

**EMOTION REGULATION AND RELIGIOSITY: A REPEATED
MEASURES APPROACH**

by

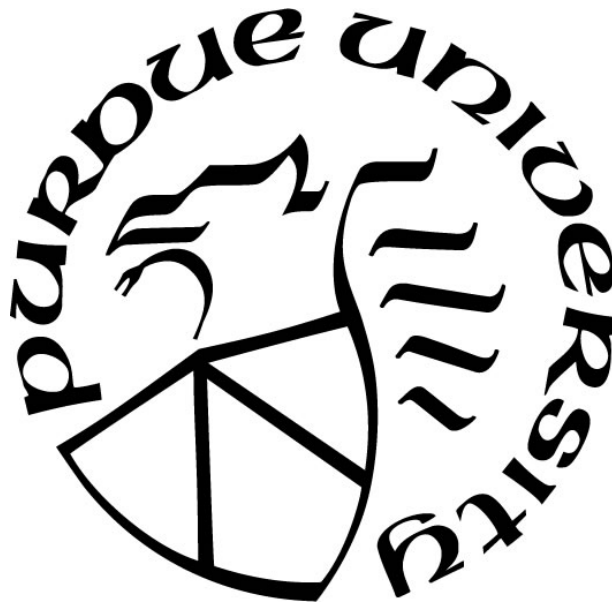
Alison M. Haney

A Dissertation

Submitted to the Faculty of Purdue University

In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy



Department of Psychological Sciences

West Lafayette, Indiana

August 2019

THE PURDUE UNIVERSITY GRADUATE SCHOOL
STATEMENT OF COMMITTEE APPROVAL

Dr. David Rollock, Chair

Department of Psychological Sciences

Dr. Sean P. Lane

Department of Psychological Sciences

Dr. Donald R. Lynam

Department of Psychological Sciences

Dr. Thomas S. Redick

Department of Psychological Sciences

Approved by:

Dr. David Rollock

Head of the Graduate Program

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I dedicate this dissertation to my advisor, my chief science officer, my champion of a mentor Dr. David Rollock. You are a beacon of light to those around you and I count myself incredibly fortunate to have had you as a lamp unto my feet through my graduate education. You have shown me what it means to be humble yet self-assured, kind but never acquiescing to injustice, and hardworking while always making time for others. I will spend the entirety of my academic career trying to pay forward the knowledge and opportunities you have given me.

Science moves forward by standing on the shoulders of giants, and dissertations are completed by standing on the shoulders of those who love you most. To my family, I offer my gratitude for your unwavering and fierce support. I hope someday to have my father's steadfastness, my mother's empathy, Sean's loyalty, Kathleen's hospitality, and Charlotte's bravery. Every time my cup has been empty you have filled it and given me a travel mug for good measure.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES	6
ABSTRACT	7
INTRODUCTION	9
Religion and Emotions	9
Religiosity, Religious Coping, and Emotion Regulation	10
Dynamic Measurement and Emotional Inertia	12
Present Study	14
Hypotheses	14
Hypothesis 1A.	15
Hypothesis 1B.	15
Hypothesis 2A.	15
Hypothesis 2B.	15
Hypothesis 2C.	16
METHOD	17
Participants.	17
Procedure	17
Instruments.	18
Duke Religion Index.	18
Brief RCOPE	18
Difficulties in Emotion Regulation Scale	19
Positive and Negative Affect Scales.	19
Demographics	19
ANALYTIC PLAN	20
Reliability of Daily Measures of Religiosity and Religious Coping	20
Generalizability Theory With the DUREL and RCOPE	23
Repeated Measures Correlations	23
Modeling Associations at Distinct Time Intervals	24
Emotional Inertia	25
RESULTS	27

Reliability of Measures of Religiosity and Religious Coping	27
Variance Composition of the DUREL and RCOPE.	27
Reliability of the DUREL and RCOPE.	28
Associations Among Religiosity, Religious Coping, and Emotions	29
Difficulties in Emotion Regulation	30
Positive Affect.	30
Negative Affect	31
Emotional Inertia	31
False Discovery Rate <i>p</i> -Value Corrections	31
DISCUSSION.	33
Reliability of Daily Measures of Religiosity and Religious Coping	33
Associations Among Religiosity, Religious Coping, and Affect	34
Positive Affect.	34
Negative Affect	35
Associations Among Religiosity, Religious Coping, and Emotion	
Regulation	36
Difficulties in Emotion Regulation	36
Emotional Inertia	37
Summary	37
Limitations and Future Directions	38
Recommendations	39
LIST OF REFERENCES	40
APPENDIX A.	49

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Sample Characteristics	49
Table 2: Means and Standard Deviations	51
Table 3: Variance Partitioning of the Duke Religion Index (DUREL).	52
Table 4: Variance Partitioning of Positive Religious Coping (RCOPE)	53
Table 5: Variance Partitioning of Negative Religious Coping (RCOPE)	54
Table 6: Duke Religion Index D Study Estimates	55
Table 7: Positive Religious Coping (RCOPE) D Study Estimates	55
Table 8: Negative Religious Coping (RCOPE) D Study Estimates.	56
Table 9: Repeated Measures Correlations	56
Table 10: Fixed Effect Estimates of Daily Difficulties in Emotion Regulation	57
Table 11: Fixed Effect Estimates of Daily Positive Affect.	58
Table 12: Fixed Effect Estimates of Daily Negative Affect	59
Table 13: Fixed Effect Estimates of Negative Affect Inertia	60
Table 14: Fixed Effect Estimates of Positive Affect Inertia	61
Table 15: False Discover Rate p-Value Adjustments Using Benjamini-Hockberg Procedure.	62

ABSTRACT

Author: Haney, Alison M. PhD

Institution: Purdue University

Degree Received: August 2019

Title: Emotion Regulation and Religiosity: A Repeated Measures Approach

Committee Chair: David Rollock

Religious faith has been identified as a protective factor against negative psychological outcomes and is associated with a range of positive mental and physical health outcomes. While religion is thought to confer psychological benefits to believers in part by enhancing emotion regulation abilities and providing faith-based regulatory methods such as religious coping, these associations have not been examined empirically. This may be due to a lack of measures that are appropriate for use in repeated measures contexts, which are needed for accurate assessment of dynamic constructs such as emotions and regulation. This study employed generalizability theory in a sample ($N = 146$) collected in daily diary format over 21 days to determine the reliability of commonly used measures of religiosity and religious coping at the daily level. Once reliability was established, varying time scales were used in a multilevel modeling framework to examine the associations among intrinsic religiosity, religious coping, positive and negative affect, and difficulties in emotion regulation. Positive religious coping (PRC) measured at baseline, same day, and a 1-day lag was associated with higher levels of daily positive affect, though PRC was also associated with negative affect when measured on the same day. Negative religious coping (NRC) measured at baseline predicted lower levels of daily positive affect and was associated with higher levels of negative affect when measured on the same day and a 1-day lag. NRC was also associated with higher levels of difficulties in emotion regulation at all measurement periods, though PRC and intrinsic religiosity were not significantly associated with emotion regulation difficulties. While not associated with daily positive or negative affect, intrinsic religiosity was found to enhance the effect of positive affect inertia. These results did not support the conceptualization that religiosity broadly promotes adaptive emotion regulation, but rather that intrinsic religiosity may increase positive

affect by amplifying the effects of positive affect inertia. Additional work is needed with increased measurement occasions to fully understand the temporal associations among these constructs.

INTRODUCTION

Involvement in religion has been associated with positive psychological states and has been shown to buffer against stress and protect against negative psychological states (Hood, Hill, & Spilka, 2009). These benefits appear among those who maintain regular religious and spiritual practices, regardless of the formal content of spiritual belief structures (Hackney & Sanders, 2003). Several mechanisms have been proposed to explain how religiosity may improve mental and physical health outcomes, including use of positive religious coping (e.g., turning to the divine for help) to manage distress, reduction in existential uncertainty, and participation in religious rituals that may activate self-monitoring and regulation (McCullough & Willoughby, 2009; Monteiro, 2015; Pargament, Magyar-Russell, & Murray-Swank, 2005). Religiosity is also associated with adaptive physiological responses to stress, such as maintaining diurnal cortisol rhythms (Dedert et al., 2004). While religiosity may confer mental health benefits in part by promoting adaptive self-regulation, it remains unclear whether - and to what extent - religiosity and its expected benefits fluctuate with daily emotional experiences.

Religion and Emotions

Emotions play an important role in religious experience (Emmons, 2005). Religious activities can elicit powerful emotions (Watts, 1996), but religiosity also influences emotional goals outside of religious contexts. Religion shapes emotional goals, or desired emotional states (Mauss & Tamir, 2014), by defining which emotions are desirable. In a religious context, emotions are considered desirable if they reaffirm religious values (Vishkin, Bigman, & Tamir, 2014). For example, while many religions discourage the emotion of hatred, hatred of people or systems in contrast with a

theological viewpoint is supported in some religious faiths (Cohen, Malka, Rozin, & Chermas, 2006). Guilt may be considered a negative emotion broadly, but can be considered desirable in a religious context if that guilt promotes corrective religious action (Geyer & Baumeister, 2005). However, in the absence of corrective action, religious faith may perpetuate negative feelings of guilt for religious adherents.

