

REPUBLIC OF TURKEY
ANKARA YILDIRIM BEYAZIT UNIVERSITY
THE INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

REGULATORY FOCUS AND EMOTIONS IN THE CONTEXT OF INTERPERSONAL CONFLICT RESOLUTION STRATEGIES

PhD THESIS

Ahmet DEMİRDEN

DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

Ankara, 2021

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Supervisor
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Ankara, 2021

APPROVAL PAGE

The thesis, prepared by Ahmet DEMİRDEN and titled "Regulatory Focus and Emotions in The Context of interpersonal Conflict Resolution Strategies" is accepted by a unanimous vote as a doctoral thesis at Ankara Yildirim Beyazıt University, Institute of Social Sciences, Department of Psychology.

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PLAGIARISM PAGE

I hereby declare that all information in this thesis has been obtained and presented in accordance with academic rules and ethical conduct. I also declare that, as required by these rules and conduct, I have fully cited and referenced all materials and results that are not original to this work; otherwise, I accept all legal responsibility. Date (12-01-2021)

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ABSTRACT

Regulatory Focus and Emotions in the Context of Interpersonal Conflict Resolution Strategies

This dissertation is designed to test the enhancement of dual concern model of interpersonal conflict resolution strategies by integrating the regulatory focus perspective into the model. For this purpose, study 1 and 2 were conducted with 375, and 450 participants, respectively, whereas study 3 was carried out online with 150 participants. In all three studies, first the participants' regulatory focus was primed in an experimental design and subsequently the same conflict vignette was presented to them. Study 1 investigates the effects of regulatory focus priming on the advancement and security motivation orientations as well as on agitation and dejection emotions in 5-separate groups. Study 2 examines the effects of regulatory focus priming on the same outcome variables and explores the preference of resolution strategies based on regulatory focus priming where participants have an option to select one of the two alternative conflict resolution strategies in 6-separate groups. Finally, study 3 explores the preference of resolution strategies based on regulatory focus priming where participants have an option to select one of the 5-resolution strategy alternatives. The effects of regulatory focus priming on motivational orientations and emotions were analyzed by a series of univariate and multivariate analysis of variance. The results of study 1 and 2 revealed that prevention focus significantly increased security motivation orientation, whereas promotion focus priming significantly increased advancement motivation orientation across all groups. Prevention focus priming also significantly increased agitation emotions while the effects of promotion focus priming on dejection emotions were found to be non-significant. A series of chi square test of independence was performed to explore the preference of resolution strategies based on regulatory focus priming. Also, a series of binary logistic regression was performed to examine the effects of regulatory focus priming, motivation orientations, and emotion on the preference of resolution strategy in two alternative options. The results were inconclusive in study 2 and non-significant in study 3. The implications of the findings are discussed in light of the literature.

Keywords: interpersonal conflict resolution strategies, dual concern model, emotions, motivation, and regulatory focus theory.

ÖZ

Bireyler Arası Çatışma Çözümlemeleri Bağlamında Düzenleyici Odak ve Duygular

Bu tezde düzenleyici odak perspektifi ikili endişe modeli içine entegre edilerek bireyler arası çatışma çözümleme stratejilerinin geliştirilmesi amaçlanmıştır. Bu amaç doğrultusunda, çalışma 1 ve 2 yüz yüze sırasıyla 375 ve 450 katılımcıyla gerçekleştirildi, çalışma 3 ise 150 katılımcı ile çevrimiçi yürütüldü. Her 3 çalışmada ilk önce deneysel yöntemle katılımcıların düzenleyici odakları manipülasyon edilmiştir ve sonrasında katılımcılara aynı çatışma senaryosu sunulmuştur. Çalışma 1'de düzenleyici odak manipülasyonunun ilerleme ve güvenlik motivasyon eğilimleri ile endişe ve hüzün duyguları üzerindeki etkileri 5 ayrı çözümleme grubunda incelendi. Çalışma 2'de katılımcılara 2 farklı çatışma çözümleme stratejisinden bir tanesini tercih etme seçeneğinin verildiği 6 farklı grupta, düzenleyici odak manipülasyonun aynı bağımlı değişkenler üzerindeki etkileri araştırılırdı ve ayrıca düzenleyici odak manipülasyonuna bağlı olarak hangi çatışma çözümleme stratejisinin daha baskın strateji olabileceği araştırıldı. Çalışma 3 ise katılımcılara 5 çatışma çözümleme stratejisinden herhangi birini kullanma seçeneği sunularak düzenleyici odak manipülasyonuna bağlı hangi çatışma çözümleme stratejisinin daha baskın strateji olabileceği konusunda keşif amaçlı bir araştırmayı içermektedir. Düzenleme odak manipülasyonunun motivasyon oryantasyonları ve olumsuz duygular üzerindeki etkileri tek ve çok değişkenli varyans analizleri ile incelendi. Analiz sonuçlarına göre, engelleyici ve ilerleyici odak manipülasyonlarının, sırasıyla güvenlik ve ilerleme motivasyon yönelimlerini bütün çatışma çözümleme strateji gruplarında anlamlı bir düzeyde artırdığı göstermiştir. Engelleyici odak manipülasyonunun ise endişe duygularını anlamlı bir şekilde arttırırken, promosyon odak manipülasyonunun etkisinin hüzün duyguları üzerindeki etkisinin anlamlı düzeyde olmadığı bulunmuştur. Son olarak, ikili lojistik regresyon analizleriyle düzenleyici odak manipülasyonu, motivasyon oryantasyonu ve duyguların ikili seçenek gruplarında çatışma çözümleme strateji tercihleri üzerindeki etkileri analiz edilmiştir. Çalışma 2 sonuçlarına göre çatışma çözümleme stratejilerinin hangilerinin düzenleyici odak manipülasyonuna bağlı olarak daha baskın olabileceği veya hangi faktörlerin bu tercihleri etkiledikleri soruları ile ilgili net olarak cevaplar bulunamamıştır. Son olarak, çalışma 3 sonuçlarına göre düzenleyici odak manipülasyonuna doğrultusunda hangi stratejilerin baskın olduğu sorusu doğrultusunda deney grupları arasında anlamlı bir farklılığın bulunmadığı

görülmüştür. Çalışmalarda ortaya çıkan sonuçlar ilgili çıkarımlar literatür ışığında tartışılmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Bireyler arası çatışma çözüm stratejileri, duygular, düzenleyici odak teorisi, ikili endişe modeli ve motivasyon.

To my beloved wife Elif

&

Our dear children Mehmet Ali & Mehlika

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1. INTRODUCTION

The study of interpersonal conflict resolution is significant as conflict can occur in any social interaction where people implement various strategies to resolve their disagreements. It is in fact an unavoidable social phenomenon that brings about potentially significant consequences, including the impacts on subjective well-being, group achievements, and organizational success (De Dreu et al., 2001). For instance, supervisors use approximately 20 percent of their times in conflict management related tasks in organizations (Thomas, 1992). Also, interpersonal conflict has been shown to have an influence on the number of doctor visits and health complaints (Spector & Jex, 1998; as cited in De Dreu et al., 2001). Consequently, the study of conflict has been pursued in diverse social settings (e.g., schools, business organizations, forensic settings, and law enforcement services) and has played an important role in many psychological explanations of subjective well-being and adaptive interpersonal relationships. Yet, interpersonal conflict research traditionally focused on the investigation of rational agents. This focus on rationality might have contributed to the tendency to overlook emotions in conflict. The fundamental assumption of this perspective is that people make rational decisions in conflict and that optimum outcomes can be achieved by utilizing all of the available information and assessing the probability of consequences. In addition, according to the rational decision model, people should also suppress their emotions in conflict in order to achieve the best possible outcomes, because intense emotions can interfere with the rational decision process (Lee & Cummins, 2004). However, the contemporary research findings underline that both cognitive and emotional tensions play an important role in related incidents and it might not be adaptive or even possible to suppress emotions in conflict. For instance, Elliott and Kaufman (2016) examined the emergence and practices of environmental and public policy conflict management over the past 40 years and confirmed that conflict involves both cognitive and emotional tensions and that emotions cannot always be suppressed in conflict. Given that people are of the opinion that their goals are obstructed, they are more likely to experience various negative emotions, including anger, fear, sadness, or anxiety. These emotional experiences consequently might influence the likelihood of which conflict resolution strategy is executed. Carnevale and Isen (1986) investigated the impact of emotions and visual access on the process and outcome of negotiations in a bargaining task. Their findings revealed that emotions can influence both

the use of hostile tactics and different conflict resolution styles (e.g.., cooperation versus competition). In addition, other research findings imply that interpersonal conflict could also be the result of negative emotions such as anxiety and depression (e.g., Bodtker & Jameson, 2001).

Traditional conflict resolution perspectives maintain that interpersonal conflict mainly involves cognitive processes, disregarding conflicting individuals' underlying motivations (e.g., Blake & Mouton, 1964), while some researchers distinguish cognitive versus affective conflicts (e.g., Amason, 1996). In one instance, Hammond (1965) suggested that decisions in interpersonal relationships could be viewed as purely cognitive processes. In his interpersonal conflict (IPC) theory, Hammond (1965) proposed that cognitive aspects of conflict create disparities in how individuals perceive a solution in conflict and that cognitive inconsistence occurs when people rely on different guidelines in formulating information. He maintained that this inconsistency in turn facilitates the emergence of conflict in social interactions. The IPC theory is a clear example for the influence of cognitive revolution in psychology in 1970's. During this era, the researchers focused on cognitive processes while fundamental motivational and emotional aspects had been overlooked in interpersonal conflict research for many years (Bazerman et al., 2000). The contemporary researchers; however, recognize that decisions and judgments in interpersonal conflict significantly involve subjective appraisals of situations, non-instrumental motivations and emotions (e.g., Barry, 2008; Coleman, Deutsch, & Marcus, 2014). In line with this contemporary perspective, I aim to investigate how non-cognitive variables (underlying regulatory focus motivational orientations and emotions) refine interpersonal conflict resolution strategies.

The interpersonal conflict resolution strategies have traditionally been defined as a mode, intention or tendency in dealing with a disagreement (Blake & Mouton, 1964). In the conflict literature, a number of different conflict resolution strategy taxonomies have been proposed. For instance, Deutsch (1949) proposed a two-style taxonomy (cooperation and competition), Putnam and Wilson (1982) suggested a three-style taxonomy (non-confrontation, solution-orientation, and control), and Blake and Mouton (1964) postulated a five-style taxonomy (avoiding, accommodating, problem-solving, compromising, and forcing). The 5-strategy model was originally based on two cognitive dimensions; a concern for people and a concern for production (Blake & Mouton, 1964). Since its original formation by Blake and Mouton (1964) the conception of the dual concern model has been further refined. For instance, Thomas and Kilmann (1974) described the 5-strategy model

by two underlying dimensions of (1) assertiveness, trying to satisfy one's own concern, (in lieu of product concern), and (2) cooperativeness, trying to satisfy other's concerns, (in lieu of people concern). Despite being linked to specific behaviours, conflict resolution strategies were previously believed to be stable across various states; however, the dual concern model changed the focus from general dispositions to strategic choices based on cognitive concerns (Pruitt, 1983). The dual concern model has received both theoretical and empirical support in the literature, while other models (e.g., coopetition versus competition) are found to be too broad to generate measurable predictions (De Dreu et al., 2001). However, Knapp and colleagues (1988) found that there are still some gaps in the dual concern model. These limitations are reflected in the assessments based on the dual concern model. Thomas and Kilmann (1974) and Rahim (1983) have designed the two well-known questionnaires that measure the use of the 5 conflict resolution strategies that are called MODE and ROCI, respectively. Many studies have assessed the validity of MODE and ROCI and some found that they both lack a high degree of validity (Van De Vliert & Kabanoff, 1990) and that they lack optimal psychometric properties (De Dreu et al., 2001).

Given that dual concern model of conflict resolution strategies is based on a pure cognitive perspective (interest for self vs interest for others), this model could be enhanced by the integration of non-cognitive motivational orientations and emotions. Therefore, this research aims at refining the dual concern interpersonal conflict regulation strategy model (Blake & Mouton, 1964) by the integration of regulatory focus perspective (Higgins, 1997). Regulatory focus theory can provide us with a framework to determine the non-cognitive motivational differences (i.e., advancement versus security) and emotions in conflict resolution strategies. The following literature review and analysis focus on four main areas. First, the interpersonal conflict research is examined. Next, utilizing the dual concern model as a theoretical framework, theories of interpersonal conflict resolution strategies are discussed. Third, motivation theories are reviewed with a specific focus on regulatory focus theory, because it is the central theory of this study. Finally, regulatory focus motivational orientations and emotions are discussed in relation to conflict resolution.

1.1. Interpersonal Conflict

Interpersonal conflict involves a large spectrum of social interactions and there is no consensus on its definition in the literature. Researchers have put forward a number of

different perspectives on the subject in accordance with their academic background and research interests. The traditional definition of interpersonal conflict maintains that conflict occurs when one person feels offended or disturbed by the others (Wall & Callister, 1995) or when there are competing interests in relation to limited resources, incongruent objectives, or frustration over personal goals (Pondy, 1967). In his seminal work, Deutsch (1973) underlines that interpersonal conflict stem from incompatible activities when one individual's actions interfere or delay others goals and that irreconcilable activities in relation to common goals can also create conflict when people do not agree on the best means to achieve their mutual goals. In other words, interpersonal conflict can arise from a various type of disagreements or incompatibilities even in relation to common objectives (Deutsch, 1973).

1.1.1. Conflict Types: Task, Process, and Relational

Interpersonal conflict can be classified in specific categories in relation to various circumstances and social contexts. Jehn and Bendersky (2003) reviewed empirical studies on interpersonal conflict in organizations with an objective to investigate the different types of conflict and the circumstances under which they take place. They concluded that interpersonal conflict concerns can relate to tasks, opinions, principles, or values (Jehn & Bendersky, 2003). In line with these findings, the contemporary researchers categorize interpersonal conflict in three types; task, process, and relational conflicts (e.g., De Dreu & Weingart, 2003; De Wit, Greer, & Jehn, 2012). This classification of conflict has had significant implications in empirical research. Greer, Jehn, and Mannix (2008) conducted a longitudinal study examining the relationship between task, process, and relationship conflict over time and the role of conflict resolution in influencing whether one form of interpersonal conflict is associated to the occurrence of other forms of conflict. The findings revealed that when process conflict, but not task or relationship conflict, occurs early in social interactions it is more likely to create or intensify other types of conflict; however, this cycle could be broken when people are able to resolve process conflict at the initial stages of their interactions (Greer, Jehn, & Mannix, 2008). The different types of interpersonal conflict are also found to be related to various justice perceptions. In what follows, the 3 types of conflict and their relations with justice theories are summarized. More specifically, the relationships between (1) task conflict and perceptions of distributive justice

theories, (2) process conflict and perceptions of procedural justice theories, and finally (3) relationship conflict and relational justice theories are discussed.

Task conflict can essentially be defined as a disagreement about what needs to be done or achieved in social interactions. Disagreements on the distributions of resources, judgments and interpretations of facts can be given as examples of task conflict (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003). Researchers have underlined that relative entitlement and justice standards in relation to allocation of tasks greatly influence cognitive and emotional aspects such as appraisals in task conflict, the preference of resolution strategies, perceptions of justice, and individuals' satisfactions with the outcomes (e.g., Crosby, 1976; Gurr, 1970). The differences in justice perception in task conflict, on the other hand, stem from the incongruent views on the concepts of *entitlement* and *justice*. In this framework, Stouffer and colleagues introduced the concept of relative deprivation in their seminal work *The American Soldier* (Stouffer et al., 1949). They used relative deprivation theory (RDT) to explain why some people would perceive that their tasks and conditions worse than others even though in objective standards they might appear to have relatively better conditions (Stouffer et al., 1949). According to RDT, a perception of injustice is constructed based on two prerequisite conditions; (1) people must have a less *gain* than what they desire and (2) this gain must be believed to be less than their *entitlement* (Crosby, 1982). In the following years, Merton & Rossi (1957) refined the relative deprivation perspective by integrating the impact of a reference group assessment into the model. Accordingly, perception of *justice* is not seen as an objective or absolute concept but as a subjective construct, occurring in a social environment based on subjective perceptions. That is, people make comparisons to their reference standards as they evaluate whether they are being wronged. In other words, people make such comparisons when creating their thoughts and emotions in relation to whether the task distributions or gains are fair (Crosby, 1976). Nieuwenhuis and colleagues (2017) investigated the impact of relative deprivation and conflict on problem behaviors using longitudinal data for youth (N = 926). They utilized between and within models to account for time-invariant confounders such as parental background variance. Their findings indicated that there is a significant positive correlation between moving to a wealthier neighborhood and increased problem behavior of youth and conflict with their parents. The effects of relative deprivation are intuitive, but there might also be negative effects of relative gratification on interpersonal conflict. In another study, Jetten and colleagues (2015) investigated the effects of relative deprivation and gratification on negative attitudes towards

immigrants in correlational and experimental studies. The correlational part of the study findings showed significantly higher anti-immigrant voting in districts with relatively lower or higher income in a national Swiss referendum. In the second part of the study, a university student sample was randomly assigned in one of the three wealth conditions (lower, moderate, or above average wealth) and their attitudes for new comers in a hypothetical society was assessed (experiment 1). The findings of this experiment revealed that the negative attitude towards immigrants were higher in lower, and above average conditions compared to moderated wealth condition. Also, when societal inequality is growing in all three wealth conditions opposition to immigrants were found to be increasing (experiment 2). Finally, among many analyzed mediators (e.g., identification and collective self-identification) only fear about future wealth were found to significantly mediate the relationship between relative gratification and opposition to immigrants (experiment 3). The researchers concluded that the effects of relative gratification are partly based on the fear of future deprivation

Another example of justice perspective on task conflict is Lerner's (1977) justice motive theory (JMT). The main assumption of JMT is that when people regulate their perceptions of *entitlement* in relation to their goals or generate their interpretations of justice, they turn to the central principle of *justice motive* (Lerner, 1977). According to JMT, the perception of entitlement and the justice motivation to obtain what is being deserved are essential issues, impacting all interpersonal relationships (Lerner, 1987). Consequently, as argued by equity theorists (e.g., Walster, Walster, & Berscheid, 1978), the justice motive is not treated as a simple highlighted self-interest. JMT holds a developmental view that the concept of entitlement is a motive, related to a perceived need to believe in a just world, which is shaped during the early stages of development through unconscious processes. In addition, JMT highlights the primacy of the commitment of deserving when assessing individuals' reactions to task conflict, stemming from injustices while the other distributive justice theories offer a number of different motives, such as self-interest or impartiality for the same justice appraisals. The impacts of believing in a just world can be observed in many areas. For instance, once people believe that they would eventually get what they deserve in a just world, they consequently think that sooner or later they would reach their long-term goals as long as they exert enough efforts in their tasks (Dalbert, 2001; Hafer, 2000). Thus, this belief has significant implications in the perceptions of task conflict. JMT proposes that people have a need to believe in a just world and that they unconsciously develop such a

belief. However, JMT also posits that there are individual differences in the intensity of believing in a just world (Lerner, Miller, & Holmes, 1976). These individual differences arise from a number of different factors such as ideology, individual experience or socialization (Schmitt, 1998). In essence, JMT identifies the violations of deserved *entitlements* as the main issue that differentiates perceived injustices from simple disappointments in conflict (Lerner, 1987). It is the perceptions of injustice that result in negative emotions such as anger and sadness (Lerner, 1987), which in turn might make people more prone to prefer certain conflict resolution over others such as choosing avoiding or forcing among other options. Otto and Schmidt (2007) investigated the influences of belief in a just world with 217 employees in various organizations. They hypothesized that employees' stronger belief in a just world predict, (1) having a better job performance, (2) having fewer sick days off, and (3) the preference of constructive conflict resolution strategies (e.g., cooperation and compromising). The hierarchical regression analyses findings confirmed the study predictions. The researchers concluded that belief in a just word is a psychological resource compensating for stress in workplace relations (Otto and Schmidt, 2007).

A process conflict is another type that encompasses disagreements about how goals should be achieved (i.e., which processes should be implemented in reaching the objectives) (Jehn, Greer, Levine, & Szulanski, 2008). Process conflict can also be described as "disagreements about assignments of duties and resources" (Jehn, 1997, p. 540). The second definition underlines how well individuals are handling two central types of coordination undertakings. These are, judgments about how to handle the procedural achievements of task (task plan) and judgments about how to accord people in achieving the task (execution plan) (Kabanoff, 1991). Thus, people might experience process conflict about task plans (e.g., how to allocate work and how to manage procedural disagreements) (Janicik & Bartel, 2003) or about how to accord persons who do not finish their tasks on time and do not carry out the required tasks as anticipated or arranged (Behfar et al., 2011). Tekleab and colleagues (2009) collected longitudinal data from 53 teams on the relationships between team conflict, conflict resolution, and team effectiveness. Their findings indicated that process conflict decreased the quality of performance and satisfaction while increasing the intensity of negative emotions. However, some other research findings revealed that process conflict can have positive effects on performance. In one instance, Jehn and Bendersky (2003) reviewed recent empirical studies on interpersonal conflict in organizations and found that process conflict

can stimulate individuals to ask for clarification as well as to reconsider expectations related to the use of assets, and assign tasks more effectively. There are various procedural justice perceptions, but one of the most influential theory is the seminal theory of procedural justice (STPJ). This theory postulates that perception of justice is deeply influenced by the control people have over procedures of conflict (Thibaut & Walker, 1978). According to STPJ, people perceive processes as fair in parallel to the degree of their control over the procedures. In other words, this perspective underlines the importance of control over procedures with its instrumental value. Owing to the underlined importance of control in this perspective, Lind and Tyler (1988) argued that STPJ is in essence a self-interest model (i.e., according to this perspective people fundamentally go after their self-interests). Although research findings support the prediction that process and decision control are vital to the perceptions of justice and fairness (Tyler, Rasinski, & Spodick, 1985), the perspective fails to comment on the impact of entitlement perception differences on the control-justice relationships (Behfar et al., 2011). For instance, individuals' perceptions on whether they are entitled to have limited control versus full control over procedures and how it impacts their conflict related emotions or behaviors are not addressed in this theory.

The third type of interpersonal conflict is relational conflict that underlines the effect of interpersonal incompatibility in social relationships (Jehn, 1995). The conflict on values and interpersonal styles can be given as examples of relational conflict (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003). Although task or process conflict can have detrimental consequences, relational conflict is particularly destructive and more challenging to resolve (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003). Simons and Peterson (2000) studied 70 top management teams and found that employees who experience task conflict are more likely to make better judgments since this type of conflict reinforces better understanding of the related issues. They noted that relational conflict might hinder the information processing skills since people employ their energy and time focusing on each other rather than the conflict itself (Simon & Peterson, 2000). However, other researchers suggested a more complex relationship between relational conflict and task performance, in which task conflict can positively or negatively correlate with individuals' performance or decision-making quality. For instance, Jehn (1995) analyzed 105 work groups and management teams to investigate whether conflict can have positive implications by investigating the effects of conflict on both individual and group level variables. She found that task routineness has a mediating effect on the relationship between conflict and performance quality (Jehn, 1995). Routine tasks have low

levels of task variability with repetitiveness of task processes (Hall, 1972; as cited in Jehn, 1995), whereas non-routine tasks are relatively more difficult tasks and often not associated with typical solutions (Van de Ven, Delbecq, & Koenig, 1976; as cited in Jehn, 1995). The findings of this study revealed that conflict can stimulate further attention to the non-routine task related information and this additional consideration consequently increases task performance in such complex tasks, whereas routine tasks usually involve highly improved and effective standards of operations where conflict could deteriorate performance in these repetitive tasks (Jenh, 1995). However, another relatively current research review does not support these findings. De Dreu and Weingart (2003) conducted a meta-analysis, reviewing 28 studies between 1994 and 2001, on the association between relationship conflict, task conflict and team performance as well as personal satisfaction. In line with previous research, the findings of meta-analysis revealed significant negative correlation between relationship conflict, team performance, and team member satisfaction (Dreu & Weingart, 2003). Their findings also revealed significant negative correlation between conflict and team performance and team member satisfaction in both non-routine and routine tasks in which negative effects were stronger on non-routine tasks in comparison to routine tasks (Dreu & Weingart, 2003).

Relational conflict can be more challenging to resolve and more damaging, as noted earlier, since its roots exceeds the immediate task or process. This relationship concerns might also exceed the immediate environment, relating to the individuals' relationships with social groups and the authorities, representatives of those groups as well as their values and ideologies. In this framework, the group value theory (GVT) underlines the impact of individuals' concerns about their relationship with social groups and authoritative representatives of those groups (Lind & Tyler, 1988). This perspective postulates that group identification is psychologically pleasing and that individuals are motivated to launch and preserve their social group bonds (Lind & Tyler, 1988). Accordingly, people evaluate the relationship fairness and procedures based on different set of standards when they focus on their social relationships. In these circumstances, people do not tend to focus on the immediate relationship or processes but are more likely to consider 3 different criteria in their judgements; these are, (1) information arising from the process on the individuals' position in their social group, (2) the trustworthiness of the people executing the process, and (3) the impartiality of those authorities (Lind & Tyler, 1988). There are research findings supporting the predictions of this perspective; for instance, independent of the task and

process, people are found to pay attention to concerns such as respectful treatment (e.g., Tyler & Bies, 1990) as well as information emanating from a given process or a task about their position in their group (e. g., Huo, Smith, Tyler, & Lind, 1996).

1.1.2. Common Characteristics of Interpersonal Conflict

Interpersonal conflict in all manifestations (i.e., task, process and relation) involve both objective and subjective appraisals. The objective evaluations of interpersonal conflict (e.g., rare resources and incompatible interests) are relatively easy to observe and assess while the subjective appraisals of conflict (e.g.., attributions and interpretations of the event) are more difficult to detect and measure (Bao, Zhu, Hu, & Cui, 2016). Consequently, people tend to attend to effortlessly observable objective aspects of conflict; however, subjective appraisals can be so influential in conflict that disagreements might occur even when there is no objective incompatibility between individuals. In other words, interpersonal conflict can take place with or without objective irreconcilable goals or interference. In his seminal work, Deutsch (1973) underlined that the appraisals of an incident and related variables directly affect the occurrence as well as the intensity of interpersonal conflict. The contemporary research also highlights the importance of subjective experiences in interpersonal conflict. Tjosvold and colleagues (2016) conducted a literature review and concluded that according to various research findings, the perception of people on whether another individual is facilitating or hindering their goals or means to reach these goals significantly influence their appraisals, communication, feelings, and behaviours as they attend to conflict (e.g., Tjosvold, 1986; Boxall, 2014; Greer, Schulten, & Böhlke, 2013; Alper, Han, & Duhachek, 2000, Chen & Tjosvold, 2005; Tjosvold, 2008; as cited in Tjosvold, Wan, & Tand, 2016). Given that interpersonal conflict in different types involve both objective and subjective evaluations in relation to various social contexts, an important question is that what are the common characteristics of various types of conflict. In his seminal work, Deutsch (1973) underlined 5 common characteristics of interpersonal conflict; (1) control over resources, (2) preference and nuisance differences, (2) incompatible values, (4) different beliefs, and (5) dependency and interdependency in interpersonal relationships. These aspects of interpersonal conflict have important implications on conflict resolution; therefore, they are discussed in detail next.

Disagreements in relation to control over resources (e.g., money, power, and food) can create conflict. This type of disagreement is particularly challenging when there is an inflexible fixation on the scarce resource in question (Deutsch, 1973); however, such conflict might be addressed in several different ways such as bringing additional resources on the table (e.g., one person gets the promotion while the other gets the weekend off), or placing additional cost to the resource (e.g., the person who gets the weekend off work night shift). As pointed out by Deutsch (1973), incompatible preference can also be an important contributing factor in conflict. For instance, a prospect tenant might love her dog but the landlord might dislike dogs and would not want them in her house. Such conflicts can be resolved, for instance, by compromising (e.g., the tenant often takes her dog out for a walk) so that the conflicting preferences do not intensely interfere with each other (Deutsch, 1973). However, the conflicting preferences sometimes involve a bigger struggle of power or rights (e.g., the tenant sees the landlord's position as a human rights violation or as an infringement on animal rights). Thus, apparent conflict might be difficult to resolve until the underlying concerns are addressed. Many incidents of conflict involve incompatible values (Deutsch,1973). The value conflict might be over comparatively confined issues (e.g., should chemicals be used in farming) or take place where wider systems of values are opposing to one another (e.g., religious or ideological disputes). In value conflict, it is often not the differences in values that intensify the conflict but it is the persistence that one value should dominate the opposing values (e.g., seeking to pass legal regulation in supportive of pro-life or pro-choice values). In addition, interpersonal conflict sometimes relates to different beliefs over facts, information, or knowledge. For instance, divergent beliefs are often evident between eyewitnesses who are giving different testimony over the same incident. It is a well-established finding in social psychology that people are motivated to create reliable perception and beliefs of social and physical reality (Higgins, 1997) and disapproval to one's firmly held central beliefs is a significant challenge to one's own self esteem (Deutsch,1973). Conflict tends to be intense when people with different beliefs must act together in an area related to their conflicting beliefs where these beliefs are so fundamental to their grasps of reality that one or both parties insist on the acceptance of their views (Deutsch,1973).

Social interactions also often entail dependent or interdependent relationships. Likewise, individuals often experience dependency or interdependency in conflict. Elliott and Kaufman (2016) examined the emergence and practices of environmental and public

policy conflict management as a distinctive practice over the past 40 years and found that interdependency in conflict occurs in one of the following 3 ways; (1) a *cooperative* interdependency where people need each other's support to reach their goals, (2) an *active* interdependency where at least one of the individuals has to rely on the support of the others to accomplish his goals, or (3) a *passive* interdependency in which one side only needs the others stop their competing activities. Furthermore, this interdependency might be *positive* (i.e., a cooperative circumstance in which all involved parties can accomplish their goals together, a win-win situation) or *negative* (i.e., a competitive circumstance in which only one side is able to realize their goals, a win-lose situation), or *mixed* (i.e., a compromising circumstance in which individuals have to negotiate in giving up some goals in order to accomplish other ones, some win and some lose situation) (Deutsch, 2002). However, early social psychologists saw conflict as a pure competition, emphasizing its hostile characteristics. Earlier intellectuals, such as Darwin, Marx, and Freud, were believed to be pioneers in illuminating the competitive nature of conflicts. For instance, Darwin emphasized the competitive struggle for existence and the survival of the fittest in nature. Marx underlined the social class struggle in his writings and Freud emphasized constant struggle between biologically based *id* and the socially constructed *superego* (Deutsch, 2002). Therefore, as social psychology was formally emerging in the West, the intellectual environment provided an atmosphere to perceive interpersonal conflict as a competitive struggle. In addition, some other local and global events at that time, such as World War II and the great depression in the West, might have contributed to the foundation and maintenance of competitive perspective on conflict.

