.21*	.58*
You would feel glad that you make your new friends laugh.	.09	.51*
You would feel proud you made the shot.	.21*	.64*
You would feel proud of what you have done.	.17*	.66*

Model	Trait Factor Loading	Method Factor Loading
Frequency Measure Items		
Hubris Proneness		
Feel cocky.	.28*	.38*
Feel unbeatable.	.21*	.58*
Feel vain.	.42*	.45*
Feel like boasting of your accomplishments to everyone.	.57*	.23*
Feel that you are flawless	.31*	.53*
Feel superior.	.37*	.73*
Pride Proneness		
Feel pleased with the work you have done.	.52*	.23*
Feel proud of having done something well.	.72*	.12*
Feel satisfied with an achievement.	.66*	.17*
Feel more capable of doing something.	.58*	.26*
Feel pleased with improving yourself.	.56*	.14*

* $p < .05$

Table 56

MTMM Trait and Method Standardized Factor Loadings and Confidence Intervals

	Trait Factor Loading (95% CI)	Method Factor Loading (95% CI)
Scenario Measure Items		
Hubris Proneness		
You would think: "I am a caring person."	.32 (.23, .42)	.28 (.17, .38)
You would think: "I must be a good political organizer."	.39 (.29, .49)	.10 (-.01, .21)
You would boast to everyone about the new job.	.59 (.50, .67)	.10 (-.01, .21)
You would think: "I am a very entertaining person."	.49 (.40, .57)	.28 (.18, .39)
You would think: "I hope my friends notice what a great ball player I am."	.55 (.47, .64)	.17 (.06, .28)
You would think everyone should notice what you accomplished.	.61 (.53, .69)	.09 (-.02, .20)
Pride Proneness		
You would be proud that you spent your time helping others.	.15 (.04, .25)	.46 (.37, .55)
You would feel pleased to have gotten the law repealed.	.11 (.00, .21)	.43 (.33, .52)
You would feel satisfied with the effort you put into your career.	.21 (.10, .32)	.58 (.50, .66)
You would feel glad that you make your new friends laugh.	.09 (-.01, .19)	.51 (.42, .60)
You would feel proud you made the shot.	.21 (.11, .32)	.64 (.56, .72)
You would feel proud of what you have done.	.17 (.07, .28)	.66 (.58, .73)

	Trait Factor Loading (95% <i>CI</i>)	Method Factor Loading (95% <i>CI</i>)
Frequency Measure Items		
Hubris Proneness		
Feel cocky.	.28 (.17, .39)	.38 (.27, .48)
Feel unbeatable.	.21 (.10, .32)	.58 (.49, .68)
Feel vain.	.42 (.32, .52)	.45 (.35, .54)
Feel like boasting of your accomplishments to everyone.	.57 (.48, .66)	.23 (.13, .34)
Feel that you are flawless	.31 (.20, .41)	.53 (.44, .62)
Feel superior.	.37 (.27, .47)	.73 (.64, .81)
Pride Proneness		
Feel pleased with the work you have done.	.52 (.44, .61)	.23 (.12, .35)
Feel proud of having done something well.	.72 (.65, .79)	.12 (.00, .23)
Feel satisfied with an achievement.	.66 (.59, .74)	.17 (.06, .29)
Feel more capable of doing something.	.58 (.50, .66)	.26 (.15, .37)
Feel pleased with improving yourself.	.56 (.48, .65)	.14 (.02, .25)

Table 57

Correlations between Study Variables and Control Variables Greater than |.20|

Scale	Study Variable	Control Variables		
		Female	Asian	Hispanic
Frequency - Hubris	Feel that you are flawless.		0.20	
Frequency - Hubris	Feel superior.	-0.24		
Scenario - Pride	You would think: "I hope my friends notice what a great ball player I am."			-0.20
Scenario - Hubris	You would feel pleased to have gotten the law repealed.		-0.22	

Note: Correlations less than |.20| are not shown

Table 58

Partial Correlations for Pride Proneness, Hubris Proneness, Grade Goals, Intentions and Grades, Controlling for Race/Ethnicity

	Hubris Proneness - Frequency	Pride Proneness- Frequency	Hubris Proneness - Scenario	Pride Proneness- Scenario	Intentions
Hubris Proneness - Frequency	1.00				
Pride Proneness- Frequency	0.40	1.00			
Hubris Proneness - Scenario	0.43	0.06	1.00		
Pride Proneness- Scenario	0.17	0.26	0.32	1.00	
Intentions	0.11	0.17	0.01	0.04	1.00
Grade Goal	0.13	0.17	0.02	0.11	0.19
Grade	-0.01	0.07	0.01	0.13	-0.02

	Grade Goal	Grade
Grade Goal	1.00	
Grade	0.29	1.00

Table 59

Zero-order Correlations for Pride Proneness, Hubris Proneness, Grade Goals, Intentions and Grades

	Hubris Proneness - Frequency	Pride Proneness- Frequency	Hubris Proneness - Scenario	Pride Proneness- Scenario	Intentions
Hubris Proneness - Frequency	1.00				
Pride Proneness- Frequency	.36	1.00			
Hubris Proneness - Scenario	.43	.06	1.00		
Pride Proneness- Scenario	.05	.27	.24	1.00	
Intentions	.12	.16	.00	.01	1.00
Grade Goal	.16	.16	.05	.07	.21
Grade	.02	.10	.04	.13	-.02

	Grade Goal	Grade
Grade Goal	1.00	
Grade	.33	1.00

Table 60

Comparison of the Standardized Factor Loadings from Study 1 and Study 2 for the Frequency Measure of Proneness to Pride and Proneness to Hubris

Measure and item	Study 1	Study 2
Hubris Proneness		
Feel cocky.	.47*	.44*
Feel unbeatable.	.60*	.61*
Feel vain.	.62*	.70*
Feel like boasting of your accomplishments to everyone.	.50*	.54*
Feel that you are flawless	.60*	.53*
Feel superior.	.81*	.74*
Pride Proneness		
Feel pleased with the work you have done.	.57*	.56*
Feel proud of having done something well.	.71*	.73*
Feel satisfied with an achievement.	.68*	.76*
Feel more capable of doing something.	.65*	.64*
Feel pleased with improving yourself.	.59*	.61*

Table 61

Comparison of the Standardized Factor Loadings from Study 1 and Study 2 for the Scenario Measure of Proneness to Pride and Proneness to Hubris

Measure and item	Study 1	Study 2
Hubris Proneness		
You would think: "I am a caring person."	0.44*	0.46*
You would think: "I must be a good political organizer."	0.44*	0.48*
You would boast to everyone about the new job.	0.48*	0.42*
You would think: "I am a very entertaining person."	0.61*	0.47*
You would think: "I hope my friends notice what a great ball player I am."	0.58*	0.66*
You would think everyone should notice what you accomplished.	0.57*	0.70*
Pride Proneness		
You would be proud that you spent your time helping others.	0.43*	0.29*
You would feel pleased to have gotten the law repealed.	0.44*	0.37*
You would feel satisfied with the effort you put into your career.	0.62*	0.52*

Measure and item	Study 1	Study 2
You would feel glad that you make your new friends laugh.	0.49*	0.41*
You would feel proud you made the shot.	0.69*	0.63*
You would feel proud of what you have done.	0.68*	0.53*

* $p < .05$

Table 62

Measurement and Structural Models for Hypotheses 8a-10b, Frequency Measure

Model	<i>df</i>	χ^2	RMSEA (90% CI)	CFI	SRMR
Model with Pride Proneness and Hubris Proneness Predicting Performance (Hypotheses 8a – 9c)					
Measurement Model	139	103.20	.06 (.04, .07)	.92	.06
Structural Model	144	262.57	.05 (.04, .06)	.92	.06
Model with Pride Proneness Predicting Performance (Hypotheses 10a – 10b)					
Measurement Model	58	103.20	.06 (.04, .07)	.95	.05
Structural Model	59	111.36	.06 (.04, .07)	.95	.06

Table 63

Measurement and Structural Models for Hypotheses 8a-10b, Scenario Measure

Model	<i>df</i>	χ^2	RMSEA (90% CI)	CFI	SRMR
Model with Pride Proneness Predicting Performance (Hypotheses 8a – 9c)					
Measurement Model	70	117.95	.05 (.03, .07)	.94	.05
Structural Model	71	120.49	.05 (.03, .07)	.94	.05
Model with Pride Proneness and Hubris Proneness Predicting Performance (Hypotheses 10a – 10b)					
Measurement Model	153	238.61	.05 (.04, .06)	.93	.05
Structural Model	156	241.32	.04 (.03, .06)	.93	.06

Table 64

Summary of Partial and Full Support for the Hypotheses Using the Scenario and Frequency Measure⁴

Hypothesis	Frequency Measure	Scenario Measure
Hypothesis 1: There is a significant positive correlation between proneness to pride and the duration for which individuals experience states of pride.	Full	Full
Hypothesis 2a: There is a significant negative correlation between proneness to hubris and satisfaction with the emotional experience of success.		
Hypothesis 2b: There is a significant positive correlation between proneness to hubris and satisfaction with the emotional experience of success.		
Hypothesis 3: A model with two positively correlated factors, one representing proneness to pride and one representing proneness to hubris, demonstrates the best fit for the scores on the measures of proneness to pride and proneness to hubris (see Figure 1).	Partial	Partial
Hypothesis 4a: A model with two positively correlated factors, one representing proneness to pride and one representing positive affectivity, demonstrates a better fit for the scores on the measures of proneness pride and positive affectivity as compared to a one-factor model (see Figure 2).	Full	Partial
Hypothesis 4b: A model with two positively correlated factors, one representing proneness to hubris and one representing positive affectivity, demonstrates a better fit for the scores on the measures proneness to hubris and positive affectivity as compared to a one-factor model (see Figure 3).	Full	Partial
Hypothesis 4c: The correlation between proneness to pride and positive affectivity is significantly greater than the correlation between proneness to pride and negative affectivity.	Full	
Hypothesis 4d: The correlation between proneness to hubris and positive affectivity is significantly greater than the correlation between proneness to pride and negative affectivity.	Full	
Hypothesis 5a: A model with two positively correlated factors, one representing proneness to hubris and one representing global attribution tendencies, demonstrates a better fit for the scores on the measures of proneness to hubris and global attributions as compared to a one-factor model.	Partial	Full
Hypothesis 5b: A model with two negatively correlated factors, one representing proneness to pride and one representing global attribution tendencies, demonstrates a better fit for the scores on the measures of proneness to pride and global attributions as compared to a one-factor model.		

⁴ A blank space in either or both of the columns indicates no support.

Hypothesis	Frequency Measure	Scenario Measure
Hypothesis 6a: A model with two positively correlated factors, one representing proneness to pride and one representing self-esteem, demonstrates a better fit for the scores on the measures of proneness to pride and self-esteem as compared to a one-factor model.	Full	Full
Hypothesis 6b: A model with two positively correlated factors, one representing proneness to hubris and one representing self-esteem, demonstrates a better fit for the scores on the measures of proneness to hubris and self-esteem as compared to a one-factor model.	Partial	Full
Hypothesis 6c: The correlation between trait self-esteem and proneness to hubris is significantly greater than the correlation between self-esteem and proneness to pride.		
Hypothesis 7a: A model with two positively correlated factors, one representing proneness to hubris and one representing narcissism, demonstrates a better fit for the scores on the measures of proneness to hubris and narcissism as compared to a one-factor model.	Partial	Partial
Hypothesis 7b: The correlation between narcissism and proneness to hubris is significantly greater than the correlation between narcissism and proneness to pride.	Full	Full
Hypothesis 8a: Proneness to pride is positively related to performance.		
Hypothesis 8b: The relationship between proneness to pride performance is mediated by behavioral intentions.		
Hypothesis 8c: The relationship between proneness to pride performance is mediated by self-set goal difficulty.		
Hypothesis 8d: The relationship between proneness to pride and performance is mediated by self-set goal difficulty and behavioral intentions.		
Hypothesis 9a: Proneness to hubris is positively related to performance.		
Hypothesis 9b: The relationship between proneness to hubris performance is mediated by self-set goal difficulty.		
Hypothesis 9c: The relationship between proneness to hubris and performance is mediated by self-set goal difficulty and behavioral intentions.		
Hypothesis 10a: Proneness to pride is positively related to performance.		
Hypothesis 10b: The relationship between proneness to pride and performance is mediated by behavioral intentions.		
Hypothesis 11a: Self-set goal difficulty is positively related to performance.	Full	Full

Hypothesis 11b: Self-set goal difficulty is positively related to behavioral intentions.

Full

Full

Figure Captions

Figure 1: Two-factor model of proneness to pride and proneness to hubris (Hypothesis 3).

Figure 2: Positively correlated, two-factor model of proneness to pride and positive affectivity (Hypothesis 4a).

Figure 3: Positively correlated, two-factor model of proneness to hubris and positive affectivity (Hypothesis 4b).

Figure 4: Positively correlated, two-factor model of proneness to hubris and global attribution tendencies (Hypothesis 5a).

Figure 5: Negatively correlated, two-factor model of proneness to pride and global attribution tendencies (Hypothesis 5b).

Figure 6: Positively correlated, two-factor model of proneness to pride and trait self-esteem (Hypothesis 6a).

Figure 7: Positively correlated, two-factor model of proneness to hubris and trait self-esteem (Hypothesis 6b).

Figure 8: Positively correlated, two-factor model of proneness to hubris and narcissism (Hypothesis 7a).