More typically, religions encourage positive emotion goals (Van Cappellen & Rimé, 2013) so long as positive emotions are not experienced while participating in religiously incongruent activities. Many religions prescribe the emotion of joy in response to religious experience, though others discourage immoderate joy (Vishkin et al., 2014). Common to much of religious faith is the experience of awe (Haidt, 2004), an emotion elicited in reaction to something perceived to be extraordinary or beyond the scope of one's comprehension, which requires adjusting mental constructions to accommodate the experience (Keltner & Haidt, 2003). Individuals prone to experiences of awe, such as that experienced by religious individuals in response to the divine, tend to be more willing to revise their mental representations of the world (Shiota, Keltner, & Mossman, 2007). Another positive emotional experience common to religious faith is gratitude (Emmons & Crumpler, 2000; Schimmel, 2004). Gratitude is positively correlated with religiosity (McCullough, Emmons, & Tsang, 2002) and may foster prosocial actions that lead to increased social and emotional support.

Religiosity, Religious Coping, and Emotion Regulation

In addition to defining desirable emotional goals, religion may influence how adherents achieve those goals, inform beliefs about the malleability of emotions, and promote self-regulation (Vishkin et al., 2014). Through use of religious practices or

coping techniques, believers can intentionally manage negative emotions or maintain positive ones (Joshani, 2019). Religious coping, which has been conceptualized as something distinct from overall religiosity (Pargament, Feuille, & Burdzy, 2011; Pargament, Smith, Koenig, & Perez, 1998), is often considered a form of self-regulation, particularly in the context of emotions. In addition to positive religious coping, which is typically associated with positive mental and physical health outcomes (Idler et al., 2003; Lee, Nezu, & Nezu, 2014), religious individuals may also employ negative religious coping (e.g., feeling abandoned by a higher power, believing an evil force is causing harm). Negative religious coping is associated with higher levels of depression, posttraumatic stress, and other negative outcomes, even among individuals who do not identify as religious (Gerber, Boals, & Schuettler, 2011; Lee, Choi, & Ryu, 2019).

Emotion regulation is a form of self-regulation and involves a person's ability to change his or her emotional state, typically in a more positively valenced direction (Gross, 2014). Individuals use different strategies to influence their emotional state, with degrees of efficacy. Many religions prescribe specific regulatory strategies, such as religious coping, and these strategies appear to be effective in response to major life stressors such as loss of a spouse or significant illness (Smith, McCullough, & Poll, 2003). However, emotion regulation can occur in the context of more mild stressors or in the absence of stress as a method of maintaining positive mood states (Gross, 2014).

Religious belief is also thought to act as a regulatory force by providing a schema for believers to evaluate emotions and interpret stressful events. Religious individuals may be particularly adept at employing cognitive reappraisal strategies, which involve changing the meaning or conceptualization of an emotional event (Gross & John, 2003)

leading to increased positive affect and decreased negative affect (McRae, Ciesielski, & Gross, 2012). Religiosity may facilitate increased cognitive reappraisal ability, as meaning-making and value-consistent appraisal of life events is a core feature of religious life in many faiths (Davies, 2011; Pargament, 1996). Religious faith can address existential concerns (Routledge, Roylance, & Abeyta, 2017), providing robust schemas through which to reappraise negative life events. Religions also frequently sanctify the concept of suffering, which can lead to increased positive affect even in the absence of intentional reappraisal strategies (Hall & Johnson, 2001). However, many religions simultaneously promote context-specific emotional or expressive suppression (e.g., sexual abstinence), which is a relatively less effective emotion regulation strategy (Webb, Miles, & Sheeran, 2012).

While religiosity may increase an individual's ability to employ emotion regulation strategies such as reappraisal or suppression, it is unclear whether specific aspects of religious life (e.g., meditative prayer, external locus of control) operate as forms of intentional emotion regulation for religious adherents. Though religious coping is often conceptualized as a method by which religious people modulate their affect in response to stress (Pargament et al., 2011), extant literature has not empirically examined whether religious coping operates in a similar fashion to other emotion regulation strategies in daily life.

Dynamic Measurement and Emotional Inertia

If religiosity confers emotional benefits due to religious coping operating as a form of daily emotion regulation, it is important to understand these regulatory processes in the context of daily life. Mean level estimates of regulatory or coping habits may not

accurately capture daily fluctuations in coping strategies or frequency of regulatory attempts (Schwarz, 2012). Examining covariation between two constructs, such as religiosity and emotion regulation, is best assessed with real-time data capture. Emotional states are often fleeting, and experience sampling techniques minimize retrospective bias by asking individuals to report on emotional states while introspection is still possible (Schwarz, 2012).

Use of dynamic measurement techniques also allows for capturing affective dynamics such as emotional inertia (Trull, Lane, Koval, & Ebner-Priemer, 2015). Emotional inertia refers to the degree to which emotional states are resistant to change (Bernstein, Curtiss, Wu, Barreira, & McNally, 2019). This is a useful supplement to self-reported difficulty in emotion regulation, as greater temporal dependency of affective states may represent a difficulty in changing affect or a general inflexibility of emotional states (Hollenstein, 2015). While an individual may have difficulty recognizing specific difficulties in his or her emotion regulation abilities, using self-reported affect ratings to calculate emotional inertia provides additional information that may reflect a failure to change affect. Negative affect inertia is associated with negative clinical outcomes, and may predict future mood disorder episodes, such as major depressive disorder (Kuppens et al., 2015).

While religion is hypothesized to promote regulation of such emotional states and therefore promote well-being, extant research has not examined this in a repeated measures framework. The RCOPE (Pargament et al., 2011) has become the most widely used measure of religious coping, and the second most commonly used measure of coping in the psychological literature (Kato, 2013). However, neither the RCOPE or the

most commonly used measure of religiosity, the Duke Religion Index (DUREL; Koenig & Büssing, 2010) have been validated for use in daily diary or ESM studies. If these measures can be reliably used in a repeated measures framework, researchers examining the role of religiosity in mental health will be able to more fully understand the associations among religious coping and moment-to-moment emotional well-being, rather than simply examining mean levels reported by subjects in cross-sectional studies.

Present Study

This study examined religiosity and positive and negative religious coping alongside affect (positive and negative) and emotion regulation difficulties in a daily diary context. First, the RCOPE and the DUREL were assessed for their reliability for use at the daily level to determine if these measures can be meaningfully used alongside daily measures of affect and regulation. Associations among religiosity, religious coping, affect, and regulation were then assessed at distinct time intervals. Measurement times included a baseline estimate to assess overall levels of religiosity and religious coping, and to determine if these constructs predict affect and regulation over time. Associations were also examined with religiosity and religious coping measured on the same day as affect and regulation, and one day before, to determine whether daily reports of subjective religiosity and religious coping were associated with changes in affect and regulation.

Hypotheses

Based on the aforementioned, the following hypotheses were proposed.

Hypothesis 1A

The Duke Religion Index will show adequate reliability at the daily level. Intrinsic religiosity is expected to be relatively stable across time, such that the reliability of the DUREL will not be influenced by the treatment of time as fixed (same day) or random (different days).

Hypothesis 1B

The RCOPE positive religious coping and negative religious coping scales will show adequate reliability at the daily level. However, both subscales are expected to vary across days. Reliability estimates for the RCOPE will be influenced by the treatment of time as fixed compared to random, such that reliability will be lower when time is random.

Hypothesis 2A

Higher levels of positive religious coping will predict higher levels of positive affect and lower levels of negative affect, and negative religious coping will show the opposite pattern. These patterns are expected when measuring religious coping at baseline and at a 1-day lag, though results for positive religious coping and negative affect may be non-significant (or reversed) when measured on the same day. Increased positive religious coping may be in response to same-day negative affective experiences, and this cannot be disentangled at the daily level. Higher levels of intrinsic religiosity will predict higher levels of positive affect, and lower levels of negative affect.

Hypothesis 2B

Higher levels of negative religious coping will predict more difficulties in emotion regulation, and higher levels of positive religious coping will predict fewer

difficulties. Similar to hypothesis 2A, when measured on the same day, positive religious coping may predict higher levels of difficulties in emotion regulation, as religious coping may be leveraged when other regulatory methods are perceived to be ineffective. Higher levels of intrinsic religiosity will be associated with fewer difficulties in emotion regulation across all measurement occasions.

Hypothesis 2C

Higher levels of positive religious coping will be associated with increased inertia in positive affect and decreased inertia in negative affect. Conversely, higher levels of negative religious coping will be associated with decreased inertia in positive affect and increased inertia in negative affect. Intrinsic religiosity will be associated with higher levels of positive affect inertia, and lower levels of negative affect inertia.

METHOD

Participants

Participants ($N = 147$) were recruited at a large public university in the Midwestern United States. Participation was open to any student over the age of 18 in exchange for course credit. Most participants identified as European American (76%), with approximately 14% identifying as East Asian, 7% as Hispanic/Latino, 5% as South Asian, and 4% as African American. More than half of participants were men (65%), and the majority of participants identified their sexual orientation as “straight” (87%). Participants were aged 18-26, with a mean age of 19.5. The most common religious affiliation was Christian (61%; 31% Protestant, 27% Catholic, and 3% “Other”), followed by 23% “unaffiliated”, and 12% identified as either Atheist or Agnostic. In total approximately 65% of the sample reported that they belonged to a religious affiliation, and 35% reported that they did not belong to any religious tradition.