As social psychology was expanding, Kurt Lewin's field theory (Lewin, 1951) introduced novel concepts, providing new perspectives in the field (i.e., cooperation and competition) (Deutsch, 2002). Lewin (1951) introduced intellectual discussion of 3 fundamental psychological conflicts in his exploration of force fields: (1) *approach-approach* (i.e., an individual is in a position to choose between two positive attractions with similar strength), (2) *avoidance-avoidance* (i.e., an individual is in a position to choose between two negative attractions with similar strength), (3) *approach-avoidance* (i.e., an individual is in a position of being exposed to forces stemming from a positive and negative attraction) (Deutsch, 2002). Although Lewin's analysis was originally applied to intrapersonal level conflict, its implications are applicable in interpersonal conflict as well. Likewise, people might get in conflict with others in relation to two desirable attractions

with similar strengths, *approach-approach*, (i.e., who gets bonus as cash or holiday), or they might have to choose between two undesirable events, *avoidance-avoidance*, (i.e., who will work overnight or weekends), or they might have to choose between positive and negative attraction, *approach-avoidance* (i.e., who is going to babysit kids or hang out with friends). The contemporary perspective on competitive and cooperative aspects of conflict is that most conflicts involve mixed motives as individuals frequently have concurrent motivations to cooperate and compete (Elliott & Kaufman 2016). This mixed motive perspective is actually not a novel concept in social psychology. For instance, game theory (Von Neumann & Morgenstern, 1944) not only provided social psychologists with prescriptions for reducing losses when facing adversary but more importantly underlined the fact that the conflicting individuals might have interdependent interests. However, the emphasis on the cooperative aspect of conflict took sometime to counter previously leading view of conflicts as a pure competitive struggle (Deutsch, 2002). The mixed motivation perspective has important implications in the examination of interpersonal conflict dynamics and resolution strategies. The competitive aspects might become so prominent during conflict that the involved parties could not easily attend to cooperative aspects in their interactions. That is, people might perceive the same conflict differently and strive to resolve it in diverse means. For instance, people are likely to use coercive tactics in forcing strategy, should they perceive conflict as a competitive process. Research findings suggest that some people emphasize competitive aspects and minimize or even ignore cooperative incentives, while some others do the opposite, highlighting cooperative aspects rather than competition in conflict based on individual differences in socialization, emotions (e.g., anger or gratitude) or situational variables (e.g., peer pressure), (e.g., Carnevale & Pruitt, 1992; Rusbult & Van Lange, 2003). Consequently, in applied settings, interpersonal conflict resolution strategy interventions often aim to regulate these perceptions, emphasizing cooperative aspects of conflicts along with the underlying cognitive appraisals and emotions (Halperin, 2013).

Interpersonal conflict frequently take place in bidirectional contexts, but it can also involve unidirectional contexts. As one person perceives an event as a disagreement the other individual might not share this perception or might not even be aware of the existence of such conflict. The rational decision-making perspective assumes that people have complete and accurate information on their own and others objectives, motivations, and desires; however, as shown in a recent literature review (Van Kleef, De Dreu, & Manstead, 2010) such full knowledge is not very likely to occur in conflict. Interpersonal conflict often

involves unclear perceptions, motivations, and emotional experiences, some of which involve unidirectional process (De Dreu et al., 2001). Interpersonal contexts also involve dynamic processes, which does not generally occur abruptly but often develop through a number of phases (Spaho, 2013). Therefore, the analysis of interpersonal conflict resolution strategies should consider both the history of a given conflict and the involved parties' past experiences. Some researchers have suggested that conflict resolution strategies remain stable across various situations, and accordingly, these general strategies had been studied as closely associated with personality (Euwema & Giebels, 2017; as cited in Elgoibar, Euwema, Munduate, 2017). However, the contemporary findings confirm that the preference of conflict resolution strategies vary across different social contexts (e.g., Deutsch, 2002; Greer, Jehn., & Mannix, 2008; Halperin, 2013).

1.1.3. Conflict Resolution Strategies

The terms of conflict resolution and conflict management traditionally refer to significantly different connotations in the literature (Boulding, 1968; as cited in Rahim & Bonoma, 1979). The concept of conflict resolution implies to reduction or elimination of conflict, whereas that of conflict management encompasses both conflict resolution concerns as well as dealing with post conflict issues (Rahim & Bonoma, 1979). This research focuses on the concept of conflict resolution; therefore, post conflict concerns are not addressed in this paper. Interpersonal conflict resolution strategies are traditionally defined as modes, intentions or tendencies in dealing with conflict (Blake & Mouton, 1964; Rahim & Bonoma, 1979) and one can conceive of an infinite number of conflict resolution strategies. Accordingly, researchers have proposed various taxonomies of conflict resolution strategies in accordance with their research interests, for instance, Blake and Mouton (1964) designed a 5-strategy taxonomy (avoiding, accommodating, problem-solving, compromising, and forcing), Pruitt (1983) suggested a 4-strategy taxonomy (accommodating, problem solving, inaction, and contending), Putnam and Wilson (1982) put forward a 3-strategy taxonomy (non-confrontation, solution-orientation, and control), and Deutsch (1949) preferred a 2-strategy taxonomy (cooperation and competition) (Rahim, Magner, & Shapiro, 1995).

According to Pruitt and Rubin (1986), the 5-strategy taxonomy is more refined than other classifications and conflict research tends to converge on this dual concern taxonomy of Blake and Mouton (1964). However, some argued that *compromising*, one of the 5

strategies, is not a distinct strategy but it is a half-hearted collaborative tendency (e.g., Pruitt, 1983). If compromising is a distinct resolution strategy one should be able to design items, measuring *compromising* and *collaborating* distinctly and confirmatory factor analysis should indicate a better fit for the five-factor model than for the four-factor model. De Dreu and his colleagues (2001) conducted 3 studies investigating psychometric qualities of two versions of conflict resolution assessment scales. In the first version of the assessment, the items measuring *compromising* was not included (i.e., only avoiding, accommodating, problem-solving and forcing were assessed), but the extended version included *compromising* as a distinct strategy along with other four strategies. The findings confirmed that *compromising* is a distinct strategy with items distinctively measuring the five strategies and that confirmatory factor analysis revealed a better fit for the 5-factor model compared to the 4-factor model (De Dreu, et al., 2001). They also conducted a multidimensional scaling of the data and the findings revealed that assuming the data fit only one dimension (e.g., competition and cooperation) resulted in unsatisfactory fit (Young's S = 0.19, with R^2 = 0.87), whereas assuming the 2-dimension (concern for self and concern for others) yielded a very good fit (Young's S = 0.001, with R^2 = 0.99).

The differences and similarities among the 5 conflict resolution strategies were, as noted earlier, first underlined by Blake and Mouton (1964). These 5 strategies are based on two dimensions of concerns; a concern for people (i.e., relationship) and a concern for production (i.e., gain). Blake and Mouton (1964) postulated that when faced with conflict, people construct their strategic responses based on these two concerns. They introduced a 9-point dual dimensional scale, 1 for the least concern and 9 for the maximum concern (see Figure 1). These five conflict resolution strategies were conceptualized as; (1) *Avoiding*: 1 on people concern and 1 on production concern; (2) *Accommodating*: 9 on people concern and 1 on production concern; (3) *Collaborating*: 9 on people concern and 9 on production concern; (4) *Compromising*: 5 on people concern and 5 on production concern; and (5) *Forcing*: 1 on people concern and 9 on production concern (Blake & Mouton, 1964). These five strategies are not described as general areas, but as particular points defined by the two dimensions and the two 9-point dimensions are conceptualized as intervals not ordinal scales in this model. Blake and Mouton theorized the intervals as "units of direction" (Blake & Mouton, 1981, p. 442). In addition, Blake and Mouton (1964) did not view these strategies as basic additive mixtures of people and production dimensions. Instead, they interpreted each strategy as uniquely different combination resulting from the interaction of the two

underlying dimensions. Therefore, the two dimensions creating a given strategy cannot be divided and each strategy is thought as theoretically distinct from others (Blake & Mouton, 1981). The dual concern approach of the conflict resolution strategies has been widely established in the literature and since its original formation by Blake and Mouton (1964), the two dimensions have been conceptually further refined. For instance, Thomas and Kilmann (1974) described the 5 strategies by two different constructs; these are, (1) *Assertiveness*: trying to satisfy one's own concern, (in lieu of product concern), and (2) *Cooperativeness*: trying to satisfy other's concerns, (in lieu of people concern). Despite being associated to specific behaviours, conflict resolution strategies were traditionally believed to be stable across social contexts; however, the dual concern model changed this focus from general dispositions to strategic choices (Pruitt, 1986). The dual concern model can also be conceived as a descriptive theory that attempts to predict which strategy is used based on the combination of cognitive orientations; concerns for self and concern for others. Figure 2.1 illustrates theoretical interrelations of conflict resolution strategies based on the work of Blake and Mouton (1964).

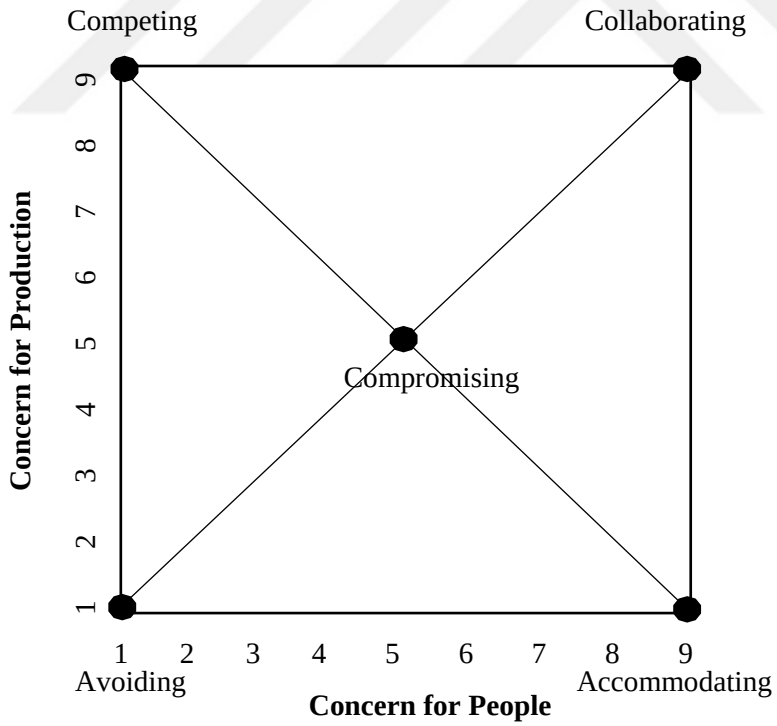


Figure 2.1. Five conflict resolution strategies (Van De Vliert & Kabanoff, 1990, p. 200).

1.1.3.1. Dual Concern Interpersonal Conflict Resolution Strategies: Five Action Tendencies

The two widely known assessment tolls of dual concern model conflict resolution strategy action tendencies are the MODE and the ROCI. Thomas and Kilmann's Management of Difference Exercise (MODE) (1974) is a forced choice (FC) questionnaire that includes 30 sets of paired items assessing 5 conflict resolution strategies. The Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory (ROCI) (Rahim, 1983), on the other hand, includes 28-item 5-point Likert scale with high scores representing high use of the applicable strategy. Van De Vliert and Kabanoff (1990) reanalyzed 6 studies that evaluated MODE and ROCI. The findings revealed that MODE has low levels of homogeneity; Cronbach alphas ranging from .34 to .91 with a mean of .58 across studies (Van De Vliert & Kabanoff, 1990). Some other research findings support the validity of MODE (e.g., Ruble & Thomas, 1976; Kilmann & Thomas, 1977); however, Kabanoff (1987) reported that he failed to find evidence of external or predictive validity of MODE in his research. The findings of Van De Vliert and Kabanoff (1990) also indicated that ROCI assessment is internally consistent (α = .50-.95, $\vec{X}$ = .74), and stable (test and retest reliability = .60-.83, $\vec{X}$ = 76) (Van De Vliert & Kabanoff, 1990). The researchers concluded that MODE and ROCI are moderately valid measurements of the dual concern model conflict resolution strategies (Van De Vliert & Kabanoff, 1990).

According to many research findings, the dual concerns of the participants can be successfully manipulated in conflict scenarios and that independently primed self-concern versus other-concern have revealed evidence for the 5 strategies defined in the dual concern model (e.g., Ben-Yoav & Pruitt, 1984a, 1984b; Pruitt, Carnevale, Ben-Yoav, Nochajski, & Van Slyck, 1983; Pruitt & Lewis, 1975; as cited in Rhoades & Carnevale, 1999). In some of these experiments, self-concern was primed by instructing participants to obtain ambitious gains or by making the participants accountable to powerful voters, whereas other-concern was primed by instructing the participants that they would have to cooperate with each other or by telling them to care for the other's needs (Rhoades & Carnevale, 1999). It is important to note that each strategy in the dual concern model is also linked with a particular distinct set of behaviours (Pruitt & Rubin, 1986). In other words, conflict resolution strategies are not only about what individuals in conflict plan to do, but also what they actually do (Van de Vliert, 1997). In what follows, the 5 distinct interpersonal conflict resolution strategies

are reviewed with examples of specific action tendencies based on the seminal work of Pruitt and Rubin (1986).

Collaborating is about a high concern for both self and other, which can also be defined as problem solving. Each one of the five strategy might involve interdependency in conflict, but in collaborating the interdependency between conflicting individuals is more predominant. People often utilize this strategy when they think the conflict demands for it (i.e., the disagreement can only be resolved by cooperation) or their interpersonal relationship calls for collaborative actions, or when they think this is right thing to do. In addition, such interdependency facilitates individuals' willingness to cooperate where statements, actions, and feelings are aimed toward resolution while looking after one's own and others' interests.

Avoiding is associated with a low concern for both self and other in relation to conflict, which facilitates inaction. This strategy is often used when people think their actions cannot impact the conflict outcomes or when the conflict itself is perceived to be not worth the effort. This strategy results in psychologically or physically removing oneself from the situation or ignoring the subject, event, or others in relation to conflict.

Forcing is associated to a high concern for self and a low concern for others, which can also be described as coercing or fighting. It involves a zero-sum strategy, in which people attempt to fulfill their objectives with a low regard to the others. People often use this strategy when the matter of disagreement is thought to be highly important and linked to their objectives or in cases where interdependency does not exist in the conflict (i.e., they don't need the other side's endorsement to reach their goals). Forcing often brings about the tendency of verbal or physical dominance, rigidity, repetition of one's needs and focusing on accomplishing one's own goals, and not negotiating or compromising at the expense of others' needs in conflict.

Accommodating is related to a low concern for self and a high concern for other, which can be also described as yielding. This strategy might be used with various objectives, including when people plan to get some desired future outcomes or when they don't really care much about the disagreement and find accommodating as a low-cost action, or when social power structure calls for their accommodating actions (e.g., agreeing with a

supervisor). Accommodating can be described as obliging or playing down the conflict and agreeing with the others' requests at the expense of one's own goals in a conflict.

Compromising is defined by a moderate concern for self and other, which can also be conceptualised as negotiating. This strategy is an effort to fulfill both parties' concerns to a certain extent. People might use this strategy as an attempt to achieve some objectives in conflict while giving up some other goals, which calls for reciprocal actions from the other side.

This research aims to refine dual concern conflict resolution strategies based on individual motivational and emotional differences. For this purpose, the phenomenon of interpersonal conflict and related constructs are discussed above in order to provide a conceptual foundation for the present studies. First, various definitions of interpersonal conflict were discussed and Deutsch's (1973) definition is highlighted. That is, an interpersonal conflict can occur in both identical and opposing goal contexts. Second, notable common features of interpersonal conflict were presented: (1) dependency versus interdependency, (2) mixed motives (cooperation versus competition), (2) cognitive and emotional tension, (4) process, and (5) unidirectional versus bidirectional aspects of conflicts. The discussed characteristics are significant for the present studies for a number of reasons. First, mixed motives and interdependency aspects indicate that interpersonal conflict is not always about competition but can also involve cooperation, a foundation of dual perspective (i.e., a concern for self and a concern for others). Also, the aspects of emotional and cognitive tension underline that interpersonal conflict is not only about cognitive processes, but it also involves emotional experiences as well. This distinction is important since the present studies also aim to investigate emotional variances in interpersonal conflict resolution strategies. Third, different types of interpersonal conflict and related justice perspectives are discussed. In the literature, task, process, and relationship conflicts generality accepted as distinct types of conflicts (Behfar et al., 2011). However, research findings indicate that these interpersonal conflict types are highly correlated. For instance, in one review, process and task conflicts are found to correlate between .44 and .90, while process and relational conflicts are found to correlate between .60 and .93 in previous research findings (Behfar et al., 2011). In line with these findings, I acknowledge the existence of this taxonomy, but did not examine the implications in relation to the interpersonal conflict types in order to maintain parsimonious approach in this exploratory study. Finally, the theoretical background of interpersonal conflict resolution strategies is

explored with a specific focus on the dual concern perspective (Blake & Mouton, 1964). The dual process model has important implications for the present studies as it changed the focus of conflict research from general stable dispositions to strategic choices in conflict resolution strategies (Pruitt, 1986). The dual concern model also received theoretical and empirical support in the literature (e.g., De Dreu et al., 2001); however, it is silent on the effects of non-cognitive variables (i.e., motivation and emotion) in interpersonal conflict.

1.2. Motivation

Early intellectuals paid closed attention to *instinct* as being the underlying motivation for behavior (e.g., Darwin, 1872; Freud, 1955; McDougall, 1908; as cited in Sorrentino & Yamaguchi, 2008) while some other pioneering psychologists instead focused on cognitive or rational processes as the basis for behavior. For instance, James (1890) underlined the function of will and the self in regulating behavior. However, behaviorist perspective appeared to be the winner among different school of thoughts in the period of late 1930 and early 1940. This perspective rejected all other theories that focused on the internal mechanisms in relation to psychological research (e.g., Watson, 1930). Perhaps with the influence of behaviorism, in the late 1970's and early 1980's, social cognition was on its peak while social motivation did not attract much attention. However, motivation could not be overlooked just to be an outcome of learning processes as suggested by behaviorists (e.g., Hull, 1943). Empirical studies of resolute behavior in animals revealed that the concept of motivation encompasses more than a learning phenomenon (e.g., Tolman, 1959; as cited in Sorrentino & Yamaguchi, 2008). It needs to be noted that there were also social psychological theories in this era that combined motivational and cognitive variables to explain behavior. For instance, the expectancy and value theories of Tolman and Lewin examined both motivational and cognitive variables in their attempts to predict behavior. Lewin utilized the concepts of potency and valence while Tolman referred to the concepts of expectancy and demand of the goal in their research on decision making and aspiration (Sorrentino & Yamaguchi, 2008). However, there was a major shift in social psychology in the 1970's, in which cognition became the dominant force while motivation emerged as a secondary factor. For instance, self-serving biases in attribution and prejudice behavior were thought to be motivational, but stem from information processing errors and cognitive drawbacks where individuals were perceived to be *faulty computers* (e.g., Cantor & Mischel, 1977; Nisbett & Ross, 1980; Dawes, 1976). In the following years, psychologists started to

have a renewed interest in motivation without disregarding the influence of cognition. For instance, Sorrentino and Higgins (1986) argued that behavior was not a product of *hot* cognitions or that cognition and motivation would lead to each other. They claimed that motivation and cognition operate together to generate combined outcomes. In line with this perspective, expectancy value theory (EVT) has focused on the joint effects of motivation and cognition in predicting goal pursuant behavior. This perspective has been and still remains to be one of the most influential motivation theories.

Atkinson (1964), the founder of expectancy value theory, argues that any theory of motivation has to deal with two main issues of behavior. These are, accounting for a person's preference of one action out of alternative possible actions and predicting the vigor of the action tendency once it is engaged as well as accounting for the propensity to persist in a chosen direction. He postulated that motivation is a multiplicative function of the degree of achievement motive, the expectancy (subjective probability), and the value (incentive or degree of pleasure) [f = (motive X expectancy X value] (Atkinson, 1964). Accordingly, EVT accounts for both the preference of one goal among alternative goals that differ in difficulty and also for performance level when only one goal is presented with no alternative goals (Atkinson, 1964). EVT assumes *motive* is a relatively stable disposition and posits that in cases of both approach and avoid motivations being aroused simultaneously, the outcome motivation is the sum of approach and avoidance. The pursued goal among a number of alternatives is the goal for which the ensuing motivation is most positive, whereas the avoided goal among a number of alternatives is the goal for which the ensuing motivation is most negative. In addition, EVT maintains that the inducement value of success is a positive linear function of difficulty as gathered from the expectancy of success, whereas negative incentive value of failure is a negative linear function of difficulty. The major predictions of EVT can be summarized as (1) performance level should be highest when the expectancy is uncertain (i.e., subjective probability is .50), whether the motive to approach success or avoid failure is equally stronger for an individual, (2) people with stronger approach success motive tend prefer intermediate risks, whereas people with stronger avoid failure motive trend to prefer either very low or extremely high risks.

In contemporary EVT perspectives (e.g., Eccles et al., 1983), the four mechanisms of goal value are underlined (intrinsic interest, utility, attainment value, and cost). According to the contemporary perspectives, expectancy and value perceptions additively, not multiplicatively, predict task choice, performance, and persistence in goal pursuits.

Trautwein, et al. (2012) used latent moderated SEM to investigate whether there is an empirical support for the multiplicative effect of EVT in a sample of 2,508 secondary school students. Their findings revealed that the models with the multiplicative terms of *expectancy* and *value* as well as that of *expectancy* and *value* beliefs as predictor variables significantly predict achievement in tasks (Trautwein, et al., 2012). The findings also supported the multidimensionality and domain specificity of subjective value beliefs. In another study, Nagengast et al. (2011) tested the multiplicative effect predictions of EVT in relation to students' engagement and motivation in science by analyzing data obtained from PISA 2006, comprised of 15-year-old students (N = 398750) in 57 countries. They measured the expectancy-value constructs and the motivational outcomes in the student background questionnaire administered in PISA 2006. The researchers tested the effect of science self-concept (i.e., expectancy), enjoyment of science (i.e., value), and the latent interaction between these two variables on aspirations of careers in science and extracurricular activities. The results revealed the SEM with science self-concept, enjoyment of science, and the latent interactions between the two as predictors for career aspirations in science and extracurricular activities are found to fit the data well in the entire sample. The interaction effect of expectancy (science self-concept) and value (enjoyment of science) is found to be significant for both the preference to pursue career aspirations in science and science related extracurricular activities. The researchers concluded that the findings supported the multiplicative effects of expectancy and value interaction (Nagengast et al., 2011).

In another intriguing research, Shah and Higgins (1997) tested how regulatory focus influences the interactive effect of goal expectancy and goal value on task performance. They tested the relationship between chronic regulatory focus differences and their subjective expectation of completing a task and its value as well as their actual task performance (study 1), manipulated regulatory focus differences and the expectancy and value of taking a hypothetical class in their major (study 2), primed regulatory focus and manipulated expectancy and value of taking an exam (study 3), and chronic regulatory differences and 4 hypothetical scenarios in which expectancy as well as value of taking an exam were varied (study 4). The findings of all 4 studies revealed a three-way interaction among regulatory focus, expectancy, and value on goal commitment as observed in task performance and decision making. The direction of these interactions, as predicted by EVT, revealed a positive interactive influence of expectancy and value on goal commitment when the goal is construed as an accomplishment (promotion focus), but decreases when the goal

is viewed as a duty (prevention focus). The findings also revealed that 3 out of 4 studies, the direction of the interaction effect is actually negative when the goal is perceived as an obligation. The researchers concluded that a promotion focus on accomplishment strengthens commitment to maximizing expected utility, whereas a prevention focus on responsibilities strengthens commitment to doing what is necessary or what can be done with certainty. Some researchers (e.g., Higgins, 1997) suggest that EVT encompasses likelihood (subjective expectancy) as an influential part of motivational commitment, but it still underlines hedonic consequences. In fact, the hedonic principle has been one of the most influential basic motivation conceptions throughout the history; that is people are highly motivated to approach pleasure and avoid pain. Some of the contemporary researchers continue to investigate motivational models based on the implications of hedonic principle. In one instance, Van Prooijen, Karremans, and Beest (2006) tested the relationship between hedonic principle related motivations (i.e., approach motivation versus avoidance motivation) and procedural justice. In this study, one half of the participants were asked to put the palm of one hand under the table and press upward, whereas the other half was directed to place one hand on the table and press downward. The participants in both conditions are asked to maintain a slight pressure against the table during the experiment and use their other free hand to work through the stimulus information using the computer mouse and a keyboard. They were then presented with a scenario about deciding a procedure on how to share a company bonus. In the first condition, the participants had a voice in the procedure, whereas in the second condition they did not have a voice in the allocation of the company bolus in which their supervisors made the decision. Thus, the researchers explored if approach or avoidance motivations would strengthen the participants' perceptions that they were treated fairly following conditions that do or do not give them a chance to voice their opinions. The study 1 included hypothetical a voice or no voice conditions while the participants experienced a various level of voice or no voice conditions in the study 2. The findings revealed that these voice conditions effect procedural justice perceptions more intensely when people carry out approach motor action (arm flexion) compared to when they carry out avoidance motor action (arm extension). That is, the participants in the approach action condition are found to be significantly more sensitive to the procedural manipulation compared to those in the avoidance action condition. This finding implies that approach action facilitates the perception of fairness in voice conditions better than the avoidance approach. In the study 3, the researchers first assessed the participants dispositional approach and avoidance motivations with the behavioral activation scale (BAS) and the behavioral

inhibition scale (BIS) forms, adapted from Carver and White (1994). In this experiment, the participants approach and avoidance tendencies were independent variables, manipulation was random assignment of the participants to a voice and a no-voice condition. The findings of this study also confirmed that individual differences of participants' approach motivation significantly predict procedural justice perceptions compared to avoidance motivation in a voice versus no-voice manipulations. The researchers concluded that there is a significant relationship between procedural justice perceptions and approach and avoidance motivation (i.e., hedonic principle), whether these individual differences are manipulated and dispositional.

A large volume of research has investigated hedonic principle related *approach* and *avoidance* motivations in interpersonal context (Winterheld & Simpson, 2011) and one of the most extensively studied theories of motivation is founded by Gray's (1990) BAS and BIS model. Gray (1990) maintained that according to animal neurobiological research findings the brain systems that mediate emotion overlap with those that mediate cognition and that it is almost impossible to distinguish them. In line with these findings, Gray (1990) postulated that there are two fundamentally different systems in the brain; the behavioral approach system (BAS), and the behavioral inhibition system (BIS), controlling individuals' interactions with their social and physical environments. The BAS is sensitive to reward and approach motivation in which signals of reward and non-punishment result in approach, whereas the BIS is sensitive to punishment and avoidance motivation in which signals of punishment and non-reward result in inhibition. This model inspired many researchers to investigate the influences of motivational differences based on the BAS and the BIS. In one instance, Gable, Reis, and Elliott (2000) tested whether dispositional BIS and BAS orientations can predict the participants' emotional reaction to events in their daily social interactions. These findings revealed that higher BAS orientation predicts higher positive emotions while higher BIS orientation predicts higher negative emotions in social relationships. Researchers also tested whether BIS and BAS systems influence cognition, emotion, and actions in various social contexts and the findings consistently supported the predictions of the BAS and BIS model (e.g., Gable & Reis, 2001; Gabble, 2006; Elliot, Gable, & Mapes, 2006; Strachman & Gable, 2006; as cited in Winterheld & Simpson, 2011).

Self-determination theory (SDT) is another well-studied contemporary motivation theory that focuses on the intensity of motivation and its quality (Ryan & Deci, 2017). SDT explicitly differentiates the two types of motivation in their quality; *autonomous* versus

controlled motivation. In this model, *autonomy* refers to the degree that the individuals' actions reflect their personal values, interests, and needs while *control* refers to the degree that the individuals' actions reflect personal values, interest, and needs of others (Ryan & Deci, 2017). Autonomously motivated people see themselves as the *origin* of their own actions whereas in a controlled motivation state, people see themselves as the *actors* behaving in accordance with other forces. SDT researchers have been interested in the individual differences between intrinsically and extrinsically motivated behavior. Research findings have shown that autonomous motivations involve free-will and choice and encompasses intrinsic motivation as well as internalized forms of extrinsic motivation while controlled motivations involve an internal or external feeling of obligation and encompasses extrinsic motivations, including poorly internalized extrinsic motivation (Grolnick, Deci, Ryan, 1997; Roth, Assor, Kanat-Maymon, & Kaplan, 2009; as cited in Guy, 2019). Empirical research findings support the predictions of SDT, revealing that autonomous and controlled motivations are distinct and that they involve different antecedents and consequences (e.g., Vansteenkiste et al., 2010; Evans & Bonneville-Roussy, 2015; Ryan & Cornell, 1989). In one instance, Ryan & Connell (1989) tested the predictions of SDT in elementary school students (Grades 3 to 6). In the first part (pilot study), each child received a set of why questions in relation to listed behaviors, followed by a list of reasons. Each reason was rated on a 4-point Likert scale, "0" for not at all true to "4" for very true. The listed reasons were classified as *external*, *introjected*, *identified*, or *intrinsic*. In the pilot study, the researcher identified 26 reasons with sufficient variability that fit the model. In the second part, the participants are surveyed with a set of why questions in relation to the listed behaviors, followed by a list of 26 reasons in 3 different schools (sample 1 $n = 112$; sample 2 $n = 156$; sample 3 $n = 450$). The researchers subsequently investigated the variance between autonomous versus controlled motivation in relation to emotions, coping strategies, and empathy. The findings revealed that autonomous motivation predicts positive emotions and proactive coping strategies, and greater empathy while controlled motivation is associated to negative emotions and defective coping strategies. In another study, Guy (2008) examined the relationships between parental conditional regard (PCR) versus autonomy supportive parenting (ASP) and the levels of internalization as well as self or other oriented helping behavior (i.e., egoistic helping behavior or prosocial helping behavior). This study included 133 university student participants who completed two questionnaires in two separated sessions. They first completed questionnaires on their perceptions on the PCR and ASP of their parents and 2 weeks later they completed the introjection, identified and

integrated behavioral orientation scales. The findings indicated that autonomous motivation was associated with other-oriented helping while controlled motivation was associated with ego-oriented prosocial helping. In conclusion, SDT literature and research findings has shown that autonomous motivation is associated to more adaptive and socially desirable outcomes in comparison to controlled motivation and that autonomous motivation significantly predicts higher positive emotions, adaptive coping strategies, prosocial behavior, and psychological well-being. There are many other individual motivational differences beyond autonomous or controlled motivations or concerns with approaching desired outcomes versus avoiding undesired outcomes. For instance, focusing on oneself as a singular individual or focusing on self as part of a larger society and regulatory focus motivation orientation differences (Molden, Lee, & Higgins, 2008). As it will be discussed next, RFT has a unique perspective on motivation in the spectrum of motivation theories. The assumptions and predictions of RFT goes beyond hedonic values (i.e., seeking pleasure and avoiding pain), general approach and avoidance tendencies as well as autonomous versus controlled motivation orientations.