Figure 9. Conceptual model for proneness to pride, proneness to hubris, self-set goal difficulty, behavioral intentions, and performance (Hypotheses 8a-9c).

Figure 10. Conceptual model in which proneness to pride predicts performance through behavioral intentions (Hypotheses 10a – 11b).

Figure 11: Correlated traits, correlated methods model (Hypotheses 12a-12c).

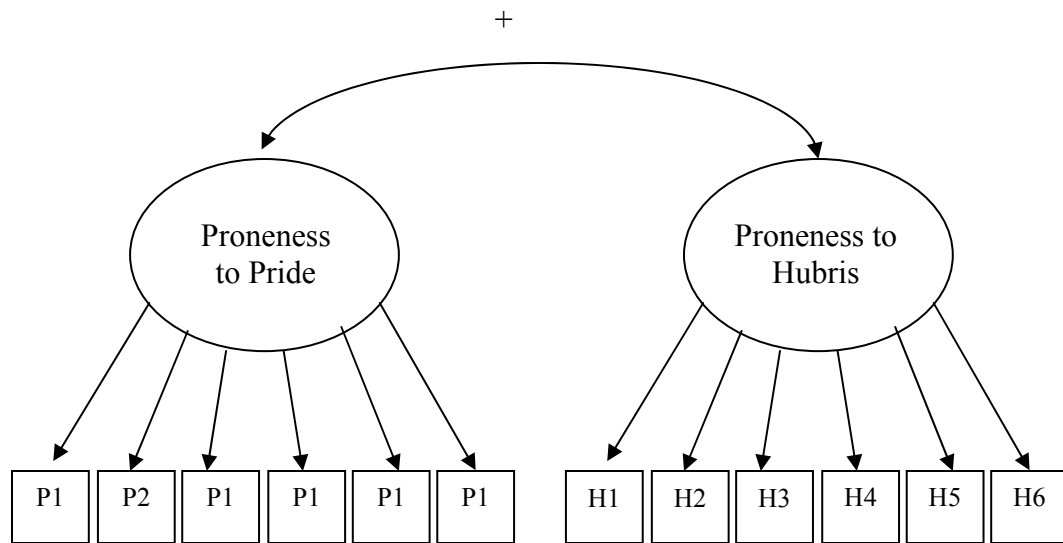
Figure 12: Structural model for the relationship between proneness to pride, proneness to hubris, and performance (Hypotheses 8a-9c) for the frequency measure.

Figure 13: Structural model for the relationship between proneness to pride and performance (Hypotheses 10a – 11b) for the frequency measure.

Figure 14: Structural model for the relationship between proneness to pride, proneness to hubris, and performance (Hypotheses 8a-9c) for the scenario measure.

Figure 15: Structural model for the relationship between proneness to pride and performance (Hypotheses 10a – 11b) for the scenario measure.

Figure 1: Two-factor model of proneness to pride and proneness to hubris (Hypothesis 3).



Note: Only six items are shown for each trait. The exact number of items will depend on the measure.

Figure 2: Positively correlated, two-factor model of proneness to pride and positive affectivity (Hypothesis 4a).

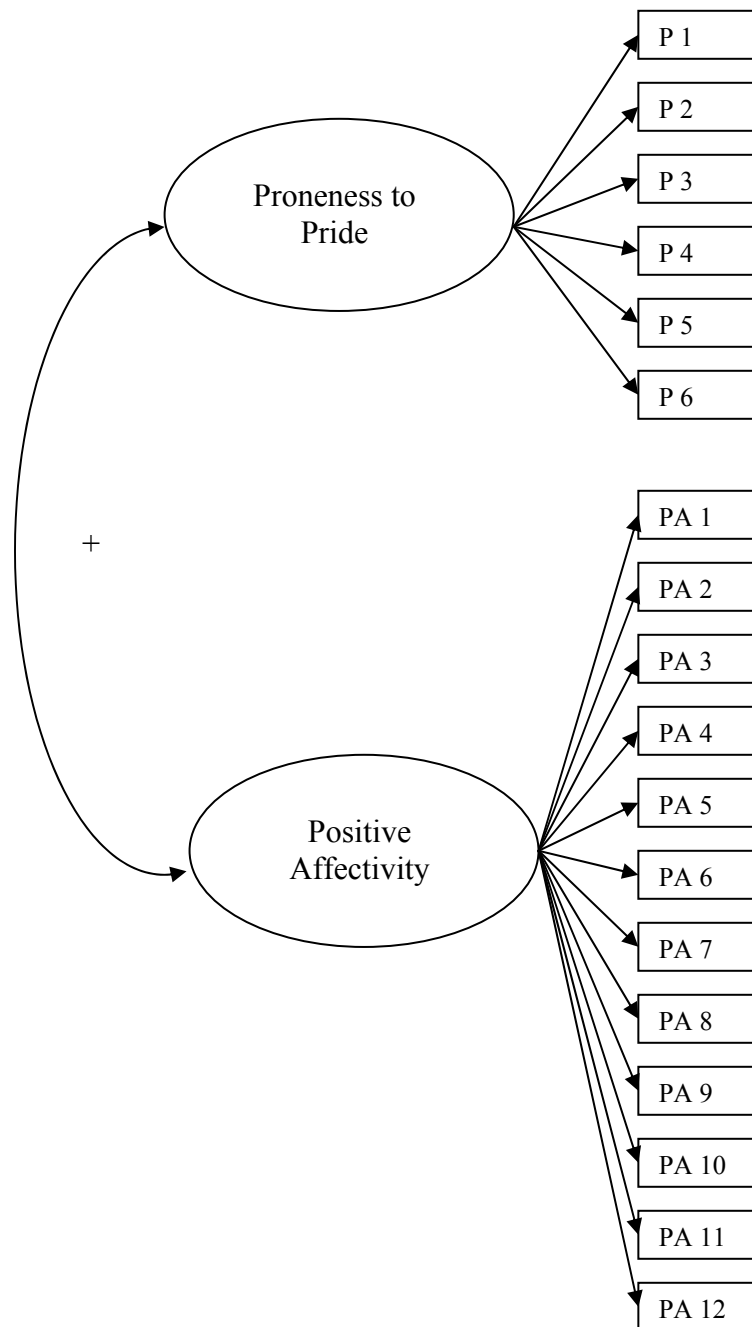


Figure 3: Positively correlated, two-factor model of proneness to hubris and positive affectivity (Hypothesis 4b).

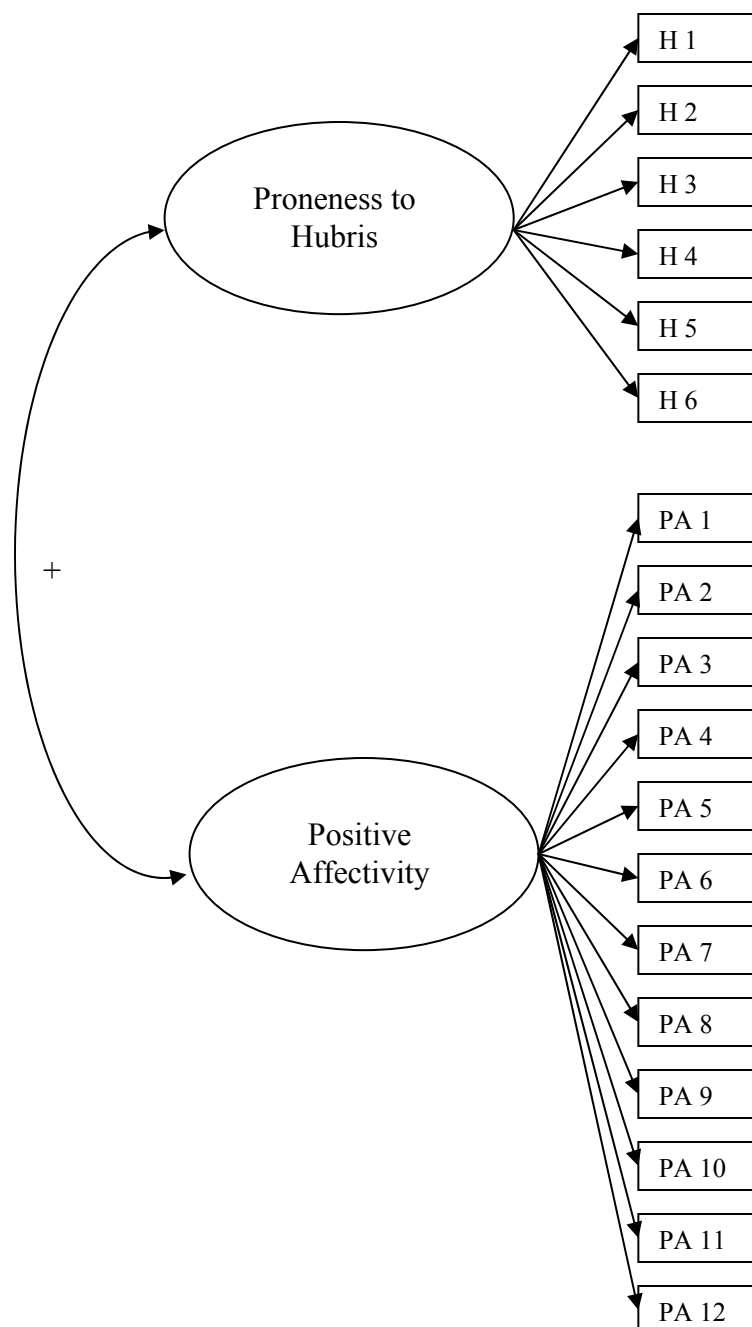


Figure 4: Positively correlated, two-factor model of proneness to hubris and global attribution tendencies (Hypothesis 5a).

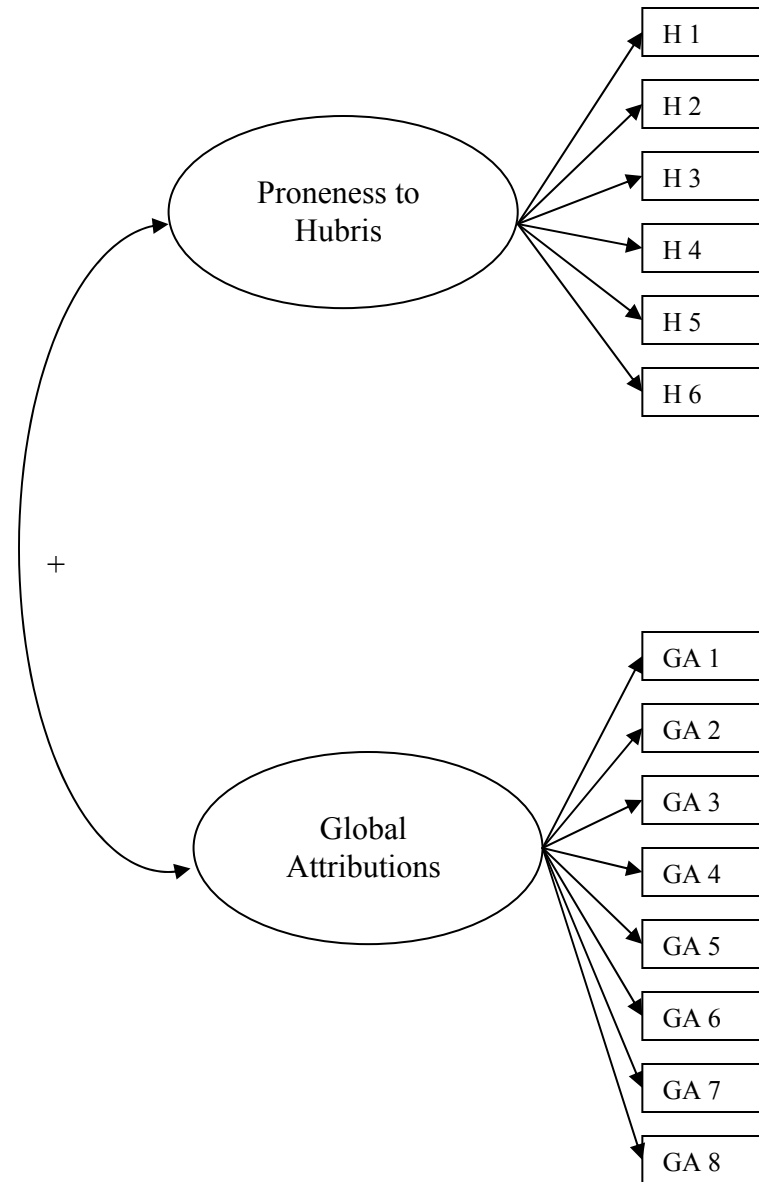


Figure 5: Negatively correlated, two-factor model of proneness to pride and global attribution tendencies (Hypothesis 5b).