Procedure

At baseline, each participant came for a 1-hour orientation session, during which time he or she completed a 45-minute baseline survey and participated in a 15-minute orientation, given information about the study format, and registered for daily surveys. All orientation sessions took place within a 3-week time frame. Starting the day after the participant completed the orientation and baseline survey, the participant completed short daily surveys in the evening for the subsequent 21 days. These daily surveys were administered electronically and could be completed in any location. All participants were instructed to complete the survey at the end of their day before going to bed and received a prompt each day at 8:00 p.m. Eastern time. Surveys could be completed between 8:00

p.m. and 2:00 a.m. Response rates for daily surveys were excellent, with an average response rate of 17.47 surveys (83%).

Instruments

Duke Religion Index

The Duke Religion Index (DUREL; Koenig & Büssing, 2010) is a five-item self-report measure frequently used in epidemiological research, which captures three dimensions of religiosity: organizational (i.e., participation in religious activities; scale from 1 = “never” to 6 = “more than once/week”), non-organizational (i.e., private religious practice; scale from 1 = “never” to 6 = “more than once/week”), and subjective or intrinsic religiosity (i.e., personal religious commitment and motivation; scale from 1 = “definitely not true” to 5 = “definitely true of me”). This scale was developed for use in predicting psychiatric outcomes and was designed to apply across various faith traditions. The DUREL has a Cronbach’s alpha of 0.91.

Brief RCOPE

The Brief RCOPE (RCOPE; Pargament et al., 2011) is a 14-item measure of religious coping, which assesses the degree to which an individual utilizes positive religious coping (7 items, such as “I focused on religion to stop worrying about my problems”) and negative religious coping (7 items, such as “I wondered what I did for God/the divine to punish me”) on a scale from 1 = “not at all” to 4 = “a great deal”. This short version of the full 104-item RCOPE contains two of the original measure’s 21 subscales. The positive religious coping scale has a reported Cronbach’s alpha of 0.92, and the negative religious coping scale has a Cronbach’s alpha of 0.81.

Difficulties in Emotion Regulation Scale

The Difficulties in Emotion Regulation Scale – Short Form (DERS-SF; Kaufman et al., 2016) is an 18-item measure of 6 facets of emotion regulation: awareness, clarity, goals, impulse, nonacceptance, and strategies. This is a short version of the original 36-item measure (Gratz & Roemer, 2004). Items (e.g., “I am confused about how I feel”) are rated on a scale from 1 = “almost never/0-10%” to 5 = “almost always/91-100%”. The DERS-SF has a Cronbach’s alpha of 0.94.

Positive and Negative Affect Scales

The International Positive and Negative Affect Scales – Short Form (I-PANAS-SF; Thompson, 2007) is a 10-item measure of positive and negative mood states. This measure was derived from the original 20-item PANAS (Crawford & Henry, 2004), and validated using respondents from a range of cultural backgrounds. Respondents are shown a list of affective states (e.g. “alert”, “hostile”) and indicate the degree to which they are feeling that particular emotion on a scale from 1 = “not at all” to 5 = “extremely”. The positive affect scale has a Cronbach’s alpha of 0.86-0.90, and the negative affect scale has a Cronbach’s alpha of 0.84-0.87.

Demographics

Demographic information, including age, gender, ethnicity, sexual orientation, psychological service utilization, and religious affiliation, was collected. For both ethnicity and religious affiliation, participants first selected an option from a list, then were prompted to specify further in an open response format (e.g., if a participant identified as Christian - Protestant, they could specify that they were Methodist in the open response question).

ANALYTIC PLAN

Participants that responded on time to fewer than 10 of the 21 prompts were excluded from analyses, resulting in a remaining sample of 146 participants (1 participant excluded). Of a possible 3,066 daily responses (21 days, 146 participants), 367 were missing (i.e., not submitted), and 71 were excluded for being submitted after the 2:00am deadline. This resulted in 2,628 included daily surveys, and 146 included baseline surveys. Variables were assessed for normality, and independent variables were mean centered prior to conducting analyses. Means and standard deviations are reported in Table 2.

Reliability of Daily Measures of Religiosity and Religious Coping

While measures such as the PANAS and DERS have frequently been used in repeated measures research, common measures of religiosity and religious coping have not been validated for use in daily diary contexts. To determine whether daily measures of religiosity and religious coping (DUREL, RCOPE) could be used reliably, generalizability theory was employed. Generalizability theory is a statistical framework for evaluating the reliability of behavioral measures (Shavelson & Webb, 2006). Generalizability theory is an expansion of classical test theory that acknowledges variance in an observed score comes from multiple sources (Cronbach, Gleser, Nanda, & Rajaratnam, 1972). While classical test theory considers a single source of variance, generalizability theory allows simultaneous consideration of between-person, within-person, and error variance (Shrout & Lane, 2011).

The first goal when using generalizability theory is to estimate potential sources of variance in observed scores by computing linear combinations of analysis of variance (ANOVA) mean squares (Shavelson & Webb, 2006). These analyses are commonly referred to as a “G study.” As this study was conducted in a daily diary format, variance decomposition for each measure was based on a three-way, crossed, analysis of variance model (subject by day¹ by item). As replicate measures of each item at each time were not collected, the three-way interaction is combined with the error term. The variance decomposition model employed is represented in Equation 1 using the DUREL as an example, such that $\sigma^2(\text{DUREL})$ represents the measure of the i th item for the j th person at the k th timepoint (DUREL_{ijk}). Resulting generalizability estimates represent a raw proportion of the total variance accounted for by each included parameter. Results from these analyses will show the relative contribution of subject, item, and day to the variance in scores for each religiosity measure.

(1) Example GT variance decomposition model for the DUREL

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma^2(\text{DUREL}) = & \sigma^2(\text{Subject}) + \sigma^2(\text{Day}) + \sigma^2(\text{Item}) \\ & + \sigma^2(\text{Subject} * \text{Day}) + \sigma^2(\text{Subject} * \text{Item}) \\ & + \sigma^2(\text{Day} * \text{Item}) + \sigma^2(\text{Religion}) \\ & + \sigma^2(\text{Subject} * \text{Day} * \text{Item}, \text{error})\end{aligned}$$

A second analytic technique in generalizability theory is commonly referred to as a “D study” or decision study. Using the framework presented by Cranford and colleagues (2006), a series of reliability estimates will be computed from the variance

¹Several methods of modeling time were tested, including survey number (1-21), day of week (Monday-Sunday), and date (mm/dd/yyyy) of survey. As results of generalizability theory analyses did not significantly differ between survey number and date, “day” represents the date a participant took a survey.

components produced from the G study. Four estimates of reliability ($R1f$, $R1r$, Rkf , and Rc ; see equations 2-5) will be computed for each scale to determine whether the scales can be reliably used as daily measures (Cranford et al., 2006). The results of these analyses are interpreted similarly to reliability in classical test theory, such that values above .7 are acceptable, above .8 are considered good, and above .9 are excellent.

Equation 2-5: D-Study Generalizability Coefficients

Note: m = number of items, k = number of days

(2) $R1f$: Reliability on a single fixed day

$$R1f = \frac{\sigma_{Subject}^2 + \frac{\sigma_{Subject*Item}^2}{m}}{\sigma_{Subject}^2 + \frac{\sigma_{Subject*Item}^2}{m} + \frac{\sigma_{Residual}^2}{m}}$$

(3) $R1r$: Reliability on a single random day

$$R1r = \frac{\sigma_{Subject}^2 + \frac{\sigma_{Subject*Item}^2}{m}}{\sigma_{Subject}^2 + \frac{\sigma_{Subject*Item}^2}{m} + \sigma_{Day}^2 + \sigma_{Day*Item}^2 + \frac{\sigma_{Residual}^2}{m}}$$

(4) Rkf : Reliability for average over k fixed days

$$Rkf = \frac{\sigma_{Subject}^2 + \frac{\sigma_{Subject*Item}^2}{m}}{\sigma_{Subject}^2 + \frac{\sigma_{Subject*Item}^2}{m} + \frac{\sigma_{Residual}^2}{m * k}}$$

(5) Rc : Reliability of change over a fixed time period

$$Rc = \frac{\sigma_{Subject*Day}^2}{\sigma_{Subject*Day}^2 + \left(\frac{\sigma_{Residual}^2}{m} \right)}$$

Generalizability Theory With the DUREL and RCOPE

Generalizability coefficients and reliability estimates were computed for the DUREL intrinsic religiosity² subscale (also called the “subjective religiosity” scale) using the entire sample, as religiosity is thought to be a dimensional construct applicable to those from non-religious backgrounds and religious backgrounds, such that non-religious persons would likely have lower scores on the DUREL than religious persons (Koenig & Büssing, 2010). The RCOPE has two subscales, and estimates were computed separately for positive religious coping and negative religious coping. In addition to computing these estimates for the RCOPE in the sample as a whole, analyses were also conducted separately on religious and non-religious subjects. This accounts for systematic differences in responding to religious coping items that can occur between religious and non-religious individuals. For example, this construct may be more relevant to religious individuals, or more prone to measurement error in non-religious individuals (Pargament, Koenig, & Perez, 2000). Generalizability coefficients and reliability estimates were computed using R (R Development Core Team, 2017) with the package lme4 (Bates, Maechler, Bolker, & Walker, 2015).