1.2.1. Regulatory Focus Theory (RFT)

RFT asserts that people often have both promotion and prevention foci to a certain extent with promotion or a prevention focus being dominant as a chronic or a temporal state. In addition, according to RFT dominant promotion focus and prevention focus associate with distinct antecedents (e.g., ideal self-guide for promotion focus and ought self-guide for prevention focus) and consequences (e.g., promotion focus people tend to have eager strategies while prevention focus people tend to have vigilant strategies) (Higgins, 1997). The Figure 2.2 illustrates the psychological antecedent variables and outcomes that have distinctive associations to promotion focus and prevention focus concerns (Higgins, 2000).

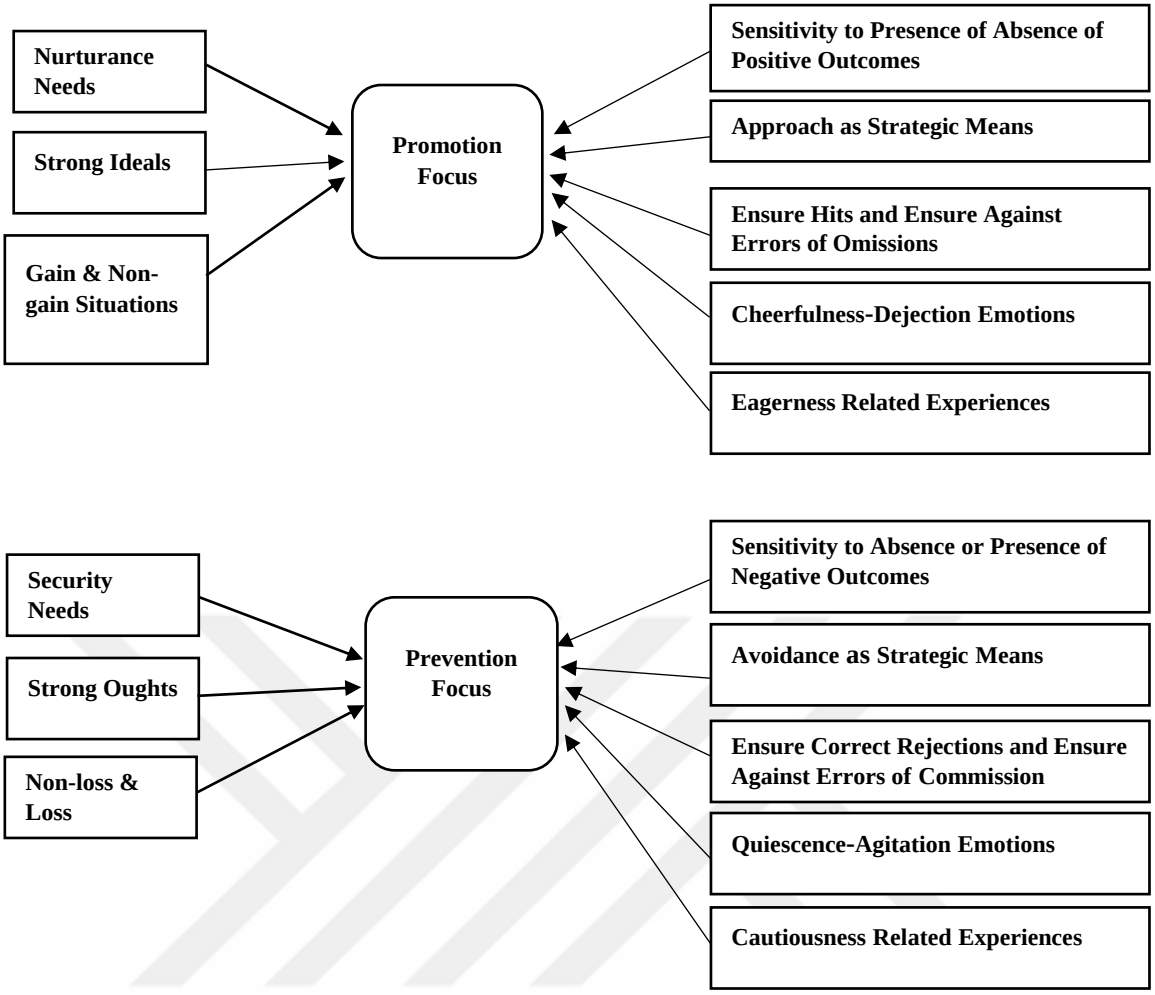


Figure 2.2. Distinctive associations of psychological variables with regulatory focus (Higgins, 2000).

RFT predictions specifically underlines the distinctions between *advancement* motivation orientation (i.e., promotion focus) and *security* motivation orientation (i.e., prevention focus). Within this framework, motivation is defined as a preference directing choices in relation to *how* people approach their goals, which is fundamentally distinct from their preferences for the different outcomes in their goal pursuits, dispositional approach and avoidance motivation as well as autonomous versus controlled motivation (Higgins, 1997). RFT assumptions might appear to be similar to those of the BAS and the BIS model (i.e., approach and avoidance perspective); however, as underlined by the regulatory focus literature, promotion focus and prevention focus are distinct from approach (e.g., primary concern with obtaining positive outcomes) and avoidance systems (e.g., primary concern with escaping negative outcomes) (e.g., Mooradian, Herbst, & Matzler, 2008; as cited in Winterheld & Simpson, 2011). First, both promotion and prevention foci are about achieving desired end states (e.g., prevention focus is sensitive to security and safety concerns while

promotion focus is sensitive to growth and advancement concerns). Therefore, promotion focus is more likely to involve approach strategies and prevention focus is more likely to involve avoidance strategies for desired end states, but both regulatory foci might utilize approach and avoidance oriented strategies to reach their desired end states (Crowe & Higgins, 1997; Higgins et al., 1994; as cited in Winterheld & Simpson, 2011). Scholer and her colleagues (2010) conducted 4 experiments (N = 175) to investigate whether the participants with higher prevention focus would use approach and avoidance strategy to restore safety. In experiments 1, 2, and 4, the participants first filled out the regulatory focus strength measure, adapted from Higgins, Shah, & Friedman (1997). This tool is an idiographic reaction time assessment that measures the accessibility of ideal and ought self-attributes. The speed of participants to produce each attribute and the corresponding determination was measured and recorded by a computer. The experimenter then informed the participants that they earned $5 for completing the task (experiment 1) and that they could either invest their $5 in a stock investment task, or they could terminate the study and keep $5. The participants were also informed that they could earn an average $7 in the second task or they could lose $5. In case of losing their money, the participants had an option to recover their lost by completing 20 pages of questionnaire. In each experiment, stock investment scenario risk was manipulated. At the beginning of the stock market scenario, all participants lost some of their money, followed by two options in the experiment. The conservative option could not replace the loss while the riskier option could. The experiment 1 (n = 35) investigated regulatory focus differences in risk seeking under loss but not under gain. The findings revealed that only prevention focus motivation was significantly increased the odds of selecting riskier options. The second experiment was then conducted to test the prediction that prevention focus significantly relates to risk seeking under loss but not under gain. This is, risk seeking should not be associated with prevention focus motivation to maintain status quo. The prevention focus tendencies again significantly predicted riskier option under loss but not under gain. In the third experiment, the researchers included a conservative option that could potentially eliminate the lost to assess the prediction that only prevention focus participants would change their preference to a conservative option when it allowed to maintain the status quo. The findings revealed that if the conservative option also provides a possibility of eliminating loss and restoring status quo even with no additional gain, prevention focus motivation is more likely to associate with the conservative option in comparison to promotion focus. In experiment 4, the researchers presented the participants a state of loss with neither conservative nor risky

options could eliminate the loss. The results revealed no significant relationship between prevention focus and stock preference. Overall, the findings support the prediction that prevention focus participants prefer avoidance strategy; however, they can adopt approach strategies if they are the only way to restore safety. There are other empirical studies also showing that prevention focused people prefer avoidance behaviors to reach desired end states; nevertheless, these people can utilize approach orientation in order to restore safety and status quo (e.g., Scholer, Zou, Fujita, Stroessner, & Higgins, 2010; as cited in Winterheld & Simpson, 2011). However, the BAS and BIS model predicts avoidance behavior in escaping the threat (i.e., the absence of a negative outcome), but does not envisage approach behavior while reaching desired end states in BIS (i.e., fulfilling responsivity or negotiating a conflict) (Elliot, Gable, & Mapes ,2006; as cited in Winterheld & Simpson, 2011).

RFT posits that promotion focus orientation is rooted in ideal self-concerns (i.e., hopes, wishes, aspirations) and prevention focus orientation is rooted in ought self-concerns (i.e., safety, obligations, and duties), which is received support in empirical studies. In one instance, Higgins and colleagues (1994) conducted 3 experiments to investigate whether ideal versus ought self-guides, as dispositions (study 1) or manipulated states (study 2), influence the participants' predictions for different regulatory systems (i.e., regulating pain and pleasure). The third study then examined the preferences of alternative friendship strategies based on ideal versus ought self-guides. The findings in all three studies support the prediction that ideal self-guides associate with a preference for approaching matches to desired end states (i.e., promotion focus orientation, concentrating on needs in relation to advancement, improvement, and success) while ought self-guides is found to associate with a preference for avoiding mismatches to desired end states (i.e., prevention focus orientation, concentrating on needs in relation to safety, responsibility, and avoiding failure). The findings of third study also revealed that people with a preference to use ideal self-guides (i.e., mainly actual-ideal discrepant participants) are more likely to prefer approach strategies than people with a preference to use ought self-guides (i.e., mainly actual-ought discrepant participants) while ought-concerned people are more likely to choose avoidance strategies than ideal-concerned people in social relationships. (Higgins, Roney, Crowe, & Hymes, 1994).

Another key assumption of RFT is that the hedonic motivation of approaching pleasure and avoiding pain functions differently when used for the fundamentally different survival requirements of *advancement* versus *security* motivation orientations (Higgins, 1997).

Advancement concern regulations mainly relate to promotion focus and security concern regulations are associate to prevention focus (Higgins, 2000). Early works of Higgins discussed how certain models of caretaker-child relationship influences the likelihood that children would prefer any one of the two desired end-states (Higgins, 1987). These desired end-states characterize either their own and significant others' hopes and wishes (i.e., strong-ideals), or their own and significant others' perceptions on their duties and responsibilities (i.e., strong-oughts). RFT postulates that ideal self-regulation relates to promotion focus and ought-self-regulation involves prevention focus (Higgins, 1987). For instance, a child experiences the pleasure of the presence of positive outcomes when the parent, for instance, kisses the child for his or her accomplishments (i.e., promotion focus relationship). The child would experience the pain of the absence of positive outcomes when the parent, for instance, acts disappointed when the child fails to meet with the parent's hopes. The pleasure and pain from these interactions are experienced as the presence or absence of positive outcomes. In both instances, the parent's message is that what matter is obtaining accomplishments or aspirations (i.e., ideals). These instances will fall under the promotion focus, which is mainly concerned with advancement and gains (Higgins, 2000). On the other hand, a child experiences the pleasure of the absence of negative outcomes when the parent gives the child reassurance by removing an item that the child finds unattractive (i.e., a prevention focus relationship). The child would experience the pain of the presence of negative outcomes when the parent, for instance, punishes the child when he/she acts irresponsibly. The pleasure and pain from these dealings are experienced as the absence or presence of negative outcomes. In both instances, the parent's message is that what matters is ensuring safety and fulfilling obligations (i.e., oughts). These instances will fall under the prevention focus, which is primarily concerned with safety and responsibility (Higgins, 2000). Owing to the aforementioned differences in parenting styles and the socialization history of children, promotion focus or prevention focus become a chronic motivation orientation (Higgins, 1997).

Keller (2008) designed a study to assess the relationship between the chronic regulatory focus of participants and their exposure to different parenting strategies (N = 92; 52 males; mean age = 23.1). The participants' chronic regulatory focus was assessed by a German version of 18 item Regulatory Focus Questionnaire, adapted from Lockwood Jordan, & Kunda (2002) whereas the parenting styles assessment form was adapted from the parenting behavior questionnaire (Hart et al., 1998). The findings supported the

developmental perspective in regulatory focus differences as highlighted by RFT. Two regression analysis revealed that prevention focus scores resulted in a significant coefficient only for the active restrictive parenting style assessment, whereas promotion focus scores resulted in a significant coefficient only for the active responsive parenting style assessment.

Goal pursuit strategies have also been examined based on regulatory focus differences (Higgins & Molden; 2003). People with higher promotion focus have been shown to prefer to use *eager* goal-pursuit strategies owing to their primary concerns on gains while prevention focused individuals tend to use *vigilant* goal pursuit strategies due to their primary concerns on losses (Molden, Lee, & Higgins, 2008). This conceptualization has similarities with signal detection theory (SDT) (Tanner & Swets, 1954). SDT underlines individual differences in motivational biases related to *false misses* versus *false positive hits* in decision making. Similarly, promotion focus self-regulation is mainly about gains, seeking *hits* (i.e., focusing on the attainment of positive outcomes) and escaping *errors of omission* (i.e., ensuring against ignoring positive outcomes), which is more likely to lead to *eager* strategies. On the other hand, prevention focus self-regulation is mainly about losses, seeking *correct rejections* (i.e., focusing on the elimination of negative outcomes) and escaping *errors* (i.e., ensuring against accepting negative outcomes), which is more likely to lead to *vigilant* strategies. Empirical studies have tested the effects of chronic and manipulated regulatory focus differences with confirmatory results in relation to the preference of self-regulatory strategies. For instance, Cesario and colleagues (2004) tested the influence of persuasive message supporting a new after-school program (as cited in Cesario, Higgins, & Scholer, 2008). In the eager condition, the supporting messages were framed to communicate ensuring the presence of positive outcomes (e.g., there will be a greater number of students who succeed in their post academic life choices). Whereas in the vigilant condition, the supporting messages were framed to communicate ensuring the avoidance of negative outcomes (e.g., there will be a lower number of students who fail in their post-academic life choices). The findings revealed that the eager framing persuasion resulted in higher support for the after-school program in chronic promotion condition while the vigilant framing persuasion resulted in higher support for the after-school program with chronic prevention focus condition (Cesario, Grant, & Higgins., 2004).

Another study investigated the influence of eager versus vigilant framed massages on the primed regulatory focus differences (Lee & Aaker, 2004; as cited in Cesario, Higgins, & Scholer, 2008). The researchers presented the participants with an advertisement for a grape

juice beverage that underlined either eager strategy (e.g., the energy enhancing beverage) or vigilant strategy (e.g., the disease preventing beverage). The findings revealed that the participants found the messages more persuasive when these messages were framed in accordance with their primed regulatory focus. That is, promotion focus participants found the eager strategy framed messages more convincing while prevention focus participants found the vigilant strategy framed messages more convincing. These findings have been followed by other studies investigating the implications of using eager versus vigilant strategies. For instance, eager strategy (i.e., promotion focus strategy) has been shown to facilitate the acceptance of various possibilities with lower thresholds for accepting potentially applicable information, which increases the likelihood of identifying more precise hypotheses and preventing the omission of any relevant information (Molden, Lee, & Higgins, 2008). Individuals who prefer eager strategy (i.e., promotion focus) are therefore more inclined to advocate a hypothesis that might be correct (i.e., taking a risk of being wrong) than to fail to advocate the hypothesis (i.e., taking a risk of missing being right). On the other hand, individuals who prefer vigilant strategy (i.e., prevention focus) tend to narrowing down alternatives to what appears to be the most certain option with higher thresholds for accepting potentially important information. This tendency in turn increases the likelihood of rejecting incorrect hypotheses and evading alternatives that are wrong (Molden, Lee, & Higgins, 2008). A vigilant strategy is therefore more likely to result in not advocating a hypothesis that might be correct (i.e., taking a risk of missing being right) than to advocate a hypothesis (i.e., taking a risk of being wrong). In another study, researchers found that in relation to evaluations about the actions of others, a promotion focus orientation tends to involve advocating more alternative hypotheses in comparison to a prevention focus orientation (Liberman, Molden, Idson, & Higgins, 2001). Other researchers also found that chronic or manipulated regulatory focus differences result in different levels of creativity in which the promotion focus people tend to be more creative compared to the prevention focus people (Friedman & Forster, 2005).

Strategic preferences in relation to goal pursuit means vary based on regulatory focus differences. One of the major determinants of the subjective value of social interactions is the extent to which it fulfills the perceiver's underlying goals. A social interaction would have a high subjective value when it satisfies the underlying goals of individuals. Likewise, if it does not fulfill such satisfactions then it would have a low subjective value. Promotion focus has a general underlying goal to accomplish a change of the current state to a better

one, (i.e., from “0” to “1”) while prevention focus aims to ensure the current state will not get worse, (i.e., from “0” to “-1”) (Higgins, 1997). Thus, promotion focus is mainly about the advancement needs while prevention focus is mostly about the security needs. As people seek to fulfil their needs, they engage in different behaviour models based on promotion versus prevention focus related motivation orientations. This motivation orientation differences in turn result in distinct cognitive appraisals and emotional consequences (Higgins, 1997). A substantial body of research has supported this prediction (e.g., Leone, Perugini, & Bagozzi, 2005; Righetti & Kumashiro, 2012; Zou, Ingram, & Higgins, 2015; Woltin & Yzerbyt, 2014). In one instance, Leona, Perugini, and Bagozzi (2005) investigated the moderating effects of regulatory foci on the impact of anticipated emotions and cognitive appraisals in decision making (e.g., action evaluation) in two experiments. The researcher investigated the effects of both chronic (study 1) and primed (study 2) regulatory focus differences. The findings revealed that there are significant moderating effects of regulatory focus in negative anticipated emotions in both chronic and manipulated regulatory focus conditions. For instance, anticipated agitation is found to facilitate more favorable cognitive appraisals in the case of prevention focus orientation, whereas anticipated dejection induces more favorable cognitive appraisal in the cases of promotion focus orientation (Leona, Perugini, & Bagozzi, 2005).

As it has been discussed earlier, RFT is about two dynamic and flexible self-regulations in addition to chronic or situational regulations (Higgins, 2012). In other words, RFT postulates that ideal or ought self-regulation can be measured without having to assess stable self-regulations. Thus, the two self-regulation systems (promotion versus prevention) and the two motivations (advancement versus security) are not necessarily seen as stable traits, but they are also conceived as flexible concepts, that can be manipulated or primed by situational variables. These two distinct motivation foci (promotion and prevention) have many implications such as experiencing different emotions (Higgins, 1997), recollecting past events differently (Higgins, Shah, & Frieman, 1997), and using different tactics in retaining friendships (Higgins, Roney, Crowe, & Hymes, 1994). Likewise, ample interpersonal relationship research findings supported the predictions of RFT. For instance, research on interpersonal discrimination within the framework of RCT has shown that individuals with different regulatory focus tend to make distinct appraisals on out-group members (Sassenberg, Kessler, & Mummendy, 2003). Researchers found that high promotion focus individuals are more likely to discriminate against out-group members in

relation to the distribution of positive resources (e.g., money and food); however, high prevention focus individuals are more likely to discriminate against out-group members in relation to the distribution of negative resources (e.g., prison terms and fines) (Sassenberg, Kessler, & Mummendey, 2003). Also, social experiments on the attitudes of hosting citizens towards immigrants and refugees indicated that the participants (i.e., immigrant and refugee hosting community members) with higher prevention focus displayed more negative attitudes and behaviours towards immigrants that are perceived to be culturally different from them while the participants with higher promotion focus exhibited more positive attitudes and behaviours towards immigrants that are perceived to be culturally more similar to them (Peters, Boldero, & Kashima, 2010). The hierarchical regression analysis revealed that other variables such as nationalism, patriotism, multicultural ideology did not significantly change the results in these experiments (Peters, Boldero, & Kashima, 2010).

Researchers have manipulated the regulatory focus of participants in various techniques. For instance, regulatory focus can be primed by drawing more attention to advancement versus security needs and thereby induce participants briefly perceive their current goals mainly in terms of promotion or prevention focus regulation (Higgins, 1997). That is, if study objectives are framed in a way that involves gain-focused incentives (i.e., success results in a reward and failure results in the absence of a reward) then aiming for these objectives facilitate a promotion focus regulation. On the other hand, if study objectives are framed in a way that involves loss-focused incentives (i.e., success removes penalties and failures results in penalties) then aiming for these objectives increases a prevention focus self-regulation (e.g., Shah & Higgins, 1997). Events that signal the experience of elation or dejection related emotions are also shown to implicitly cue the prospect of promotion relevant outcomes and activate promotion focus self-regulation (Higgins, 2000). Likewise, incidents that signal the experience of quiescence or agitation related emotions implicitly cue the prospect of prevention relevant outcomes and activate prevention focus self-regulation (Higgins, 2000). Furthermore, once people are in scenarios that call attention to ideal self-standards, concerning advancement and aspiration, they perceive meeting these standards in term of gaining or failing to gain positive outcomes, which consequently leads to elated or dejected state and is likely to activate promotion focus self-regulation. On the other hand, when people are in scenarios that call attention to ought self-standards, concerning duties and obligations, they perceive meeting these standards in terms of removing or failing to remove negative outcomes, which then leads to relaxed or

agitated state and is likely to activate prevention focus self-regulation. (e.g., Higgins, Shah, & Friedman, 1997). There are also many other general circumstances that have been shown to prime promotion versus prevention focus self-regulation. For instance, conditions that bring attention to individuals' uniqueness and positive distinctiveness from others (i.e., focusing on independent self-construal) have been shown to facilitate increased attention to ideal self-standards (i.e., promotion focus self-regulation), while conditions that bring attention to social harmony and duties toward others (i.e., focusing on interdependent self-construal) have been shown to trigger increased attention to ought self-standards (i.e., prevention focus self-regulation) (e.g., Shah & Higgins, 1997; Molden, Lee, & Higgins, 2008; Higgins, 2000; Lee, Aaker, & Gardner, 2000). Given that regulatory focus variance is associated with underlying motivational differences in many social contexts and that these differences might be temporally manipulated, these findings provide circumstantial support for the methodology of this dissertation in investigating whether conflict resolution strategies can be used either in the service of an advancement or security motivation orientation based on the primed regulatory focus differences.

1.2.1.1. Regulatory Focus and Conflict Resolution

Previous research and theory have overwhelmingly shown that promotion and prevention focus self-regulations are conceptually and empirically distinguishable from other constructs with well-researched roles in the literature (Higgins, 2000). In this section, the implications of regulatory focus distinctions in relation to conflict resolutions are presented. One of the key distinctions between promotion focus and prevention focus self-regulation is that promotion focus self-regulation is rooted in *advancement needs*, whereas prevention focus self-regulation is rooted in *security needs*. Therefore, individuals might have a particular interest in, and receptiveness to information that is particularly relevant for their regulatory focus tendencies, namely advancement versus security (Molden, Lee, & Higgins, 2008). In one instance, Freitas and colleagues (2004) tested whether manipulating regulatory focus motivation would moderate the evaluative impact of the processing fluency. Their findings revealed that prevention focus primed participants, but not promotion focus primed participants, preferred stimuli that they could process quickly (i.e., fluently processed stimuli) (Freitas et al., 2004). Given that quickly processed stimuli might communicate the *safety* concerns are fulfilled with an implicit signal of familiarity, these findings imply that such evaluative distinction in relation to advancement versus security needs might take place

at a less conscious level. In line with this prediction, this research aims to examine the outcome differences between advancement motivation orientation versus security motivation orientation, independent of instrumental motivations in conflict resolution.

The Second key difference between promotion and prevention motivations is a primary focus on *gains* versus *losses*, respectively. Thus, individuals with promotion focus self-regulation are more sensitive to gain related information that includes the presence or absence of positive outcomes and people with prevention focus self-regulation are more sensitive to loss related information that includes the presence or absence of negative outcomes. Markman and colleagues (2005) tested how regulatory focus influences the participants' ability to acquire new perceptual categories based on interaction of payoff structure. The two main independent variables in this study were payoff conditions (e.g., mixed, gain, and loss) and regulatory focus manipulations. The payoff conditions were manipulated within subjects while regulatory focus was manipulated between subjects. All participants were instructed to perform three perceptual classification tasks in each session and regulatory focus was manipulated prior to the first task. The participants in promotion focus condition were instructed that in each task, if their performance exceeded a certain level, they would have a chance to win $50 in a drawing. The participants in prevention focus condition were told that they were going to have a chance to entry a drawing to win $50, but they would lose this chance if their performance fell lower than certain level. Prior to each task, a different payoff condition was introduced and each task comprised of three blocks of 50 trials. The findings supported the predictions of RFT in a way that promotion focus participants performed best when the payoff conditions included exclusively *gains*, whereas prevention focus participants performed best when the payoff condition included exclusively *losses* (Markman, Baldwin, & Maddox, 2005). The present studies also aim to test regulatory focus motivational orientation differences, focusing on *gains* versus *losses* in relation to conflict resolution strategies.

The third key difference between promotion and prevention focus self-regulation is the differences in nature and magnitude of emotional experiences related to *elation* and *dejection* versus *quiescence* and *agitation*, respectively. People with dominant promotion focus are more sensitive to affective evaluation of elation and dejection, whereas individuals with dominant prevention focus are more sensitive to affective evaluation of quiescence and agitation in interpersonal relationships (Molden, Lee, & Higgins, 2008). Such sensitivity was clearly demonstrated in 5 separate experiments by Shah and Higgins (2001). They found that

the participants with promotion focus self-regulation were quicker to evaluate social encounters in relation to elation or dejection while the participants with prevention focus self-regulation were quicker to evaluate social encounters in relation to quiescence and agitation. These findings were consisted in various conditions; (1) when promotion focus versus prevention focus were experimentally induced or measured as personality differences; (2) when participants reported how often they had felt these emotions over the past week; (3) when the participants made self-focused emotional appraisals; and (4) whey they were reacting emotionally loaded objects (e.g., flowers, bugs, and money) (Shah, & Higgins, 2001).

Furthermore, a well-designed contemporary research provides an indirect evidence for the underlying assumptions in the hypothesis of the present studies. Webb and colleagues (2017) conducted 5 studies to investigate the effects of fundamental motivations, locomotion versus assessment based on regulatory mode theory (RMT), on interpersonal conflict resolution. According to RMT, some people have strong motivation for assessment, a tendency for critical calculations and comparison while some others have strong motivation for locomotion, a tendency to move ahead and change the current situation (Webb et al., 2017). The overall findings in this study revealed that individuals' reactions to interpersonal conflict are not limited to instrumental concerns, but partially driven by underlying motivational differences (i.e., locomotion versus assessment). Motivational orientation to change the status quo (i.e., locomotion motivation) is found to facilitate reconciliation regardless of what is instrumentally at risk, whereas motivational orientation to assess the status quo and make critical evaluations and comparison (i.e., assessment motivation) are found to have various negative outcomes in interpersonal conflicts. The researchers demonstrated these findings were consisted in hypothetical conflict scenarios and experimental manipulations (study 1 & 2), personal conflict recollection (study 3), narratives (study 4), and dynamic roommate conflicts (study 5). Also, combined analysis on all 5 studies (study 6) confirmed the predicted association between locomotion orientation and reconciliatory tendency across 5 studies. Given that the concepts of locomotion and assessment motivations in RMT are highly related to the concepts of advancement and security motivation in RFT, these findings provide indirect evidence to the assumption of the hypotheses in the present studies that primed regulatory focus differences might result in conflict resolution strategies being used in the service of either advancement motivation orientation or security motivation orientation. As it has been underlined throughout this

chapter, the contemporary perspectives recognize the importance of emotions in conflict resolution. The following section first provides a general discussion of emotion, followed by a review on the relationship between emotion and conflict resolution strategies.

1.3. Emotion

People have a general understanding of what the concept of emotion entails; however, there is also a substantial degree of disagreement on its specific definition. This issue has resulted in important consequences in the literature since definitions have significant implications for both theory and research. For instance, if we define emotion as a private experience then consequently its association to the social interactions cannot be direct; however, should emotion be described as a communicative experience then it would have a clearer place in social interactions. In this section, instead of attempting to provide a specific definition of emotion, I discussed the antecedents and consequences of emotion in order to provide a comprehensive review on the subject. First, the relationship between emotions and bodily changes is considered since emotional experiences are associated to specific physical responses in our bodies, for instance, breaking into a cold sweat or an increased heart rate (i.e., physiological tendencies). Second, emotion is often directly or indirectly connected to events that occur in the social world, consequently, what differentiate emotional events from other social interactions are reflected. Third, emotion is linked to having a specific stand toward social events, loving or hating what has happened (i.e., appraisal). People might appraise an event as a reason for condemnation or celebration, therefore, next appraisal in emotions are reviewed. Fourth, people might feel like hurting or hugging someone, run away, or freeze in accordance to their emotional experiences, thus, emotional action tendencies (e.g., fight or flight tendencies) are discussed. Finally, self-regulatory aspect of emotions is considered since people often try to regulate one or more of these various aspects of emotional experiences for instance, by changing their perceptions of these emotions or trying to influence the course of events, or modifying their bodily responses.

Darwin was one of the first pioneering scientists to point out the close relationship between bodily exhibits and emotional experiences. He reasoned that functional behaviors eventually become habitual in their connection with particular states of mind and that physical bodily displays and emotion might become interconnected as a result of such habitual use (Darwin, 1872; as cited in Harmon-Jones, Price, & Harmon-Jones, 2015). Later,

William James (1884), in his classic paper "What is an emotion?", has put forward a theory of emotion causation, Feedback Theory. At the time of this publication, commonly held belief was that people first experience emotion and subsequently bodily or physiological changes occur. Feedback theory alternatively proposed that physiological experiences, changes or actions come first, which is subsequently followed by the experience of emotion and that bodily feedbacks (i.e., physiological changes) differentiates distinct emotions. That is, people can discern what specific emotion they are experiencing based on the specific sequence of bodily felt changes for each emotion (e.g., fear, love, anger etc.). Laird was one the first experimental psychologists who tested the predictions of James' feedback theory, for instance, we smile and with that smiling comes the realization and experience of being happy (Laird, 1974; as cited in Price & Harmon-Jones, 2015). Laird designed a method to assess the influence of manipulated facial expression on self-report emotional states; the participants were asked to move specific muscles to create expression of, for instance, smile or frown. (e.g., Laird, 1974). The research findings revealed that emotional facial expressions (e.g., happy or angry) indeed increased the experience of corresponding emotions in self-reports where the manipulation checks confirmed the expression of intended emotions were succeeded and that most of the participants did not discern the purpose of experiment manipulations (Laird, 1974). Strack and colleagues (1988) also investigated the influence of manipulated facial expression on the experience of emotion. Their manipulation techniques were less intrusive than those of Laird. That is, the researchers instructed the participants to hold a pen with their teeth in order to prime smiling without asking them to smile or how to move their facial muscles. In contrast, smiles were inhibited by asking them to hold a pen with their extended lips. The findings of this study also supported the reasoning that subtle manipulations facial expressions influence the experience of emotion (Strack, Martin, & Stepper, 1988). However, substantial body of research has failed to differentiate the patterns of bodily movements even in relation to opposite valence emotions (e.g., Ax, 1953; Cannon, 1927; Ekman, Levenson, & Friesen, 1983; as cited in Parkinson, Fisher, & Manstead, 2005). Schachter (1964) suggested that an undistinguishable pattern of metabolic activation (i.e., autonomic arousal) facilitates the energy behind the experiences of emotion that differentiate emotion from non-emotion; however, specific experiences of distinct emotions are based on appraisal of the related situation (Parkinson, Fisher, & Manstead, 2005).