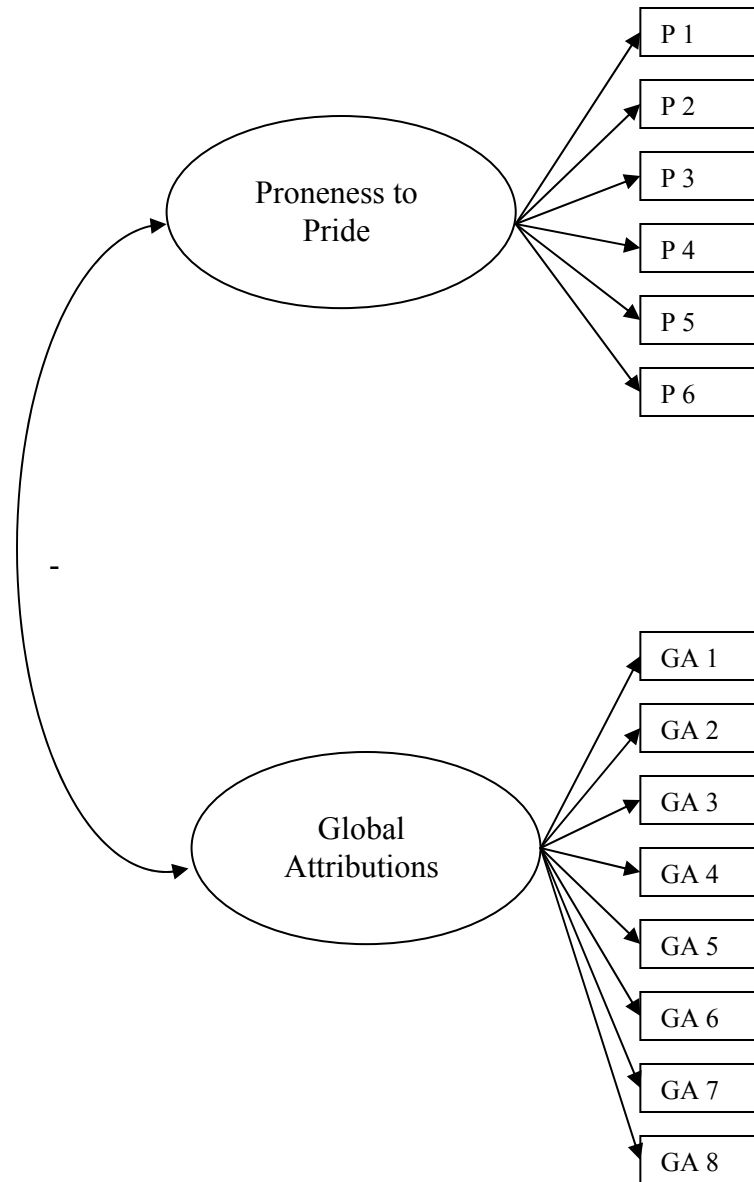


Figure 6: Positively correlated, two-factor model of proneness to pride and self-esteem (Hypothesis 6a).

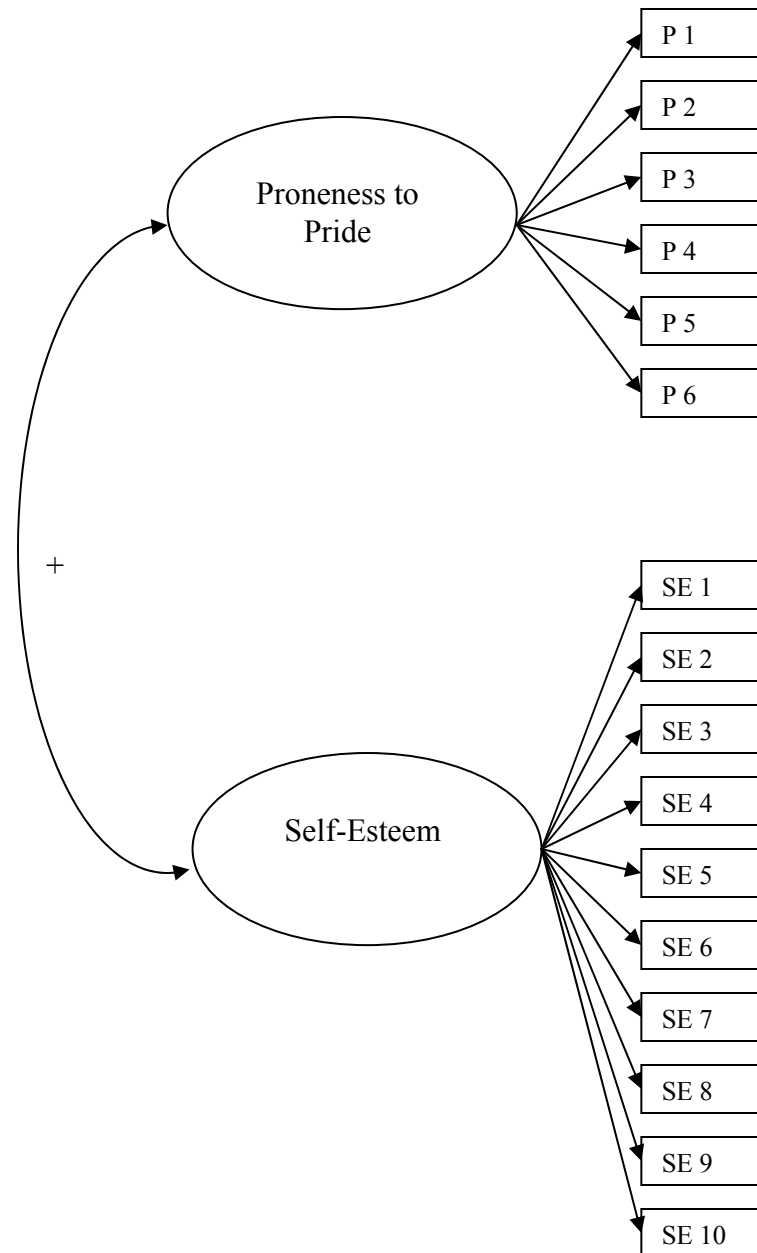


Figure 7: Positively correlated, two-factor model of proneness to hubris and self-esteem (Hypothesis 6b).

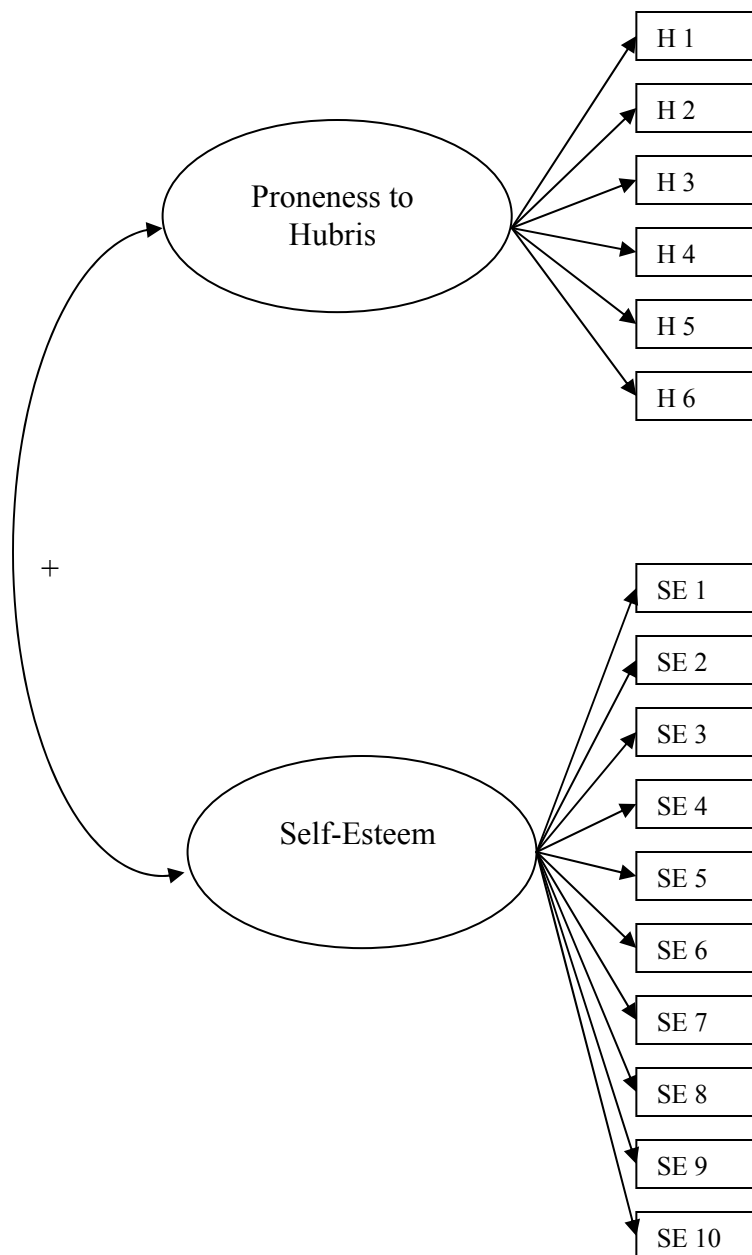
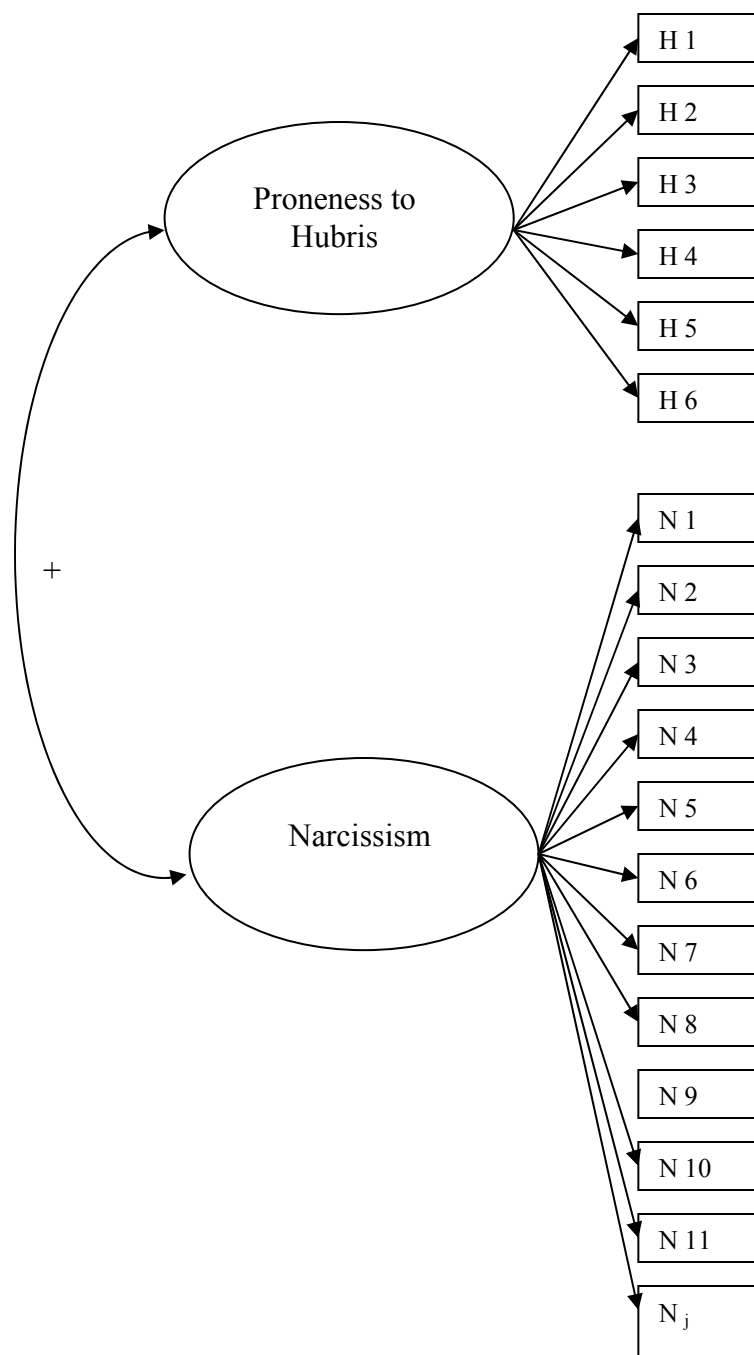
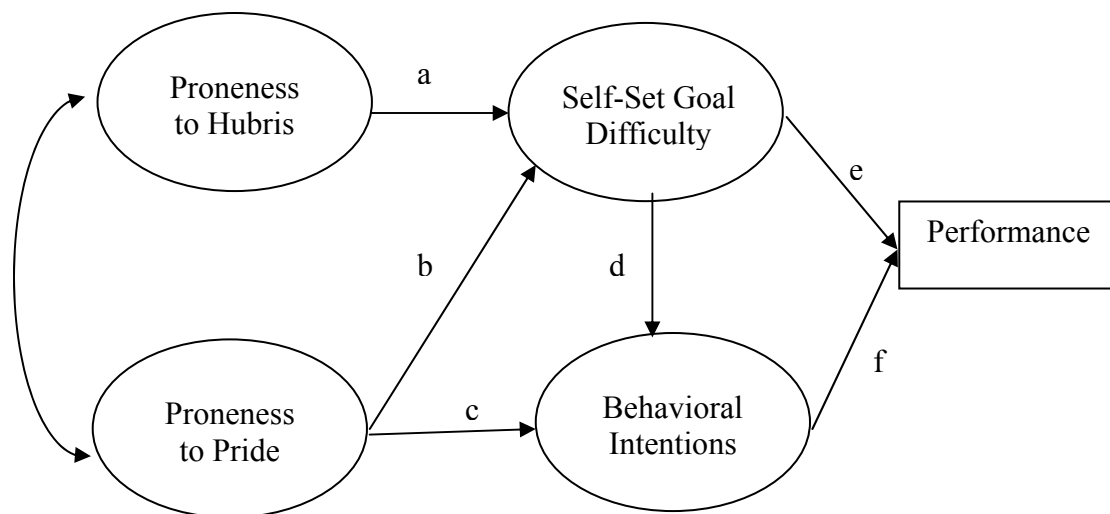


Figure 8: Positively correlated, two-factor model of proneness to hubris and narcissism (Hypothesis 7a).