Repeated Measures Correlations

To determine the overall level of correlation among measures of religiosity, religious coping, emotion dysregulation, and mood, repeated measures correlations were computed for descriptive purposes. Correlations were computed for each measure subscale separately first for the sample as a whole, and then for religious and non-religious participants separately. Repeated measures correlations were computed using

²The Organizational Religiosity and Non-Organizational Religiosity subscales are comprised of one item each and were therefore not examined in a generalizability theory framework.

the rmcrr package (Bakdash & Marusich, 2018). Equation 6 represents the method of computing these correlations, such that $Measure1_{ij}$ is value of $Measure1$ for the i th participant at time j , $\overline{Measure2_i}$ is the mean of $Measure2$ for the i th participant, $Participant_i$ is a unique identifier for each subject, $c(Measure2_i)$ is the covariate for the i th participant, and ε_{ij} is the error for the i th participant at time j .

(6) Repeated measures correlation estimate

$$Measure1_{ij} = \overline{Measure2_i} + Participant_i + c(Measure2_i) + \varepsilon_{ij}$$

Modeling Associations at Distinct Time Intervals

A series of multilevel models were conducted to characterize how religiosity and religious coping are associated with emotion regulation difficulties and mood (both positive and negative affect). Daily measures of the DERS (full scale), PANAS positive affect, and PANAS negative affect were each used as dependent variables in separate models. Independent variables included negative religious coping (RCOPE), positive religious coping (RCOPE), and intrinsic religiosity (DUREL) as fixed effects. Subject, day of week, and religious affiliation were included as random effects. While dependent variables were always at the day level in each model, independent variables were first computed using baseline estimates, then with same-day estimates (time), and finally with estimates from a 1-day lag (time – 1). Conceptual models for each timeframe are presented in equations 7-9 using positive affect as an example dependent variable. To examine the potential impact of running multiple tests, the Benjamini-Hochburg procedure was used to adjust p-values (Benjamini & Hochburg, 1995). This procedure controls for false discovery rate, or the expected proportion of falsely rejected

hypotheses. A “family” of tests was defined as independent tests using the same dependent variable (e.g., negative affect). Multilevel models were computed using the lme4 (Bates et al., 2015) and lmerTest (Kuznetsova, Brockhoff, & Christensen, 2017) packages in R.

(7) Baseline Model for Positive Affect

$$\text{Positive Affect (Day)} = b_0 (\text{Intercept}) + b_1 (\text{Baseline Negative Religious Coping}) + b_2 (\text{Baseline Positive Religious Coping}) + b_3 (\text{Baseline Religiosity}) + [b_4 (\text{Subject}) + b_5 (\text{Day of Week}) + b_6 (\text{Religious Affiliation})]$$

(8) Same-Day Model for Positive Affect

$$\text{Positive Affect (Day)} = b_0 (\text{Intercept}) + b_1 (\text{Day Negative Religious Coping}) + b_2 (\text{Day Positive Religious Coping}) + b_3 (\text{Day Religiosity}) + [b_4 (\text{Subject}) + b_5 (\text{Day of Week}) + b_6 (\text{Religious Affiliation})]$$

(9) 1-Day Lag Model for Positive Affect

$$\text{Positive Affect (Day)} = b_0 (\text{Intercept}) + b_1 (\text{Day-1 Negative Religious Coping}) + b_2 (\text{Day-1 Positive Religious Coping}) + b_3 (\text{Day-1 Religiosity}) + [b_4 (\text{Subject}) + b_5 (\text{Day of Week}) + b_6 (\text{Religious Affiliation})]$$

Emotional Inertia

To supplement self-report measures of emotion regulation difficulties as captured by the DERS, emotional inertia was computed using the procedure outlined by Houben and colleagues (2015). This is operationalized as the degree to which affect carries over

from one point of measurement to the next. A multilevel modeling approach was employed to estimate the autocorrelation coefficients of positive and negative affect, as well as the interaction between inertia and religiosity, and inertia and religious coping. A conceptual model for emotional inertia is presented in equation 10 using positive affect as an example (negative affect was computed separately).

(10) Emotional Inertia Model for Positive Affect

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Positive Affect (Day)} = & b_0 (\text{Intercept}) + b_1 (\text{Day-1 Positive Affect}) + \\ & b_2 (\text{Day-1 Negative Religious Coping}) + b_3 (\text{Day-1 Positive} \\ & \text{Religious Coping}) + b_4 (\text{Day-1 Religiosity}) + b_5 (\text{Day-1 Positive} \\ & \text{Affect} * \text{Day-1 Negative Religious Coping}) + b_6 (\text{Day-1 Positive} \\ & \text{Affect} * \text{Day-1 Positive Religious Coping}) + b_7 (\text{Day-1 Positive} \\ & \text{Affect} * \text{Day-1 Religiosity}) + [b_8 (\text{Subject}) + b_9 (\text{Day of Week}) + \\ & b_{10} (\text{Religious Affiliation})] \end{aligned}$$

RESULTS

Reliability of Measures of Religiosity and Religious Coping

Variance Composition of the DUREL and RCOPE

Results from G study analyses are reported in Tables 3 and 4. For the DUREL intrinsic religiosity scale, the majority of the variance was due to subject (67%), and 11% of the variance was due to the subject by day interaction, indicating that most of the variance in intrinsic religiosity was accounted for by individual differences (between-person effect) and how individuals varied in their trajectories over time. 11% of the variance was due to religious affiliation, and approximately 8% was due to residual error. The subject by item interaction accounted for 3.5% of the variance, while item, day, and the item by day interaction each accounted for less than 0.5% of the variance.

In the full sample, 58% of the variance in the RCOPE positive religious coping subscale was due to subject, and 10% of the variance was due to the subject by day interaction, showing a similar pattern to the DUREL. Residual error accounted for nearly 19% of the variance, and the subject by item interaction accounted for 8%. Religion accounted for only 4% of the variance, and item, day, and the item by day interaction accounted for 1% or less of the variance. In the religious sample, variance % estimates were similar to those of the full sample. However, in the non-religious sample, only 49% of the variance in positive religious coping was due to subject, and residual error accounted for 33% of the variance.

The negative religious coping subscale showed a markedly different pattern than positive religious coping, with residual error accounting for 47% of the variance in the full sample. Subject and the subject by day interaction each accounted for approximately

24% of the variance in negative religious coping, and the subject by item interaction accounted for 5%. Item, day, the item by day interaction, and religion each accounted for less than 0.5%. Religious and non-religious participants showed different patterns of variance composition, most notably in subject, the subject by day interaction, and residual error. Residual error was higher for religious participants (53%) compared to non-religious participants (35%). Non-religious participants showed a higher percentage of variance due to subject (46%) than religious participants (12%), while religious participants had a higher proportion of variance due to the subject by day interaction (31%) than non-religious participants (11%). This suggests that variance in negative religious coping may be due to individual differences for non-religious people, while differences in individual trajectories over time are more prevalent in religious people.

Reliability of the DUREL and RCOPE

D study reliability estimates are presented in Tables 6, 7 and 8. All estimates for the DUREL were above 0.80, indicating that the intrinsic religiosity subscale is reliable on a single fixed day ($R_{If} = 0.963$), a single random day ($R_{Ir} = 0.836$), and when averaged across days ($R_{kf} = 0.998$). The DUREL can also reliably detect change over a fixed time period ($R_c = 0.803$). These results indicate that while the DUREL can detect changes over time reliably, day of measurement may not systematically influence responses and the DUREL could be averaged across a fixed period of time.

The positive religious coping subscale showed a similar pattern to the DUREL in religious participants, with all estimates at or above 0.80 (see Table 7). Estimates for non-religious participants were at or above 0.70. R_{If} and R_{kf} were above 0.90 in both groups, indicating that positive religious coping is reliable on a fixed day or when averaged

across a fixed period of time. Estimates for R_{Ir} and R_c were slightly lower for the non-religious group, though estimates were adequate in both groups, suggesting that like the DUREL, the positive religious coping subscale is sensitive to change, and measures collected on different days can be meaningfully compared.

In contrast, a low R_{Ir} for the negative religious coping subscale, particularly in the religious sample ($R_{Ir} = 0.253$) suggests that day of measurement is important when measuring negative religious coping. The non-religious sample showed a nearly identical pattern of reliability estimates for negative and positive religious coping, with an adequate R_{Ir} ($R_{Ir} = 0.742$) indicating that day of measurement may not be influential for non-religious persons. For religious participants, when day is fixed reliability of the negative religious coping subscale was adequate ($R_{If} = 0.731$). When averaging across a fixed period of time reliability was excellent ($R_{kf} = 0.987$), and reliability to detect change was good ($R_{Ir} = 0.802$).

Associations Among Religiosity, Religious Coping, and Emotions

Repeated measures correlations among study measures are reported in Table 9. Intraclass correlation coefficients (ICC) calculated from random effect models found that without religiosity or religious coping in the model, subject accounted for 66% of the variance in emotion regulation (DERS), 58% of the variance in positive affect, and 49% of the variance in negative affect. Day of week accounted for approximately 1% of the variance in emotion regulation, 2% of the variance in positive affect, and 1% of negative affect. Religious affiliation accounted for less than 1% of the variance in all three constructs.