The appraisal theories (e.g., Smith, & Ellsworth, 1985, Lazarus, 1991; Scherer, 2005) postulate that what differentiate emotion from other experiences is not the sensation of various bodily changes, but rather what causes emotion is the recognition that related events are appraised as personally important to us. That is, the experiences of emotion depend on the way we interpret and appraise what is happening to us. According to Lazarus (1991), people don't pay attention to the things that do not affect them personally or their social group in some way and that whether an experienced emotion is pleasant or unpleasant depends on the appraisal of *motivational congruence*. The particular nature of the pleasant or unpleasant emotion then based on *secondary appraisals* in relation to *accountability* and *coping potentials* of related experiences. For instance, if we blame someone else for an unpleasant event, we tend to experience anger; however, we are more likely to experience guilt if we blame ourselves for the same unpleasant event. Likewise, social environment influences the secondary appraisals of emotions. For instance, we might not enjoy a joke if a significant other appears to be offended by it. This is, people regulate their appraisals of emotions based on the perceived perspective of significant others (Manstead & Fisher, 2001). Zajonc (1980) questioned the assumptions of appraisal theory arguing that cognitivists are attempting to rationalize emotion. He underlined that emotion can be experienced without cognitive appraisals. Some researches even argue that emotion elicit cognition (e.g., Paterson & Cary, 2002). On the other hand, Scherer (2005) suggested a paradigm shift away from linear relationship between emotion and cognition toward a mutual synchronization of cognitive appraisal and emotion where the two function in a coupled fashion. Neuropsychological research findings support the idea that when operating simultaneously there is a bidirectional casual relation between cognition and emotion (Lewis, 2005).

The idea that emotion is influential in individuals' judgements and personal relationships has been around for many years and is also supported by the contemporary research. In one instance, Agrawal, Han, & Duhachek (2013) investigated how incidental emotions with different valence and agency appraisals influence decision making after preference consisted versus inconsistent information is received. The findings demonstrated that agency appraisals influence to decisions on accepting different views. For instance, anger (other appraisal emotion) was found to instill the participants with a perception that others are incorrect while they are right. The findings also revealed that pride and gratitude distinctly effect judgements; pride made the participants more resistant to preference

inconsistent information in comparison to gratitude. The scope of the impacts of distinct emotions on decision making and judgments is wide and varied. The effects of emotions on judgements and decision making can be explained by valence and specific cognitive appraisal dimensions (e.g., certainty, perceived controllability, anticipated effort, and perceived obstacle) or by coping potentials in relation to the experience of emotion itself (So et al., 2015).

People often try to regulate one or more aspects of emotional experiences, for instance, by changing their perceptions of these emotional experiences, or by trying to influence the course and outcome of related events, or by working on modifying their bodily responses. Self-regulation could be about both desired and undesired end states. According to many perspectives the primary function of emotion is to signal self-regulatory success or failure; self-regulation success elicits positive emotions, whereas self-regulation failure causes negative emotions (e.g., Frijda, 1986; Mandler, 1984; Simon, 1967, as cited in Higgins, 2000). Cybernetic inspired models can be given as examples of this perspective. Cybernetic inspired models postulate that emotions are outcomes of feedback in relation to self-regulatory success or failure (e.g., Carver & Scheier, 1998). Self-regulation of emotion conceptualized in cybernetic control models (i.e., feedback loop model) include 4 aspects; an input function, reference value, a comparison process, and an output. These models postulate that there is a monitoring mechanism that makes the comparison of the current state with a desired state, followed by an operating mechanism that aims to reduce any discrepancies between these two states, in which no action would be taken when no discrepancy is detected (Carver & Scheier, 1998). This type of self-regulation is typically involves hierarchically ordered goals with lower goals directed toward concrete behavior control (e.g., people stop and count to 10) while higher goals geared toward abstract principles (e.g., an individual wants to control her emotion) (Carver & Scheier, 1998). Both approach and avoidance goals might bring about positive or negative emotions where positive emotions result in coasting, that is reduction in effort regarding the goal pursuit, while negative emotions facilitate actions to increase efforts in goal pursuits (Carver & Scheier, 2012). Likewise, regulatory focus theory postulates that individuals' degree of promotion and prevention focus impact the nature and intensity of their emotional experiences to success and failure in their desired end states (Higgins, 1997). RFT more specifically predicts that self-regulation effectiveness provides important dimension to differentiate between cheerfulness and quiescence versus agitation and dejection (Higgins,

1997). The second dimension that further refine these emotions in regulatory focus perspective is the level of arousal (Higgins, 2000). The level of arousal has been utilized in the taxonomy of emotions by some other perspectives as well (e.g., Larsen & Diener, 1985; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988; Russell, Pealau, & Ferguson, 1978). What differentiate regulatory focus perspective from other perspectives is that according to RFT, the differences between emotions would be better examined by self-regulatory principles and non-emotional motivational states that trigger them (Higgins, 2000). Accordingly, the following four categories of emotions are put forward by RFT: (1) cheerfulness-related emotions (e.g., happy and elated), (2) quiescence related emotions (e.g., calm and relaxed), (3) agitation related emotions (e.g., tense and anxious), (4) dejection related emotions (e.g., sad and gloomy) (Higgins, 2000). Emotional experiences related to both cheerfulness and agitation involve relatively high arousal than those of quiescence and dejection (for a review, see Feldman, Barrett, & Russell, 1988; as cited in Higgins, 2000). Thus, one can meaningfully differentiate the pleasures of cheerfulness and quiescence, and the pains of agitation and dejection based on the level of arousal in emotions.

Table 1.1. The classification of regulatory focus emotions (Higgins,2000).

	Self-Regulatory Effectiveness	
Level of Arousal	Success (Pleasure)	Failure (Pain)
High	Cheerfulness	Agitation
Low	Quiescence	Dejection

The taxonomy of regulatory focus emotions based on valence and arousal levels has received empirical support. Higgins and colleagues (1997) designed 4 sophisticated studies to test whether emotional responses to goal achievement vary as a function of promotion versus prevention focus. In study 1, the participants (n = 59) first filled out an idiographic measure of actual self and self-guide attributes that asked participants to list attributes defining different self-representations from their own standpoint (i.e., their ideal self and ought self from their own stand point). Their reaction time was calculated in listing attributes of self-representation that measures the accessibility of ideal and ought self-attributes. For each self-attribute, the computer calculated three response times: (1) the time it took for the participant to list the self-guide attribute after being asked (2) the time it took to produce the self-guide extent rating for that attribute, and (3) the time it took to make the actual-self extent rating for that attribute. The participants also filled out the emotional frequency

questionnaire, consisting of 4 dejection and 4 agitation emotions. The participants were asked to rate how often they experienced each emotion in the last week. The hierarchical multiple regression analysis on the frequent dejection scores showed only one significant effect. The interaction of ideal-self guide strength and actual-ideal discrepancy had a significant positive partial correlation with frequent dejection, whereas the interaction of ought-self guide strength and actual-ought discrepancy did not have significant negative partial correlation with frequency of dejection. Likewise, the hierarchical multiple regression analysis on the frequent agitation scores revealed only one significant effect. The interaction effect of ought self-guide strength and actual-ought discrepancy yielded a significant positive partial correlation with frequency of agitation while the interaction of ideal-self-guide strength and actual ideal discrepancy did not have a significant negative partial correlation with frequency of agitation. In study 2, the participants (n = 138) were presented with the same materials included in the first study. The difference was that the participants were asked rate 12 emotions; how often they have experienced these emotions in the last 4 weeks. The emotion questionnaire consisted of 6 dejection and cheerfulness emotions as well as 6 agitation and quiescence emotions. The results replicated the findings of study 1. In study 3, the participants (n = 95) also used the same materials with two minor modifications; no practice session included before the start of data collection and the participants were asked to list an ideal self-guide attribute and ought self-guide attribute in a mix order, rather than listing ideal attributes first, followed by ought attributes. These results also replicated the findings of study 1 and 2. In study 4 (experimental design), the participants (n = 92) were first presented with a description of a task, followed by a random assignment in a promotion focus or prevention focus framing. The instructions presented the consequences of success first, followed by those of failure. One half of the participants in each framing condition were randomly assigned to this order while the other half were presented with a reverse order of instructions. The analysis revealed non-significant effect of order of instructions. The participants then filled out a 4-item emotional intensity form, *happy, tense, discourage, and released*. Next, they performed a memory task with twenty trigraphs. After finishing the recall test, the participants waited as the computer purportedly calculated their score and compared it with the scores of the previous participants. Next, the participants received a performance feedback in each framing condition; random half received a success feedback while the other random half received a failure feedback. After the feedback, they filled out the 4-item emotion questionnaire one more time. The results revealed that the effect of regulatory focus framing on feedback consistent emotional change

was significant for both the cheerfulness and dejection dimension and the quiescence and agitation dimension (Higgins, Shah, & Friedman, 1997).

Regulatory focus perspective has made a considerable contribution to the literature by refining emotional experiences by the integration of non-emotional motivational states and its predictions have been supported by the contemporary research findings (e.g., Righetti, Finkenauer, & Rushult, 2011; Hamstra, Sassenberg, Van Yperen, & Wisse, 2014; Sassenberg, et.al., 2014). In one instance, Sassenrath and colleagues (2014) examined motivational determinant of facial emotion recognition based on observer regulatory focus. The findings revealed a positive correlation between a promotion focus orientation and facial emotion recognition that is mediated by shorter fixation duration on the face. These finding are in line with the eager strategy (i.e., promotion focus) based on a pattern of attention allocation. The findings also revealed that prevention focus did not have a significant influence neither on perceptual processing nor on facial emotion recognition. The results were consistent in both chronic and primed regulatory focus conditions. These findings suggest that there are significant consequences of observer motivational orientation on facial emotion recognition (Sassenrath et al., 2014). A review on the specific emotional outcomes of regulatory focus tendencies might contribute to present a comprehensible review. Thus, the influence of regulatory tendencies on the experience of emotions is discussed next.

As underlined earlier, RFT posits that promotion focused people tend to concentrate on their needs in relation to nurturance and advancement objectives in which they strive to have their actual-selves (e.g., behaviors and self-perceptions) in line with their ideal-selves (i.e., self-standards based on wishes and aspirations of how they want to be). These individuals then tend to pay more attention on gains and advances in their social interactions (Higgins, Roney, Crowe, & Hymes, 1994). Consequently, promotion focus individuals are more likely to experience *elation* when they reach their goals and experience *dejection* when they cannot accomplish their goals (Higgins, 1997). On the other hand, people high in prevention focus tend to concentrate on their needs in relation to security and obligations in which they try to have their actual-selves in line with their ought-selves (i.e., self-standards based on felt duties and responsibilities). These individuals then tend to concentrate on losses in their social relationships (Higgins, Roney, Crowe, & Hymes, 1994). Consequently, prevention focus people are more likely to experience *quiescence* when they reach their goals and experience *agitation* when they cannot fulfill their needs and responsibilities (Higgins, 1997). This relationship is not limited to chronic differences in regulatory focus tendencies

but also takes place in cases of temporal regulatory focus differences (Higgins, 1997). For instance, when prevention focus is primed and security motivation orientation is made dominant, people are more likely to experience *agitation* emotions, whereas when promotion focus is primed and advancement motivation orientation is mode dominant, people are more likely to experience *dejection* emotions in interpersonal conflicts (Higgins, 2012). It is important to note that regulatory focus perspective does not reject the importance of hedonic emotions; however, it maintains that people's emotional differences can be better investigated by taking into account of regulatory focus differences (Higgins, 1997). For instance, both escaping the displeasure of agitation and displeasure of dejection can be defined as an avoidance motivation by hedonic principle, and RFT argues that these two avoidance motivations can be better refined with the underlying differences in promotion versus prevention focus (Higgins, 1997). Promotion focus oriented failure avoidance is likely to results in *agitation*, whereas failures in avoidance with regards to prevention focus goals more likely to result in *dejection*; both are negative emotions, but with important distinctions. Agitation emotions are found to be related to anxiety, while dejection emotions are related to depression (Higgins, 1997). Also, agitation emotions can be defined as high arousal negative emotions, while dejection emotions are found to be low arousal negative emotions (Brockner & Higgins, 2001).

The predictions of regulatory focus theory in relation to emotional experiences have been tested in various areas, from goal pursuits to leadership and romantic relationships. While many studies supported the predictions of the theory (Righetti, Finkenauer, & Rushult, 2011; Hmstra, Sassenberg, Van Yperen, & Wise, 2014; Sassenberg, et.al., 2014), some others showed mixed results. In one instance, Winterheld and Simpson (2011) investigated the relationship between regulatory focus motivations (i.e., promotion focus and prevention focus) and emotions in romantic relationship conflicts. They examined how regulatory focus differences (chronic and primed) influence the participants' perceptual, behavioral, and emotional responses in romantic relationship conflicts in 5 studies in a multimethod approach. The findings related to experience of emotions revealed that promotion focus significantly increased the experience of dejection, but not agitation, while prevention focus significantly increased the experience of agitation, but not dejection, in negative outcomes. However, the findings also showed that promotion focus significantly increased both cheerfulness and quiescence while prevention focus did not significantly increase quiescence or cheerfulness in positive outcomes. This study used a vignette that described an

interpersonal conflict involving an imagined romantic partner in which positive outcome was that the partner suddenly arrived with a surprise gift, while negative outcome was that the partner never called back. Some researchers pointed out that the participants' emotional responses to hypothetical events might not reflect the positive emotions as strong as they would have been experienced in the case of actual interpersonal conflicts (e.g., Winterheld & Simpson, 2011). The role of emotion in conflict resolution is further discussed in the following section, but it is important to note that negative emotions might be experienced more strongly in comparison to positive emotions in real or imagined conflicts.

1.3.1. Emotion and Conflict Resolution

Traditional conflict researchers were convinced that interpersonal conflict should be viewed from a cognitive perspective, disregarding conflicting individuals' motivations (e.g., Hammond, 1965), while some others distinguished cognitive versus affective conflicts (e.g., Amason, 1996). Consequently, the main focus of conflict resolution research is used to be on the context free calculations of BATNA (Best Alternatives to a Negotiated Agreement) or WATNA (Worse Alternative to a Negotiated Agreement) and *cold* cognitive biases, free from motivational orientations and emotions; however, the contemporary perspectives recognize the influence of *warm* cognitive perceptions related to emotions and threat appraisals as well as power asymmetry (e.g., Powel & Maoz, 2014). Despite this recognition of the impact of emotion on conflict resolution, the contemporary interpersonal conflict resolution research has focused mainly on the limited relationship between emotional valence and general conflict resolution strategies (e.g., approach versus avoidance). Many research findings have revealed that avoidance and approach conflict resolutions are indeed associated with emotional valence. For instance, approach resolution strategy has been shown to associate with positive emotions and less loneliness, while avoidance resolution strategy significantly predicts increased negative emotions in response to interpersonal conflicts (e.g., Elliot, Gable, & Mapes, 2006; Gable, 2006; as cited in Winterheld & Simpson, 2011). On the other hand, intergroup conflict research has focused on investigating more complex relationship between conflict resolution and emotional valance as well as distinct emotions. Powell and Maoz (2014) reviewed the intergroup conflict literature to identify what stands in the way of successfully resolving intergroup conflict, including the association between distinct emotions and barriers to a successful conflict resolution. Related research has revealed that distinct collective emotions such as hatred, animosity, and

threat serve to maintain and intensify intergroup conflicts (e.g., Bar-Tal, 2000, 2007, 2010; Maoz & Eidelson, 2007; Maoz & Ellis, 2008; Maoz & McCauley, 2008; as cited in Powell & Maoz, 2014). Moreover, many research findings have documented how specific emotions, including incidental emotions to a current decision, can influence peoples' perception, information processing, judgements, and behaviors in social contexts (e.g., Agrawal, Han, & Duhachek, 2013; Agrawal, Menon, & Aaker, 2007; De Hooge, Breugelmans, & Zeelenberg, 2008; Garg, Inman, & Mittal, 2005; Han, Lerner, & Keltner, 2007; Keltner & Lerner, 2010; Lerner & Keltner, 2000, 2001; Lewis, 2000; Maheswaran & Chen, 2006; Tiedens & Linton, 2001; as cited in So et al, 2015).

Discrete emotions, such as fear, anger, sadness, can be differentiated not only the way that they are expressed but also in their cognitive appraisals, antecedent events, physiology, and behavioral response tendencies (Ekman, 1992). Each emotion is also associated to different types of adaptive behaviour (Plutchik, 1962). For instance, fear is associated with disengagement and escape, while anger is associated with combative behaviours, and sadness relates to attempts to recover from loss (Roseman, Cynthia, & Swartz, 1994). In addition, the existence of a family of related discrete emotions (e.g., agitated emotions include tense and anxious) is in line with the theory of desecrate emotions (Ekman & Friesen, 1975). For instance, in their seminal work, Smith and Ellsworth (1985) showed how fifteen discrete emotions could be differentiated and defined by six distinct secondary cognitive appraisals; *pleasantness* (i.e., valence of the emotion), *anticipated effort* (i.e., the extent to which people think they need to exert an effort), *certainty* (i.e., the extent of certainty about the incident), *attentional activity* (i.e., the extent to which people devote their attention to the incident), *self-other responsibility* (i.e., the extent to which how is thought to be responsible in the incident), *self-other-situational control* (i.e., the extent to which who is in control of the incident). A discrete emotion might share some appraisals with another emotion yet could be distinctive based on the other appraisal dimensions. For instance, pride and happiness share high pleasantness, certainty, and situation control appraisals; however, pride is associated with a sense of personal achievement whereas happiness not (So et al., 2015). The aforementioned appraisals in conflict resolution could be related to the opposing side, conflict itself, or the expected outcomes. For instance, certainty appraisal could be related to who initiated the conflict or what is expected as an outcome in the conflict.

Conflict research has underlined that conflict resolutions often require movement and change between opposing positions (e.g., Marcus, 2014; as cited in Webb et al., 2017).

Consistent with this perspective, peoples' reactions to conflict have mainly been conceptualized as means toward achieving desired ends or away from undesired ends (i.e., the process of change is a core of conflict resolution) (Webb et al., 2017). In relation to the role of emotion in conflict resolution, one of the key functions of emotion is to mobilise a person to handle important interpersonal encounters, partly based on what types of activities have been adaptive in the past. These previous experiences might include both the history of our ancestors as well as what has been adaptive in our past personal experiences (Ekman, 1992). Interpersonal conflict often involves emotional tension; when people feel that their goals are obstructed, they experience various negative emotions, including sadness or anxiety (Elliott & Kaufman 2016) and the effects of different negative emotions might be distinct in conflict resolution. For instance, anger might escalate conflict while sadness might have the opposite effect. In addition, individual regulatory focus differences influence the nature and extent of emotional reactions to incidents (Higgins, 2000). When prevention focus is primed and security motivation orientation is made dominant, people are more likely to experience *agitation* emotions whereas when promotion focus is primed and advancement motivation orientation is made dominant, people are more likely to experience *dejection* emotions (Higgins, 2012); such relationships could also be observed in conflict resolution.

1.4. Present Studies

As underlined earlier, the dual concern model of conflict resolution strategies is based on a pure cognitive perspective. Thus, this model could be enhanced by the integration of non-cognitive motivational orientations and emotions. Therefore, present studies aim at refining the dual concern interpersonal conflict regulation strategy model (Blake & Mouton, 1964) by integrating regulatory focus perspective (Higgins, 1997). In line with the above review, the conflict resolution strategies are not treated as stable traits, but they are accepted as flexible constructs in this research. That is, the conflict resolution strategies are investigated as flexible strategic tendencies in relation to different underlying motivational orientations and emotions. Also, the conflict resolutions often involve dynamic processes where different emotional experiences could influence further appraisals, behaviors, or post conflict actions (e.g., the likelihood of reconciliation). However, in order to adapt parsimonious approach in this exploratory research, the impacts of previous conflict resolution experiences, dynamic processes in appraisals, or dynamic emotional experiences are not examined in the present studies. In this research, conflict resolution is conceptualized

as an action tendency (i.e., an desire or inclination in deciding how to handle a disagreement with someone) and emotions as well as motivational orientations are assessed as outcome variables based on primed regulatory focus differences.

People might have both promotion focus (i.e., advancement motivation) and prevention focus (i.e., security motivation) tendencies, but we are more likely to have predominant promotion focus or prevention focus with stable individual differences as *traits* (Higgins, 1997). Many studies have also shown that in addition to stable differences, individuals' regulatory focus can be temporarily manipulated *states* where either promotion or prevention focus is primed and made more dominant (e.g., Shah & Higgins, 1997; Molden, Lee, & Higgins, 2008; Higgins, 2000; Lee, Aaker, & Gardner, 2000). Also, independent of the instrumental concerns, the conflict resolution process itself can involve more fundamental motivations such as regulatory foci (i.e., nurturance versus safety). In conflict, while some people might tend to focus on gains and moving forward (advancement motivation orientation), others might be more likely to focus on avoiding losses or preventing negative events (security motivation orientation) in line with regulatory focus differences. Consequently, conflict resolution strategies could be used either in the service of advancement motivation or security motivation orientations in accordance with primed regulatory focus variance. Based on the extensive literature review for this study, there has not been a prior research investigating the implications of regulatory focus motivation differences in conflict resolution strategies. Therefore, the present study specifically tested hypothesis 1.

The present study is designed to specifically test below hypothesis and explore the following research questions in 3 separate studies. In all studies, the participants' regulatory focus is manipulated in one of the three conditions (control, primed promotion focus, and primed prevention focus). The main difference of these studies is the number of conflict resolution strategies presented to the participants. In study 1, the participants were instructed to use a specific conflict resolution strategy; in study 2, the participants had an option to select a strategy out of two alternative conflict resolution strategies; and in study 3, the participants had an option to select any one of the 5 conflict resolution strategies. This design had two-fold objectives. The first objective was to investigate the effects of having alternative resolution strategies at disposal on motivational and emotional differences. The second objective was to investigate dominant resolution strategies based on regulatory focus priming. Accordingly, the participants' motivational and emotional tendencies are

investigated when they use a given specific resolution strategy (study 1) and when they prefer one strategy out of two alternative strategies (study 2). In addition, the dominant conflict resolution strategies based on regulatory focus differences are investigated when participants have an option to choose one strategy out of two alternative strategies (study 2) and when they have an option to use any one of the 5-conflict resolution strategies (study 3).

Hypothesis 1. It is hypothesized that promotion focus primed individuals will have a significantly more advancement motivation orientation, while prevention focus primed individuals will have significantly more security motivation orientation when using a given specific strategy (study 1) and when they have an option to select one strategy out of two alternative conflict resolution strategies (study 2)

Interpersonal conflict often involves emotional tension. People are likely to experience various negative emotions, including sadness or anxiety when their goals are obstructed (Elliott & Kaufman 2016). In addition, as underlined earlier, individuals' regulatory focus influences the nature and extent of their emotional reactions (Higgins, 2000). When prevention focus is primed and security motivation orientation is made dominant, people are more likely to experience agitation emotions; however, when promotion focus is primed and advancement motivation orientation is made dominant, people are more likely to experience dejection emotions (Higgins, 2012). Based on the extensive literature review for this study, the regulatory focus emotional differences have not been previously investigated in conflict resolution strategies. Therefore, the present study specifically tested hypothesis 2.

Hypothesis 2. It is hypothesized that prevention focus primed individuals will have significantly higher agitation emotions, whereas promotion focus primed individuals will have significantly higher dejection emotions when using a given specific conflict resolution strategy (study 1) and when they have an option to choose one strategy out of two alternative conflict resolution strategies (study 2).

The conflict resolution strategies can be conceptualized as strategic choices based on peoples' two instrumental concerns, which are related to outcomes for self and others (Pruitt, 1983). Accordingly, each one of the 5-resolution strategy is defined whether the concerns for self and other is high, low, or medium. For instance, *forcing* involves high concern for self and low concern for others, whereas *avoiding* involves low concern for both self and others. In some cases, people might have to choose one strategy out of two alternative

conflict resolution strategies, such as fight or flight (i.e., force or avoid), or cooperate or compete. In some other cases, people might first consider all their options, followed by a decision to implement one of the 5 resolution strategy alternatives. Also, given that promotion and prevention motivations can have multidimensional effects such as influencing individuals' assessments, judgements, emotions, and chosen strategies, it is not surprising that these motivations can have strong influence on people's goal pursuits (Higgins & Spiegel, 2004). For instance, traditional goal pursuit perspectives focus on the interaction of two main variables: (1) expectation for success, (2) the perceived value of this success (e.g., Feather, 1982). However, research findings revealed that such interaction is different between promotion versus prevention focus individuals (Shah & Higgins, 1997). Promotion focus individuals prefer the typical *expectancy* X *value* interaction in their goal preferences by striving to maximize their advancement, which can be achieved by both high valuable and a high likelihood of advancement. On the other hand, prevention focus individuals mainly emphasize security that can be fulfilled by selecting the conflict resolution strategy with high security value regardless of whether that security could be obtained (i.e., one must use a given strategy to attain security no matter what the odds are). Based on the extensive literature review for this study, there has not been a prior research that explored which conflict resolution strategies might be dominant based on regulatory focus tendencies in interpersonal conflicts. Thus, the present studies explored the following research questions.

Research Question 1. Although people can use any one of the 5-conflict resolution strategies in the service of either advancement or security motivation orientations, when participants' promotion or prevention focus is primed and they are provided with two alternative resolution strategy options in the following 6 separate groups; (1) Forcing or Accommodating, (2) Forcing or Avoiding, (3) Forcing or Collaborating, (4) Collaborating or Accommodating, (5) Collaborating or Avoiding, (6) Accommodating or Avoiding, which conflict resolution strategies will be significantly more dominant? (study 2)

Research Question 2. Although people can use any one of the 5-conflict resolution strategies in the service of either advancement or security motivation orientations, when participants' promotion or prevention focus is primed and they are provided with 5-resolution strategy options, which one of the five alternative conflict resolution strategies (avoiding, collaborating, forcing, compromising, accommodating) will be significantly more dominant? (study 3).

2. STUDY I. MOTIVATIONS AND EMOTIONS BASED ON REGULATORY FOCUS MANIPULATION IN CONFLICT RESOLUTION STRATEGIES

The objective of this study is to examine the effects of primed regulatory focus differences (promotion focus, prevention focus, and control) on the motivational orientation and emotions in 5-separate conflict resolution strategy groups; (1) Collaborating, (2) Avoiding, (3) Forcing, (4) Accommodating, and (5) Compromising. Each resolution strategy group included 75 participant who were randomly assigned to one of the three experiment conditions, (primed promotion focus; *n* =25), (primed prevention focus; *n* =25), and (control group; *n* =25). The predictor variable was the experiment condition and the outcome variables were motivational orientations (advancement versus security) and emotions (agitation versus dejections), assessed in 5-separate conflict resolution groups.

2.1. Method

2.1.1. Participants

The demographic characteristics of the participants in study 1 are summarized in Table 2.1. This study included 375 participants of which 262 (70.1 %) were females and 112 (29,9 %) were males. The ages of participants range between 19 and 37 (*M* = 21.8; *SD* = 2.35). All of the participants were students at Ankara Yıldırım Beyazıt University (AYBU), 154 of which are from department of theology (41.8%), 77 of which are enrolled in psychology (20.9%). Also, most of the participants were undergraduate students (*n* = 354, 94.4 %). The data was collected in person at various AYBU campuses. Educational attainment of their parents varied; many participants' fathers (*n* = 111, 29.8%) had high school diploma and many of their mothers (*n* = 123, 32.9%) had primary school diploma. Also, most of the participants lived in Ankara (*n* = 286, 81.0%) and many of them have lived in metropolitan areas (*n* = 177, 47.5%).

Table 2.1. Study 1 demographic characteristics of the participants (N = 375).

Variables	Frequency	Mean (*SD*)
Age		21.80 (2.35)
Gender		
Male	112 (29.9 %)	
Female	262 (69.9 %)	
Missing	1	
Student Department		
Theology	154 (41.8%)	
Psychology	77 (20.9%)	
Mechanical Engineering	12 (3.3%)	
Law	12 (3.3%)	
Other	120 (30.7%)	
Student University Level		
Undergraduate	354 (94.4%)	
Graduate	4 (1.1%)	
Father's Highest Level of Educational Attainment		
Primary School	55 (14.7%)	
Middle School	55 (14.7%)	
High School	111 (29.8%)	
College Diploma	24 (6.4%)	
University Degree	89 (23.9%)	
Master's Degree	19 (5.1%)	
PhD Degree	9 (2.4%)	
Other & Missing	14 (3.0%)	
Mother's Highest Level of Educational Attainment		
Primary School	123 (32.9%)	
Middle School	55 (14.7%)	
High School	107 (27.3%)	
College Diploma	18 (4.8%)	
University Degree	38 (10.2%)	
Master's Degree	5 (1.3%)	
PhD Degree	3 (0.8%)	
Other and Missing	57 (6.7%)	
City		
Ankara	286 (81.9%)	
Other	89 (18.1%)	
Residential Area		
Village and Town	26 (7.0%)	
District	49 (13.1%)	
City	120 (32.2%)	
Metropolitan	177 (47.5%)	
Other	1 (0.3%)	

2.1.2. Instruments

The participants were given a questionnaire package including 5 instruments in a small group administration process. The first instrument of the questionnaire was a *regulatory focus manipulation from*. There were 2 versions of this instrument, priming either promotion or prevention focus of the participants in accordance with their experiment condition (control group did not receive any regulatory focus priming form). The second instrument in the questionnaire was the *interpersonal conflict vignette* that presented the participants with a

hypothetical interpersonal conflict scenario and directed the participants to visualize themselves being a student in the described conflict. The third instrument was a *regulatory focus interpersonal conflict resolution strategy scale*, which is developed by integrating the Regulatory Focus Scale (Lockwood, Jordan, & Kunda, 2002) and the Dutch Test for Conflict Handling Scale (Van de Vliert, 1997). This instrument assessed the participants' regulatory focus motivational tendencies (advancement versus security) in resolving the conflict vignette by using the resolution strategy assigned to their group (collaborating, avoiding, forcing, accommodating, or compromising). Therefore, there were 5 versions of this instrument and the wording of the items in each scale were modified, reflecting the distinctions among the 5-conflict resolution strategies. A copy of the questionnaire package, including all instruments can be found in Appendix A.