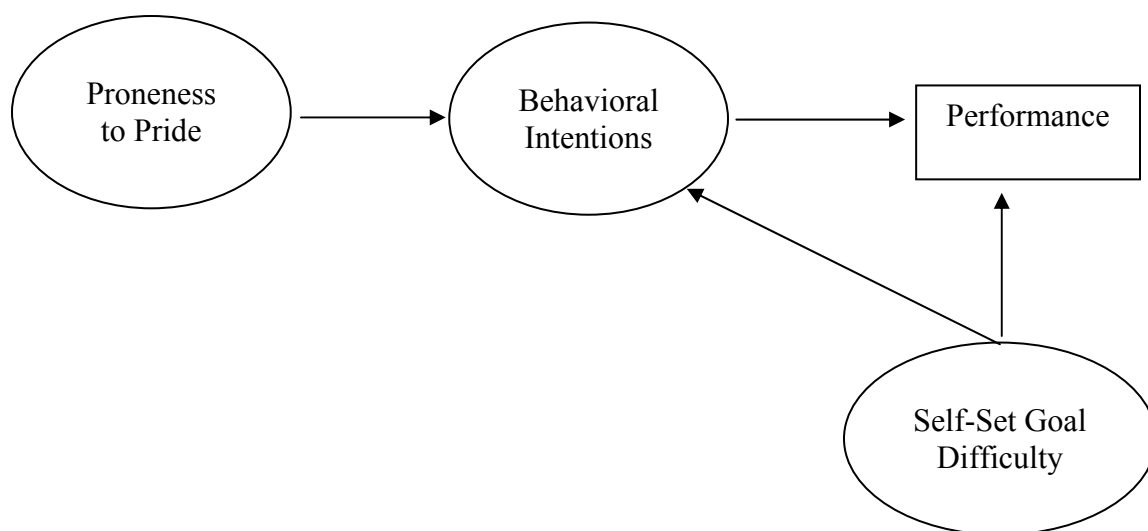
Note: The measure for narcissism contains 37 items.

Figure 9: Conceptual model for proneness to pride proneness to hubris and narcissism (Hypotheses 8a-9c).



Note: Observed variables are excluded for purpose of simplifying the presentation.

Figure 10: Conceptual model in which proneness to pride predicts performance through behavioral intentions (Hypotheses 10a-11b).



Note: Observed variables are excluded for purpose of simplifying the presentation.

Figure 11: Correlated traits, correlated methods model (Hypotheses 12a-12c).

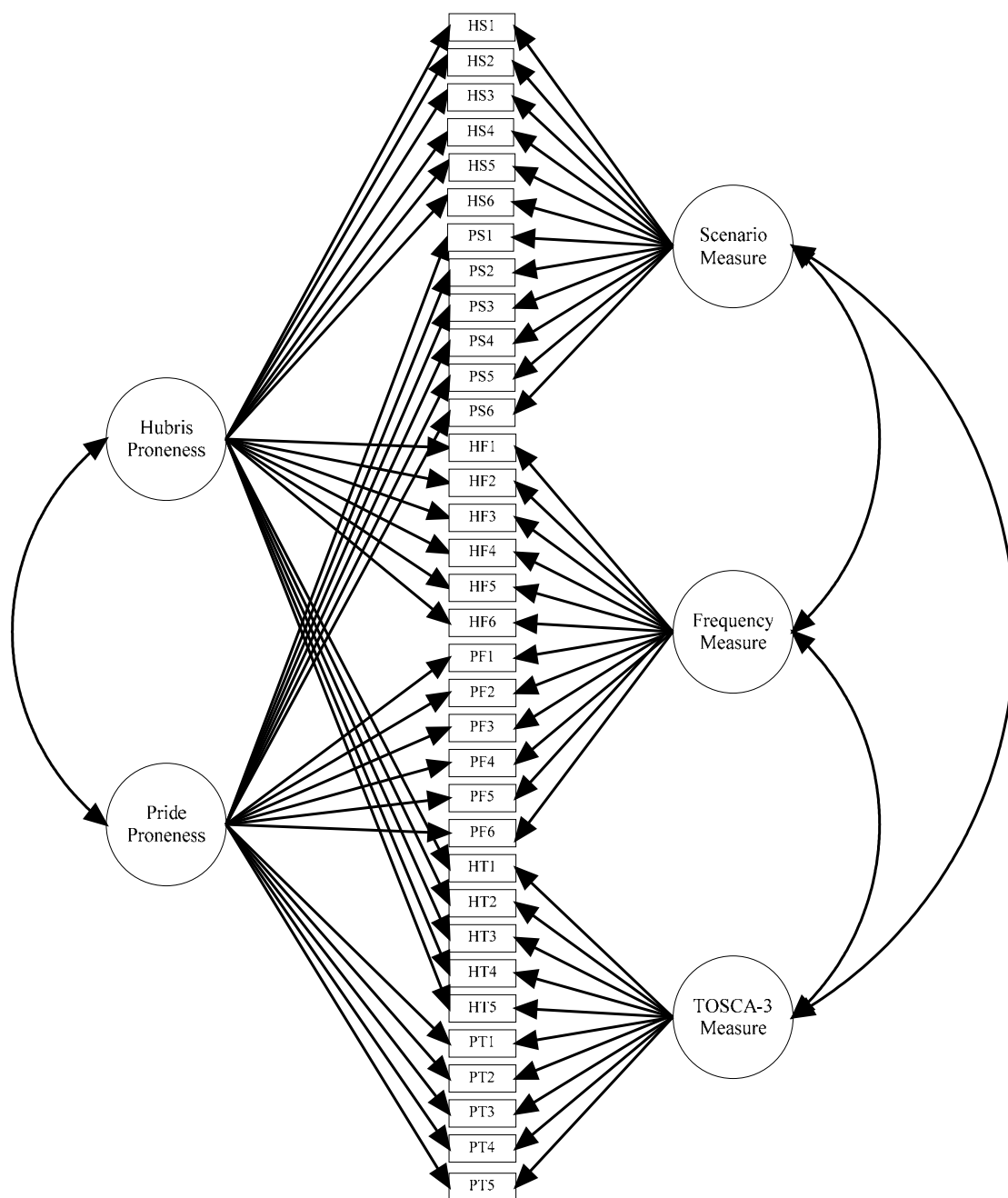


Figure 12: Structural model for the relationship between proneness to pride, proneness to hubris, and performance (Hypothesis 8a-9c) for the frequency measure.

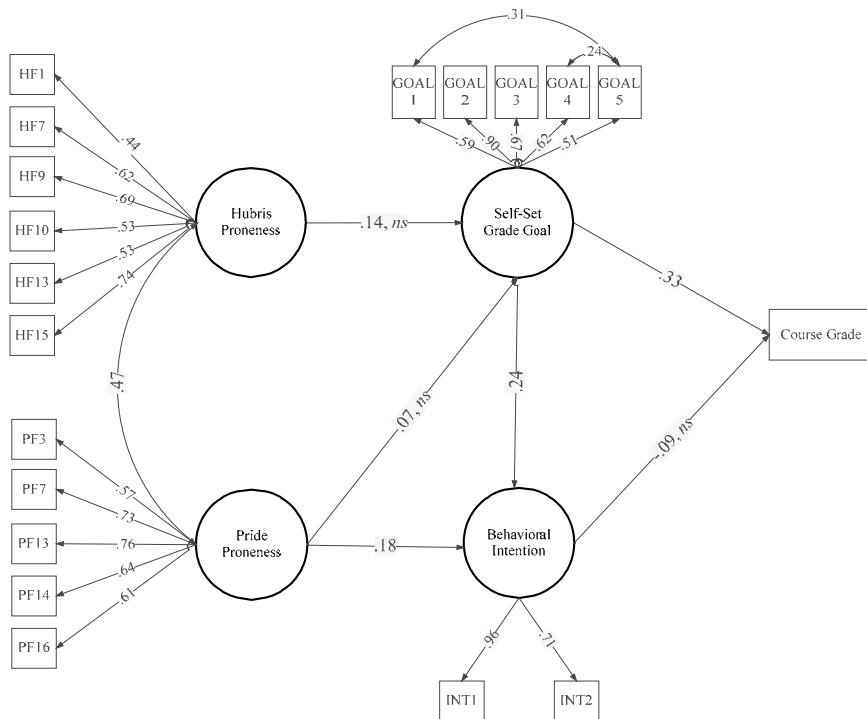


Figure 13: Structural model for the relationship between proneness to pride and performance (Hypothesis 10a-11b) for the frequency measure.

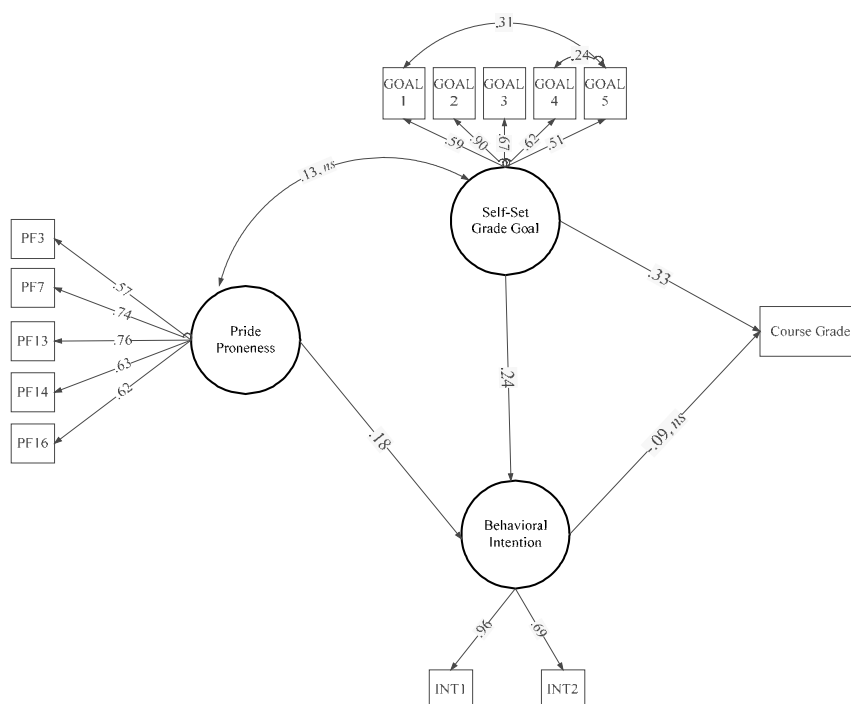


Figure 14: Structural model for the relationship between proneness to pride, proneness to hubris, and performance (Hypothesis 8a-9c) for the scenario measure.