Difficulties in Emotion Regulation

Fixed effect estimates for difficulties in emotion regulation regressed on baseline, same day, and 1-day lag variables are reported in Table 10. The intercept for the baseline model indicates that at an average level of all other variables in the model, DERS was 1.73 ($t = 30.06, p < .001$), with similar results when measured at the same day and 1-day lag. Negative religious coping was a significant predictor of DERS when measured at baseline ($b = 0.20, t = 3.01, p < .01$), same day ($b = 0.28, t = 7.65, p < .001$), and 1 day lag ($b = 0.11, t = 3.00, p < .01$), such that higher levels of negative religious coping were associated with more difficulties in emotion regulation. Positive religious coping and intrinsic religiosity were not significant predictors at any time (baseline, same day, or 1-day lag).

Positive Affect

Positive affect fixed effect estimates are reported in Table 11. The intercept for the baseline model indicates that at an average level of all other variables in the model, PANAS positive affect was 2.63 ($t = 35.37, p < .001$), with similar results for same day and 1-day lag models. Negative religious coping at baseline was a significant, negative predictor of daily positive affect ($b = -0.35, t = -2.79, p < .01$), but was not significant when measured on the same day or a 1-day lag. Positive religious coping was a significant predictor of daily positive affect when measured at baseline ($b = 0.23, t = 1.99, p < .05$), same day ($b = 0.16, t = 2.98, p < .01$), and 1-day lag ($b = 0.14, t = 2.58, p < .01$), such that higher levels of positive religious coping were associated with higher levels of daily positive affect.

Negative Affect

Negative affect fixed effect estimates are reported in Table 12. The intercept for the baseline model indicates that at an average level of all other variables in the model, PANAS negative affect was 1.60 ($t = 17.61, p < .001$), with similar results for same day and 1-day lag models. Negative religious coping on the same day was a significant predictor of daily negative affect ($b = 0.35, t = 6.40, p < .001$), as was 1-day lag ($b = 0.18, t = 3.18, p < .01$), but baseline negative religious coping was not a significant predictor. Positive religious coping was also a significant predictor of daily negative affect, but only when measured on the same day ($b = 0.09, t = 2.43, p < .05$).

Emotional Inertia

Fixed effect estimates for negative affect inertia are presented in Table 13 and estimates for positive affect inertia are in Table 14. A significant inertia effect was identified for negative affect ($b = 0.24, t = 12.21, p < .001$), though there were no significant interactions. A significant inertia effect was also identified for positive affect ($b = 0.20, t = 10.19, p < .001$). There was also an interaction between the inertia coefficient and intrinsic religiosity, such that higher levels of intrinsic religiosity were associated with increased autocorrelation in positive affect ($b = 0.04, t = 2.15, p < .05$).

False Discovery Rate *p*-Value Corrections

Raw and adjusted *p*-values using the Benjamini-Hochburg procedure are presented in Table 15 for positive affect, negative affect, and emotion regulation difficulties. When controlling for the false discovery rate, several *p*-values increased. For example, the raw *p*-value for baseline negative religious coping predicting daily positive affect increased from $p = 0.007$ to $p = 0.030$. However, no raw *p*-values that were found

to be significant increased after this adjustment to the point that they passed the $p < .05$ threshold for significance. Therefore, all significant findings remained after implementing the Benjamini-Hochburg procedure.

DISCUSSION

Reliability of Daily Measures of Religiosity and Religious Coping

The Duke Religion Index and the RCOPE both demonstrated psychometric properties that support their use in daily diary contexts. Across all participants, both religious and non-religious, the DUREL had excellent reliability at a single fixed day, random day, and when averaged across a fixed time period. The DUREL was also able to reliably detect day to day changes in intrinsic religiosity. However, treatment of time as fixed or random did not significantly impact the reliability of the DUREL. This suggests that individuals assessed on different days, as is often the case in behavioral research, can still be meaningfully compared, as can aggregate measures.

While religious coping was hypothesized to be influenced by the day of measurement, this only appeared to be the case for the negative religious coping subscale among religious participants. The negative coping subscale of the RCOPE showed low reliability when day was random, indicating that day of measurement may impact responses as individuals engage in particular forms of negative religious coping on some days and not others. When using in research contexts, it may be most appropriate to gather multiple measures of negative religious coping in order to aggregate across days or examine daily fluctuations. In contrast, positive religious coping showed similar results to the DUREL, suggesting that the behaviors captured in this subscale may be more habitual or less influenced by day of measurement. This would be consistent with conceptualizations of positive religious coping as a feature of broader ritual practice (Pargament et al., 1998), in addition to its intentional use to manage mood and distress in response to stress.

While positive and negative religious coping were both hypothesized to be influenced by day of measurement, there are several reasons why different patterns may have emerged between the two forms of religious coping. Positive religious coping may only be intentionally leveraged by religious believers in response to major life stressors, which may not be present over the course of a given 21-day period. Additionally, the way that positive and negative religious coping are measured on the RCOPE may influence the degree to which daily fluctuation occurs. The positive religious coping scale describes several “active” behaviors (e.g., “asked forgiveness for my sins”, “focused on religion to stop worrying about my problems”) which may only be leveraged when an individual experiences a major stressor. For others, these could be habitual behaviors that do not significantly vary based on the person’s emotional experiences on a particular day. In contrast, the negative religious coping subscale describes more “passive” cognitions that could occur unintentionally in response to a minor life stressor or in the absence of a stressor (e.g., “wondered whether God had abandoned me”, “decided the devil made this happen”). Such cognitions would likely not be part of a religious person’s daily ritual practice and may be more closely linked to minor fluctuations in negative affect.

Associations Among Religiosity, Religious Coping, and Affect

Positive Affect

As hypothesized, positive religious coping measured at baseline, same day, and 1-day lag was associated with increased daily positive affect. This indicates that participating in religious ritual and reappraisal regularly or in response to stress increases subjective experience of positive mood states. However, intrinsic religiosity was not significantly associated with higher levels of positive affect at any measurement point.

This suggests that relative importance or centrality of religious faith may play less of a role in achieving or maintaining positive mood states than the actual religious activities that a person engages in. Negative religious coping was associated with significantly lower levels of positive affect, but only when measured at baseline. This may reflect a conceptual distinction between the baseline use of the RCOPE, which orients participants to how they respond to “major problems in [their] life” and daily use, when participants may not have experienced a significant problem but may have engaged in religious coping in response to various life events or affective states.

Negative Affect

Baseline measures of positive and negative religious coping were not significantly associated with negative affect, suggesting that these dispositional measures of religious coping in response to major life problems may not be as relevant to daily experiences of general negative affect. Negative religious coping was associated with increased negative affect when measured on the same day, and a 1-day lag, suggesting that negative religious coping is associated with same-day experiences of negative affect, and predicts increased negative affect on the following day. Positive religious coping, when measured on the same day as negative affect, was associated with increased negative affect. As noted in hypotheses, this may reflect that some individuals increase their use of positive religious coping in the presence of negative affect in order to improve their mood. Additional measurement occasions throughout the day would be needed to assess the temporal ordering of mood and coping and determine the effectiveness of positive coping in response to negative mood.

Associations Among Religiosity, Religious Coping, and Emotion Regulation Difficulties in Emotion Regulation

Consistent with extant literature suggesting that religiosity enhances emotion regulation ability, it was hypothesized that intrinsic religiosity and positive religious coping would be associated with fewer difficulties in emotion regulation. However, neither construct was significantly associated with difficulties in emotion regulation when assessed at baseline, same day, or 1-day lag. This may be due, in part, to characteristics of the sample assessed, which had lower than average reported means on both the DUREL and the positive religious coping scale of the RCOPE; However, lower scores on such measures are common in emerging adults, particularly among college students (Eagan et al., 2016).

These null findings among religiosity, positive religious coping, and difficulties in emotion regulation may suggest that while religiosity and positive religious coping can influence positive and negative affect, they may not operate in concert with emotion regulation as has previously been hypothesized (Vishkin, Ben-Nun Bloom, & Tamir, 2019). Conversely, negative religious coping was associated with difficulties in emotion regulation when measured at each time period, indicating that the sentiments of spiritual persecution and abandonment that characterize negative religious coping accompany and predict difficulties in emotion regulation. This may indicate that negative religious coping contributes to difficulties in emotion regulation, such that individuals who respond to problems with feelings of spiritual abandonment are more likely to have more general difficulties regulating their emotions. Future work should consider negative religious

coping alongside similar constructs (e.g., learned helplessness) to determine whether this is a unique feature of negative religious coping or of coping more broadly.

Emotional Inertia

While religious coping (both positive and negative) was hypothesized to be most closely associated with maintenance and change of emotional states, neither form of religious coping enhanced or suppressed positive or negative affect inertia. While a 1-day lag measurement of negative religious coping predicted higher levels of negative affect on the following day, negative religious coping was not significantly associated with negative affect inertia, suggesting that individual differences or other factors of daily life may be more relevant to emotional inertia than religious coping. Consistent with hypotheses and literature indicating that higher levels of religiosity are associated with increased positive affect, intrinsic religiosity did significantly enhance the positive affect inertia effect. This indicates that individuals with higher levels of intrinsic religiosity experience more prolonged periods of positive affect and are less likely to experience frequent deviations. However, intrinsic religiosity did not suppress the inertia effect of negative affect.

Summary

This study found that significant associations between religiosity, religious coping, affect, and emotion regulation can be reliably assessed in a daily diary context. While positive religious coping was associated with positive affect and negative religious coping was associated with negative affect across time, these findings did not support the conceptualization that religiosity confers emotional benefits by enhancing emotion regulation abilities. Rather, negative religious coping was associated with increased

emotion difficulties, indicating that individuals may be at risk of more emotional difficulty if they engage in this form of coping. Rather than promoting emotion regulation strategy use, these findings suggest that emotional well-being may be promoted by intrinsic religiosity enhancing the inertia of positive affect over time.