2.1.2.1. Regulatory Focus Priming Forms

The regulatory focus of the participants has been manipulated by various techniques in the literature. For instance, conditions that bring attention to individuals' uniqueness and positive distinctiveness from others (i.e., focusing on independent self-construal) have been shown to trigger increased attention to ideal self-standards (i.e., promotion focus self-regulation) while conditions that bring attention to social harmony and duties toward others (i.e., focusing on interdependent self-construal) have been shown to trigger increased attention to ought self-standards (i.e., prevention focus self-regulation) (e.g., Shah & Higgins, 1997; Molden, Lee, & Higgins, 2008; Higgins, 2000; Lee, Aaler, & Gardner, 2000). Also, events that signal the experience of elation or dejection related emotions implicitly cue the prospect of promotion relevant outcomes and activate promotion focus self-regulation (Higgins, 2000). In addition, many other general circumstances have been shown to prime promotion or prevention focus self-regulation.

One of the most frequently used techniques in manipulating regulatory focus is drawing attention to past and current ideals or duties and thereby prompt people to briefly perceive their current goals either in terms of promotion or prevention focus regulation (e.g., Higgins et al., 1994; Lee and Aaker, 2004; Liberman, Molden, Idson, & Higgins, 2001; Friedman & Forster, 2001; Vaughn, et al., 2006). In the present studies, the participants are presented with the following forms in accordance with their experiment condition to draw their attentions to past and current either ideal goals or duties in order to prime their

promotion or prevention focus, respectively. The forms included short guidelines and 2 open ended question in relation to either goals, achievements or duties and responsibilities in accordance with experiment conditions. The control group did not receive any regulatory focus priming forms.

a) ***Promotion focus priming form***

The participants were given a set of two instructions in order to prime promotion focus. The first instruction was that "People pursue different goals (ideals, dreams, aspirations) at various stages of their lives. Now, we would like you to think about a present or past goal that you have tried to reach. Please, recall one of your goals in details that you have successfully accomplished. Write down the details of that goal (event, why it is important to you, targeted success etc.) in the space provided below. After describing this goal, please shortly narrate the consequences of accomplishing that goal (gains, achievements, or making their current status better etc.)."

The second instruction was that "Above you have described a goal that you have successfully accomplished. Now, we would like you to think about another goal but this time please focus on a goal that YOU WERE UNSUCCESSFUL or unable to reach. Write down the details of that goal (event, why it is important to you, targeted success etc.) in the space provided below. After describing that goal, please shortly narrate the consequences of being unsuccessful on this goal (unable to obtain gains or achievements, or not being able to improve current status etc.)."

The second instruction was included in order to ensure that the participants also reflected on their unsuccessful goals. The objective of asking participants to think about two separate events was to increase the promotion priming effect by having the participants reflecting on both accomplished and unsuccessful goals.

b) ***Prevention focus priming form***

The participants in the prevention focus prime condition were also given a set of two instructions. The first instruction was that "People undertake different duties (obligation, responsibility, task) at various stages of their lives. Now, we would like you to think about a present or past duty that you have undertaken. Please, recall one of your duties in details that you have successfully fulfilled. Write down the details of that duty (event, why it is

important to you, your responsibility etc.) in the space provided below. After describing this duty, please shortly narrate the consequences of fulfilling that duty (avoiding a loss or harm, or keeping your status intact etc.)."

The second instruction was that "Above you have described a duty that you have successfully fulfilled. Now, we would like you to think about another duty but this time please focus on a duty that YOU WERE UNSUCCESSFUL or unable to fulfill. Write down the details of that duty (event, why it is important to you, targeted success etc.) in the space provided below. After describing that goal, please shortly narrate the consequences of being unsuccessful on fulfilling this duty (unable to avoid a loss or harm, or unable to keep your status intact etc.)."

The second instruction was included in order to ensure that the participants also reflected on their unfulfilled duties. The objective of asking participants to think about two separate events was to increase the prevention priming effect by having the participants reflecting on both fulfilled and unfulfilled duties.

2.1.2.2. Interpersonal Conflict Vignette

The second item in the package was a vignette, summarizing hypothetical conflict between university students. Previous research has shown that vignettes about hypothetical conflict can successfully be used in conflict resolution studies (e.g., Jetten and colleagues, 2015; Prooijen, Karremans, and Beest 2006; Webb, et al., 2017). Given that participants were university students and that student projects are significant events in their academic endeavors, they were presented with hypothetical conflict on a student project in order to increase the likelihood that they can relate to the hypothetical conflict.

The vignette was that "Universities presently attach more importance to hands-on training in their curriculum. University students are required to successfully complete and report a hands-on project in order to graduate. In accordance with the department's policy on this subject, these projects are required to be prepared by a group of two students, and consequently you are working on the project with another student. Owing to the fact that the instructor grade students based on the project report there would be no individual grading for students. Now please, imagine being a student in this project. You need to make important decisions before commencing the project (How to collect the data? How would

write the project report? Who would be responsible from each part? Who would prepare the laboratory? etc.). However, you are in serious conflict with your project partner on these issues. You think your project partner is trying to reach the project outcomes by working less (taking on easy jobs, exaggerating his/her responsibility, asking you write more chapters etc.)."

2.1.2.3. Conflict Resolution Strategies

The interpersonal conflict vignette was followed by one of the 5 resolution strategy description (collaborating, avoiding, forcing, accommodating, compromising) in accordance with the participants' group. The participants were instructed to visualize themselves using only the described resolution strategy in resolving the conflict vignette. Therefore, the participants could only use one resolutions strategy in this study. The 5 conflict resolution strategy groups were given the following slightly different instructions.

a) ***Collaborating group***

"There would be different strategies to resolve this conflict, but you prefer to resolve this conflict by collaborating with the other student (by working together and reaching mutual agreement, by paying same attention to both yours and the other students' goals and needs etc.). In other words, you think that the only possible way of resolving this conflict is to build working partnership with the other student. In short, this strategy would mean that you have a high concern for yourself and the other student's wants and needs. In what circumstances and why would you use this strategy (collaborating)? Please, rate your preferences by using below questions."

b) ***Avoiding group***

"There would be different strategies to resolve this conflict, but you prefer to resolve this conflict by avoiding the conflict with the other student (by overlooking disagreed subjects and physically or psychologically isolating yourself from this state etc.). In other words, you think that the only possible way of resolving this conflict is to disregard the matters of the conflict. In short, this strategy would mean that you have a low concern for both of yours wants and needs. In what circumstances and why would you use this strategy (avoiding)? Please, rate your preferences by using below questions."

c) *Forcing group*

"There would be different strategies to resolve this conflict, but you prefer to resolve this conflict by forcing your wants and needs on the other student (by verbally, physically, and psychologically dominating the other student etc.). In other words, you think that the only acceptable way of resolving this conflict is to follow through your own goals. In short, this strategy would mean that while you have a high concern for your own wants and needs, you disregard the other students' wants and needs. In what circumstances and why would you use this strategy (forcing)? Please, rate your preferences by using below questions."

d) *Accommodating group*

"There would be different strategies to resolve this conflict, but you prefer to resolve this conflict by easy going with the other students in this project (accepting his/her wishers and agreeing with his/her demands etc.). In other words, you think that the only possible way of resolving this conflict is to completely accept the requests of the other student. In short, this strategy would mean that while you ignore your own wants and needs, you have a high concern for the other students' wants and needs. In what circumstances and why would you use this strategy (accommodating)? Please, rate your preferences by using below questions."

e) *Compromising group*

"There would be different strategies to resolve this conflict, but you prefer to resolve this conflict by making concessions to the other student (agreeing occasionally with his/her wants and needs with a hope that sometimes he/she would agree your wants and needs etc.). In other words, you think that the only possible way of resolving this conflict is to find the middle ground with the other student. In short, this strategy would mean that you have a moderate concern for yourself and the other student's wants and needs. In what circumstances and why would you use this strategy (compromising)? Please, rate your preferences by using below questions."

2.1.2.4. Regulatory Focus Interpersonal Conflict Resolution Strategy Scales

After reading the resolution strategy description, the participants rated their regulatory focus motivation orientations on one of the 5-regulatory focus interpersonal conflict resolution strategy scales, handed out in accordance with their group. These scales are

developed by integrating the Regulatory Focus Scale (Lockwood, Jordan, & Kunda, 2002) and The Dutch Test for Conflict Handling Scale (Van de Vliert, 1997) in order to measure advancement motivation and security motivation orientations in the 5-conflict resolution strategies. These scales included 8 items, 4 of which assessed advancement motivation while the other 4 assessed security motivation. The items were rated in a 5-point Likert type scale, ranging from "0" (never) to "4" (always). The participants marked their preference on each item. The advancement motivation orientation was specifically assessed by asking motivational preferences on reaching ideals (item 2), obtaining gains (item 4), accomplishing positive outcomes (item 6), achieving goals (item 8). The security motivation orientation was specifically assessed by asking motivational preferences on preventing losses (item 1), fulfilling responsibilities (item 3), reducing anxiety (item 5), avoiding harms (item 7). The scores on each motivation orientation subscales were calculated by averaging the total scores of 4 items. In each conflict resolution group, the items are worded in accordance with the given conflict resolution strategies, namely (1) collaborating, (2) avoiding, (3) forcing, (4) accommodating, (5) compromising. For instance, item 2 "reaching ideal" in collaborating group was worded as "in order to reach our mutual ideals"; in avoiding group "in order to ensure having different ideals appear trivial"; in forcing group "in order compel the other side to reach my ideals"; in accommodating group "in order to mind the other side's ideals"; in compromising group "in order to mind our mutual ideals to a certain extent (neither too much nor too little)".

All of the 5-conflict resolution strategy advancement motivation orientation and security motivation orientation subscales consisted of 4 items. The reliability analysis of the motivation scales across three experiment conditions yielded satisfactory results. The Cronbach's alpha coefficients for each subscale are presented in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2. The reliability analysis of the motivation scales.

Subscales	Advancement Motivation	Security Motivation
	Cronbach's alpha	Cronbach's alpha
Resolution Strategies		
Collaborating	.82	.72
Avoiding	.78	.77
Forcing	.77	.84
Accommodating	.78	.82
Compromising	.80	.81

2.1.2.5. The Measurement of Emotions Form

The frequency of the participants' emotional experiences is assessed by the measurement of emotions form. The instruction was that "People may experience positive or negative emotions in conflicts. Now, we would like you to think about the emotions that you would experience while trying to resolve the conflict on the school project. Please, rate each one of the following emotions below in accordance with the frequency that you would fell these emotions during this conflict." Following the instructions, the participants are given a list of 14 emotions. This list was adapted from Çukur and Doğan (2019), with a 5-point Likert type scale, ranging from "0" (never) to "4" (always). This scale is used asses the frequency of following emotions; (1) agitation emotions: calm (reverse scored), anxious, and disgusted, (2) dejection emotions: eager (reverse scored), and happy (reverse scored), and sad. Also, 8 emotions are included in the list as fillers (angry, proud, shy, bored, fear, guilty, surprised, and compassionate). The scores on each emotion subscales were calculated by averaging the total scores of 3 items.

The reliability analysis of the emotion subscales across three experiment conditions yielded satisfactory results based on the mean inter-item correlations. According to Herman (2015, p.8) "while Cronbach's alphas are the standard value reported for scale reliability, this value tends to underestimate the internal consistency of scales consisting of fewer than 10 items" and he suggests reporting inter-item correlation for internal consistency for scales with less than 10 items. Since, both the agitation subscale and the dejection subscale consisted of only 3 items, the mean inter-item correlations for agitation emotions are presented in Table 2.3 and those of dejection emotions are presented in Table 2.4.

Table 2.3. The agitation subscale mean inter-item correlations.

Items	Anxious	Disgusted	Calm (R. Scored)
Anxious	1.00	-	-
Disgusted	.22	1.00	-
Calm (Reversed Scored)	.26	.22	1.00

Table 2.4. The dejection subscale mean inter-item correlations.

Items	Happy (R. Scored)	Eager (R. Scored)	Sad
Happy (Reversed Scored)	1.00	-	-
Eager (Reversed Scored)	.39	1.00	-
Sad	.18	.15	1.00

2.1.2.6. Demographic Information Form

In addition to the common demographics such as age and gender, the participants reported their highest educational attainment, education status, their parents' educational background, what city they are from, where they have spent most of their lives (village, county, city, or metropolitan). This form also included exploratory questions related to their general health, general happiness, religiosity, life satisfaction. These exploratory questions are not germane to the current study objectives; therefore, they are not reported in the result section.

2.1.3. Procedure

After receiving the approval from Ethics Board at Ankara Yıldırım Beyazıt University (AYBU), research forms were generated with the instruments of all 3 studies. First, a pilot study was carried out that revealed a significant manipulation effect (i.e., regulatory focus priming). The data of study 1 was collected at various campuses of AYBU.

The participants were first presented with the informed consent form, including information on the aims of the study, their right not to participate or withdraw from the study at any time they wish. Following the informed consent, the participants were handed out either promotion prime or prevention prime forms or in the cases of control conditions no priming forms. In promotion and prevention primed groups, the priming mainly conducted by asking question about the participants past or present accomplishments and ideals (promotion prime) or their duties and responsibilities (prevention prime). The order of the

two questions is reversed for 12 participants in each group to investigate the sequence effect on regulatory focus priming effect. The sequence effect was found to be non-significant. Since this inquiry into the sequence effect was not germane to the objective of the studies, the non-significant results are not reported in the result section. This study consisted of 5-separate conflict resolution strategy groups, all of which with 3 experiment conditions. These are, (1) Control, (2) Prevention focus prime, and (3) Promotion focus prime conditions. There were 75 participants in each conflict resolution strategy group (collaborating, avoiding, forcing, accommodating, and compromising) that were divided equally in the 3 experiment conditions, 25 participants in each experiment condition. Thus, study 1 included a total of 375 participants.

After reading the conflict vignette, the participants were instructed to visualize themselves using the described conflict resolution strategy to resolve the conflict. In this form, the participants were given one of the 5-resolution strategy description in accordance with their group. Thus, study 1 included 5 resolution strategy groups; (1) Collaborating, (2) Avoiding, (3) Forcing, (4) Accommodation, and (5) Compromising. The participants then rated their motivation orientations on the applicable *regulatory focus interpersonal conflict resolution strategy scales*. Next, the participants reported the frequency of their emotions in relation to the interpersonal conflict scenario on the measurement of emotions form. Lastly, the participants completed the demography form. The instruments took approximately 25 to 35 minutes to administer. At the end of the application, a debriefing was given to the participants about the details of the study and the contact information for the researcher. The data was collected between November 2019 and March 2020.

2.1.4. Results

The data, collected in paper-pen formatted questionnaires, is entered to SPSS 25 and statistical analyses are performed on this software. As for the analyses, the results of 5 resolution groups are separately handled. The research design for study 1 was three manipulation conditions (prevention, promotion, and control) in a given conflict resolution strategy groups (collaborating, avoiding, forcing, accommodating, and compromising) on motivational orientations or emotional reactions.

2.1.4.1. Motivation Orientations in Conflict Resolution Strategies

The descriptive statistics of the data are presented first, followed by the findings on analyses for each study group. In order to test how advancement motivation and security motivation orientations differ according to regulatory focus priming (control, prevention focus, and promotion focus conditions) in each 5-conflict resolution groups (collaborating, avoiding, forcing, accommodating, and compromising) (hypothesis 1), a series of one-way between subjects multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) were conducted on each motivation orientation subscales. When a MANOVA result turned out to be significant, a series of univariate analysis (ANOVA) was performed in order to detect main effect of the independent variable (regulatory focus priming) on the dependent variables (advancement motivation orientation and security motivation orientation) with the application of Tukey correction; 0.50 significance level was applied to both outcome variables.

a) *Collaborating group*

The descriptive statistics of the measures (number of participants, means, standard deviations, and ranges) in collaborating group are presented in Table 2.5.

Table 2.5. Collaborating group descriptive statistics of motivation orientations (N = 75).

Scales	*n*	Mean	*SD*	Range
Motivation Subscales				
Advancement Motivation				
Control Group	25	2.24	.80	0-4
Promotion Focus Primed Group	25	3.42	.52	0-4
Prevention Focus Primed Group	25	2.84	.62	0-4
Security Motivation				
Control Group	25	1.98	.72	0-4
Promotion Focus Prime Group	25	2.61	.62	0-4
Prevention Focus Prime Group	25	2.98	.72	0-4

In order to detect the effects of regulatory focus priming on motivation orientations in *collaborating* group, one-way between subjects MANOVA was conducted. The results supported the hypothesis. There was a statistically significant main effect of regulatory focus priming on motivation orientations [Multivariate $F(4, 142) = 15.42$, $p < .05$; Wilks' $\lambda = .487$, partial $\eta 2 = .303$]. According to the results of the first ANOVA, the experiment condition has a significant main effect on security motivation orientation [$F(2, 72) = 13.49$, $p < .05$; partial $\eta 2 = .273$]. Tukey post hoc comparison results revealed that the participants in

prevention prime condition have significantly higher security motivation orientation (*m* = 2.98, *sd* = .72) compared to the participants in control condition (*m* = 1.98, *sd* = .72). The participants' security motivation orientation in prevention focus prime condition (*m* = 2.98, *sd* = .72) was higher compared to the participants in promotion prime conditions (*m* = 2.61, *sd* = .62), but the difference was found to be non-significant (mean difference = .37, *p* = .15). According to the results of the second ANOVA, the experiment condition has a significant main effect on advancement motivation orientation [$F(2, 72) = 20.29$, $p < .05$; partial $\eta 2 = .360$]. Tukey post hoc comparison results revealed that the participants in promotion prime condition have significantly higher advancement motivation orientation (*m* = 3.42, *sd* = .52) compared to participants in control (*m* = 2.24, *sd* = .80) and prevention prime conditions (*m* = 2.84, *sd* = .62). The results are summarized in Table 2.6.

Table 2.6. Collaborating group motivation orientation differences.

	Advancement Motivation			Security Motivation		
Experiment Conditions	Mean	*SD*	*F*	Mean	*SD*	*F*
			20.29*			13.49*
Control	2.24	.80		1.98	.72	
Prevention Focus Primed	2.84	.62		2.98	.72	
Promotion Focus Primed	3.42	.52		2.61	.62	

Note 1. *$p < .05$

b) *Avoiding group*

The descriptive statistics of the measures (number of participants, means, standard deviations, and ranges) in avoiding group are presented in Table 2.7.

Table 2.7. Avoiding group descriptive statistics of motivation orientations (*N* = 75).

Scales	*n*	Mean	*SD*	Range
Motivation Subscales				
Advancement Motivation Score				
Control Group	25	1.52	.77	0-4
Promotion Focus Primed Group	25	2.67	.84	0-4
Prevention Focus Primed Group	25	1.15	.79	0-4
Security Motivation Score				
Control Group	24	1.57	.77	0-4
Promotion Focus Prime Group	25	1.35	.79	0-4
Prevention Focus Prime Group	25	2.57	.89	0-4

In order to detect the effects of regulatory focus priming on motivation orientations in *avoiding* group, one-way between subjects MANOVA was conducted. The results supported

the hypothesis. There was a statistically significant main effect of regulatory focus priming on motivation orientations [Multivariate $F(4, 140) = 46.05$, $p < .05$; Wilks' $\lambda = .186$, partial $\eta 2 = .568$]. According to the results of the first ANOVA, the experiment condition has a significant main effect on security motivation orientation [$F(2, 71) = 15.56$, $p < .05$; partial $\eta 2 = .305$]. Tukey post hoc comparison results revealed that the participants in prevention prime condition have significantly higher security motivation orientation ($m = 2.57$, $sd = .89$) compared to the participants in control ($m = 1.57$, $sd = .77$) and promotion prime conditions ($m = 1.35$, $sd = .79$). According to the results of the second ANOVA, the experiment condition has also a significant main effect on advancement motivation orientation [$F(2, 72) = 24.41$, $p < .05$; partial $\eta 2 = .404$]. Tukey post hoc comparison results revealed that the participants in promotion prime condition have significantly higher advancement motivation orientation ($m = 2.67$, $sd = .84$) compared to the participants in control ($m = 1.52$, $sd = .77$) and prevention prime conditions ($m = 1.15$, $sd = .79$). The results are summarized in Table 2.8.

Table 2.8. Avoiding group motivation orientation differences.

	Advancement Motivation			Security Motivation		
Experiment Conditions	Mean	*SD*	*F*	Mean	*SD*	*F*
			24.41*			15.56*
Control	1.52	.77		1.57	.77	
Prevention Focus Primed	1.15	.79		2.57	.89	
Promotion Focus Primed	2.67	.84		1.35	.79	

Note 1. *$p < .05$

c) *Forcing group*

The descriptive statistics of the measures (number of participants, means, standard deviations, and ranges) in forcing group are presented in Table 2.9.

Table 2.9. Forcing group descriptive statistics of motivation orientations ($N = 75$).

Scales	*N*	Mean	*SD*	Range
Motivation Subscales				
Advancement Motivation Score				
Control Group	25	1.51	.77	0-4
Promotion Focus Primed Group	25	2.87	.67	0-4
Prevention Focus Primed Group	25	1.59	.78	0-4
Security Motivation Score				
Control Group	25	1.64	.60	0-4
Promotion Focus Prime Group	25	1.30	.86	0-4
Prevention Focus Prime Group	25	2.79	.71	0-4

In order to detect the effects of regulatory focus priming on motivation orientations in *forcing* group, one-way between subjects MANOVA was conducted. The results supported the hypothesis. There was a statistically significant main effect of regulatory focus priming on motivation orientations [Multivariate $F(4, 142) = 47.85$, $p < .05$; Wilks' $\lambda = .181$, partial $\eta 2 = .574$]. According to the results of the first ANOVA, the experiment condition has a significant main effect on security motivation orientation [$F(2, 72) = 28.62$, $p < .05$; partial $\eta 2 = .443$]. Tukey post hoc comparison results revealed that the participants in prevention prime condition have significantly higher security motivation orientation ($m = 2.79$, $sd = .71$) compared to the participants in control ($m = 1.64$, $sd = .60$) and promotion prime conditions ($m = 1.30$, $sd = .86$). According to the results of the second ANOVA, the experiment condition has also a significant main effect on advancement motivation orientation [$F(2, 72) = 26.33$, $p < .05$; partial $\eta 2 = .442$]. Tukey post hoc comparison results revealed that the participants in promotion prime condition have significantly higher advancement motivation orientation ($m = 2.87$, $sd = .67$) compared to the participants in control ($m = 1.51$, $sd = .77$) and prevention prime conditions ($m = 1.59$, $sd = .78$). The results are summarized in Table 2.10.

Table 2.10. Forcing group motivation orientation differences.

	Advancement Motivation			Security Motivation		
Experiment Conditions	Mean	*SD*	*F*	Mean	*SD*	*F*
			26.33*			28.62*
Control	1.51	.77		1.64	.60	
Prevention Focus Primed	1.59	.78		2.79	.71	
Promotion Focus Primed	2.87	.67		1.30	.86	

Note 1. *$p < .05$

d) *Accommodating group*

The descriptive statistics of the measures (number of participants, means, standard deviations, and ranges) in accommodating group are presented in Table 2.11.

Table 2.11. Accommodating group descriptive statistics of motivation orientations (*N* = 75).

Scales	*n*	Mean	*SD*	Range
Motivation Subscales				
Advancement Motivation Score				
Control Group	25	1.51	.73	0-4
Promotion Focus Primed Group	25	2.71	.71	0-4
Prevention Focus Primed Group	25	1.79	.62	0-4
Security Motivation Score				
Control Group	25	1.49	.69	0-4
Promotion Focus Prime Group	25	1.49	.87	0-4
Prevention Focus Prime Group	25	2.71	.76	0-4

In order to detect the effects of regulatory focus priming on motivation orientations in *accommodating* group, one-way between subjects MANOVA was conducted. The results supported the hypothesis. There was a statistically significant main effect of regulatory focus priming on motivation orientations [Multivariate $F(4, 142) = 37.92$, $p < .05$; Wilks' $\lambda = .234$, partial $\eta 2 = .517$]. According to the results of the first ANOVA, the experiment condition has a significant main effect on security motivation orientation [$F(2, 72) = 20.49$, $p < .05$; partial $\eta 2 = .363$]. Tukey post hoc comparison results revealed that the participants in prevention prime condition have significantly higher security motivation orientation ($m = 2.71$, $sd = .76$) compared to the participants in control ($m = 1.49$, $sd = .69$) and promotion prime conditions ($m = 1.49$, $sd = .87$). According to the results of the second ANOVA, the experiment condition has a significant main effect on advancement motivation orientation [$F(2, 72) = 21.03$, $p < .05$; partial $\eta 2 = .369$]. Tukey post hoc comparison results revealed that the participants in promotion prime condition have significantly higher advancement motivation orientation ($m = 2.71$, $sd = .71$) compared to the participants in control ($m = 1.51$, $sd = .73$) and prevention prime conditions ($m = 1.79$, $sd = .60$). The results are summarized in Table 2.12.

Table 2.12. Accommodating group motivation orientation.

Experiment Conditions	Advancement Motivation			Security Motivation		
	Mean	*SD*	*F*	Mean	*SD*	*F*
			21.03*			20.49*
Control	1.51	.73		1.49	.69	
Prevention Focus Primed	1.79	.60		2.71	.76	
Promotion Focus Primed	2.71	.71		1.49	.87	

Note 1. *$p < .05$

e) *Compromising group*

The descriptive statistics of the measures (number of participants, means, standard deviations, and ranges) in compromising group are presented in Table 2.13.

Table 2.13. Compromising group descriptive statistics of motivation orientations (*N* = 75).

Scales	*n*	Mean	*SD*	Range
Motivation Subscales				
Advancement Motivation Score				
Control Group	25	1.65	.82	0-4
Promotion Focus Primed Group	25	2.91	.67	0-4
Prevention Focus Primed Group	25	2.24	.78	0-4
Security Motivation Score				
Control Group	25	1.60	.75	0-4
Promotion Focus Prime Group	25	1.43	.63	0-4
Prevention Focus Prime Group	25	3.15	.57	0-4

In order to detect the effects of regulatory focus priming on motivation orientations in *compromising* group, one-way between subjects MANOVA was conducted. The results supported the hypothesis. There was a statistically significant main effect of regulatory focus priming on motivation orientations [Multivariate $F(4, 142) = 30.60$, $p < .05$; Wilks' $\lambda = .288$, partial $\eta 2 = .463$]. According to the results of the first ANOVA, the experiment condition has a significant main effect on security motivation orientation [$F(2, 72) = 35.00$, $p < .05$; partial $\eta 2 = .493$]. Tukey post hoc comparison results revealed that the participants in prevention prime condition have significantly higher security motivation orientation ($m = 3.15$, $sd = .57$) compared to the participants in control ($m = 1.60$, $sd = .75$) and promotion prime conditions ($m = 2.43$, $sd = .63$). According to the results of the second ANOVA, the experiment condition has a significant main effect on advancement motivation orientation [$F(2, 72) = 17.11$, $p < .05$; partial $\eta 2 = .322$]. Tukey post hoc comparison results revealed that the participants in promotion prime condition have significantly higher advancement motivation orientation ($m = 2.91$, $sd = .67$) compared to the participants in control ($m = 1.65$, $sd = .82$) and prevention prime conditions ($m = 2.24$, $sd = .78$). The results are summarized in Table 2.14.

Table 2.14. Compromising group motivation orientation differences.

	Advancement Motivation			Security Motivation		
Experiment Conditions	Mean	*SD*	*F*	Mean	*SD*	*F*
			17.11*			35.00*
Control	1.65	.82		1.60	.75	
Prevention	2.24	.78		3.15	.57	
Promotion	2.91	.67		2.43	.63	

*Note 1. *p< .05*

f) ***All resolution strategy groups combined***

The above analyses were conducted separately on each conflict resolution strategy group (collaborating, avoiding, forcing, accommodating, and compromising) in order to account for possible group differences. However, we are also interested in examining the relationship between regulatory focus priming and motivation orientations without taking into account of individual group differences among resolution strategy groups. Therefore, the following analysis were conducted by combining the results in all the resolution strategy groups (N = 375).

The descriptive statistics of the measures (number of participants, means, standard deviations, and ranges) in 5 resolution strategy groups combined are presented in Table 2.15.

Table 2.15. All groups combined descriptive statistics of motivation orientations (N = 375).

Scales	*n*	Mean	*SD*	Range
Motivation Subscales				
Advancement Motivation Score				
Control Group	125	1.69	.82	0-4
Promotion Focus Primed Group	125	2.92	.73	0-4
Prevention Focus Primed Group	125	1.92	.92	0-4
Security Motivation Score				
Control Group	124	1.66	.72	0-4
Promotion Focus Prime Group	215	1.84	.94	0-4
Prevention Focus Prime Group	125	2.84	.75	0-4

In order to detect the effects of regulatory focus priming on motivation orientations in all 5-groups combined, one-way between subjects MANOVA was conducted. The results supported the hypothesis. There was a statistically significant main effect of regulatory focus priming on motivation orientations [Multivariate $F(4, 740) = 132.66$, $p < .05$; Wilks' λ = .339, partial $\eta 2$ = .418]. According to the results of the first ANOVA, the experiment

condition has a significant main effect on security motivation orientation [$F(2, 371) = 77.22$, $p < .05$; partial $\eta 2 = .494$]. Tukey post hoc comparison results revealed that the participants in prevention prime condition have significantly higher security motivation orientation ($m = 2.84$, $sd = .75$) compared to the participants in control ($m = 1.66$, $sd = .72$) and promotion prime conditions ($m = 1.84$, $sd = .94$). According to the results of the second ANOVA, the experiment condition has a significant main effect on advancement motivation orientation [$F(2, 372) = 78.27$, $p < .05$; partial $\eta 2 = .300$]. Tukey post hoc comparison results revealed that the participants in promotion prime condition have significantly higher advancement motivation orientation ($m = 2.92$, $sd = .73$) compared to the participants in control ($m = 1.69$, $sd = .82$) and prevention prime conditions ($m = 1.92$, $sd = .73$). The results are summarized in Table 2.16.