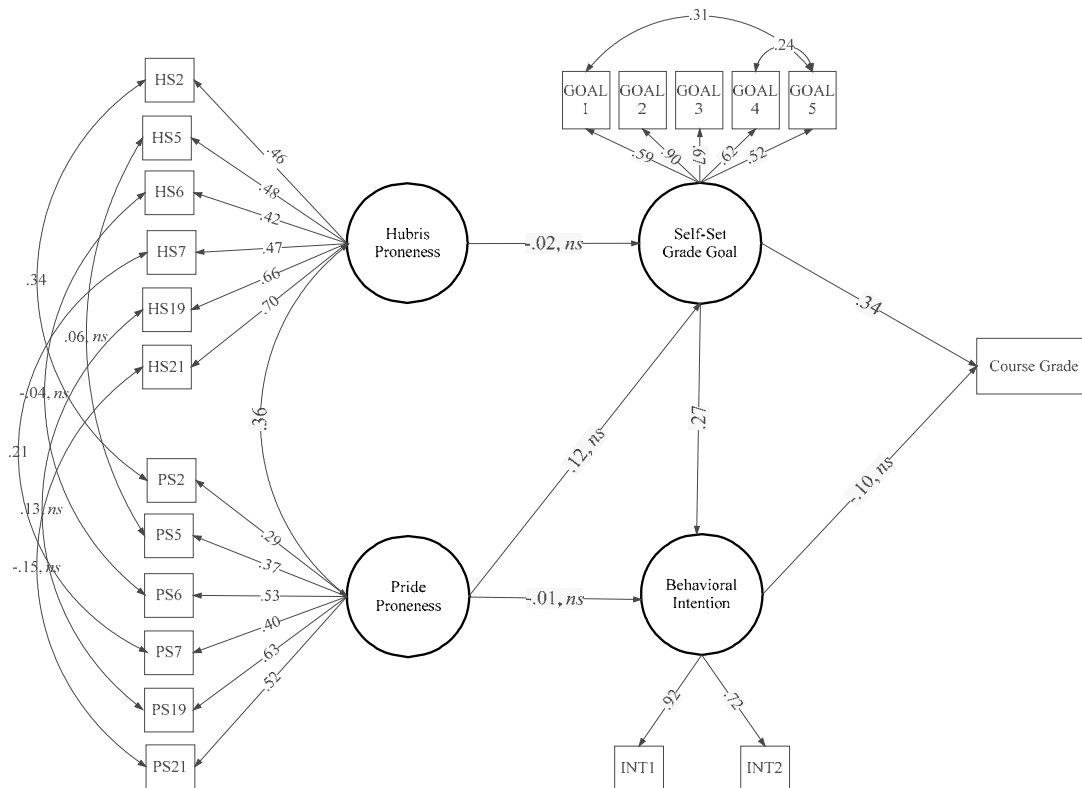
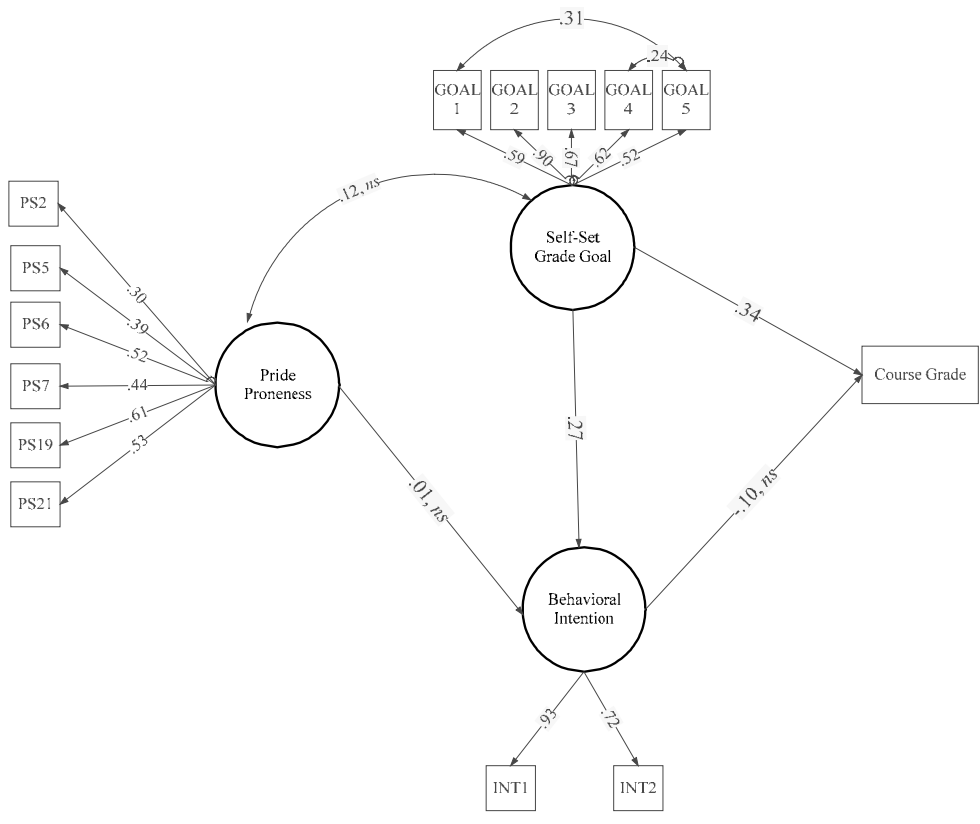


Figure 15: Structural model for the relationship between proneness to pride and performance (Hypothesis 10a-11b) for the scenario measure.



Appendix B

Hubris Questionnaire

The emotion of hubris is defined as exaggerated pride or over-confidence. Think of a situation in which you experienced the emotion of hubris. Once you have thought of a situation, please answer the following questions with as much detail as possible.

1. Where did the situation occur?
2. How long ago was it?
3. Who was involved?
4. What exactly happened?
5. How long did the feeling last? Was it some minutes, hours, days?
6. In what way did the situation end?
7. In your opinion, what words would best describe your emotion?

8. How strongly did you feel this emotion?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Not at all								Very much

9. What did you say?
10. What were your bodily reactions (for example, trembling or a churning stomach) and your nonverbal reactions (for example, specific facial expressions, voice qualities, or gestures)?

11. How strongly did you try to control what you said when feeling proud?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Not at all								Very much

12. What did you do to try to control your emotions in this situation?

13. How strongly did you try to control your nonverbal reactions in this situation?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Not at all								Very much

14. How did you do that?

15. What would you do differently, if you found yourself in such a situation?

Appendix C

Follow Up Focus Group Questions for Pride

Now that you are done with the questionnaire, I would like to further discuss with you the emotion of pride. In doing so, you can feel free to elaborate on things that you said in the questionnaire or to discuss other times when you or others felt pride. This is a group discussion so I would like all of you to participate. As before, this discussion is completely anonymous.

During the focus group, I will be taking notes about what you are saying as well as tape recording the discussion. However, these notes will involve general descriptions of what you are saying and you will not be identifiable from the notes.

It is important that all of you not repeat any of this discussion to other people. It is important that we all respect each other's right to confidentiality. Additionally, during the discussion it is important that one person speaks at a time and that no one says anything to another person that would make that person feel uncomfortable.

A little background about myself and this study: My name is Jeremy and I am a Ph.D. student here at Baruch in psychology. This study is a pilot study for my dissertation work. From this study I hope to learn about the types of events that make people feel proud and what that experience is like for them. During the discussion you can talk about occasions when you have felt proud or when you have seen other people feeling proud.

1. What types of events do you think cause people to feel pride?
2. What about those events make people proud? Does the pride come from something people do [such as studying hard for a test]? Does the pride come from something about people [such as being good at a subject]?
3. When people feel pride is there something they do about it? [For example, people might feel like telling others about their accomplishment or repeat doing the thing that made them feel pride.]
4. Do you think that on occasions when people feel pride that they ever do anything that they might regret? [Bragging too much?]
5. When you felt pride, did you think about your self in relation to other people? [Did you feel better than someone?]
6. When people feel pride, did you think they think about how other see them or is this unimportant? [Did you think of how others would have more respect for you? Or envy you?]
7. Did feeling pride make you feel more capable? How so?
8. If you were going to describe pride in a questionnaire, how would you do this? [How would you describe the feeling of pride to someone who is not familiar with the concept?] [What words would you use to describe pride?]
9. What are some positive outcomes of pride?
10. What are some negative outcomes of pride?

Appendix D

Follow Up Focus Group Questions for Hubris

Now that you are done with the questionnaire, I would like to further discuss with you the emotion of hubris. In doing so, you can feel free to elaborate on things that you said in the questionnaire or to discuss other times when you or others felt hubris. This is a group discussion so I would like all of you to participate. As before, this discussion is completely anonymous.

During the focus group, a research assistant or I will be taking notes about what you are saying. However, these notes will involve general descriptions of what you are saying and you will not be identifiable from the notes.

1. What types of events do you think cause people to feel hubris?
2. What about those events make people hubris? Does the hubris come from something people do [such as studying hard for a test]? Does the hubris come from something about people [such as being good at a subject]?
3. When people feel hubris is there something they do about it? [For example, people might feel like telling others about their accomplishment or repeat doing the thing that made them feel hubris.]
4. Do you think on that on occasions when people feel hubris that they ever do anything that they might regret? [Bragging too much?]
5. When you felt hubris, did you think about your self in relation to other people? [Did you feel better than someone?]
6. When people feel hubris, did you think they think about how other see them or is this unimportant? [Did you think of how others would have more respect for you? Or envy you?]
7. Did feeling hubris make you feel more capable? How so?
8. If you were going to describe hubris in a questionnaire, how would you do this? [How would you describe the feeling of hubris to someone who is not familiar with the concept?] [What words would you use to describe hubris?]
9. What are some positive outcomes of hubris?
10. What are some negative outcomes of hubris?

Appendix E

Frequency Measure of Proneness to Pride and Proneness to Hubris

In thinking about your life as a whole, indicate how often you:

Scale:

1 (very infrequently) – 7 (very frequently)

Pride

1. Feel proud
2. Feel accomplished
3. Feel pleased with improving your self
4. Feel pleased with something you have done
5. Feel proud of having done something well.
6. Feel more capable of doing something.
7. Feel satisfied with an achievement
8. Feel happy and capable.
9. Feel glad that things turned out well
10. Feel proud of the effort you put into accomplishing something.
11. Feel pleased when you make a well thought out statement of your opinion on something.
12. Feel surprised with your success.
13. Worry that your pride will make others envious.
14. Praise yourself for an accomplishment.
15. Feel pleased with the work you have done.
16. Feel like jumping because you accomplished something. (Item not included in Pilot Study 2)
17. Feel flushed (a warm face) after a success. (Item not included in Pilot Study 2)

Hubris

1. Feel superior
2. Feel triumphant
3. Feel that you are better than others
4. Feel pleased with the your whole self
5. Feel self-important
6. Feel audacious (bold, daring, fearless).
7. Feel vain (excessively proud).
8. Feel humble (reverse scored)
9. Feel pleased that others see you as superior
10. Feel unbeatable.
11. Feel larger than life

12. Feel that you are the “chosen one”
13. Feel that all of your opinions are important.
14. Feel that you can do no wrong.
15. Feel like boasting of your accomplishments to everyone.
16. Think about how others will praise you.
17. Feel that you are flawless.
18. Feel cocky. (Item not included in Pilot Study 2)
19. Feel that you are invincible. (Item not included in Pilot Study 2)

Appendix F

New Scenario Based Measures of Proneness to Pride and Proneness to Hubris

Below are situations that people are likely to encounter in day to day life, followed by several common reactions to those situations.

As you read each scenario, try to imagine yourself in that situation. Then indicate how likely you would be to react in each of the ways described. We ask you rate all responses because people may feel or react more than one way to the same situation, or they may react different ways at different times.

For example:

You wake up early one Saturday morning. It is cold and rainy outside.

a) You would telephone a friend and catch up on news	<u>X</u>	—	—	—	<u>—</u>
	Not Likely				Very Likely
b) You would take the extra time to read the paper.	<u>—</u>	—	—	—	<u>X</u>
	Not Likely				Very Likely
c) You would feel disappointed that it's raining.	<u>—</u>	—	—	—	<u>—</u>
	Not Likely		X		Very Likely
d) You would wonder why you woke up so early.	<u>—</u>	—	—	—	<u>—</u>
	Not Likely			X	Very Likely

In the above example, I've rated all of the answers by marking a space. I marked the first space for answer (a) because I wouldn't want to wake up a friend very early on Saturday morning—so it's not at all likely that I would do that. I marked the last space for answer (b) because I almost always read the paper if I have time in the morning (very likely). I marked the third space for answer (c) because for me it's about half and half. Sometimes I would be disappointed about the rain and sometimes I wouldn't—It would depend on what I had planned. And I marked the fourth space for answer (d) because I would probably wonder why I had awakened so early.

Please do not skip any items—rate all responses.

1. *You complete an important project successfully at work. As a result, your boss mentions considering you for a promotion into very desirable position.*

a) You would feel proud but worry about making others envious of your success. (Pride)	_____	—	—	—	_____
	Not Likely				Very Likely
a) Your success would lead you to worry about making others envious. (pride-rewrite)		—	—	—	
b) You think that it was a good company to work at. (Distracter)	_____				_____
	Not Likely				Very Likely
c) You would think about how the new job would be a lot of work. (Distracter)	_____				_____
	Not Likely				Very Likely
d) You would think about how capable other people would see you. (Hubris)	_____	—	—	—	_____
	Not Likely				Very Likely

2. *You volunteer at a center for kids with terminal illnesses. Spending so much time with terminal children has been emotionally draining. One day a parent comes up to you and informs you that their child looks forward to seeing you everyday at the center.*

a) You would think about quitting. (Distracter)	_____	—	—	—	_____
	Not Likely				Very Likely
b) You would think: “I am a caring person.” (hubris)	_____				_____
	Not Likely				Very Likely
c) You would be proud that you spent your time helping others. (pride)	_____				_____
	Not Likely				Very Likely
d) You would wish you could make the kid well. (Distracter)	_____	—	—	—	_____
	Not Likely				Very Likely

3. *At the last minute you find out your best friend is celebrating their birthday and would like to get together with friends. You decide to throw a party for your friend, but worry you won't have enough time to get everything together. After the party, several people tell you what a good time they had.*

a) You would feel your planning paid off. (pride)	_____	—	—	—	_____
	Not Likely				Very Likely
b) You would be glad that it was over. (Distracter)	_____				_____
	Not Likely				Very Likely
c) You would feel tired. (Distracter)	_____	—	—	—	_____
	Not				Very

	Likely	—	—	—	Likely
d) You would feel very proud of who you are. (hubris)	————— Not Likely	—	—	—	————— Very Likely

d) You would feel that you are a superior person. (hubris rewrite)

4. *You are swamped at work and have an important deadline to meet by the end of the day. During the day you really focus on your work. At 6 O'clock you realize you met the deadline and also finished several other tasks.*

a) You would feel pleased that you are such a good worker. (hubris)	————— Not Likely	—	—	—	————— Very Likely
---	------------------------	---	---	---	-------------------------

b) You would think: "This job asks too much of me." (Distracter)	————— Not Likely	—	—	—	————— Very Likely
--	------------------------	---	---	---	-------------------------

c) You would feel happy that you dedicated so much effort to work. (pride)	————— Not Likely	—	—	—	————— Very Likely
--	------------------------	---	---	---	-------------------------

d) You would wish you could have been home earlier. (Distracter)	————— Not Likely	—	—	—	————— Very Likely
--	------------------------	---	---	---	-------------------------