Limitations and Future Directions

This study was novel in its use of repeated measures to examine associations among affect, regulation, and religiosity. While examining these associations at varying timeframes allows for a better understanding of how these constructs relate across time, these findings cannot provide a mechanistic explanation for how religious coping influences mood, as estimates were only assessed at the daily level. Future work should employ ecological momentary assessment techniques to assess stress, mood, and religious coping at multiple time points per day to determine whether individuals employ religious coping in response to specific stressors and determine whether this effectively modulates mood at the following measurement occasion. Examining religious coping alongside other coping techniques, such as suppression and cognitive reappraisal, will provide a better characterization of how religious coping may operate as a putative emotion regulation strategy compared to other forms of regulation.

While the sample size of the study and number of measurement occasions were numerous, the overall sample was relatively homogeneous. In particular, the majority of participants that identified as religious were Christian. Group comparisons between religious groups could not be assessed due to disparity in sample size, though religious traditions vary significantly in how they promote regulatory practices and emotional goals. This sample was also relatively young, and in the United States younger adults

tend to report lower levels of religious participation and centrality (Pond, Smith, & Clement, 2010). This sample was also primarily European American, and individuals of European ancestry tend to report lower levels of intrinsic religiosity and receive less emotional benefit from religious faith compared to American ethnic minority groups (Blaine & Crocker, 1995). Future work should examine these associations in samples with greater diversity in religious affiliation, age, and ethnicity in order to determine whether these findings are specific to the demographic features of this sample. Finally, the participants in this study were relatively psychologically healthy, as participants were not selected for emotion regulatory difficulties. Individuals employing religious coping strategies while experiencing significantly more variability in affect or difficulty in emotion regulation may show different patterns to individuals utilizing religious coping in the context of their daily lives.

Recommendations

Future research on the associations among these constructs should 1) employ repeated measurement techniques such as ecological momentary assessment (EMA) to capture emotions in a dynamic way and establish temporal ordering of coping and affect, 2) ensure reliability of religiosity and religious coping measures for use in an EMA framework, 3) recruit samples that have adequate diversity of religious affiliation, age, and ethnicity to determine the generalizability of findings and 4) include participants with significant difficulties in emotion regulation, such as those with Borderline Personality Disorder, in order to assess a broader range of affective difficulties.

LIST OF REFERENCES

- Bakdash, J. Z., & Marusich, L. R. (2018). Rmcorr: Repeated measures correlation. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 8, 456.
- Bates, D., Maechler, M., Bolker, B., & Walker, S. (2015). Fitting linear mixed-effects models using lme4. *Journal of Statistical Software*, 67(1), 1-48.
doi:10.18637/jss.v067.i01
- Benjamini, Y., & Hochberg, Y. (1995). Controlling the false discovery rate: A practical and powerful approach to multiple testing. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society: Series B (Methodological)*, 57(1), 289-300. doi:10.1111/j.2517-6161.1995.tb02031.x
- Bernstein, E. E., Curtiss, J. E., Wu, G. W. Y., Barreira, P. J., & McNally, R. J. (2019). Exercise and emotion dynamics: An experience sampling study. *Emotion*, 19(4), 637-644. doi:10.1037/emo0000462
- Blaine, B., & Crocker, J. (1995). Religiousness, race, and psychological well-being: Exploring social psychological mediators. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 21(10), 1031-1041. doi:10.1177/01461672952110004
- Cohen, A. B., Malka, A., Rozin, P., & Cherfas, L. (2006). Religion and unforgivable offenses. *Journal of Personality*, 74(1), 85-117. doi:10.1111/j.1467-6494.2005.00370.x
- Cranford, J. A., Shrout, P. E., Iida, M., Rafaeli, E., Yip, T., & Bolger, N. (2006). A procedure for evaluating sensitivity to within-person change: Can mood measures in diary studies detect change reliably? *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 32(7), 917-929. doi:10.1177/0146167206287721

- Crawford, J. R., & Henry, J. D. (2004). The Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS): Construct validity, measurement properties and normative data in a large non-clinical sample. *British Journal of Clinical Psychology, 43*(3), 245-265. doi:10.1348/0144665031752934
- Cronbach, L. J. (1972). Theory of generalizability for scores and profiles. In L. J. Cronbach, G. C. Gleser, H. Nanda, & N. Rajaratnam (Eds.), *The dependability of behavioral measurements: Theory of generalizability for scores and profiles* (pp. 161-188). New York, NY: John Wiley.
- Davies, D. J. (2011). *Emotion, identity, and religion: Hope, reciprocity, and otherness*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Dedert, E. A., Studts, J. L., Weissbecker, I., Salmon, P. G., Banis, P. L., & Sephton, S. E. (2004). Religiosity may help preserve the cortisol rhythm in women with stress-related illness. *International Journal of Psychiatry In Medicine, 34*(1), 61-77. doi:10.2190/2Y72-6H80-BW93-U0T6
- Eagan, M. K., Stolzenberg, E. B., Ramirez, J. J., Aragon, M. C., Suchard, M. R., & Rios-Aguilar, C. (2016). *The American freshman: Fifty-Year trends, 1966-2015*. Los Angeles, CA: Higher Education Research Institute, UCLA.
- Emmons, R. A. (2005). Emotion and religion. In R. F. Paloutzian & C. L. Park (Eds.), *Handbook of the psychology of religion and spirituality* (pp. 235-252). New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Emmons, R. A., & Crumpler, C. (2000). Gratitude as a human strength: Appraising the evidence. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology, 19*(1), 56-69. doi:10.1521/jscp.2000.19.1.56

- Gerber, M. M., Boals, A., & Schuettler, D. (2011). The unique contributions of positive and negative religious coping to posttraumatic growth and PTSD. *Psychology of Religion and Spirituality*, 3(4), 298-307. doi:10.1037/a0023016
- Geyer, A. L., & Baumeister, R. F. (2005). Religion, morality, and self-control: Values, virtues, and vices. In R. F. Paloutzian & C. L. Park (Eds.), *Handbook of the psychology of religion and spirituality* (pp. 412-432). New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Gratz, K. L., & Roemer, L. (2004). Multidimensional assessment of emotion regulation and dysregulation: Development, factor structure, and initial validation of the Difficulties in Emotion Regulation Scale. *Journal of Psychopathology and Behavioral Assessment*, 26(1), 41-54.
doi:10.1023/B:JOBA.00000007455.08539.94
- Gross, J. J. (Ed.). (2014). Emotion regulation: Conceptual and empirical foundations. In *Handbook of emotion regulation* (2nd ed., pp. 3-22). New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Gross, J. J., & John, O. (2003). Individual differences in two emotion regulation processes: Implications for affect, relationships, and well-being. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 85(2), 348-362. doi:10.1037/0022-3514.85.2.348
- Hackney, C. H., & Sanders, G. S. (2003). Religiosity and mental health: A meta-analysis of recent studies. *Journal for the Scientific Study of Religion*, 42(1), 43-56.
doi:10.1111/1468-5906.t01-1-00160

- Haidt, J. (2004). Elevation and the positive psychology of morality. In C. L. M. Keyes & J. Haidt (Eds.), *Flourishing: Positive psychology and the life well-lived* (pp. 275-289). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association. doi:10.1037/10594-012
- Hall, M. E. L., & Johnson, E. L. (2001). Theodicy and therapy: Philosophical/theological contributions to the problem of suffering. *Journal of Psychology and Christianity*, 20(1), 5-17.
- Hollenstein, T. (2015). This time, it's real: Affective flexibility, time scales, feedback loops, and the regulation of emotion. *Emotion Review*, 7(4), 308-315. doi:10.1177/1754073915590621
- Hood, R. W., Hill, P. C., & Spilka, B. (2009). *The psychology of religion: An empirical approach* (4th ed.). New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Houben, M., Van Den Noortgate, W., & Kuppens, P. (2015). The relation between short-term emotion dynamics and psychological well-being: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, 141(4), 901-930. doi:10.1037/a0038822
- Idler, E. L., Musick, M. A., Ellison, C. G., George, L. K., Krause, N., Ory, M. G., . . . Williams, D. R. (2003). Measuring multiple dimensions of religion and spirituality for health research. *Research on Aging*, 25(4), 327-365. doi:10.1177/0164027503252749
- Joshanloo, M. (2019). Cultural religiosity as the moderator of the relationship between affective experience and life satisfaction: A study in 147 countries. *Emotion*, 19(4), 629-636. doi:10.1037/emo0000469