Table 2.16. All groups combined motivation orientation.

	Advancement Motivation			Security Motivation		
Experiment Conditions	Mean	*SD*	*F*	Mean	*SD*	*F*
			78.27*			77.22*
Control	1.69	.82		1.66	.72	
Prevention	1.92	.73		2.84	.74	
Promotion	2.92	.73		1.84	.94	

*Note 1. *p< .05*

2.1.4.2. Emotions in Conflict Resolution

Agitation and dejection emotions are two outcome variables in interpersonal conflict resolution strategies. In order to test the relationship between regulatory focus priming and emotions in each conflict resolution groups (collaborating, avoiding, forcing, accommodating, and compromising) (hypothesis 2), a series of one way between subject multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was performed on each emotion subscales. In each group, whenever a MANOVA result turned out to be significant, a series of univariate analysis (ANOVA) was performed in order to detect the main effect of the independent variable (regulatory focus priming) on the dependent variables (agitation and dejection emotions) with the application of Tukey correction; .05 significance level was applied to both outcome variables.

a) *Collaborating group*

The descriptive statistics of the measures (number of participants, means, and standard deviations, and ranges) in collaborating group are presented in Table 2.17.

Table 2.17. Collaborating group descriptive statistics of emotions (*N*= 75).

Scales	*n*	Mean	*SD*	Range
Emotion Subscales				
Agitation				
Control Group	25	2.31	.57	0-4
Promotion Focus Primed Group	25	2.12	.58	0-4
Prevention Focus Primed Group	24	2.83	.64	0-4
Dejection				
Control Group	25	2.28	.76	0-4
Promotion Focus Prime Group	25	2.24	.76	0-4
Prevention Focus Prime Group	24	1.88	.73	0-4

In order to test the effects of regulatory focus priming on agitation and dejection emotions in *collaborating* group, one-way between subjects MANOVA was conducted. The results supported the hypothesis. There was a statistically significant main effect of regulatory focus priming on emotions [Multivariate $F(4, 138) = 8.95$, $p < .05$; Wilks' λ = .658, partial $\eta 2$ = .189]. According to the results of the first ANOVA, the experiment condition has a significant main effect on agitation [$F(2, 71) = 9.28$, $p < .05$; partial $\eta 2$ = .207]. Tukey post hoc comparison results revealed that the participants in prevention prime condition have significantly higher agitation emotions (m = 2.83, sd = .64) compared to the participants in control (m = 2.31, sd = .57) and promotion prime conditions (m = 2.12, sd = .58). The results of the second ANOVA were found to be non-significant for dejection emotions [$F(2, 71) = 2.15$, $p > .05$; partial $\eta 2$ = .322]. The results are summarized in Table 2.18.

Table 2.18. Collaborating group emotion differences.

	Agitation Emotions			Dejection Emotions		
Experiment Conditions	Mean	*SD*	*F*	Mean	*SD*	*F*
			9.71*			2.15*
Control	2.31	.57		2.28	.76	
Prevention Focus Primed	2.83	.64		1.87	.73	
Promotion Focus Primed	2.12	.58		2.24	.76	

Note 1. *p< .05

b) *Avoiding group*

The descriptive statistics of the measures (number of participants, means, standard deviations, and ranges) in avoiding group are presented in Table 2.19.

Table 2.19. Avoiding group descriptive statistics of emotions (N = 75).

Scales	*n*	Mean	*SD*	Range
Emotion Subscales				
Agitation				
Control Group	25	2.01	.74	0-4
Promotion Focus Primed Group	25	2.09	.82	0-4
Prevention Focus Primed Group	25	2.93	.96	0-4
Dejection				
Control Group	25	2.20	.73	0-4
Promotion Focus Prime Group	25	2.17	.89	0-4
Prevention Focus Primed Group	25	1.99	.84	0-4

In order to test the effects of regulatory focus priming on agitation and dejection emotions in *avoiding* group, one-way between subjects MANOVA was conducted. The results supported the hypothesis. There was a statistically significant main effect of regulatory focus priming on emotions [Multivariate $F(4, 124) = 4.90$, $p < .05$; Wilks' λ = .746, partial $\eta 2$ = .136]. According to the results of the first ANOVA, the experiment condition has a significant main effect on agitation [$F(2, 68) = 8.80$, $p < .05$; partial $\eta 2$ = .206]. Tukey post hoc comparison results revealed that the participants in prevention prime condition have significantly higher agitation emotions (m = 2.93, sd = .96) compared to the participants in control (m = 2.01, sd = .74) and promotion prime conditions (m = 2.09, sd = .82). The results of the second ANOVA were found to be non-significant for dejection emotions [$F(2, 63) = .46$, $p > .05$; partial $\eta 2$ = .015]. The results are summarized in Table 2.20.

Table 2.20. Accommodating group emotion differences.

	Agitation Emotions			Dejection Emotions		
Experiment Conditions	Mean	*SD*	*F*	Mean	*SD*	*F*
			8.80*			.464
Control	2.01	.74		2.20	.73	
Prevention Focus Primed	2.93	.96		1.99	.83	
Promotion Focus Primed	2.09	.82		2.1	.89	

Note 1. *p< .05

c) *Forcing group*

The descriptive statistics of the measures (number of participants, means, standard deviations, and ranges) in forcing group are presented in Table 2.21.

Table 2.21. Forcing group descriptive statistics emotions (N = 75).

Scales	*n*	Mean	*SD*	Range
Emotion Subscales				
Agitation				
Control Group	25	1.90	.94	0-4
Promotion Focus Primed Group	25	1.98	.84	0-4
Prevention Focus Primed Group	25	2.80	.75	0-4
Dejection				
Control Group	25	1.92	.78	0-4
Promotion Focus Prime Group	24	1.90	.72	0-4
Prevention Focus Prime Group	25	1.90	.88	0-4

In order to test the effects of regulatory focus priming on agitation and dejection emotions in *forcing* group, one-way between subjects MANOVA was conducted. The results supported the hypothesis. There was a statistically significant main effect of regulatory focus priming on emotions [Multivariate $F(4, 136) = 4.76$, $p < .05$; Wilks' $\lambda = .769$, partial $\eta 2 = .123$]. According to the results of the first ANOVA, the experiment condition has a significant main effect on agitation [$F(2, 69) = 8.31$, $p < .05$; partial $\eta 2 = .194$]. Tukey post hoc comparison results revealed that the participants in prevention prime condition have significantly higher agitation emotions ($m = 2.80$, $sd = .75$) compared to the participants in control ($m = 1.90$, $sd = .94$) and promotion prime conditions ($m = 1.98$, $sd = .84$). The results of the second ANOVA were found to be non-significant for dejection emotions [$F(2, 71) = .003$, $p > .05$; partial $\eta 2 = .000$]. The results are summarized in Table 2.22.

Table 2.22. Forcing group emotion differences.

Experiment Conditions	Agitation Emotions			Dejection Emotions		
	Mean	*SD*	*F*	Mean	*SD*	*F*
			8.31*			.003
Control	1.90	.94		1.92	.78	
Prevention Focus Primed	2.80	.75		1.91	.88	
Promotion Focus Primed	1.98	.84		1.90	.72	

Note 1. *$p < .05$

d) *Accommodating group*

The descriptive statistics of the measures (number of participants, means, standard deviations, and ranges) in accommodating group are presented in Table 2.23.

Table 2.23. Accommodating group descriptive statistics of emotions (N = 75).

Scales	*n*	Mean	*SD*	Range
Emotion Subscales				
Agitation				
Control Group	25	1.96	.90	0-4
Promotion Focus Primed Group	25	2.03	.83	0-4
Prevention Focus Primed Group	22	2.69	.79	0-4
Dejection				
Control Group	24	2.11	.83	0-4
Promotion Focus Prime Group	22	1.98	.86	0-4
Prevention Focus Primed Group	24	1.98	.65	0-4

In order to test the effects of regulatory focus priming on agitation and dejection emotions in *accommodating* group, one-way between subjects MANOVA was conducted. The results supported the hypothesis. There was a statistically significant main effect of regulatory focus priming on emotions [Multivariate $F(4, 128) = 2.89$, $p < .05$; Wilks' λ = .841, partial $\eta 2$ = .083]. According to the results of the first ANOVA, the experiment condition has a significant main effect on agitation [$F(2, 69) = 5.69$, $p < .05$; partial $\eta 2$ = .142]. Tukey post hoc comparison results revealed that the participants in prevention prime condition have significantly higher agitation emotions (m = 2.69, sd = .79) compared to the participants in control (m = 1.96, sd = .90) and promotion prime conditions (m = 2.03, sd = .83). The results of the second ANOVA were found to be non-significant for dejection emotions [$F(2, 67) = .020$, $p > .05$; partial $\eta 2$ = .006]. The results are summarized in Table 2.24.

Table 2.24. Accommodating group emotion differences.

	Agitation Emotions			Dejection Emotions		
Experiment Conditions	Mean	*SD*	*F*	Mean	*SD*	*F*
			5.69*			.020
Control	1.96	.90		2.11	.83	
Prevention Focus Primed	2.69	.79		1.98	.65	
Promotion Focus Primed	2.03	.83		1.98	.86	

Note 1. *p< .05

e) *Compromising group*

The descriptive statistics of the measures (number of participants, means, standard deviations, and ranges) in compromising group are presented in Table 2.25.

Table 2.25. Compromising group descriptive statistics emotions (N = 75).

Scales	*n*	Mean	*SD*	Range
Emotion Subscales				
Agitation				
Control Group	25	2.18	.92	0-4
Promotion Focus Primed Group	25	2.18	.77	0-4
Prevention Focus Primed Group	25	3.02	.64	0-4
Dejection				
Control Group	25	2.08	.84	0-4
Promotion Focus Prime Group	25	2.34	.74	0-4
Prevention Focus Primed Group	25	2.30	.73	0-4

In order to test the effects of regulatory focus priming on agitation and dejection emotions in *compromising* group, one-way between subjects MANOVA was conducted. The results supported the hypothesis. There was a statistically significant main effect of regulatory focus priming on emotions [Multivariate $F(4, 132) = 4.55$, $p < .05$; Wilks' λ = .772, partial $\eta 2$ = .121]. According to the results of the first ANOVA, the experiment condition has a significant main effect on agitation [$F(2, 69) = 9.36$, $p < .05$; partial $\eta 2$ = .213]. Tukey post hoc comparison results revealed that the participants in prevention prime condition have significantly higher agitation emotions (m = 3.03, sd = .64) compared to the participants in control (m = 2.19, sd = .92) and promotion prime conditions (m = 2.16, sd = .77). The results of the second ANOVA were found to be non-significant for dejection emotions [$F(2, 68) = .807$, $p > .05$; partial $\eta 2$ = .023]. The results are summarized in Table 2.26.

Table 2.26. Compromising group emotion differences.

	Agitation Emotions			Dejection Emotions		
Experiment Conditions	Mean	*SD*	*F*	Mean	*SD*	*F*
			5.69*			.807
Control	2.19	.92		2.08	.84	
Prevention Focus Primed	3.03	.64		2.31	.73	
Promotion Focus Primed	2.16	.77		2.35	.74	

Note 1. *p< .05

f) *All resolution strategy groups combined*

The above analyses on emotional variance were conducted separately in each conflict resolution strategy group (collaborating, avoiding, forcing, accommodating, and compromising) in order to account for possible group differences. However, we are also interested in examining the relationship between regulatory focus priming and emotional variance without taking into account of individual group differences in resolution strategy groups. Therefore, the following analysis were conducted by combining the results in all the resolution strategy groups (N = 375).

The descriptive statistics of the measures (number of participants, means, standard deviations, and ranges) in all resolution strategy groups combined are presented in Table 2.27.

Table 2.27. All groups combined descriptive statistics of emotions (N = 375).

Scales	*n*	Mean	*SD*	Range
Emotion Subscales				
Agitation				
Control Group	125	2.07	.83	0-4
Promotion Focus Primed Group	125	2.08	.76	0-4
Prevention Focus Primed Group	125	2.90	.74	0-4
Dejection				
Control Group	125	2.11	.78	0-4
Promotion Focus Prime Group	125	2.13	.80	0-4
Prevention Focus Primed Group	125	2.01	.78	0-4

In order to test the effects of regulatory focus priming on agitation and dejection emotions in all groups combined one-way between subjects MANOVA was conducted. The results supported the hypothesis. There was a statistically significant main effect of regulatory focus priming on emotions [Multivariate $F(4, 690) = 25.12$, $p < .05$; Wilks' λ = .760, partial $\eta 2$ = .128]. According to the results of the first ANOVA, the experiment condition has a significant main effect on agitation [$F(2, 358) = 45.80$, $p < .05$; partial $\eta 2$ = .204]. Tukey post hoc comparison results revealed that the participants in prevention prime condition have significantly higher agitation emotions (m = 2.90, sd = .74) compared to the participants in control (m = 2.07, sd = .83) and promotion prime conditions (m = 2.08, sd = .76). The results of the second ANOVA were found to be non-significant for dejection emotions [$F(2, 352) = .791$, $p > .05$; partial $\eta 2$ = .004]. The results are summarized in Table 2.28.

Table 2.28. All groups combined emotion differences in experiment conditions.

Experiment Conditions	Agitation Emotions			Dejection Emotions		
	Mean	*SD*	*F*	Mean	*SD*	*F*
			45.80*			.791
Control	2.07	.83		2.12	.78	
Prevention Focus Primed	2.90	.74		2.01	.78	
Promotion Focus Primed	2.08	.76		2.13	.80	

*Note 1. *p*< .05

2.1.5. Discussion

This study is designed to test the effects of regulatory focus priming on the motivational orientations and emotional variance in 5 conflict resolution strategy groups separately and all groups combined. It is hypothesized that promotion focus primed participants will have significantly more advancement motivation orientation, while prevention focus primed participants will have significantly more security motivation orientation in all 5-conflict resolution groups (collaborating, avoiding, forcing, accommodating, and compromising) (hypothesis 1). The findings on the effects of regulatory focus priming conditions (control, promotion focus, and prevention focus) on the motivation orientations supported this hypothesis. That is, promotion focus primed participants are found to have significantly more advancement motivation orientation, while prevention focus primed participants had significantly more security motivation orientation across all 5 groups. The findings of study 1 indicate that people have instrumental concerns in conflict, but these concerns can be refined by regulatory focus differences. The participants in this study used conflict resolution strategies either in the service of advancement motivation orientation or security motivation orientation based on regulatory focus priming.

The results revealed that the promotion focus primed participants are more motivated to fulfill their hopes and accomplishments; thus, they concentrate on their needs for improvement and success (i.e., advancement motivation orientation) in each 5-conflict resolution strategy group. For instance, the participants had low advancement motivation concern for both self and others in avoiding group, whereas the ones in forcing group had high advancement motivation concern for self, but low advancement motivation concern for others. These findings are in line with previous research findings indicating that people with higher promotion focus are more likely to focus on gains in social relationships (e.g., Higgins, Roney, Crowe, & Hymes, 1994). It is also significant that these findings have been consistent across all 5-groups, suggesting that promotion focus can be distinctively defined

in each 5-conflict resolution strategy. The figure 2.3 illustrates advancement motivation orientation differences in promotion focus conflict resolution strategy groups.

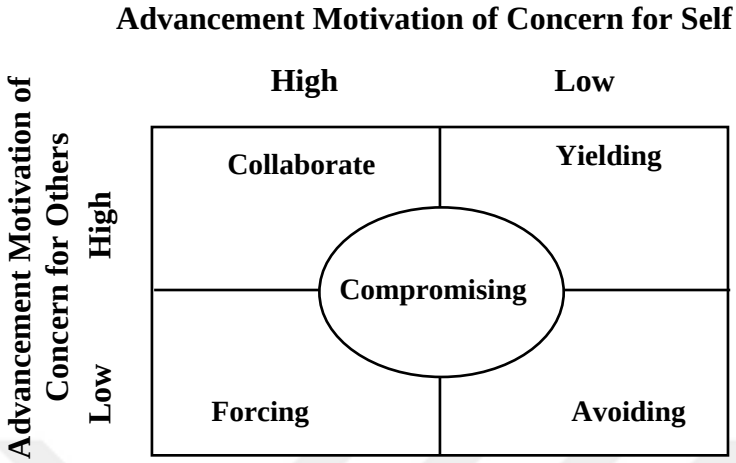


Figure 2.3. Five Promotion focus conflict resolution strategies.

The results also revealed that the prevention focus primed participants are more motivated to fulfill their duty and obligations; thus, they concentrate on the needs for maintenance and avoiding losses (i.e., safety motivation orientation) in conflict. For instance, the participants had high advancement motivation concern for both self and others in collaborating group, while the ones in accommodating group had low advancement motivation concern for self but high advancement motivation concern for others. It is also significant that these findings are consistent across all 5-groups, suggesting that prevention focus can be distinctively defined in each 5-conflict resolution strategy. The figure 2.4 illustrates security motivation orientation differences in all prevention focus conflict resolution strategy groups.

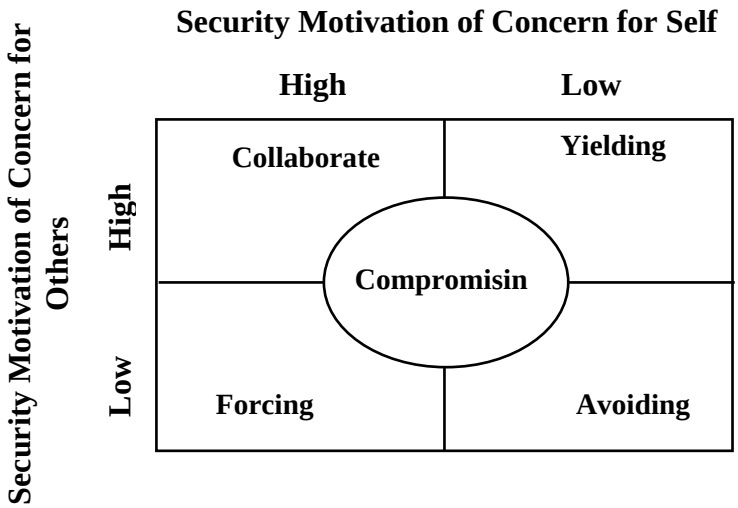


Figure 2.4. Five Prevention focus conflict management strategies.

In relation to emotional variance, it is hypothesized that prevention focus primed participants will have significantly higher agitation emotions, whereas promotion focus primed individuals will have significantly higher dejection emotions in all 5-conflict resolution strategy groups (hypothesis 2). The findings on the relationship between the effects of regulatory focus priming conditions (control, promotion focus, and prevention focus) and the emotional variance partially supported this hypothesis. That is, prevention focus primed individuals had significantly higher agitation emotions across 5-conflict resolution strategy groups, whereas the results were found to be non-significant in the relationship between the regulatory focus priming and the frequency of dejection emotions across 5-conflict resolution strategy groups. These conflicting results might be associated with the differences in arousal levels between agitation and dejection emotions; agitation emotions are high arousal emotions, whereas dejection emotions are low arousal emotions (for a review, see Feldman, Barrett, & Russell, 1988; as cited in Higgins, 2000). Thus, the participants in prevention focus condition perhaps did not experience dejection emotions as strongly as the ones in promotion focus condition experienced agitation emotions in a hypothetical vignette. Alternatively, people with security motivation orientation might not experience dejection emotions as significantly as people with advancement motivation orientation experience agitation emotions in conflict. The implications of the findings in study 1 as well as future study suggestions and limitations are deliberated in the general discussion section.

3. STUDY II. STRATEGY PREFERENCE, MOTIVATION, AND EMOTIONS BASED ON REGULATORY FOCUS PRIMING IN PAIRS OF RESOLUTION STRATEGY GROUPS

The objective of this study is two-fold; firstly, the research question 1 is explored. That is, although people can use any one of the 5-conflict resolution strategies in the service of either advancement motivation or security motivation, when the participants' regulatory focus is primed and they are provided with two alternative resolution strategy options in 6-separate groups, which conflict resolution strategies will be significantly more dominant? The predictor variables were the random assignment of the participants in one of the three experiment conditions (control, promotion focus priming, and prevention focus priming) and the outcome variables were the preference of a conflict resolution strategy in 6-separate groups. These groups included the following pairs of alternative strategies; (1) Forcing or Accommodating, (2) Forcing of Avoiding, (3) Forcing or Collaborating, (4) Collaborating of Accommodating, (5) Collaborating or Avoiding, (6) Accommodating or Avoiding. Each paired conflict resolution group included 75 participants who were randomly assigned to one of the three experiment conditions (primed promotion focus, n =25), (primed prevention focus; n =25), and (control group; n =25).

Secondly, the findings of the first study are extended by testing the effects of regulatory focus priming (predictor variables) on the motivation orientations (outcome variables) (hypothesis 1) and emotions (outcome variables) (hypothesis 2) in 6-separate pairs of resolution strategy groups where the participants had an option to prefer a strategy out of two alternative strategies.

3.1. Method

3.1.1. Participants

The demographic characteristics of the participants in study 2 are summarized in Table 3.1. This study included 450 participants of which 352 (78.4 %) were females and 97 (21,6 %) were males. The ages of participants ranged between 19 and 40 (M = 22.07; SD = 2.12). All of the participants were students at Ankara Yıldırım Beyazıt University (AYBU), of which 192 were from department of theology (42.7%) and 93 were enrolled in psychology

(20.7%). The data was collected in person at various campus locations of the AYBU. Educational attainment of their parents varied. Many of the participants' fathers (*n* = 147, 32.8%) had high school diploma and many of their mothers (*n* = 167, 37.3%) had primary school diploma. Also, most of the participants live in Ankara (*n* = 364, 84.7%) and many of them have lived in metropolitan areas (*n* = 323, 71.9%).

Table 3.1. Study 2 demographic characteristics of the participants (*N* = 450).

Variables	Frequency	Mean (*SD*)
Age		22.07 (2.12)
Gender		
Male	97 (21.6 %)	
Female	352 (78.4 %)	
Missing	1	
Student Department		
Theology	192 (42.7%)	
Psychology	93 (20.7%)	
Law	34 (7.6%)	
Other	131 (29.0%)	
Father's Highest Level of Educational Attainment		
Primary School	55 (14.7%)	
Middle School	55 (14.7%)	
High School	111 (29.8%)	
College Diploma	24 (6.4%)	
University Degree	89 (23.9%)	
Master's Degree	19 (5.1%)	
PhD Degree	9 (2.4%)	
Other & Missing	14 (3.0%)	
Mother's Highest Level of Educational Attainment		
Primary School	167 (37.3%)	
Middle School	71 (15.8%)	
High School	125 (27.9%)	
College Diploma	15 (3.3%)	
University Degree	42 (9.4%)	
Master's Degree	3 (0.7%)	
PhD Degree	1 (0.2%)	
Other and Missing	26 (5.4%)	
City		
Ankara	364 (84.7%)	
Other	86 (15.3%)	
Residential Area		
Village and Town	37 (8.3%)	
District	40 (8.9%)	
City	47 (10.5%)	
Metropolitan	323 (71.9%)	
Other and Missing	3 (0.4%)	
Employment Status		
Employed	20 (4.5%)	
Unemployed	429 (95.5%)	

3.1.2. Instruments

Many of the instruments of study 2 are adapted from study 1. These are, *the regulatory focus priming forms* (promotion focus versus prevention focus), *the conflict vignette*, and the *measurement of emotions form*. The details of these instruments are provided in study 1; therefore, the same details are not included in this chapter. The only modified instrument in study 2 is *the regulatory focus in preferred interpersonal conflict resolution strategy scales*. In study 2, the participants were presented with an option to use one strategy out of two alternative conflict resolution strategies in one of the 6-separate groups; however, in study 1 they were asked to use a given strategy in accordance with their resolution strategy group. A copy of the study 2 package, containing all the instruments can be found in Appendix B.

3.1.2.1. Regulatory Focus in Preferred Interpersonal Conflict Resolution Strategy Scales

The participants first read the same interpersonal conflict vignette presented in the first study. After reading the vignette, they are presented with the following instruction; "There would be different strategies to resolve this disagreement, but you were suggested to use one of the two strategies to resolve this issue. Please read carefully these two alternatives and select one strategy by checking the box next to it. After making your selection, answer the questions below in order to rate why you selected such strategy." The remaining of the instrument included one the following 6 pairs of conflict resolution strategy descriptions.

a) ***Forcing or accommodating group***

"FORCING: forcing your wants and needs on the other student (by verbally, physically, and psychologically dominating the other student etc.). In other words, you think that the only acceptable way of resolving this conflict is to follow through your own goals. In short, this strategy would mean that while you have a high concern for your own wants and needs, you disregard the other students' wants and needs."

"ACOMMODATING: easy going with the other students in this project (accepting his/her wishers and agreeing with his/her demands etc.). In other words, you think that the only possible way of resolving this conflict is to completely accept the requests of the other student. In short, this strategy would mean that while you ignore your own wants and needs, you have a high concern for the other students' wants and needs."

b) ***Forcing or avoiding group***

"FORCING: forcing your wants and needs on the other student (by verbally, physically, and psychologically dominating the other student etc.). In other words, you think that the only acceptable way of resolving this conflict is to follow through your own goals. In short, this strategy would mean that while you have a high concern for your own wants and needs, you disregard the other students' wants and needs."

"AVOIDING: avoiding the conflict with the other student (by overlooking disagreed subjects and physically or psychologically isolating yourself from this state etc.). In other words, you think that the only possible way of resolving this conflict is to disregard the matters of the conflict. In short, this strategy would mean that you have a low concern for both of yours wants and needs."

c) ***Forcing or collaborating group***

"FORCING: forcing your wants and needs on the other student (by verbally, physically, and psychologically dominating the other student etc.). In other words, you think that the only acceptable way of resolving this conflict is to follow through your own goals. In short, this strategy would mean that while you have a high concern for your own wants and needs, you disregard the other students' wants and needs."

"COLLABORATING: collaborating with the other student (by working together and reaching mutual agreement, by paying same attention to both yours and the other students' goals and needs etc.). In other words, you think that the only possible way of resolving this conflict is to build working partnership with the other student. In short, this strategy would mean that you have a high concern for yourself and other student's wants and needs."

d) ***Collaborating or accommodating group***

"COLLABORATING: collaborating with the other student (by working together and reaching mutual agreement, by paying same attention to both yours and the other students' goals and needs etc.). In other words, you think that the only possible way of resolving this conflict is to build working partnership with the other student. In short, this strategy would mean that you have a high concern for yourself and other student's wants and needs."

"ACOMMODATING: easy going with the other students in this project (accepting his/her wishers and agreeing with his/her demands etc.). In other words, you think that the only possible way of resolving this conflict is to completely accept the requests of the other student. In short, this strategy would mean that while you ignore your own wants and needs, you have a high concern for the other students' wants and needs."

e) ***Collaborating or avoiding group***

"COLLABORATING: collaborating with the other student (by working together and reaching mutual agreement, by paying same attention to both yours and the other students' goals and needs etc.). In other words, you think that the only possible way of resolving this conflict is to build working partnership with the other student. In short, this strategy would mean that you have a high concern for yourself and other student's wants and needs."

"AVOIDING: avoiding the conflict with the other student (by overlooking disagreed subjects and physically or psychologically isolating yourself from this state etc.). In other words, you think that the only possible way of resolving this conflict is to disregard the matters of the conflict. In short, this strategy would mean that you have a low concern for both of yours wants and needs."

f) ***Avoiding or accommodating group***

"AVOIDING: avoiding the conflict with the other student (by overlooking disagreed subjects and physically or psychologically isolating yourself from this state etc.). In other words, you think that the only possible way of resolving this conflict is to disregard the matters of the conflict. In short, this strategy would mean that you have a low concern for both of yours wants and needs."

"ACOMMODATING: easy going with the other students in this project (accepting his/her wishers and agreeing with his/her demands etc.). In other words, you think that the only possible way of resolving this conflict is to completely accept the requests of the other student. In short, this strategy would mean that while you ignore your own wants and needs, you have a high concern for the other students' wants and needs."

All of the 5- conflict resolution strategy advancement motivation orientation and security motivation orientation subscales consisted of 4 items. The reliability analysis of the regulatory focus in preferred interpersonal conflict resolution strategy scales across three

experiment conditions yielded satisfactory results. The Cronbach's alpha coefficients for each subscale are presented in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2. The reliability analysis of the motivation subscales.

Subscales	Advancement Motivation	Security Motivation
	Cronbach's alpha	Cronbach's alpha
Resolution Strategies		
Forcing or Accommodating	.79	.72
Forcing or Avoiding	.59	.76
Forcing or Collaborating	.84	.84
Collaborating or Accommodating	.91	.89
Collaborating or Avoiding	.89	.88
Avoiding or Accommodating	.81	.66

3.1.3. Procedure

After receiving the approval from Ethics Board at Ankara Yıldırım Beyazıt University (AYBU), research forms were generated with the instruments of study 2. The data was collected at various AYBU campuses.

The participants are first presented with the informed consent form, including information on the aims of the study, their right not to participate or withdraw from the study at any time they wish. Following the informed consent, the participants were handed out either promotion prime or prevention prime forms (control condition did not receive any priming forms). In promotion and prevention primed groups, the priming mainly conducted by asking question about the participants' past or present accomplishments and ideals (promotion prime) or their duties and responsibilities (prevention prime). The order of the two questions is reversed for 12 participants in each group to investigate the sequence effect on regulatory focus priming effect. The sequence effect was found to be non-significant. Since this inquiry into the sequence effect was not germane to the objective of the studies, these non-significant results are not reported in the result section. This study consisted of 6-separate conflict resolution strategy groups, all of which with 3 experiment conditions. These are, (1) control, (2) prevention focus prime, and (3) promotion focus prime conditions. There were 75 participants in each 6 groups that were divided equally in the 3 experiment conditions, 25 participants in each experiment condition. Thus, the study included a total of 450 participants.

The participants first read the same conflict vignette from study 1. The participants are then directed to carefully read 2 alternative strategies and indicate their preference between two alternatives in 6-separate groups. After choosing their preferred resolution strategy, they answered 8 items on the applicable regulatory focus in preferred interpersonal conflict resolution strategy scale in order to rate their motivation for selecting their preferred strategy. In this process of pairing alternative strategies, *compromising* strategy was excluded as this strategy involves medium concern for self and others that we did not think it would contribute to the contrasting effects of other pairings. Thus, this study included 6-groups (1) forcing or accommodating, (2) forcing or avoiding, (3) forcing or collaborating, (4) collaborating or accommodating, (5) collaborating or avoiding, (6) accommodating or avoiding. Next, the participants reported the frequency of their emotions in relation to the interpersonal conflict scenario on the measurement of emotions form. Lastly, the participants filled out a demography form. The instruments took approximately 25 to 40 minutes to administer. At the end of the application, a debriefing was given to the participants about the details of the study and the contact information for the researcher. The data was collected between November 2019 and March 2020.