5. *You feel very strongly that a proposed new law your city is trying to pass is unfair. You attend several city council meetings to try and raise awareness of the negative aspects of the new law. After several months of talking to people, the people vote down the law.*

a) You would think: "Democracy works." (Distracter)	————— Not Likely	—	—	—	————— Very Likely
---	------------------------	---	---	---	-------------------------

b) You would wonder why they even considered the law. (Distracter)	————— Not Likely	—	—	—	————— Very Likely
--	------------------------	---	---	---	-------------------------

c) You would feel pleased to have gotten the law repealed. (pride)	————— Not Likely	—	—	—	————— Very Likely
--	------------------------	---	---	---	-------------------------

d) You would think: "I must be a good political organizer." (hubris)	————— Not Likely	—	—	—	————— Very Likely
--	------------------------	---	---	---	-------------------------

6. *You apply for a competitive job you really want with a prestigious company. Later you find out they were impressed with your interview and you got the job.*

a) You would think about how to tell your employer that you found a new job. (Distracter)	————— Not Likely	—	—	—	————— Very Likely
---	------------------------	---	---	---	-------------------------

b) You would think that it is pretty much just luck that you got the job. (Distracter)	————— Not Likely	—	—	—	————— Very Likely
--	------------------------	---	---	---	-------------------------

c) You would feel satisfied with the effort you put into your career. (Pride)	————— Not Likely	—	—	—	————— Very Likely
---	------------------------	---	---	---	-------------------------

d) You would boast to everyone about the new job. (Hubris)

Not Likely	—	—	—	Very Likely
---------------	---	---	---	----------------

7. *You have recently moved to a new city and have been trying to make friends. It has been difficult to do. One night you were out with some new friends and they start talking about how you are very funny and enjoyable to be with.*

a) You would think: “I am a very entertaining person.” (hubris)

Not Likely	—	—	—	Very Likely
---------------	---	---	---	----------------

b) You would feel glad that you make your new friends laugh. (pride)

Not Likely	—	—	—	Very Likely
---------------	---	---	---	----------------

c) You would think it was good fortune to meet some nice people. (Distracter)

Not Likely	—	—	—	Very Likely
---------------	---	---	---	----------------

d) You would think about your friends where you used to live. (Distracter)

Not Likely	—	—	—	Very Likely
---------------	---	---	---	----------------

8. *Your boss asks several people at work to come up with ideas for improving the business. You work to come up with several ideas and chose the one you think is best. In a meeting your boss tells you that your idea was the best.*

a) You would think: “I am really good at business.” (hubris)

Not Likely	—	—	—	Very Likely
---------------	---	---	---	----------------

b) You would think that your coworkers must not have had time to come up with good ideas. (Distracter)

Not Likely	—	—	—	Very Likely
---------------	---	---	---	----------------

c) You would feel happy about the work you put into developing the idea. (Pride)

Not Likely	—	—	—	Very Likely
---------------	---	---	---	----------------

d) You would doubt your boss’s judgment. (Distracter)

Not Likely	—	—	—	Very Likely
---------------	---	---	---	----------------

9. *You decide that you are going to run a marathon even though you are not a runner. The first month of training is really hard and you would really like to give up, however you stick with it and in six months you successfully run and finish the marathon.*

- | | | | | | |
|---|----------------------------------|---|---|---|-----------------------------------|
| a) You would think: "I am a natural athlete."
(hubris) | <u> </u>
Not
Likely | — | — | — | <u> </u>
Very
Likely |
| b) You would be glad it was over. (Distracter) | <u> </u>
Not
Likely | — | — | — | <u> </u>
Very
Likely |
| c) You would think: "All of my training paid off."
(pride) | <u> </u>
Not
Likely | — | — | — | <u> </u>
Very
Likely |
| d) You would wonder who won the race.
(Distracter) | <u> </u>
Not
Likely | — | — | — | <u> </u>
Very
Likely |

10. *Your spouse gets a promotion to a new job and has to move to a city in another state. It puts a lot of strain on you because you have to find a new job and rearrange your life so your spouse can take the new job. In the end your spouse is very successful at their new job and they thank you for all of your support.*

- | | | | | | |
|---|----------------------------------|---|---|---|-----------------------------------|
| a) You would feel proud because of the sacrifice you made for your spouse (pride) | <u> </u>
Not
Likely | — | — | — | <u> </u>
Very
Likely |
| b) You would wonder if your spouse would do the same for you. (Distracter) | <u> </u>
Not
Likely | — | — | — | <u> </u>
Very
Likely |
| c) You would think: "I am a wonderful person."
(hubris) | <u> </u>
Not
Likely | — | — | — | <u> </u>
Very
Likely |
| d) You would worry that your spouse takes advantage of you. (Distracter) | <u> </u>
Not
Likely | — | — | — | <u> </u>
Very
Likely |

11. *Unexpectedly, you are told that you have to give a presentation at work later that day. You work on it all day and the presentation goes very well.*

- | | | | | | |
|--|----------------------------------|---|---|---|-----------------------------------|
| a) You would feel relief that the presentation was done. (Distracter) | <u> </u>
Not
Likely | — | — | — | <u> </u>
Very
Likely |
| b) You would feel confident in your ability.
(hubris) | <u> </u>
Not
Likely | — | — | — | <u> </u>
Very
Likely |
| c) You would think that presentations are such a waste of time. (Distracter) | <u> </u>
Not
Likely | — | — | — | <u> </u>
Very
Likely |

d) You would feel proud that you made a good presentation. (pride) _____
Not — — — _____
Likely Very
 Likely

12. *In addition to your normal job, you start a small organization to help young people to succeed in school. After working at it for a long time, a local civic organization gives you an award for your work in the community.*

a) You would feel very proud of who you are. (hubris) _____
Not — — — _____
Likely Very
 Likely

b) You would feel proud of what you accomplished. (pride) _____
Not — — — _____
Likely Very
 Likely

c) You would feel bad that you couldn't do more to help people. (Distracter) _____
Not — — — _____
Likely Very
 Likely

d) You would worry that others would expect more from you. (Distracter) _____
Not — — — _____
Likely Very
 Likely

13. *You have been caring for a terminally ill relative for the past 6 months. Although it has been time consuming and physically and emotionally taxing, you continue caring for the relative until their death. After their death, several family members thank you for being so supportive, and inform you that the ill relative greatly appreciated your help.*

a) You would be sad about the loss of your relative. (Distracter) _____
Not — — — _____
Likely Very
 Likely

b) You not think what you did was all that helpful. (Distracter) _____
Not — — — _____
Likely Very
 Likely

c) You would be happy that you are a caring person. (hubris) _____
Not — — — _____
Likely Very
 Likely

d) You feel happy about the commitment that you made to help the relative. (pride) _____
Not — — — _____
Likely Very
 Likely

14. *There is a person that you know who you really want to ask out on a date, but you're nervous to do it. You finally get up the courage to ask them out to dinner and they say yes.*

a) You would feel on top of the world because you asked them out. (pride) _____
Not — — — _____
Likely Very
 Likely

b) You would worry about making a good impression on the date. (Distracter) _____
Not — — — _____
 Very

	Likely	—	—	—	Likely
c) You would feel pleased because you're an attractive person. (hubris)	————— Not Likely	—	—	—	————— Very Likely

	————— Not Likely	—	—	—	————— Very Likely
d) You would think about what you would wear on the date. (Distracter)	————— Not Likely	—	—	—	————— Very Likely

15. *You decide to start a small business. Though you know it is very risky and you are uncertain whether you have the financial means to start the business you decide to take a chance. Within two years the business is making a profit.*

	————— Not Likely	—	—	—	————— Very Likely
a) You would feel terrific that you had started a successful business. (pride)	————— Not Likely	—	—	—	————— Very Likely

	————— Not Likely	—	—	—	————— Very Likely
b) You think about how nice it is to be your own boss. (Distracter)	————— Not Likely	—	—	—	————— Very Likely

	————— Not Likely	—	—	—	————— Very Likely
c) You would think that which businesses survive was a matter of luck. (Distracter)	————— Not Likely	—	—	—	————— Very Likely

	————— Not Likely	—	—	—	————— Very Likely
d) You would be satisfied with yourself. (hubris)	————— Not Likely	—	—	—	————— Very Likely

16. *One day your friend comes to talk to you about a problem they are having with their girlfriend/boyfriend. You listen and give them the best advice you can think of. The next day your friend thanks you for talking with them because they are now feeling much better about the situation.*

	————— Not Likely	—	—	—	————— Very Likely
a) You would be pleased with yourself for paying attention to what your friend was saying and trying to be helpful. (pride)	————— Not Likely	—	—	—	————— Very Likely

	————— Not Likely	—	—	—	————— Very Likely
b) You would feel like you should tell other people that you're the kind of person who would make a good counselor. (hubris)	————— Not Likely	—	—	—	————— Very Likely

	————— Not Likely	—	—	—	————— Very Likely
c) You would think that people should be able to deal with their own problems. (Distracter)	————— Not Likely	—	—	—	————— Very Likely

	————— Not Likely	—	—	—	————— Very Likely
d) You would feel bad that you couldn't do more for your friend. (Distracter)	————— Not Likely	—	—	—	————— Very Likely

17. *Reluctantly, you go to a party you were invited to where you don't know many people. By the end of the night you're laughing with and having a good time with most of the people there.*

- | | | | | | |
|---|------------------------|---|---|---|-------------------------|
| a) You would think that the people at the party are very nice. (Distracter) | —————
Not
Likely | — | — | — | —————
Very
Likely |
| b) You would feel happy that you are such a funny and sociable person. (hubris) | —————
Not
Likely | — | — | — | —————
Very
Likely |
| c) You would think that parties are fun. (Distracter) | —————
Not
Likely | — | — | — | —————
Very
Likely |
| d) You would think: “Even though I didn’t feel like going, I really made the most of it.” (pride) | —————
Not
Likely | — | — | — | —————
Very
Likely |

18. *A relative asks you if you could baby-sit their young child for a weekend. It turns out to be a lot of work watching the child. When your relatives return, they tell you that you are one of the few people they can trust to look after their child.*

- | | | | | | |
|---|------------------------|---|---|---|-------------------------|
| a) You would be glad you no longer had to watch the child. (Distracter) | —————
Not
Likely | — | — | — | —————
Very
Likely |
| b) You would think: “I’m a really trustworthy person.” (hubris) | —————
Not
Likely | — | — | — | —————
Very
Likely |
| c) You would think your relatives should take more responsibility for their child. (Distracter) | —————
Not
Likely | — | — | — | —————
Very
Likely |
| d) You would think: “I’m glad I did a good job.” (pride) | —————
Not
Likely | — | — | — | —————
Very
Likely |

19. *While playing a basketball game with your friends, you make a difficult basket at the last second and win the game for your team.*

- | | | | | | |
|--|------------------------|---|---|---|-------------------------|
| a) You would think: “I hope my friends notice what a great ball player I am.” (hubris) | —————
Not
Likely | — | — | — | —————
Very
Likely |
| b) You would think: “It was a lucky shot.” (Distracter) | —————
Not
Likely | — | — | — | —————
Very
Likely |
| c) You would feel relieved that you didn’t miss the basket. (Distracter) | —————
Not
Likely | — | — | — | —————
Very
Likely |
| d) You would feel proud you made the shot (pride). | —————
Not
Likely | — | — | — | —————
Very
Likely |

20. *Your sibling comes to you very distressed and starts talking about a personal problem they are having. After talking to them for a while, you notice that they look much more cheerful than before and are now laughing and joking around.*

- | | | | | | |
|---|------------------------|---|---|---|-------------------------|
| a) You would think: “I am glad that I helped my sibling.” (pride) | —————
Not
Likely | — | — | — | —————
Very
Likely |
|---|------------------------|---|---|---|-------------------------|

b) You would wonder why your sibling came to you for help. (Distracter)	<hr style="width: 100px; margin: 0 auto;"/> Not Likely	—	—	—	<hr style="width: 100px; margin: 0 auto;"/> Very Likely
c) You would wish life was easier for people. (Distracter)	<hr style="width: 100px; margin: 0 auto;"/> Not Likely	—	—	—	<hr style="width: 100px; margin: 0 auto;"/> Very Likely
d) You would think: “I am much better at handling problems than my sibling.” (hubris)	<hr style="width: 100px; margin: 0 auto;"/> Not Likely	—	—	—	<hr style="width: 100px; margin: 0 auto;"/> Very Likely

21. You decide to change careers and go back to school for new training. It is difficult to manage work and the additional training. In time, you graduate and receive a job offer in your new career.

a) You feel proud of what you have done. (pride)	<hr style="width: 100px; margin: 0 auto;"/> Not Likely	—	—	—	<hr style="width: 100px; margin: 0 auto;"/> Very Likely
b) You worry about whether you made the right decision. (Distracter)	<hr style="width: 100px; margin: 0 auto;"/> Not Likely	—	—	—	<hr style="width: 100px; margin: 0 auto;"/> Very Likely
c) You would think everyone should notice what you accomplished. (hubris)	<hr style="width: 100px; margin: 0 auto;"/> Not Likely	—	—	—	<hr style="width: 100px; margin: 0 auto;"/> Very Likely
d) You would think that you couldn't have done it without help from your friends and family. (Distracter)	<hr style="width: 100px; margin: 0 auto;"/> Not Likely	—	—	—	<hr style="width: 100px; margin: 0 auto;"/> Very Likely

Appendix G

Test of Self-Conscious Affect – 3 (TOSCA-3)

Below are situations that people are likely to encounter in day to day life, followed by several common reactions to those situations.

As you read each scenario, try to imagine yourself in that situation. Then indicate how likely you would be to react in each of the ways described. We ask you rate all responses because people may feel or react more than one way to the same situation, or they may react different ways at different times.