- Kato, T. (2013). Frequently used coping scales: A meta-analysis. *Stress and Health*, 31(4), 315-323. doi:10.1002/smi.2557
- Kaufman, E. A., Xia, M., Fosco, G., Yaptangco, M., Skidmore, C. R., & Crowell, S. E. (2016). The Difficulties in Emotion Regulation Scale Short Form (DERS-SF): Validation and replication in adolescent and adult samples. *Journal of Psychopathology and Behavioral Assessment*, 38(3), 443-455. doi:10.1007/s10862-015-9529-3
- Keltner, D., & Haidt, J. (2003). Approaching awe, a moral, spiritual, and aesthetic emotion. *Cognition & Emotion*, 17(2), 297-314. doi:10.1080/02699930244000318
- Koenig, H. G., & Büssing, A. (2010). The Duke University Religion Index (DUREL): A five-item measure for use in epidemiological studies. *Religions*, 1(1), 75-85. doi:10.3390/rel1010078
- Kuppens, P., Allen, N. B., & Sheeber, L. B. (2010). Emotional inertia and psychological maladjustment. *Psychological Science*, 21(7), 984-991. doi:10.1177/0956797610372634
- Kuznetsova, A., Brockhoff, P. B., & Christensen, R. H. B. (2017). lmerTest package: Tests in linear mixed effects models. *Journal of Statistical Software*, 82(13), 1-26. doi:10.18637/jss.v082.i13
- Lee, M., Nezu, A. M., & Nezu, C. M. (2014). Positive and negative religious coping, depressive symptoms, and quality of life in people with HIV. *Journal of Behavioral Medicine*, 37(5), 921-930. doi:10.1007/s10865-014-9552-y

- Lee, S.-A., Choi, E.-J., & Ryu, H. U. (2019). Negative, but not positive, religious coping strategies are associated with psychological distress, independent of religiosity, in Korean adults with epilepsy. *Epilepsy & Behavior*, 90, 57-60.
doi:10.1016/j.yebeh.2018.11.017
- Mauss, I. B., & Tamir, M. (2014). Emotion goals: How their content, structure, and operation shape emotion regulation. In J. J. Gross (Ed.), *Handbook of emotion regulation* (2nd ed., pp. 361-375). New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- McCullough, M. E., Emmons, R. A., & Tsang, J.-A. (2002). The grateful disposition: A conceptual and empirical topography. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 82(1), 112-127. doi:10.1037/0022-3514.82.1.112
- McCullough, M. E., & Willoughby, B. L. B. (2009). Religion, self-regulation, and self-control: Associations, explanations, and implications. *Psychological Bulletin*, 135(1), 69-93. doi:10.1037/a0014213
- McRae, K., Ciesielski, B., & Gross, J. J. (2012). Unpacking cognitive reappraisal: Goals, tactics, and outcomes. *Emotion*, 12(2), 250-255. doi:10.1037/a0026351
- Monteiro, L. M. (2015). Dharma and distress: Buddhist teachings that support the psychological principles in a mindfulness program. In E. Shonin, W. Van Gordon, & N. N. Singh (Eds.), *Buddhist foundations of mindfulness* (pp. 181-215). Cham: Springer International Publishing. doi:10.1007/978-3-319-18591-0_10
- Pargament, K. I. (1996). Religious methods of coping: Resources for the conservation and transformation of significance. In E. P. Shafranske (Ed.), *Religion and the clinical practice of psychology* (pp. 215-239). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

- Pargament, K. I., Feuille, M., & Burdzy, D. (2011). The brief RCOPE: Current psychometric status of a short measure of religious coping. *Religions*, 2(4), 51-76. doi:10.3390/rel2010051
- Pargament, K. I., Koenig, H. G., & Perez, L. M. (2000). The many methods of religious coping: Development and initial validation of the RCOPE. *Journal of Clinical Psychology*, 56(4), 519-543. doi:10.1002/(SICI)1097-4679(200004)56:4<519::AID-JCLP6>3.0.CO;2-1
- Pargament, K. I., Magyar-Russell, G. M., & Murray-Swank, N. A. (2005). The sacred and the search for significance: Religion as a unique process. *Journal of Social Issues*, 61(4), 665-687. doi:10.1111/j.1540-4560.2005.00426.x
- Pargament, K. I., Smith, B. W., Koenig, H. G., & Perez, L. (1998). Patterns of positive and negative religious coping with major life stressors. *Society for the Scientific Study of Religion*, 37(4), 710-724. doi:10.2307/1388152
- Pond, A., Smith, G., & Clement, S. (2010). Pew research center. Religion among the millennials. Retrieved from <https://www.pewforum.org/2010/02/17/religion-among-the-millennials/>
- R Development Core Team. (2016). R: A language and environment for statistical computing. *R Foundation for Statistical Computing*. doi:10.1017/CBO9781107415324.004
- Routledge, C., Roylance, C., & Abeyta, A. A. (2017). Further exploring the link between religion and existential health: The effects of religiosity and trait differences in mentalizing on indicators of meaning in life. *Journal of Religion and Health*, 56(2), 604-613. doi:10.1007/s10943-016-0274-z

- Schimmel, S. (2004). Gratitude in Judaism. In R. A. Emmons & M. E. McCullough (Eds.), *The psychology of gratitude* (pp. 37-57). Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.
- Schwarz, N. (2012). Why researchers should think “real-time”: A cognitive rationale. In M. R. Mehl & T. S. Conner (Eds.), *Handbook of research methods for studying daily life* (pp. 22-42). New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Shavelson, R. J., & Webb, N. M. (2006). Generalizability theory. In J. L. Green, G. Camilli, & P. B. Elmore (Eds.), *Handbook of complementary methods in education research*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Shiota, M. N., Keltner, D., & Mossman, A. (2007). The nature of awe: Elicitors, appraisals, and effects on self-concept. *Cognition & Emotion*, 21(5), 944-963. doi:10.1080/02699930600923668
- Shrout, P. E., & Lane, S. P. (2011). Psychometrics. In M. R. Mehl & T. S. Conner (Eds.), *Handbook of research methods for studying daily life* (pp. 302-320). New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Smith, T. B., McCullough, M. E., & Poll, J. (2003). Religiousness and depression: Evidence for a main effect and the moderating influence of stressful life events. *Psychological Bulletin*, 129(4), 614-636. doi:10.1037/0033-2909.129.4.614
- Thompson, E. R. (2007). Development and validation of an internationally reliable short-form of the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS). *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 38(2), 227-242. doi:10.1177/0022022106297301
- Trull, T. J., Lane, S. P., Koval, P., & Ebner-Priemer, U. W. (2015). Affective dynamics in psychopathology. *Emotion Review*, 7(4), 355-361. doi:10.1177/1754073915590617

- Van Cappellin, P., & Rimé, B. (2013). Positive emotions and self-transcendence. In V. Saroglou (Ed.), *Religion, personality, and social behavior* (pp. 123-145). New York, NY: Taylor & Francis Group.
- Vishkin, A., Ben-Nun Bloom, P., & Tamir, M. (2019). Always look on the bright side of life: Religiosity, emotion regulation and well-being in a Jewish and Christian sample. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 20(2), 427-447. doi:10.1007/s10902-017-9956-9
- Vishkin, A., Bigman, Y., & Tamir, M. (2014). Religion, emotion regulation, and well-being. In C. Kim-Prieto (Ed.), *Religion and spirituality across cultures* (pp. 247–269). Dordrecht, Holland: Springer.
- Watts, F. N. (1996). Psychological and religious perspectives on emotion. *The International Journal for the Psychology of Religion*, 6(2), 71-87. doi:10.1207/s15327582ijpr0602_1
- Webb, T. L., Miles, E., & Sheeran, P. (2012). Dealing with feeling: A meta-analysis of the effectiveness of strategies derived from the process model of emotion regulation. *Psychological Bulletin*, 138(4), 775-808. doi:10.1037/a0027600

APPENDIX A

Table 1
Sample Characteristics

<u>Sex</u>		
Female	51	35%
Male	96	65%
<u>Gender</u>		
Man	95	65%
Woman	51	35%
Other than Listed	1	1%
<u>Sexual Orientation</u>		
Asexual	6	4%
Bisexual	8	5%
Gay/Lesbian	1	1%
Pansexual	2	1%
Straight	128	87%
Other than Listed	2	1%
<u>Ethnic Identity</u>		
African American/ Black American - U.S. Background	4	3%
African American/Black American - Recent African Background	1	1%
White American - U.S. Background	105	71%
White American - Recent European/Other Background	7	5%
East Asian	20	14%
South Asian	7	5%
Middle Eastern	0	0%
Pacific Islander	0	0%
Hispanic/Latino Background	11	7%
Native American/Indian Background	0	0%
Other	1	1%

(table continues)

<u>Time in the U.S.</u>		
Less than 1 Year	4	3%
1-5 Years	9	6%
5-10 Years	4	3%
10-15 Years	2	1%
More than 15 Years	128	87%

<u>Religious Affiliation</u>		
Agnosticism	9	6%
Atheism	9	6%
Baha'i	0	0%
Buddhism	0	0%
Christianity-Catholic	39	27%
Christianity-Protestant	45	31%
Christianity-Other	4	3%
Confucianism	0	0%
Hinduism	2	1%
Islam	0	0%
Judaism	0	0%
Unaffiliated	34	23%
Other Religion/Spiritual Tradition	5	3%

<u>Psychological Services Utilization (ever)</u>		
Yes	46	31%
No	101	69%

<u>Psychotropic Medications (ever)</u>		
Yes	23	16%
No	124	84%

Note. Mean Age = 19.5 (range 18-26).