3.1.4. Results

The data, collected in paper-pen formatted questionnaires, is entered in SPSS 25 and statistical analyses are performed on this software. As for the analyses, the results of 6-groups are separately handled. The research design for study 2 was three manipulation conditions (prevention, promotion, and control) in the preference between two alternative conflict resolution strategy as well as motivation orientations or emotional reactions in conflict.

3.1.4.1. Preferred Resolution Strategies

The descriptive statistics of the data are presented first, followed by the findings on analyses for each group. The outcome variable is the preference of a strategy between two alternative conflict resolution strategies. In order to explore dominant resolution strategies based on regulatory focus priming (research question 1), a series of chi square tests of independence was performed to examine the relationship among 3 experiment conditions and preference of a strategy between two alternative conflict resolution strategies in 6-

separate groups. Whenever a chi square result turned out to be significant among three experiment condition, a series of 2 X 2 chi square analyses were performed as post hoc analyses in order to detect specific group differences in the 3 experiment conditions. Also, binary regression analyses were performed to ascertain the effects of experiment condition, motivation orientations, and emotions on the likelihood that the participants prefer one resolution strategy over the other alternative strategy in 6-separate groups. The significance level of .50 was applied to the outcome variables.

a) *Forcing or accommodating group*

The frequencies of forcing and accommodating resolution strategies on each experiment condition are summarized in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3. Forcing and accommodating frequencies in experiment conditions.

Strategy		Forcing		Accommodating	
	n	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Experiment Conditions					
Control	25	11	44%	14	56%
Prevention	25	8	32%	17	68%
Promotion	25	12	48%	13	52%

A chi-square test of independence was performed to examine the association between the experiment conditions and the preference for forcing or accommodating. The results were found to be non-significant. There was no significant association between experiment conditions and conflict resolution strategy dominance, $X^2(2, 75) = 1.43$, $p > .05$.

A binary logistic regression analysis was performed to ascertain the effects of experiment conditions, motivation orientations, and emotions on the likelihood that the participants prefer forcing or accommodating resolution strategy. The logistic regression model was found to be non-significant, $X^2(6, 75) = 4.967$, $p > .05$.

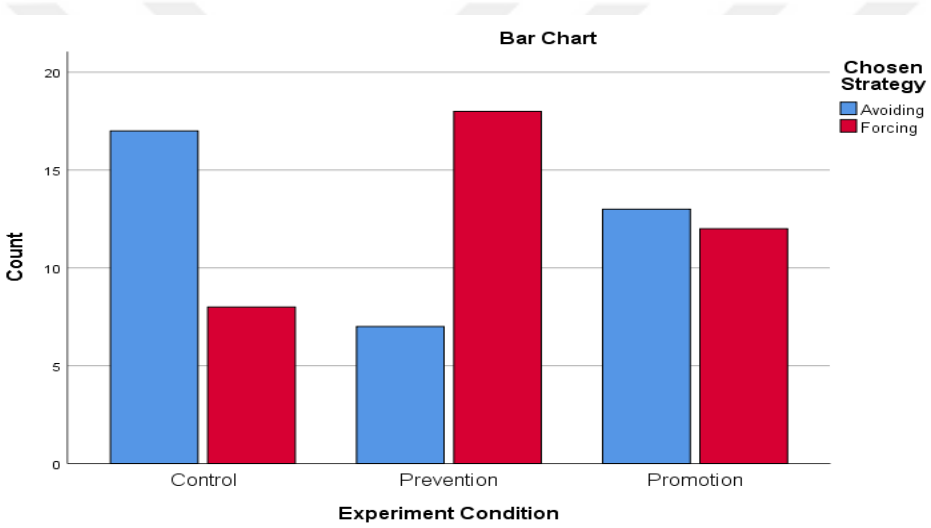
b) *Forcing or avoiding group*

The frequencies of forcing and avoiding resolution strategies on each experiment condition are summarized in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4. Forcing and avoiding frequencies in experiment conditions.

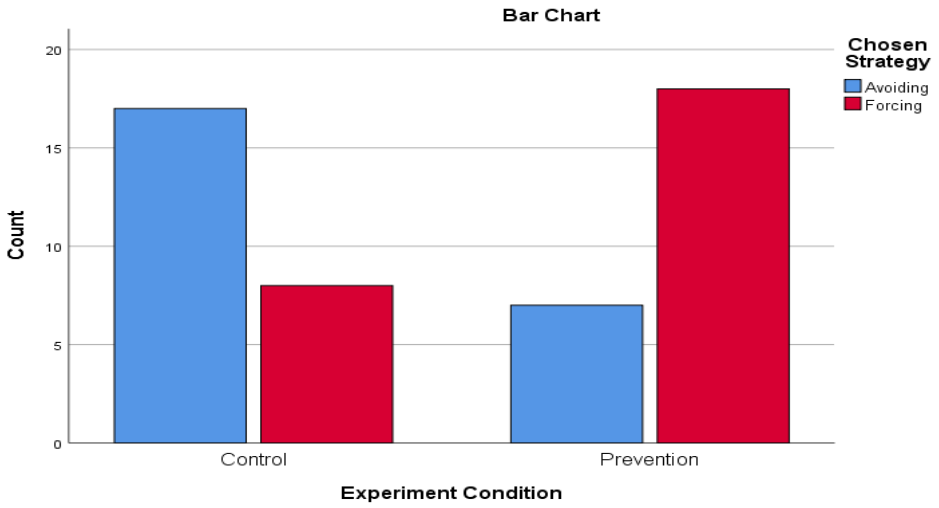
		Forcing		Avoiding	
Experiment Conditions	*n*	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Control	25	8	32%	17	68%
Prevention	25	18	72%	7	28%
Promotion	25	12	48%	13	52%

A chi-square test of independence was performed to examine the association between the experiment conditions and the preference for forcing and avoiding. The results were found to be significant. There was a significant association between the experiment conditions and the preference of conflict resolution strategy, $X^2(2, 75) = 8.10$, $p < .05$. The results are summarized in Graph 3.1.



Graph 3.1. Forcing and avoiding frequencies in experiment conditions.

The first 2 x 2 design chi square test of independence was performed to examine the association between two experiment conditions (prevention focus and control conditions) and the preference for forcing and avoiding. The results were found to be significant. There was a significant association between the experiment conditions and conflict resolution strategy dominance, $X^2(1, N = 50) = 8.01$, $p < .05$. The forcing was a dominant strategy (frequency = 18, 72%) compared to avoiding (frequency = 7, 28%) in the prevention focus condition, whereas avoiding was a dominant strategy (frequency = 17, 68%) in comparison to forcing (frequency = 8, 32%) in the control condition. The results are summarized in Graph 3.2.



Graph 3.2. Forcing and avoiding frequencies in control and prevention focus conditions.

The second 2 x 2 design chi square test of independence was performed to examine the association between two experiment conditions (prevention focus and promotion focus conditions) and the preference for forcing or avoiding. The results were found to be non-significant. There was no significant association between the experiment conditions and conflict resolution strategy dominance, $X^2(1.\ N = 50) = 3.00$, $p > .05$.

The third 2 x 2 design chi square test of independence was performed to examine the association between other two experiment conditions (promotion focus and control conditions) and the preference between forcing and avoiding strategies. The results were found to be non-significant. There was no significant association between the experiment conditions and conflict resolution strategy dominance, $X^2(1, 50) = 1.33$, $p > .05$.

A binary logistic regression analysis was performed to ascertain the effects of experiment conditions, motivation orientations, and emotions on the likelihood that participants prefer forcing or avoiding resolution strategy. The logistic regression model was significant, $X^2(6, 75) = 19.15$, $p < .05$. The model explained 30.8% (Nagelkerke R^2) of the variance in the resolution preferences and correctly classified 71.2% cases. Decreasing dejection was associated with the increased likelihood of preferring forcing strategy, whereas increasing dejection was associated with the increased likelihood of preferring avoiding strategy. The effects of other factors were found to be non-significant. The results are presented in Table 3.5.

Table 3.5. Logistic regression prediction of forcing and avoiding.

Predictors	*B*	Wald χ^2	*p*	Odds Ratio
Experiment Conditions				
Prevention	1.87	4.14	.42	6.50
Promotion	1.09	2.19	.139	2.98
Motivation Orientations				
Advancement Motivation	-.17	.27	.607	.840
Security Motivation	-.29	.44	.507	.750
Emotions				
Agitation	.836	3.26	.071	2.308
Dejection	-1.38*	8.53	.004	.251

Note 1. *p< .05

c) ***Forcing or collaborating group***

The frequencies of forcing and collaborating resolution strategies on each experiment condition are summarized in Table 3.6.

Table 3.6. Forcing and collaborating frequencies in experiment conditions.

		Forcing		Collaborating	
Experiment Conditions	*n*	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Control	25	0	0%	25	100%
Prevention	25	2	8%	23	92%
Promotion	25	2	8%	23	92%

A chi-square test of independence was performed to examine the association between the experiment conditions and the preference for forcing or collaborating. The results were found to be non-significant. There was no significant association between the experiment conditions and conflict resolution strategy dominance, $X^2(2, 75) = 2.11$, $p > .05$.

A binary logistic regression analysis was performed to ascertain the effects of experiment conditions, motivation orientations, and emotions on the likelihood that the participants prefer forcing or collaborating resolution strategy. The logistic regression model was found to be non-significant, $X^2(6, 75) = 4.49$, $p > .05$.

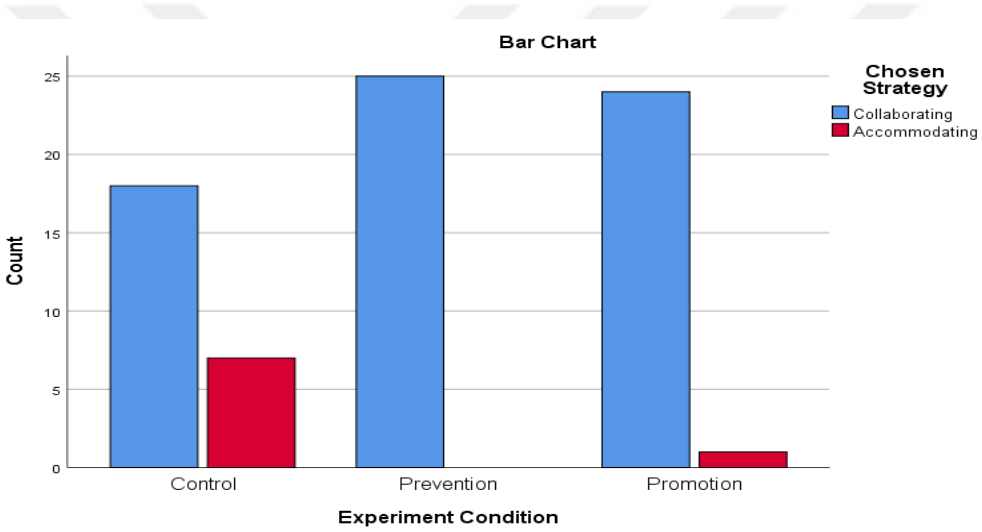
d) ***Collaborating or accommodating group***

The frequencies of collaborating and accommodating resolution strategies on each experiment condition are summarized in Table 3.7.

Table 3.7. Collaborating and accommodating frequencies in experiment conditions.

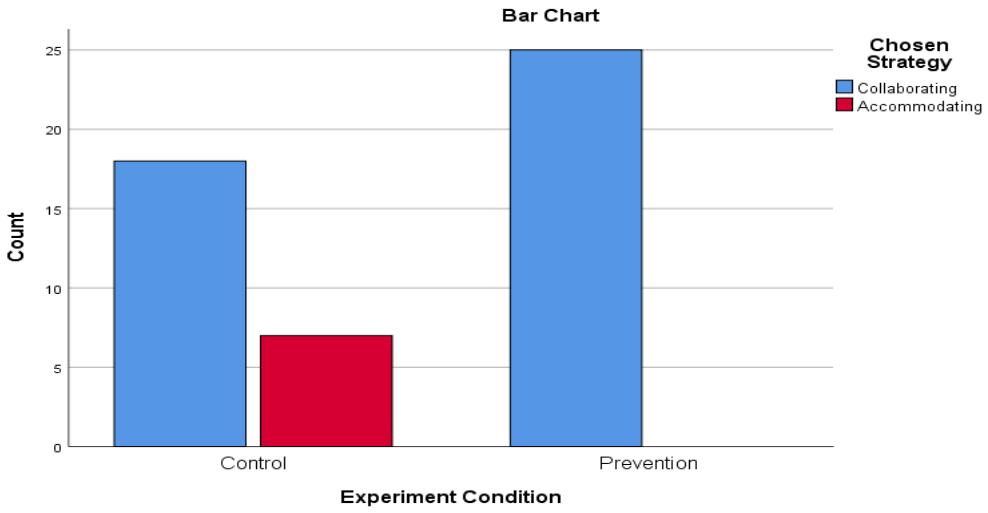
Experiment Conditions	*n*	Collaborating Frequency	Percent	Accommodating Frequency	Percent
Control	25	18	72%	7	28%
Prevention	25	25	100%	0	0%
Promotion	25	24	96%	1	4%

A chi-square test of independence was performed to examine the association between the experiment conditions and the preference for collaborating and accommodating. The results were found to be significant. There was a significant association between the experiment conditions and conflict resolution strategy dominance, $X^2(2, 75) = 12.03$, $p < .05$. The results are summarized in Graph 3.3.



Graph 3.3. Collaborating and accommodating frequencies in experiment conditions.

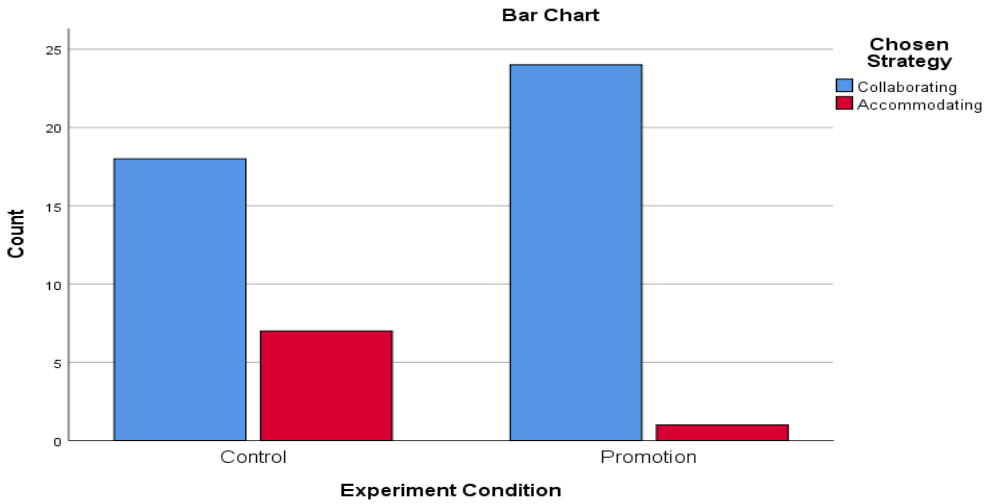
The first 2 x 2 design chi square test of independence was performed to examine the association between two experiment conditions (prevention focus and control conditions) and the preference for collaborating or accommodating. The results were found to be significant. There was a significant association between the experiment conditions and conflict resolution strategy, $X^2(1, 50) = 8.14$, $p < .05$. In the control group, the collaborating was a dominant strategy (frequency = 18, 72%) in comparison to accommodating (frequency = 7, 28%), whereas all the participants in the prevention focus condition selected collaborating (frequency = 25, 100%) and no one preferred accommodating. The results are summarized in Graph 3.4.



Graph 3.4. Collaborating and accommodating frequencies in control and prevention focus conditions.

The second 2 x 2 design chi square test of independence was performed to examine the association between two experiment conditions (prevention focus and promotion focus conditions) and the preference for collaborating and accommodating. The results were found to be non-significant. There was no significant association between the experiment conditions and conflict resolution strategy dominance, $X^2(1, 50) = 1.002$ $p > .05$.

The third 2 x 2 design chi square test of independence was performed to examine the association between two experiment conditions (control and promotion focus groups) and the preference for collaborating or accommodating. The results were found to be significant. There was a significant association between the experiment conditions and a preferred resolution strategy, $X^2(1, 50) = 5.36$, $p < .05$. The collaborating was a dominant strategy (frequency = 18, 72%) compared to accommodating (frequency = 7, 28%) in the control condition, while most of the participant preferred the collaboration (frequency = 24, 96%) and no participant preferred accommodating in the promotion focus condition. The results are summarized in Graph 3.5.



Graph 3.5. Collaborating and accommodating frequencies in control and promotion focus conditions.

A binary logistic regression analysis was performed to ascertain the effects of the experiment conditions, motivation orientations, and emotions on the likelihood that the participants prefer collaborating or accommodating resolution strategy. The logistic regression model was significant, $X^2(6, 75) = 23.66$, $p < .05$. The model explained 59.7% (Nagelkerke R^2) of the variance in the resolution preferences and correctly classified 95.8% cases. It needs to noted that no model also correctly classified 90.1% cases. The effects of all factors were found to be non-significant in the model. The results are presented in Table 3.8.

Table 3.8. Logistic regression prediction of collaborating and accommodating.

Predictors	*B*	Wald χ^2	*p*	Odds Ratio
Experiment Conditions				
Prevention	-17.38	.00	.998	.00
Promotion	-3.26	1.23	.268	.38
Motivation Orientations				
Advancement Motivation	1.57	.68	.411	4.82
Security Motivation	-2.79	2.04	.154	.062
Emotions				
Agitation	-1.14	1.67	.196	.320
Dejection	-.51	.28	.600	.604

e) *Collaborating or avoiding group*

The frequencies of collaborating and avoiding resolution strategies on each experiment condition are summarized in Table 3.9.

Table 3.9. Collaborating and avoiding frequencies in experiment conditions.

Experiment Conditions	*n*	Collaborating Frequency	Percent	Avoiding Frequency	Percent
Control	25	19	76%	6	24%
Prevention	25	18	72%	7	28%
Promotion	25	21	84%	4	16%

A chi-square test of independence was performed to examine the association between the experiment conditions and the preference for collaborating or avoiding. The results were found to be non-significant. There was no significant association between the experiment conditions and conflict resolution strategy dominance, $X^2(2, 75) = 1.07$, $p > .05$.

A binary logistic regression analysis was performed to ascertain the effects of experiment conditions, motivation orientations, and emotions on the likelihood that the participants prefer collaborating or avoiding resolution strategy. The logistic regression model was found to be non-significant, $X^2(6, 75) = 10.53$, $p > .05$.

f) ***Avoiding or accommodating group***

The frequencies of forcing and avoiding resolution strategies on each experiment condition are summarized in Table 3.10.

Table 3.10. Avoiding and accommodating frequencies in experiment conditions.

Experiment Conditions	*n*	Avoiding Frequency	Percent	Accommodating Frequency	Percent
Control	25	16	64%	9	36%
Prevention	25	18	72%	7	28%
Promotion	25	21	84%	4	16%

A chi-square test of independence was performed to examine the association between the experiment conditions and the preference for avoiding or accommodating. The results were found to be non-significant. There was no significant association between the experiment conditions and conflict resolution strategy dominance, $X^2(2, 75) = 2.59$, $p > .05$.

A binary logistic regression analysis was performed to ascertain the effects of experiment conditions, motivation orientations, and emotions on the likelihood that the participants prefer avoiding or accommodating resolution strategy. The logistic regression model was found to be non-significant, $X^2(6, 75) = 5.06$, $p > .05$.

3.1.4.2. Motivation Orientations

Two outcome variables were advancement motivation orientation and security motivation orientation for using the preferred interpersonal conflict resolution strategy in two alternative strategies. In order to test how advancement motivation orientation versus security motivation orientation differ according to regulatory focus priming (hypothesis 1) in each 6-conflict groups, a series of two-way between subjects MANOVA were conducted on each motivation orientation subscales. When a MANOVA result turned out to be significant, a series of ANOVA were performed in order to detect the main effect of the independent variable (regulatory focus priming) on the dependent variables (advancement and security motivation orientations), as well as the interaction effects of experiment conditions and preferred strategy on the dependent variables with the application of Tukey correction; 0.50 significance level was applied to both dependent variables.

a) *Forcing or accommodating group*

The descriptive statistics of the measures in the forcing or accommodating group are presented in Table 3.11.

Table 3.11. The forcing or accommodating group descriptive statistics of motivation orientations (N = 75).

Scales	*n*	Mean	*SD*	Range
Motivation Subscales				
Advancement Motivation Score				
Control Group	25	2.33	.99	0-4
Promotion Focus Primed Group	25	2.92	.90	0-4
Prevention Focus Primed Group	25	2.03	.85	0-4
Security Motivation Score				
Control Group	25	2.26	.89	0-4
Promotion Focus Prime Group	25	1.66	.72	0-4
Prevention Focus Prime Group	25	2.72	.97	0-4

In order to detect the effects of regulatory focus priming and the preferred resolution strategy (forcing versus accommodating) on motivation orientations, a two-way between subjects MANOVA was conducted. The results supported the hypothesis. There was a statistically significant main effect of regulatory focus priming on motivation orientations [Multivariate $F(4, 136) = 11.478$, $p < .05$; Wilks' $\lambda = .559$, partial $\eta 2 = .252$]. The interaction effect between regulatory focus priming and the preferred resolution strategy on the combined motivation orientations were found to be non-significant $F(2, 136) = .45$, $p > .05$;

Wilks' λ = .974, partial $\eta 2$ = .013]. Also, the main effect of the preferred resolution strategy on motivation orientation were found to be non-significant $F(2, 68) = 1.41$, $p > .05$; Wilks' λ = .960, partial $\eta 2$ = .040]. According to the results of the first ANOVA, the experiment condition has a significant main effect on security motivation orientation [$F(2, 72) = 9.40$, $p < .05$; partial $\eta 2$ = .207]. Tukey post hoc comparison results revealed that the participants in the prevention focus condition have significantly higher security motivation orientation (m = 2.72, sd = .97) compared to the participants in the control condition (m = 2.26, sd = .89) and the promotion focus condition (m = 1.66, sd = .72). According to the results of the second ANOVA, the experiment conditions have a significant main effect on advancement motivation orientation [$F(2, 72) = 6.10$, $p < .05$; partial $\eta 2$ = .145]. Tukey post hoc comparison results revealed that the participants in the promotion focus condition have significantly higher advancement motivation orientation (m = 2.92, sd = .90) compared to the participants in the control condition (m = 2.33, sd = .99) and the prevention focus condition (m = 2.03, sd = .85). The results are summarized in Table 3.12.

Table 3.12. The forcing or accommodating group motivation orientations.

	Advancement Motivation			Security Motivation		
Experiment Conditions	Mean	*SD*	*F*	Mean	*SD.*	*F*
			6.10*			13.49*
Control	2.33	.99		2.26	.89	
Prevention Focus Primed	2.03	.85		2.72	.97	
Promotion Focus Primed	2.92	.90		1.66	.72	

Note 1. *$p < .05$

b) *Forcing or avoiding group*

The descriptive statistics of the measures in the forcing or avoiding group are presented in Table 3.13.

Table 3.13. The forcing or avoiding group descriptive statistics of motivation orientations (N = 75).

Scales	*n*	Mean	*SD*	Range
Motivation Subscales				
Advancement Motivation Score				
Control Group	25	1.99	1.10	0-4
Promotion Focus Primed Group	25	2.74	1.00	0-4
Prevention Focus Primed Group	25	2.04	.63	0-4
Security Motivation Score				
Control Group	25	2.00	1.00	0-4
Promotion Focus Prime Group	25	1.79	.64	0-4
Prevention Focus Prime Group	25	3.16	.54	0-4

In order to detect the effects of regulatory focus priming and the preferred resolution strategy (forcing versus avoiding) on motivation orientations, a two-way between subjects MANOVA was conducted. The results supported the hypothesis. There was a statistically significant main effect of regulatory focus priming on motivation orientations [Multivariate $F(4, 136) = 17.02$, $p < .05$; Wilks' $\lambda = .444$, partial $\eta 2 = .334$]. The interaction effect between regulatory focus priming and the preferred resolution strategy on the combined motivation orientations were found to be non-significant $F(2, 136) = 1.06$, $p > .05$; Wilks' $\lambda = .941$, partial $\eta 2 = .030$]. Also, the main effect of the preferred resolution strategy on motivation orientation were found to be non-significant $F(2, 68) = .61$, $p > .05$; Wilks' $\lambda = .982$, partial $\eta 2 = .018$]. According to the results of the first ANOVA, the experiment conditions have a significant main effect on security motivation orientation [$F(2, 72) = 24.01$, $p < .05$; partial $\eta 2 = .400$]. Tukey post hoc comparison results revealed that the participants in the prevention focus condition have significantly higher security motivation orientation ($m = 3.16$, $sd = .54$) compared to the participants in the control condition ($m = 2.00$, $sd = 1.00$) and the promotion focus condition ($m = 1.79$, $sd = .64$). According to the results of the second ANOVA, the experiment conditions have a significant main effect on advancement motivation orientation [$F(2, 72) = 5.03$, $p < .05$; partial $\eta 2 = .123$. Tukey post hoc comparison results revealed that the participants in the promotion focus condition have significantly higher advancement motivation orientation ($m = 2.74$, $sd = 1.00$) compared to the participants in the control condition ($m = 1.99$, $sd = 1.10$) and the prevention focus condition ($m = 2.04$, $sd = .63$). The results are summarized in Table 3.14.

Table 3.14. The forcing or avoiding group motivation orientations.

Experiment Conditions	Advancement Motivation Mean	*SD*	*F*	Security Motivation Mean	*SD.*	*F*
			5.03*			24.01*
Control	1.99	1.10		2.00	1.00	
Prevention Focus Primed	2.04	.63		3.16	.54	
Promotion Focus Primed	2.74	1.00		1.79	.64	

Note 1. *p< .05

c) *Forcing or collaborating group*

The *descriptive* statistics of the measures in the forcing or collaborating group are presented in Table 3.15.

Table 3.15. The forcing or collaborating group descriptive statistics of motivation orientations (N = 75).

Scales	*n*	Mean	*SD*	Range
Motivation Subscales				
Advancement Motivation Score				
Control Group	25	3.36	.63	0-4
Promotion Focus Primed Group	25	3.52	.69	0-4
Prevention Focus Primed Group	25	3.06	.75	0-4
Security Motivation Score				
Control Group	25	3.30	.63	0-4
Promotion Focus Prime Group	25	2.99	.91	0-4
Prevention Focus Prime Group	25	3.49	.51	0-4

In order to detect the effects of regulatory focus priming and the preferred resolution strategy (forcing versus collaborating) on motivation orientations, a two-way between subjects MANOVA was conducted. The results supported hypothesis. There was a statistically significant main effect of regulatory focus priming on motivation orientations [Multivariate $F(4, 138) = 2.56$, $p < .05$; Wilks' $\lambda = .866$, partial $\eta 2 = .069$]. The interaction effect between regulatory focus priming and the preferred resolution strategy on the combined motivation orientations were found to be non-significant $F(2, 69) = .777$, $p > .05$; Wilks' $\lambda = .978$, partial $\eta 2 = .022$]. Also, the main effect of the preferred resolution strategy on motivation orientation were found to be non-significant $F(2, 69) = 2.13$, $p > .05$; Wilks' $\lambda = .942$, partial $\eta 2 = .058$].

According to the results of the first ANOVA, the experiment condition has a significant main effect on security motivation orientation [$F(2, 72) = 3.24$, $p < .05$; partial $\eta 2 = .083$]. Tukey post hoc comparison results revealed that the participants in the prevention

focus condition have significantly higher security motivation orientation (m = 3.49, sd = .51) compared to the participants in the control condition (m = 3.30, sd = .63) and the promotion focus condition (m = 2.99, sd = .91). According to the results of the second ANOVA, the experiment condition was found to have a non-significant main effect on advancement motivation orientation [$F(2, 72) = 2.85$, $p > .05$; partial $\eta 2 = .073$. The results are summarized in Table 3.16.

Table 3.16. The forcing or collaborating group motivation orientations.

	Advancement Motivation			Security Motivation		
Experiment Conditions	Mean	*SD*	*F*	Mean	*SD*	*F*
			2.85			3.24*
Control	3.36	.63		3.30	.63	
Prevention Focus Primed	3.06	.75		3.49	.51	
Promotion Focus Primed	3.52	.69		2.99	.91	

Note 1. *$p < .05$

d) *Collaborating or accommodating*

The descriptive statistics of the measures in the collaborating or accommodating group are presented in Table 3.17.

Table 3.17. The collaborating or accommodating group descriptive statistics of motivation orientations (N = 75).

Scales	*n*	Mean	*SD*	Range
Motivation Subscales				
Advancement Motivation Score				
Control Group	25	1.56	1.05	0-4
Promotion Focus Primed Group	25	3.50	.54	0-4
Prevention Focus Primed Group	25	2.77	.94	0-4
Security Motivation Score				
Control Group	25	1.60	1.04	0-4
Promotion Focus Prime Group	25	2.80	.75	0-4
Prevention Focus Prime Group	25	3.44	.68	0-4

In order to detect the effects of regulatory focus priming and the preferred resolution strategy (collaborating versus accommodating) on motivation orientations, a two-way between subjects MANOVA was conducted. The results supported the hypothesis. There was a statistically significant main effect of regulatory focus priming on motivation orientations [Multivariate $F(4, 138) = 15.68$, $p < .05$; Wilks' $\lambda = .473$, partial $\eta 2 = .312$]. The interaction effect between regulatory focus priming and the preferred resolution strategy on the combined motivation orientations were found to be non-significant $F(2, 69) = .77$, $p >$

.05; Wilks' λ = .978, partial $\eta 2$ = .022]. Also, the main effect of the preferred resolution strategy on motivation orientation were found to be non-significant $F(2, 69) = 2.82$, $p > .05$; Wilks' λ = .924, partial $\eta 2$ = .076]. According to the results of the first ANOVA, the experiment condition has a significant main effect on security motivation orientation [$F(2, 72) = 31.00$, $p < .05$; partial $\eta 2$ = .463]. Tukey post hoc comparison results revealed that the participants in the prevention focus condition have significantly higher security motivation orientation (m = 3.44, sd = .68) compared to the participants in the control condition (m = 1.60, sd = 1.04) and the promotion focus condition (m = 2.80, sd = .75). According to the results of the second ANOVA, the experiment condition has a significant main effect on advancement motivation orientation [$F(2, 72) = 31.48$, $p < .05$; partial $\eta 2$ = .466]. Tukey post hoc comparison results revealed that the participants in the promotion focus condition have significantly higher advancement motivation orientation (m = 3.50, sd = .54) compared to the participants in the control condition (m = 1.56, sd = 1.05) and the prevention focus condition (m = 2.77, sd = .94). The results are summarized in Table 3.18.