For example:

You wake up early one Saturday morning. It is cold and rainy outside.

a) You would telephone a friend and catch up on news	<u>X</u> Not Likely	—	—	—	<u> </u> Very Likely
b) You would take the extra time to read the paper.	<u> </u> Not Likely	—	—	—	<u>X</u> Very Likely
c) You would feel disappointed that it's raining.	<u> </u> Not Likely	—	X	—	<u> </u> Very Likely
d) You would wonder why you woke up so early.	<u> </u> Not Likely	—	—	-X	<u> </u> Very Likely

In the above example, I've rated all of the answers by marking a space. I marked the first space for answer (a) because I wouldn't want to wake up a friend very early on Saturday morning—so it's not at all likely that I would do that. I marked the last space for answer (b) because I almost always read the paper if I have time in the morning (very likely). I marked the third space for answer (c) because for me it's about half and half. Sometimes I would be disappointed about the rain and sometimes I wouldn't—It would depend on what I had planned. And I marked the fourth space for answer (d) because I would probably wonder why I had awakened so early.

Please do not skip any items—rate all responses.

1. *You make plans to meet a friend for lunch. At 5 o'clock, you realize you stood your friend up.*

a) You would think: "I'm inconsiderate."	_____	—	—	—	_____
	Not Likely				Very Likely
b) You would think: "Well, my friend will understand."	_____	—	—	—	_____
	Not Likely				Very Likely
c) You'd think you should make it up to your friend as soon as possible.	_____	—	—	—	_____
	Not Likely				Very Likely
d) You would think: My boss distracted me just before lunch."	_____	—	—	—	_____
	Not Likely				Very Likely

2. *You break something at work and then hide it.*

a) You would think: "This is making me anxious. I need to either fix it or get someone else to."	_____	—	—	—	_____
	Not Likely				Very Likely
b) You think about quitting.	_____	—	—	—	_____
	Not Likely				Very Likely
c) You would think: "A lot of things aren't made very well these days."	_____	—	—	—	_____
	Not Likely				Very Likely
d) You would think: "It was only an accident."	_____	—	—	—	_____
	Not Likely				Very Likely

3. *You are out with friends one evening, and you're feeling especially witty and attractive. Your best friend's spouse seems to particularly enjoy your company.*

a) You would think: "I should have been aware of what my best friend was feeling."	_____	—	—	—	_____
	Not Likely				Very Likely
b) You would feel happy with your appearance and personality.	_____	—	—	—	_____
	Not Likely				Very Likely
c) You would feel pleased to have made such a good impression.	_____	—	—	—	_____
	Not Likely				Very Likely
d) You would think your best friend should pay attention to his/her spouse.	_____	—	—	—	_____
	Not Likely				Very Likely
e) You would probably avoid eye contact for a long time.	_____	—	—	—	_____
	Not Likely				Very Likely

4. *At work, you wait until the last minute to plan a project, and it turns out badly.*

a) You would feel incompetent.	<hr/> Not Likely	—	—	—	<hr/> Very Likely
b) You would think: “There are never enough hours in the day.	<hr/> Not Likely	—	—	—	<hr/> Very Likely
c) You would feel: “I deserve to be reprimanded for mismanaging the project.”	<hr/> Not Likely	—	—	—	<hr/> Very Likely
d) You would think: “What ‘s done is done.”	<hr/> Not Likely	—	—	—	<hr/> Very Likely

5. *You make a mistake at work and find out a coworker is blamed for the error.*

a) You would think the company did not like the coworker.	<hr/> Not Likely	—	—	—	<hr/> Very Likely
b) You would think: “Life is not fair.”	<hr/> Not Likely	—	—	—	<hr/> Very Likely
c) You would keep quiet and avoid the coworker.	<hr/> Not Likely	—	—	—	<hr/> Very Likely
d) You would feel unhappy and eager to correct the situation.	<hr/> Not Likely	—	—	—	<hr/> Very Likely

6. *For several days you put off making a difficult phone call. At the last minute you make the call and are able to manipulate the conversation so that it goes well.*

a) You would think “I guess I’m more persuasive than I thought.”	<hr/> Not Likely	—	—	—	<hr/> Very Likely
b) You would regret that you put it off.	<hr/> Not Likely	—	—	—	<hr/> Very Likely
c) You would feel like a coward.	<hr/> Not Likely	—	—	—	<hr/> Very Likely
d) You would think: “I did a good job.”	<hr/> Not Likely	—	—	—	<hr/> Very Likely
e) You would think you shouldn’t have to make calls you feel pressured into.	<hr/> Not Likely	—	—	—	<hr/> Very Likely

7. *While playing around, you throw a ball and it hits your in the face.*

a) You would feel inadequate that you can't even throw a ball.	_____	—	—	—	_____
	Not Likely				Very Likely
b) You would think maybe your friend needs more practice catching.	_____	—	—	—	_____
	Not Likely				Very Likely
c) You would think: "It was just an accident."	_____	—	—	—	_____
	Not Likely				Very Likely
d) You would apologize and make sure your friend feels better.	_____	—	—	—	_____
	Not Likely				Very Likely

8. *You have recently moved away from your family, and everyone has been very helpful. A few times you needed to borrow money, but you paid back as soon as you could.*

a) You would feel immature.	_____	—	—	—	_____
	Not Likely				Very Likely
b) You would think: "I sure ran into some bad luck."	_____	—	—	—	_____
	Not Likely				Very Likely
c) You would return the favor as quickly as you could.	_____	—	—	—	_____
	Not Likely				Very Likely
d) You would think: "I am a trustworthy person."	_____	—	—	—	_____
	Not Likely				Very Likely
e) You would be proud that you repaid your debts.	_____	—	—	—	_____
	Not Likely				Very Likely

9. *You are driving down the road, and you hit a small animal.*

a) You would think the animal shouldn't have been in the road.	_____	—	—	—	_____
	Not Likely				Very Likely
b) You would think: "I'm terrible."	_____	—	—	—	_____
	Not Likely				Very Likely
c) You would feel: "Well, it was an accident."	_____	—	—	—	_____
	Not Likely				Very Likely
d) You'd feel bad you hadn't been more alert driving down the road.	_____	—	—	—	_____
	Not Likely				Very Likely

10. *You walk out of an exam thinking you did extremely well. Then you find you did poorly.*

- | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|--|
| a) You would think: “Well, it’s just a test.” | <hr style="width: 100px; margin: 0 auto;"/> Not
Likely | — | — | — | <hr style="width: 100px; margin: 0 auto;"/> Very
Likely |
| b) You would think: “The instructor doesn’t like me.” | <hr style="width: 100px; margin: 0 auto;"/> Not
Likely | — | — | — | <hr style="width: 100px; margin: 0 auto;"/> Very
Likely |
| c) You would think: “I should have studied harder.” | <hr style="width: 100px; margin: 0 auto;"/> Not
Likely | — | — | — | <hr style="width: 100px; margin: 0 auto;"/> Very
Likely |
| d) You would feel stupid. | <hr style="width: 100px; margin: 0 auto;"/> Not
Likely | — | — | — | <hr style="width: 100px; margin: 0 auto;"/> Very
Likely |

11. *You and a group of coworkers worked very hard on a project. Your boss singles you out for a bonus because the project was such a success.*

- | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|--|
| a) You would feel the boss is rather short-sighted. | <hr style="width: 100px; margin: 0 auto;"/> Not
Likely | — | — | — | <hr style="width: 100px; margin: 0 auto;"/> Very
Likely |
| b) You would feel alone and apart from your colleagues. | <hr style="width: 100px; margin: 0 auto;"/> Not
Likely | — | — | — | <hr style="width: 100px; margin: 0 auto;"/> Very
Likely |
| c) You would feel your hard work had paid off. | <hr style="width: 100px; margin: 0 auto;"/> Not
Likely | — | — | — | <hr style="width: 100px; margin: 0 auto;"/> Very
Likely |
| d) You would feel competent and proud of yourself. | <hr style="width: 100px; margin: 0 auto;"/> Not
Likely | — | — | — | <hr style="width: 100px; margin: 0 auto;"/> Very
Likely |
| e) You would feel you should not accept it. | <hr style="width: 100px; margin: 0 auto;"/> Not
Likely | — | — | — | <hr style="width: 100px; margin: 0 auto;"/> Very
Likely |

12. *While out with a group of friends, you make fun of a friend who’s not there.*

- | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|--|
| a) You would think: It was all in fun; it’s harmless. | <hr style="width: 100px; margin: 0 auto;"/> Not
Likely | — | — | — | <hr style="width: 100px; margin: 0 auto;"/> Very
Likely |
| b) You would feel small...like a rat. | <hr style="width: 100px; margin: 0 auto;"/> Not
Likely | — | — | — | <hr style="width: 100px; margin: 0 auto;"/> Very
Likely |
| c) You would think that perhaps that friend should have been there to defend him/herself. | <hr style="width: 100px; margin: 0 auto;"/> Not
Likely | — | — | — | <hr style="width: 100px; margin: 0 auto;"/> Very
Likely |
| d) You would apologize and talk about that person’s good points. | <hr style="width: 100px; margin: 0 auto;"/> Not
Likely | — | — | — | <hr style="width: 100px; margin: 0 auto;"/> Very
Likely |

13. *You make a big mistake on an important project at work. People were depending on you, and your boss criticizes you.*

a) You would think your boss should have been more clear about what was expected of you.	————— Not Likely	—	—	—	————— Very Likely
b) You would feel like you wanted to hide.	————— Not Likely	—	—	—	————— Very Likely
c) You would think: “I should have recognized the problem and done a better job.”	————— Not Likely	—	—	—	————— Very Likely
d) You would think: “Well, nobody’s perfect.”	————— Not Likely	—	—	—	————— Very Likely

14. *You volunteer to help with the local Special Olympics for handicapped children. It turns out to be frustrating and time-consuming work. You think seriously about quitting, but then you see how happy the kids are.*

a) You would feel selfish, and you’d think you are basically lazy.	————— Not Likely	—	—	—	————— Very Likely
b) You would feel you were forced into doing something you did not want to do.	————— Not Likely	—	—	—	————— Very Likely
c) You would think: “I should be more concerned about people who are less fortunate.”	————— Not Likely	—	—	—	————— Very Likely
d) You would feel great that you had helped others.	————— Not Likely	—	—	—	————— Very Likely
e) You would feel very satisfied with yourself.	————— Not Likely	—	—	—	————— Very Likely

15. *You are taking care of your friend’s dog while your friend is on vacation, and the dog runs away.*

a) You would think, “I am responsible and incompetent.”	————— Not Likely	—	—	—	————— Very Likely
b) You would think your friend must not take very good care of the dog or it wouldn’t have	————— Not Likely	—	—	—	————— Very Likely

run away.

c) You would vow to be more careful next time.	<hr style="width: 100px; border: 0.5px solid black;"/> Not Likely	—	—	—	<hr style="width: 100px; border: 0.5px solid black;"/> Very Likely
--	---	---	---	---	--

d) You would think your friend could just get a new dog.	<hr style="width: 100px; border: 0.5px solid black;"/> Not Likely	—	—	—	<hr style="width: 100px; border: 0.5px solid black;"/> Very Likely
--	---	---	---	---	--

16. *You attend your coworker's housewarming party and you spill red wine on a new cream-colored carpet, but you think no one notices.*

a) You think your coworker should have expected some accidents at such a big party.	<hr style="width: 100px; border: 0.5px solid black;"/> Not Likely	—	—	—	<hr style="width: 100px; border: 0.5px solid black;"/> Very Likely
---	---	---	---	---	--

b) You would stay late to help clean up the stain after the party.	<hr style="width: 100px; border: 0.5px solid black;"/> Not Likely	—	—	—	<hr style="width: 100px; border: 0.5px solid black;"/> Very Likely
--	---	---	---	---	--

c) You would wish you were anywhere but at the party.	<hr style="width: 100px; border: 0.5px solid black;"/> Not Likely	—	—	—	<hr style="width: 100px; border: 0.5px solid black;"/> Very Likely
---	---	---	---	---	--

d) You would wonder why your coworker chose to serve red wine with the new light carpet.	<hr style="width: 100px; border: 0.5px solid black;"/> Not Likely	—	—	—	<hr style="width: 100px; border: 0.5px solid black;"/> Very Likely
--	---	---	---	---	--

Appendix H

MPQ-BF

In this booklet you will find a series of statements a person might use to describe her/his attitudes, opinions, interests, and other characteristics.

Each statement is followed by two choices, lettered (A) and (B) in the booklet. Read the statement and decide which choice best describes you. Then mark your answer on the answer sheet.

In marking your answers on the answer sheet, be sure that the number of the statement in the booklet is the same as the number on the answer sheet.

Please answer every statement, even if you are not completely sure which answer is right for you.

Read each statement carefully, but don't spend too much time deciding on the answer.

Scale: () True () False

Wellbeing Scale (Brief Form)

1. It is easy for me to become enthusiastic about things I am doing.
2. Every day I do some things that are fun.
3. In my spare time I usually find something interesting to do.
4. I often feel happy and satisfied for no particular reason.
5. I often feel sort of lucky for no special reason.
6. I live a very interesting life.
7. I usually find ways to liven up my day.
8. Most days I have moments of real fun or joy.
9. Every day interesting and exciting things happen to me.
10. For me life is a great adventure.
11. Most mornings the day ahead looks bright to me.
12. I always seem to have something exciting to look forward to.