Table 2
Means and Standard Deviations

Scale	Baseline				Daily			
	Mean	SD	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Intrinsic Religiosity (DUREL)	2.65	1.24	1	5	1.84	1.25	1	5
Organizational Religious Activity (DUREL)	2.8	1.27	1	5	1.19	0.85	1	6
Non-Organizational Religious Activity (DUREL)	2.12	1.46	1	5	1.29	0.73	1	6
Positive Religious Coping (RCOPE)	2.07	0.96	1	4	1.34	0.65	1	4
Negative Religious Coping (RCOPE)	1.4	0.52	1	3.71	1.07	0.23	1	3.29
Difficulty in Emotion Regulation (DERS)	2.35	0.61	1.06	3.83	1.7	0.51	1	4.17
Positive Affect (PANAS)					2.64	1.02	1	5
Negative Affect (PANAS)					1.51	0.65	1	4.6

Table 3

Variance Partitioning of the Duke Religion Index (DUREL)

Source of Variance	Estimate	Variance (%)
σ^2 Subject	1.102	67.15
σ^2 Item	0.000	0.02
σ^2 Day	0.001	0.08
σ^2 Religion	0.175	10.70
σ^2 Item*Day	0.000	0.01
σ^2 Subject*Item	0.058	3.51
σ^2 Subject*Day	0.175	10.70
σ^2 Residual error	0.129	7.89
σ^2 Total		100

Table 4
Variance Partitioning of Positive Religious Coping (RCOPE)

Source of Variance	Positive Coping					
	All Subjects		Religious Subjects		Non-Religious Subjects	
	Estimate	Variance (%)	Estimate	Variance (%)	Estimate	Variance (%)
σ^2 Subject	0.307	58.32	0.423	60.15	0.052	48.59
σ^2 Item	0.006	1.05	0.000	0.00	0.000	0.00
σ^2 Day	0.000	0.09	0.000	0.14	0.000	0.00
σ^2 Religion	0.020	3.75	0.011	1.62	0.000	0.28
σ^2 Item*Day	0.000	0.04	0.000	0.05	0.000	0.02
σ^2 Subject*Item	0.043	8.08	0.059	8.46	0.008	7.10
σ^2 Subject*Day	0.053	10.05	0.076	10.69	0.011	10.90
σ^2 Residual error	0.098	18.63	0.133	18.88	0.035	33.11
σ^2 Total		100		100		100

Table 5
Variance Partitioning of Negative Religious Coping (RCOPE)

Source of Variance	Negative Coping					
	All Subjects		Religious Subjects		Non-Religious Subjects	
	Estimate	Variance (%)	Estimate	Variance (%)	Estimate	Variance (%)
σ^2 Subject	0.022	23.78	0.012	12.44	0.041	45.66
σ^2 Item	0.000	0.05	0.000	0.00	0.000	0.00
σ^2 Day	0.000	0.00	0.000	0.00	0.000	0.03
σ^2 Religion	0.000	0.00	0.000	0.00	0.000	0.29
σ^2 Item*Day	0.000	0.01	0.000	0.05	0.000	0.00
σ^2 Subject*Item	0.005	4.89	0.004	3.70	0.007	7.59
σ^2 Subject*Day	0.023	24.25	0.029	30.66	0.010	11.23
σ^2 Residual error	0.044	47.01	0.051	53.14	0.032	35.21
σ^2 Total		100		100		100

Table 6

Duke Religion Index D Study Estimates

	Estimate	Value
R_{If}	Reliability on a single fixed day	0.963
R_{Ir}	Reliability on a single random day	0.836
R_{kf}	Reliability for average over $k = 21$ fixed days	0.998
R_c	Reliability of change over a fixed period of time	0.803

Table 7

Positive Religious Coping (RCOPE) D Study Estimates

Estimate	Positive Coping		
	All Subjects	Religious Subjects	Non-Religious Subjects
R_{If}	0.957	0.958	0.913
R_{Ir}	0.823	0.819	0.760
R_{kf}	0.998	0.998	0.995
R_c	0.791	0.799	0.697

Table 8

Negative Religious Coping (RCOPE) D Study Estimates

Estimate	Negative Coping		
	All Subjects	Religious Subjects	Non-Religious Subjects
R_{If}	0.785	0.731	0.903
R_{Ir}	0.442	0.253	0.742
R_{kf}	0.987	0.973	0.995
R_c	0.783	0.802	0.691

Table 9

Repeated Measures Correlations

	Emotion Regulation Difficulties	Positive Affect	Negative Affect
<u>Full Sample</u>			
Negative Religious Coping	0.150***	0.021	0.140***
Positive Religious Coping	0.067**	0.065***	0.102***
Intrinsic Religiosity	0.040	0.043*	0.035
<u>Religious</u>			
Negative Religious Coping	0.160***	0.006	0.121***
Positive Religious Coping	0.050*	0.068**	0.080***
Intrinsic Religiosity	0.024	0.046	0.002
<u>Non-Religious</u>			
Negative Religious Coping	0.150***	0.072**	0.204***
Positive Religious Coping	0.061**	0.066	0.228***
Intrinsic Religiosity	0.116***	0.039	0.187***

* $p < 0.05$. ** $p < 0.01$. *** $p < 0.001$.

Table 10
Fixed Effect Estimates of Daily Difficulties in Emotion Regulation

Predictors	Baseline			Same Day			1 Day Lag		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>
(Intercept)	1.73***	0.06	30.06	1.72***	0.04	39.08	1.71***	0.04	38.91
Negative Religious Coping	0.20**	0.07	3.01	0.28***	0.04	7.65	0.11**	0.04	3.00
Positive Religious Coping	0.06	0.06	1.02	0.00	0.02	0.12	-0.01	0.02	-0.21
Intrinsic Religiosity	-0.03	0.04	-0.71	0.01	0.01	0.82	0.01	0.01	1.06

* $p < 0.05$. ** $p < 0.01$. *** $p < 0.001$.

Table 11
Fixed Effect Estimates of Daily Positive Affect

Predictors	Baseline			Same Day			1 Day Lag		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>
(Intercept)	2.63***	0.07	35.37	2.62***	0.08	32.49	2.59***	0.09	29.17
Negative Religious Coping	-0.35**	0.12	-2.79	-0.02	0.08	-0.21	-0.11	0.08	-1.31
Positive Religious Coping	0.23*	0.12	1.99	0.16**	0.05	2.98	0.14**	0.05	2.58
Intrinsic Religiosity	-0.03	0.08	-0.34	0.05	0.03	1.89	-0.01	0.03	-0.37

* $p < 0.05$. ** $p < 0.01$. *** $p < 0.001$.

Table 12
Fixed Effect Estimates of Daily Negative Affect

Predictors	Baseline			Same Day			1 Day Lag		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>
(Intercept)	1.60***	0.09	17.61	1.59***	0.08	19.51	1.59***	0.08	18.87
Negative Religious Coping	0.12	0.08	1.59	0.35***	0.06	6.40	0.18**	0.06	3.18
Positive Religious Coping	0	0.07	0.03	0.09*	0.04	2.43	0.01	0.04	0.25
Intrinsic Religiosity	0.02	0.05	0.29	0	0.02	-0.05	0.04	0.02	1.94

* $p < 0.05$. ** $p < 0.01$. *** $p < 0.001$.

Table 13

Fixed Effect Estimates of Negative Affect Inertia

Predictors	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>
(Intercept)	1.59***	0.07	21.19
Negative Religious Coping (NRC)	0.11	0.06	1.81
Positive Religious Coping (PRC)	-0.01	0.04	-0.34
Intrinsic Religiosity (IR)	0.04*	0.02	1.99
Inertia	0.24***	0.02	12.21
NRC * Inertia	-0.01	0.05	-0.26
PRC * Inertia	0.01	0.04	0.35
IR * Inertia	0.01	0.02	0.55

* $p < 0.05$. ** $p < 0.01$. *** $p < 0.001$.

Table 14

Fixed Effect Estimates of Positive Affect Inertia

Predictors	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>
(Intercept)	2.59***	0.07	35.53
Negative Religious Coping (NRC)	-0.11	0.08	-1.28
Positive Religious Coping (PRC)	0.11*	0.05	2.07
Intrinsic Religiosity (IR)	-0.01	0.03	-0.27
Inertia	0.20***	0.02	10.19
NRC * Inertia	-0.00	0.07	-0.03
PRC * Inertia	-0.04	0.04	-1.09
IR * Inertia	0.04*	0.02	2.15

* $p < 0.05$. ** $p < 0.01$. *** $p < 0.001$.

Table 15

False Discovery Rate p-Value Adjustments Using Benjamini-Hochberg Procedure

	Positive Affect		Negative Affect		Emotion Regulation Difficulties	
	Raw <i>p</i> Value	Benjamini–Hochberg	Raw <i>p</i> Value	Benjamini–Hochberg	Raw <i>p</i> Value	Benjamini–Hochberg
bNRC	0.007	0.030	0.080	0.144	0.001	0.003
bPRC	0.077	0.139	0.751	0.901	0.857	0.905
bIR	0.815	0.834	0.447	0.671	0.269	0.519
dNRC	0.834	0.834	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
dPRC	0.003	0.026	0.015	0.046	0.905	0.905
dIR	0.059	0.133	0.963	0.963	0.411	0.617
INRC	0.189	0.283	0.001	0.007	0.003	0.008
IPRC	0.010	0.030	0.801	0.901	0.833	0.905
IIR	0.709	0.834	0.052	0.117	0.288	0.519

Note. bNRC = Baseline Negative RCOPE, bPRC = Baseline Positive RCOPE, bIR = Baseline Intrinsic Religiosity, dNRC = Day Negative RCOPE, dPRC = Day Positive RCOPE, dIR = Day Intrinsic Religiosity, INRC = Lag Negative RCOPE, IPRC = Lag Positive RCOPE, IIR = Lag Intrinsic Religiosity.