Stress reactions scale (Brief Form)

1. Often I get irritated at little annoyances.
2. Minor setbacks sometimes irritate me too much.
3. My mood often goes up and down.
4. Occasionally I have strong feelings (like anxiety or anger) without really knowing why.
5. My mood sometimes changes from happy to sad, or sad to happy, without good reason.
6. I suffer from nervousness.
7. I sometimes get very upset and tense as I think of the day's events.
8. There are days when I'm "on edge" all of the time.
9. I am often troubled by guilt feelings.
10. I am too sensitive for my own good.
11. I often find myself worrying about something.
12. I often lose sleep over my worries.

Appendix I

Balanced Attribution Style Questionnaire

Instructions:

Vividly imagine yourself in each of the situations that follow and think about what the major cause of this event would be if the event happened to you. Next, for each situation write down the major cause of the event and rate this cause on each of the four following scales.

Outcome	Type of situation	Order of item	Events
Good	Achievement	2	You start a small business and it's a success.
		3	You apply for a job that you want badly and you get it.
		4	You do very well in a sporting contest.
		7	You score well in a final examination at school, college, or university.
Good	Affiliation	1	You go to a party at which most people are friendly towards you.
		5	You go out on a date and it all goes well.
		6	Someone you know invites you to a party.
		8	A group that you like accepts you as a member.

What might have caused this event? _____

1. **Globality:** Is the cause something that just influences (the event), or does it also influence other areas of your life?
Participants will respond to this item using a scale ranging from 1 (*Influences just this particular situation*) to 7 (*influences all situations in my life*).

Appendix J

Rosenberg Self-esteem Scale

BELOW IS A LIST OF STATEMENTS DEALING WITH YOUR GENERAL FEELINGS ABOUT YOURSELF. IF YOU **STRONGLY AGREE**, CIRCLE **STRONGLY AGREE**. IF YOU **AGREE** WITH THE STATEMENT, CIRCLE **AGREE**. IF YOU **DISAGREE**, CIRCLE **DISAGREE**. IF YOU **STRONGLY DISAGREE**, CIRCLE **STRONGLY DISAGREE**.

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

Appendix K

Narcissistic Personality Inventory

Answer True or False to the following statements.

Leadership/ Authority

1. I see myself as a good leader.
2. I would prefer to be a leader.
3. I really like to be the center of attention.
4. I like having authority over other people.
5. I would be willing to describe myself as a strong personality.
6. I have a natural talent for influencing people.
7. I like to be the center of attention.
8. I am assertive.
9. People always seem to recognize my authority.

Self-absorption/Self-admiration

10. I like to look at my body.
11. I like to look at my self in the mirror.
12. I am an extraordinary person.
13. I like to display my body.
14. I have good taste when it comes to beauty.
15. I think I am a special person.
16. I like to be complimented.
17. I am going to be a great person.
18. I know that I am good because everyone keeps telling me so.

Superiority/Arrogance

19. Everybody likes to hear my stories.
20. I usually dominate any conversation.
21. I can make anybody believe anything.
22. I am a born leader.
23. I can read people like a book.
24. I am apt to show off if I get the chance.
25. People can learn a great deal from me.
26. I always know what I am doing.
27. I can usually talk my way out of anything.
28. Superiority is something you are born with.
29. I would almost do anything on a dare.

Exploitativeness/Entitlement

30. I expect a great deal from other people.
31. I am envious of other people's good fortune.
32. I insist upon getting the respect that is due me.
33. I will never be satisfied until I get all that I deserve.
34. I have a strong will to power.
35. I get upset when people don't notice how I look when I go out in public.
36. I find it easy to manipulate people.
37. I am more capable than other people.

Appendix L

Duration of Pride

Please indicate the duration for which you typically experience the feeling of pride after success.

1. How long does the whole emotion last?

0-5 seconds more than 1
hour

2. How long do the bodily changes last (the bodily change longest duration)?

0-5 seconds more than 1
hour

Appendix M

Satisfaction with Success

The following questions refer to how you experience occasions of success. In answering the following questions, think about how you experience success overall.

1. In general, how satisfied are you with your emotional experience of success?

Very <u> </u> satisfied	Somewhat <u> </u> satisfied	Neither <u> </u> satisfied nor dissatisfied	Somewhat <u> </u> dissatisfied	Very <u> </u> dissatisfied
---------------------------------	-------------------------------------	--	--	------------------------------------

2. In general, how gratifying is the emotional experience of success for you?

Very <u> </u> gratified	Somewhat <u> </u> gratified	Neither <u> </u> gratified nor ungratified	Somewhat <u> </u> ungratified	Very <u> </u> ungratified
---------------------------------	-------------------------------------	---	---------------------------------------	-----------------------------------

3. In general, how satiated (feeling that a need was met) do you feel by the emotional experience of success?

Very <u> </u> satiated	Somewhat <u> </u> satiated	Neither <u> </u> satiated nor unsatiated	Somewhat <u> </u> unsatiated	Very <u> </u> unsatiated
--------------------------------	------------------------------------	---	--------------------------------------	----------------------------------

Appendix N

The Balanced Inventory of Desirable Responding
Impression Management Items

Using the scale below as a guide, mark your response to each statement to indicate how much you agree with it.

Not True
—————
—————
Somewhat
—————
—————
Very True

True

1. I sometimes tell lies if I have to. (R)
2. I never cover up my mistakes.
3. There have been occasions when I have taken advantage of someone. (R)
4. I never swear.
5. I sometimes try to get even rather than forgive and forget. (R)
6. I always obey laws, even if I'm unlikely to get caught.
7. I have said something bad about a friend behind his or her back. (R)
8. When I hear people talking privately, I avoid listening.
9. I have never received too much change from a salesperson without telling him or her. (R)
10. I always declare everything at customs.
11. When I was young I sometimes stole things. (R)
12. I have never dropped litter on the street.
13. I sometimes drive faster than the speed limit. (R)
14. I never read sexy books or magazines.
15. I have done things that I don't tell other people about. (R)
16. I never take things that I don't belong to me.
17. I have taken sick-leave from work or school even though I wasn't really sick. (R)
18. I have never damaged a library book or store merchandise without reporting it.
19. I have some pretty awful habits. (R)
20. I don't gossip about other people's business.

(R) Denotes items that are reverse coded.

Appendix O

Demographics

Please indicate your gender:

1. Male
2. Female

Please indicate your age:

_____ years old

Please indicate your current employment status:

1. full-time
2. part-time
3. currently not working

What is your level of understanding English? (Please circle the correct answer)

1. English is my first language and I am fluent in it - I understand everything that I read
2. English is not my first language but I am fluent in it - I understand everything that I read
3. English is not my first language but I understand most of the things I read
4. English is not my first language and my understanding of English is not very good - there are many _____ words I do not understand or know

What is your race? (Please circle the correct answer)

1. Caucasian
2. African American
3. Asian
4. Hispanic/Latino
5. Native American
6. Pacific Islander
7. Other

If you have answered "other" to the previous question, please

specify: _____

What is your country of origin? (please write): _____

How long have you lived in the USA? (Please circle the correct answer)

1. Since birth
2. Less than a year
3. Between 1 and 2 years
4. Between 2 and 3 years
5. Between 3 and 4 years
6. Between 4 and 5 years
7. Between 5 and 6 years
8. Between 6 and 7 years
9. Between 7 and 8 years
10. Between 8 and 9 years
11. Between 9 and 10 years
12. More than 10 years

Appendix P

Intentions Measure

Modified Items (to be used in this study)

The following items refer to your intentions to study for your Introduction to Psychology class in a typical week.

1. Please express the likelihood that you intend to study for your introduction to psychology class more than 1 hour per day in a typical week.

Unlikely _____ Likely

2. I plan to study for more than 1 hour per day in a typical week for my introduction to psychology class

False _____ True

Original Items

1. Please express the likelihood that you intend to study for more than 4 hours per day in the next 7 days.

Unlikely _____ Likely

2. I plan to study for more than 4 hours per day in the next 7 days

False _____ True

Appendix Q

Grade Goals

The following questions ask you about the grade goals you have for your Psychology 1001 class.

Indicate the grade that you hope to receive in your Psychology 1001 class.

\overline{A} $\overline{A-}$ $\overline{B+}$ \overline{B} $\overline{B-}$ $\overline{C+}$ \overline{C} $\overline{C-}$ $\overline{D+}$ \overline{D} $\overline{D-}$

Indicate the grade that you expect to receive in your Psychology 1001 class.

\overline{A} $\overline{A-}$ $\overline{B+}$ \overline{B} $\overline{B-}$ $\overline{C+}$ \overline{C} $\overline{C-}$ $\overline{D+}$ \overline{D} $\overline{D-}$

Indicate the grade that you would find minimally satisfying in your Psychology 1001 class.

\overline{A} $\overline{A-}$ $\overline{B+}$ \overline{B} $\overline{B-}$ $\overline{C+}$ \overline{C} $\overline{C-}$ $\overline{D+}$ \overline{D} $\overline{D-}$

Indicate the grade that you are actually trying for in your Psychology 1001 class.

\overline{A} $\overline{A-}$ $\overline{B+}$ \overline{B} $\overline{B-}$ $\overline{C+}$ \overline{C} $\overline{C-}$ $\overline{D+}$ \overline{D} $\overline{D-}$

What is your grade goal for the Psychology 1001 class?

\overline{A} $\overline{A-}$ $\overline{B+}$ \overline{B} $\overline{B-}$ $\overline{C+}$ \overline{C} $\overline{C-}$ $\overline{D+}$ \overline{D} $\overline{D-}$

Appendix R

Items for Revised Scenario Based Measures of Proneness to Pride and Proneness to

Hubris

1. *You volunteer at a center for kids with terminal illnesses. Spending so much time with terminal children has been emotionally draining. One day a parent comes up to you and informs you that their child looks forward to seeing you everyday at the center.*

a) You would think about quitting. (Distracter)	—————	—	—	—	—————
	Not Likely				Very Likely
b) You would think: “I am a caring person.” (hubris)	—————	—	—	—	—————
	Not Likely				Very Likely
c) You would be proud that you spent your time helping others. (pride)	—————	—	—	—	—————
	Not Likely				Very Likely
d) You would wish you could make the kid well. (Distracter)	—————	—	—	—	—————
	Not Likely				Very Likely

2. *You feel very strongly that a proposed new law your city is trying to pass is unfair. You attend several city counsel meetings to try and raise awareness of the negative aspects of the new law. After several months of talking to people, the people vote down the law.*

a) You would think: “Democracy works.” (Distracter)	—————	—	—	—	—————
	Not Likely				Very Likely
b) You would wonder why they even considered the law. (Distracter)	—————	—	—	—	—————
	Not Likely				Very Likely
c) You would feel pleased to have gotten the law repealed. (pride)	—————	—	—	—	—————
	Not Likely				Very Likely
d) You would think: “I must be a good political organizer.” (hubris)	—————	—	—	—	—————
	Not Likely				Very Likely

3. *You apply for a competitive job you really want with a prestigious company. Later you find out they were impressed with your interview and you got the job.*

a) You would think about how to tell your employer that you found a new job. (Distracter)	_____	—	—	—	_____
	Not Likely				Very Likely
b) You would think that it is pretty much just luck that you got the job. (Distracter)	_____	—	—	—	_____
	Not Likely				Very Likely
c) You would feel satisfied with the effort you put into your career. (Pride)	_____	—	—	—	_____
	Not Likely				Very Likely
d) You would boast to everyone about the new job. (Hubris)	_____	—	—	—	_____
	Not Likely				Very Likely

4. *You have recently moved to a new city and have been trying to make friends. It has been difficult to do. One night you were out with some new friends and they start talking about how you are very funny and enjoyable to be with.*

a) You would think: "I am a very entertaining person." (hubris)	_____	—	—	—	_____
	Not Likely				Very Likely
b) You would feel glad that you make your new friends laugh. (pride)	_____	—	—	—	_____
	Not Likely				Very Likely
c) You would think it was good fortune to meet some nice people. (Distracter)	_____	—	—	—	_____
	Not Likely				Very Likely
d) You would think about your friends where you used to live. (Distracter)	_____	—	—	—	_____
	Not Likely				Very Likely

5. *While playing a basketball game with your friends, you make a difficult basket at the last second and win the game for your team.*

a) You would think: "I hope my friends notice what a great ball player I am." (hubris)	_____	—	—	—	_____
	Not Likely				Very Likely
b) You would think: "It was a lucky shot." (Distracter)	_____	—	—	—	_____
	Not Likely				Very Likely
c) You would feel relieved that you didn't miss the basket. (Distracter)	_____	—	—	—	_____
	Not Likely				Very Likely
d) You would feel proud you made the shot (pride).	_____	—	—	—	_____
	Not				Very

Likely

Likely

6. *You decide to change careers and go back to school for new training. It is difficult to manage work and the additional training. In time, you graduate and receive a job offer in your new career.*

a) You feel proud of what you have done. (pride)	_____	—	—	—	_____
	Not Likely				Very Likely
b) You worry about whether you made the right decision. (Distracter)	_____	—	—	—	_____
	Not Likely				Very Likely
c) You would think everyone should notice what you accomplished. (hubris)	_____	—	—	—	_____
	Not Likely				Very Likely
d) You would think that you couldn't have done it without help from your friends and family. (Distracter)	_____	—	—	—	_____
	Not Likely				Very Likely

Chapter 8

References

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