Table 3.18. The collaborating or accommodating group motivation orientations.

	Advancement Motivation			Security Motivation		
Experiment Conditions	Mean	*SD*	*F*	Mean	*SD.*	*F*
			31.48*			31.00*
Control	1.56	1.05		1.60	1.04	
Prevention Focus Primed	2.77	.94		3.44	.68	
Promotion Focus Primed	3.50	.54		2.80	.75	

Note 1. *p< .05

e) ***Collaborating or avoiding group***

The descriptive statistics of the measures in the collaborating or avoiding group are presented in Table 3.19.

Table 3.19. The collaborating or avoiding group descriptive statistics of motivation orientations (N = 75).

Scales	*n*	Mean	*SD*	Range
Motivation Subscales				
Advancement Motivation Score				
Control Group	25	2.07	.84	0-4
Promotion Focus Primed Group	25	3.53	.51	0-4
Prevention Focus Primed Group	25	2.59	1.03	0-4
Security Motivation Score				
Control Group	25	2.03	.73	0-4
Promotion Focus Prime Group	25	2.87	.64	0-4
Prevention Focus Prime Group	25	2.32	.82	0-4

In order to detect the effects of regulatory focus priming and the preferred resolution strategy (forcing versus avoiding) on motivation orientations, a two-way between subjects MANOVA was conducted. There was a statistically significant interaction effect between regulatory focus priming and the preferred conflict resolution strategy on the combined motivation orientations [Multivariate $F(4, 136) = 6.42.$, $p < .01$; Wilks' $\lambda = .708$, partial $\eta 2 = .159$]. A two-way ANOVA was conducted that examined the effects of regulatory focus priming and the preferred resolution strategy on security motivation orientation. The results partially supported the hypothesis. There was a statistically significant interaction between the effects of regulatory focus priming and the preferred resolution strategy on security motivation orientation $F(2, 69) = 5.39$, $p < .05$; partial $\eta 2 = .135$]. Also, there were significant main effects of the experiment conditions $F(2, 69) = 9.94$, $p < .05$; partial $\eta 2 = .224$] and the preferred resolution strategy $F(1, 69) = 5.13$, $p < .05$; partial $\eta 2 = .069$] on security motivation. Tukey post hoc comparison results revealed that the participants in the prevention focus condition have significantly higher security motivation orientation in collaborating strategy ($m = 3.64$, $sd = .43$) and avoiding strategy ($m = 2.50$, $sd = 1.05$) compared to the participants in the control condition (collaborating $m = 1.96$, $sd = .72$; avoiding $m = 2.25$, $sd = .76$) and the promotion condition (collaborating $m = 2.94$, $sd = .68$; avoiding $m = 2.50$, $sd = .20$). Tukey post hoc comparison results also revealed that security motivation orientation was significantly higher in collaborating strategy ($m = 3.64$, $sd = .43$) compared to avoiding strategy ($m = 2.50$, $sd = 1.05$). The results are summarized in Table 3.20.

Table 3.20. The collaborating or avoiding group security motivation orientation.

Strategies	Security Motivation Orientation Mean	*SD*	Interaction (*F*)
			5.39*
Collaborating			
Experiment Conditions			
Control	1.96	.72	
Prevention Focus Primed	3.64	.43	
Promotion Focus Primed	2.94	.68	
Avoiding			
Experiment Condition			
Control	2.25	.75	
Prevention Focus Primed	2.50	1.05	
Promotion Focus Primed	2.25	.76	

Note 1. *p< .05

The second two-way ANOVA was conducted that examined the effects of regulatory focus priming and the preferred resolution strategy on advancement motivation orientation. There was a statistically significant interaction between the effects of regulatory focus priming and preferred resolution strategy on advancement motivation orientation $F(2, 69) = 14.16$, $p < .05$; partial $\eta 2 = .291$]. Also, there were significant main effects of the experiment condition $F\ (2, 69) = 13.10$, $p < .05$; partial $\eta 2 = .275$] and the preferred resolution strategy $F(1, 69) = 1.92$, $p < .05$; partial $\eta 2 = .137$] on advancement motivation. Tukey post hoc comparison results revealed that the participants in the promotion focus condition have significantly higher security motivation orientation in collaborating strategy ($m = 3.64$, $sd = .38$) and avoiding strategy ($m = 2.94$, $sd = .72$) compared to the participants in the control condition (collaborating $m = 1.93$, $sd = .82$; avoiding $m = 2.50$, $sd = .81$) and the prevention condition (collaborating $m = 3.07$, $sd = .60$; avoiding $m = 1.36$, $sd = .85$). Tukey post hoc comparison results also revealed that advancement motivation orientation was significantly higher in collaborating strategy ($m = 3.64$, $sd = .43$) compared to avoiding strategy ($m = 2.50$, $sd = 1.05$). The results are summarized in Table 3.21.

Table 3.21. The collaborating or avoiding group advancement motivation orientation.

Strategies	Advancement Motivation Orientation Mean	*SD*	Interaction (*F*)
			14.16*
Collaborating			
Experiment Conditions			
Control	1.93	.82	
Prevention Focus Primed	3.07	.60	
Promotion Focus Primed	3.64	.38	
Avoiding			
Experiment Condition			
Control	2.50	.81	
Prevention Focus Primed	1.36	.85	
Promotion Focus Primed	2.94	.72	

Note 1. *p< .05

f) ***Avoiding or accommodating***

The descriptive statistics of the measures in the avoiding or accommodating group are presented in Table 3.22.

Table 3.22. The avoiding or accommodating group descriptive statistics of motivation orientations (N = 75).

Scales	*n*	Mean	*SD*	Range
Motivation Subscales				
Advancement Motivation Score				
Control Group	25	1.73	.96	0-4
Promotion Focus Primed Group	25	3.14	.60	0-4
Prevention Focus Primed Group	25	1.85	.88	0-4
Security Motivation Score				
Control Group	25	1.85	.86	0-4
Promotion Focus Prime Group	25	2.00	.63	0-4
Prevention Focus Prime Group	25	2.25	.82	0-4

In order to detect the effects of regulatory focus priming and the preferred resolution strategy (avoiding versus accommodating) on motivation orientations, a two-way between subjects MANOVA was conducted. The results supported the hypothesis. There was a statistically significant main effect of regulatory focus priming on motivation orientations [Multivariate $F(4, 136) = 16.97$, $p < .05$; Wilks' $\lambda = .445$, partial $\eta 2 = .333$].

The interaction effect between regulatory focus priming and preferred resolution strategy on the combined motivation orientations were found to be non-significant $F(4, 136) = 2.01$, $p > .05$; Wilks' $\lambda = .892$, partial $\eta 2 = .056$]. Also, the main effect of preferred resolution strategy on motivation orientation were found to be non-significant $F(2, 68) = .22$,

$p > .05$; Wilks' $\lambda = .994$, partial $\eta 2 = .006$]. According to the results of the first ANOVA, the experiment conditions have a significant main effect on security motivation orientation [$F(2, 72) = 5.65$, $p < .05$; partial $\eta 2 = .136$]. Tukey post hoc comparison results revealed that the participants in the prevention focus condition have significantly higher security motivation orientation ($m = 2.55$, $sd = .82$) compared to the participants in the control condition ($m = 1.85$, $sd = .86$) and the promotion focus condition ($m = 2.00$, $sd = .63$). According to the results of the second ANOVA, the experiment conditions have a significant main effect on advancement motivation orientation [$F(2, 72) = 22.34$, $p < .05$; partial $\eta 2 = .383$]. Tukey post hoc comparison results revealed that the participants in the promotion focus condition have significantly higher advancement motivation orientation ($m = 3.14$, $sd = .60$) compared to the participants in the control condition ($m = 1.73$, $sd = .96$) and the prevention focus condition ($m = 1.85$, $sd = .88$). The results are summarized in Table 3.23.

Table 3.23. The avoiding or accommodating group motivation orientations.

	Advancement Motivation			Security Motivation		
Experiment Conditions	Mean	*SD*	*F*	Mean	*SD*	*F*
			5.65*			22.34*
Control	1.85	.86		1.73	.96	
Prevention Focus Primed	2.55	.82		1.85	.88	
Promotion Focus Primed	2.00	.63		3.14	.60	

Note 1. *$p < .05$

3.1.4.3. Emotions

In order to test how agitation and dejection emotions differ based on regulatory focus priming (control, promotion focus, and prevention focus conditions) (hypothesis 2), a series of two-way between subjects MANOVA were conducted on emotion subscales in each 6-conflict groups. When MANOVA results turned out to be significant, a series of ANOVA were performed in order to detect main effect of the independent variable (experiment manipulation) on the dependent variables (agitation and dejection), as well as the interaction effects of experiment conditions and preferred strategy on the dependent variables with the application of Tukey correction; 0.50 significance level was applied to both dependent variables.

a) ***Forcing or accommodating group***

The descriptive statistics of the measures in the forcing or accommodating group are presented in Table 3.24.

Table 3.24. The forcing or accommodating group descriptive statistics of emotions (*N* = 75).

Scales	*n*	Mean	*SD*	Range
Emotions Subscales				
Agitation				
Control Group	24	1.71	.70	0-4
Promotion Focus Primed Group	25	2.09	.96	0-4
Prevention Focus Primed Group	25	2.41	.68	0-4
Missing	1			
Dejection				
Control Group	22	2.35	.66	0-4
Promotion Focus Prime Group	25	1.97	.93	0-4
Prevention Focus Primed Group	25	2.37	.86	0-4
Missing	3			

In order to detect the effects of regulatory focus priming and preferred resolution strategy (forcing versus accommodating) on dejection and agitation emotions, a two-way between subjects MANOVA was conducted. The results supported the hypothesis. There was a statistically significant main effect of regulatory focus priming on emotions [Multivariate $F(4, 130) = 3.24$, $p < .05$; Wilks' $\lambda = .827$, partial $\eta 2 = .091$]. The interaction effect between regulatory focus priming and preferred resolution strategy on the combined emotions were found to be non-significant $F(4, 130) = .20$, $p > .05$; Wilks' $\lambda = .988$, partial $\eta 2 = .006$]. Also, the main effect of preferred resolution strategy on emotions were found to be non-significant $F(2, 65) = .44$, $p > .05$; Wilks' $\lambda = .987$, partial $\eta 2 = .013$]. According to the results of the first ANOVA, the experiment condition has a significant main effect on agitation [$F(2, 71) = 4.87$, $p < .05$; partial $\eta 2 = .121$]. Tukey post hoc comparison results revealed that the participants in the prevention focus condition have significantly higher agitation emotions ($m = 2.41$, $sd = .68$) compared to the participants in the control condition ($m = 1.71$, $sd = .70$) and the promotion focus conditions ($m = 2.09$, $sd = .96$). The results of the second ANOVA were found to be non-significant for dejection emotions [$F(2, 69) = 1.79$, $p > .05$; partial $\eta 2 = .049$]. The results are summarized in Table 3.25.

Table 3.25. The forcing or accommodating group emotion differences.

	Agitation Emotions			Dejection Emotions		
Experiment Conditions	Mean	*SD*	*F*	Mean	*SD*	*F*
			45.80*			.791
Control	1.71	.70		2.35	.66	
Prevention Focus Primed	2.41	.68		2.37	.86	
Promotion Focus Primed	2.09	.96		1.97	.93	

Note 1. *p< .05

b) ***Forcing or avoiding group***

The descriptive statistics of the measures in the forcing or avoiding group are presented in Table 3.26.

Table 3.26. The forcing or avoiding group descriptive statistics of emotions (N = 75).

Scales	*n*	Mean	*SD*	Range
Emotions Subscales				
Agitation				
Control Group	24	2.03	.73	0-4
Promotion Focus Primed Group	24	2.31	.77	0-4
Prevention Focus Primed Group	25	2.96	.56	0-4
Missing	2			
Dejection				
Control Group	24	2.08	.76	0-4
Promotion Focus Prime Group	24	2.40	.70	0-4
Prevention Focus Primed Group	25	2.35	.70	0-4
Missing	2			

In order to detect the effects of regulatory focus priming and preferred resolution strategy (forcing versus avoiding) on dejection and agitation emotions, a two-way between subjects MANOVA was conducted. The results supported the hypothesis. There was a statistically significant main effect of regulatory focus priming on emotions [Multivariate $F(4, 132) = 4.42$, $p < .05$; Wilks' $\lambda = .778$, partial $\eta 2 = .118$]. Also, the main effect of preferred resolution strategy emotions was significant $F(2, 66) = 5.07$, $p > .05$; Wilks' $\lambda = .867$, partial $\eta 2 = .133$]. The interaction effect between regulatory focus and preferred resolution strategy on the combined emotions were found to be non-significant $F(4, 132) = .68$, $p > .05$; Wilks' $\lambda = .960$, partial $\eta 2 = .020$]. According to the results of the first ANOVA, the experiment conditions have a significant main effect on agitation [$F(2, 70) = 11.75$, $p < .05$; partial $\eta 2 = .251$]. Tukey post hoc comparison results revealed that the participants in the prevention focus condition have significantly higher agitation emotions ($m = 2.96$, $sd = .56$) compared to the participants in control condition ($m = 2.03$, $sd = .73$) and the promotion focus condition

(m = 2.31, sd = .77). The results of the second ANOVA were found to be non-significant for dejection emotions [$F(2, 70) = 1.34$, $p > .05$; partial $\eta 2 = .037$]. The results are summarized in Table 3.27.

Table 3.27. The forcing or avoiding group emotion differences.

	Agitation Emotions			Dejection Emotions		
Experiment Conditions	Mean	*SD*	*F*	Mean	*SD*	*F*
			45.80*			.791
Control	1.71	.70		2.35	.66	
Prevention Focus Primed	2.41	.68		2.37	.86	
Promotion Focus Primed	2.09	.96		1.97	.93	

Note 1. *$p < .05$

The first independent samples t-test was conducted to compare agitation emotions between forcing and avoiding strategies. There was not a significant difference in the agitation scores for forcing strategy (m = 2.58, sd = .73) and avoiding strategy (m = 2.29, sd = .83); $t(71) = 1.60$, $p > .05$. The second independent samples t-test was conducted to compare dejection emotions in forcing and avoiding strategies. There was a significant difference in the dejection scores for forcing strategy (m = 2.11, sd = .63) and avoiding strategy (m = 2.46, sd = .79); $t(71) = 2.06$, $p < .05$.

c) *Forcing or collaborating group*

The descriptive statistics of the measures in the forcing or collaborating group are presented in Table 3.28.

Table 3.28. The forcing or collaborating group descriptive statistics of emotions (N = 75).

Scales	*n*	Mean	*SD*	Range
Emotions Subscales				
Agitation				
Control Group	23	1.87	.81	0-4
Promotion Focus Primed Group	25	1.85	.88	0-4
Prevention Focus Primed Group	25	2.47	.70	0-4
Missing	2			
Dejection				
Control Group	25	1.97	.94	0-4
Promotion Focus Prime Group	25	1.80	.78	0-4
Prevention Focus Primed Group	24	1.99	.85	0-4
Missing	1			

In order to detect the effects of regulatory focus priming and preferred resolution strategy (forcing or accommodating) on emotions (dejection and agitation), a two-way

between subjects MANOVA was conducted. The results did not support the hypothesis. There was not a statistically significant main effect of regulatory focus priming on emotions [Multivariate $F(4, 132) = 2.34$ $p > .05$; Wilks' $\lambda = .872$, partial $\eta 2 = .66$]. Also, the main effect of preferred resolution strategy on motivation orientation was found to be non-significant $F(2, 66) = .82$, $p > .05$; Wilks' $\lambda = .976$, partial $\eta 2 = .024$]. Finally, the interaction effect between regulatory focus priming and preferred strategy on the combined emotions were found to be non-significant $F(4, 66) = .50$, $p > .05$; Wilks' $\lambda = .985$, partial $\eta 2 = .015$].

d) *Collaborating or accommodating group*

The descriptive statistics of the measures in the collaborating or accommodating group are presented in Table 3.29.

Table 3.29. The collaborating or accommodating group descriptive statistics of emotions ($N = 75$).

Scales	*n*	Mean	*SD*	Range
Emotions Subscales				
Agitation				
Control Group	24	1.93	1.08	0-4
Promotion Focus Primed Group	23	1.81	.86	0-4
Prevention Focus Primed Group	25	2.57	.75	0-4
Missing	3			
Dejection				
Control Group	24	1.81	1.07	0-4
Promotion Focus Prime Group	23	1.83	.74	0-4
Prevention Focus Primed Group	25	1.83	.88	0-4
Missing	3			

In order to detect the effects of regulatory focus priming and preferred resolution strategy (collaborating or accommodating) on dejection and agitation emotions, a two-way between subjects MANOVA was conducted. The results supported the hypothesis. There was a statistically significant main effect of regulatory focus priming on emotions [Multivariate $F(4, 130) = 3.04$, $p < .05$; Wilks' $\lambda = .836$, partial $\eta 2 = .086$]. Also, the main effect of preferred resolution strategy on emotions were significant $F(2, 65) = 3.91$, $p > .05$; Wilks' $\lambda = .893$, partial $\eta 2 = .107$]. The interaction effect between regulatory focus priming and preferred resolution strategy on the combined emotions were found to be non-significant $F(4, 65) = .75$, $p > .05$; Wilks' $\lambda = .977$, partial $\eta 2 = .023$]. According to the results of the first ANOVA, the experiment conditions have a significant main effect on agitation [$F(2, 69) = 5.00$, $p < .05$; partial $\eta 2 = .127$]. Tukey post hoc comparison results revealed that the

participants in the prevention focus condition have significantly higher agitation emotions (m = 2.57, sd = .75) compared to the participants in the control condition (m = 1.93, sd = 1.08) and the promotion focus condition (m = 1.81, sd = .86). The results of the second univariate analysis were found to be non-significant for dejection emotions [$F(2, 69) = .004$, $p > .05$; partial $\eta 2 = .000$]. The results are summarized in Table 3.30.

Table 3.30. The collaborating or accommodating group emotion differences.

	Agitation Emotions			Dejection Emotions		
Experiment Conditions	Mean	*SD*	*F*	Mean	*SD*	*F*
			5.00*			.004
Control	1.93	1.08		1.81	1.07	
Prevention Focus Primed	2.57	.75		1.83	.88	
Promotion Focus Primed	1.93	1.08		1.83	.75	

Note 1. *$p < .05$

The first independent samples t-test was conducted to compare dejection emotions in collaborating and accommodating strategies. The difference was found to be non-significant in the dejection scores between collaborating strategy (m = 1.89, sd = .89) and accommodating strategy (m = 1.19, sd = .72); $t(70) = 1.99$, $p > .05$. The second independent samples t-test was conducted to compare agitation emotions in collaborating and accommodating strategies. There was a significant difference in the agitation scores for collaborating strategy (m = 2.22, sd = .91) and accommodating strategy (m = 1.25, sd = .92); $t(70) = 2.85$, $p < .05$.

e) ***Collaborating or avoiding group***

The descriptive statistics of the measures in the collaborating or avoiding group are presented in Table 3.31.

Table 3.31. The collaborating or avoiding group descriptive statistics of emotions (*N* = 75).

Scales	*n*	Mean	*SD*	Range
Emotions Subscales				
Agitation				
Control Group	24	1.44	.47	0-4
Promotion Focus Primed Group	24	2.26	.89	0-4
Prevention Focus Primed Group	24	2.39	.64	0-4
Missing	3			
Dejection				
Control Group	25	1.92	.44	0-4
Promotion Focus Prime Group	23	2.28	.72	0-4
Prevention Focus Primed Group	24	2.04	.54	0-4
Missing	2			

In order to detect the effects of regulatory focus priming and preferred resolution strategy (collaborating or avoiding) on dejection and agitation emotions, a two-way between subjects MANOVA was conducted. The results supported the hypothesis. There was a statistically significant main effect of regulatory focus priming on emotions [Multivariate $F(4, 126) = 5.13$, $p < .05$; Wilks' $\lambda = .739$, partial $\eta 2 = .140$]. The interaction effect between regulatory focus priming and preferred resolution strategy on the combined emotions were found to be non-significant $F(4, 126) = .79$, $p > .05$; Wilks' $\lambda = .952$, partial $\eta 2 = .024$]. Also, the main effect of preferred resolution strategy on emotion was found to be non-significant $F(2, 63) = .06$, $p > .05$; Wilks' $\lambda = 1.00$, partial $\eta 2 = .000$]. According to the results of the first ANOVA, the experiment conditions have a significant main effect on agitation [$F(2, 66) = 9.15$, $p < .05$; partial $\eta 2 = .217$]. Tukey post hoc comparison results revealed that the participants in the prevention focus condition have significantly higher agitation emotions ($m = 2.39$, $sd = .63$) compared to the participants in the control condition ($m = 1.44$, $sd = .47$) and the promotion focus condition ($m = 2.26$, $sd = .89$). The results of the second ANOVA were found to be non-significant for dejection emotions [$F(2, 69) = 2.33$, $p > .05$; partial $\eta 2 = .063$]. The results are summarized in Table 3.32.

Table 3.32. The collaborating or avoiding group emotion differences.

	Agitation Emotions			Dejection Emotions		
Experiment Conditions	Mean	*SD*	*F*	Mean	*SD*	*F*
			9.15*			2.33
Control	1.44	.47		1.92	.44	
Prevention Focus Primed	2.39	.63		2.04	.54	
Promotion Focus Primed	2.26	.89		2.28	.72	

Note 1. *$p < .05$

f) ***Avoiding or accommodating group***

The descriptive statistics of the measures in the accommodating or avoiding group are presented in Table 3.33.

Table 3.33. The avoiding or accommodating group descriptive statistics of emotions (N = 75).

Scales	*n*	Mean	*SD*	Range
Emotions Subscales				
Agitation				
Control Group	24	2.18	.78	0-4
Promotion Focus Primed Group	24	2.51	.82	0-4
Prevention Focus Primed Group	24	2.25	.97	0-4
Missing	3			
Dejection				
Control Group	24	2.10	.83	0-4
Promotion Focus Prime Group	25	2.29	.88	0-4
Prevention Focus Primed Group	24	2.00	.87	0-4
Missing	2			

In order to detect the effects of regulatory focus priming and preferred resolution strategy (avoiding or accommodating) on dejection and agitation emotions, a two-way between MANOVA was conducted. The results partially supported the hypothesis. There was a statistically significant interaction effect between regulatory focus priming and preferred conflict resolution strategy on emotions [Multivariate $F(4, 130) = 2.84.$, $p < .01$; Wilks' $\lambda = .846$, partial $\eta 2 = .080$]. According to the results of the first two-way ANOVA, the interaction effect of regulatory focus priming and preferred conflict resolution strategy on agitation were found to be non-significant [$F(2, 66) = 2.87$, $p > .05$; partial $\eta 2 = .080$]. Also, the main effects of the experiment conditions [$F(2, 69) = 2.54$, $p > .05$; partial $\eta 2 = .071$] and preferred resolution strategy [$F\ (1, 66) = 1.71$, $p > .05$; partial $\eta 2 = .025$] were found to be non-significant. According to the results of the second two-way ANOVA, the interaction effect of regulatory focus and preferred conflict resolution strategy on dejection were significant [$F(2, 67) = 6.16$, $p < .05$; partial $\eta 2 = .155$]. On the other hand, the main effects of experiment conditions [$F\ (2, 67) = 3.49$, $p > .05$; partial $\eta 2 = .094$] and preferred resolution strategy [$F(1, 67) = .163$, $p > .05$; partial $\eta 2 = .002$] were found to be non-significant. Tukey post hoc comparison results revealed that the participants in the promotion focus condition have significantly higher dejection emotions only in accommodating resolution strategy ($m = 3.00$, $sd = .38$) compared to participants in the control condition (m

= 2.04, *sd* = .72) and the promotion conditions (*m* = 1.29, *sd* = .78). The results are summarized in Table 3.34.

Table 3.34. The avoiding or accommodating group emotion differences.

Strategy	Dejection Emotions		
	Mean	*SD*	*F*
			6.16*
Accommodating			
Experiment Conditions			
Control	2.04	.72	
Prevention Focus Primed	1.29	.78	
Promotion Focus Primed	3.00	.38	

Note 1. *p< .05

3.1.5. Discussion

Conflict resolution strategies can be conceptualized as strategic choices based on two instrumental concerns, which are related to outcomes for self and others (Pruitt, 1983). In some real-life settings, people might have to choose a strategy between two alternative conflict resolution strategies, such as fight and flight (i.e., force and avoid), or cooperate and compete (study 2). In some other cases, people might consider all their resolution options, followed by a decision to implement one of the 5-resolution strategies (study3). Therefore, the current study explored which resolution strategies would be dominant according to regulatory focus priming. In study 2, 6-groups of participants were presented with different pairs of resolution strategies and their preferences based on regulatory focus priming were analyzed. The findings were not conclusive. The results were significant only in two groups; (1) the forcing or avoiding group, and (2) the collaborating or accommodating group. The differences in other 4 groups were found to be non-significant; these groups were (1) forcing or accommodating, (2) forcing or collaborating, (3) collaborating or avoiding, (4) avoiding or accommodating.

In the *forcing or avoiding group*, the participants in prevention focus condition preferred forcing strategy significantly more than avoiding strategy. This finding is in line with previous related research findings. Individuals with higher promotion focus prefer typical “expectancy x value" interaction in their preferred strategies. It is also worth to note that advancement motivation orientation can be achieved by both high valuable and a high likelihood of advancement. On the other hand, prevention focus individuals mainly emphasize security, which can be done by selecting the conflict resolution strategy that have

high security value, without much regard to how likely it is that this security can be obtained (i.e., one must use a given strategy to attain security no matter what the odds are) (Shaw & Higgins, 1997). Thus, security motivation orientation might have facilitated the increased preference of forcing strategy over avoiding strategy. In the *collaborating versus accommodating group*, most of the participants in promotion focus prime and prevention focus conditions preferred collaborating with only one participant in promotion focus condition selecting accommodating. The findings revealed that the participants in the control condition preferred accommodating significantly more than the ones in the promotion focus and prevention focus conditions in comparison to collaborating. Given that the participants in the control condition are also likely to have stable promotion or prevention focus variance and that no significant difference were found between the promotion focus and prevention focus conditions, the differences between experiment conditions cannot be assumed to result from regulatory focus priming. It is possible that these findings stem from some other unaccounted predictors such as individual differences among experiment conditions.

The significant findings in 2 groups should be interpreted with caution as in the other 4 groups the findings were found to be non-significant on the dominant resolution strategies based on regulatory focus priming. However, these findings provide circumstantial support for refining resolution strategies based on regulatory focus motivation orientations by suggesting that these strategies can be used in the service of either advancement motivation orientation or security motivation orientation. The implications of these findings are further discussed in the general discussion section.

The second objective of study 2 is to extend findings of the first study by testing the effects of regulatory focus priming on the motivation orientations (hypothesis 1) and emotions (hypothesis 2) in cases where the participants have an option to prefer a strategy between two alternative conflict resolution strategies. The above analyses in relation to the effects of regulatory focus priming conditions (control, promotion focus, and prevention focus) and preferred resolution strategies on the motivation orientations supported hypothesis 1. That is, promotion focus primed participants are found to have significantly more advancement motivation orientation, while prevention focus primed individuals had significantly more security motivation orientation across all 6-groups. Also, the above findings in relation to the effects of regulatory focus priming conditions (control, promotion focus, and prevention focus) and preferred strategies on the emotional variance partially supported hypothesis 2. That is, prevention focus primed individuals had significantly higher

agitation emotions in 5 out of 6-groups, while the results were found to be non-significant on the effects of the relationship between the promotion focus priming and preferred resolution strategies on the occurrence of dejection emotions in 5 groups out of 6-groups. The implications of these findings are discussed in the overall discussion section along with the findings in study 1.

4. STUDY III. DOMINANT CONFLICT RESOLUTION STRATEGIES BASED ON REGULATORY FOCUS MANIPULATION IN FIVE CONFLICT RESOLUTION STRATEGIES

The objective of this study is to explore the following question; although people can use any one of the 5 conflict resolution strategies in the service of either advancement motivation or security motivation, when participants' regulatory focus primed and they have an option to use one of the 5-resolution strategies, which conflict resolution strategy will be significantly more dominant (Research Question 2) ? The predictor variables of study 3 are the random assignment of the participants in one of the three experiment conditions (control, promotion focus primed, prevention focus primed conditions) and the outcome variable is the preferences of one strategy in 5-resolution strategies.

4.1. Method

4.1.1. Participants

The demographic characteristics of the participants in this study are summarized in Table 4.1. This study included 150 participants of which 97 (64,7 %) were female and 53 (35,3 %) were male. The ages of participants ranged between 19 and 57 (M = 26.24; SD = 7.59). All participants were university students or university graduates, 94 (62.7%) of which are current students, 56 (37.3%) are not students. The data was collected online via google forms. The participants were recruited via social media by sharing a study link, 19 (12.7) participants were students at AYBU, 8 (5.3%) participants were students at Marmara university, 62 (41.4%) were students at other universities, and 56 (38.6%) were not students. Educational attainment of their parents varied; for example, many of the participants' fathers (n = 40, 27.0%) and mothers (n = 37, 24.7%) had high school diploma. Also, many of the participants reported living in Ankara (n = 55, 38.2%).

Table 4.1. Study 3 demographic characteristics of the participants (N = 150).

Variables	Frequency	Mean (*SD*)
Age		26.24 (7.58)
Gender		
Male	53 (35.3 %)	
Female	97 (64.7 %)	
University		
AYBU	19 (13.1%)	
Marmara University	8 (5.5%)	
METU	5 (3.4%)	
Other	62 (39.4%)	
Not student	56 (38.6%)	
Father's Highest Level of Educational Attainment		
Primary School	38 (25.7%)	
Middle School	20 (13.5%)	
High School	40 (27.0%)	
College Diploma	5 (3.4%)	
University Degree	33 (22.3%)	
Other	12 (8.1%)	
Missing	2	
Mother's Highest Level of Educational Attainment		
Primary School	58 (38.9%)	
Middle School	16 (10.7%)	
High School	37 (24.8%)	
College Diploma	4 (2.7%)	
University Degree	11 (7.4%)	
Other	23 (15.5%)	
Missing	1	
City		
Ankara	55 (38.2%)	
Other	95 (61.8%)	

4.1.2. Instruments

Many of the instruments of study 2 are adapted from study 1. These are *the regulatory focus priming forms* (priming promotion focus versus prevention focus forms), *the conflict vignette*, and *the demographic information form*. The details of these instruments are provided in study 1; therefore, the same details are not included in this chapter. The only different instrument in study 3 is *the preference of interpersonal conflict resolution strategies form*. A copy of the study package, containing all the instruments can be found in Appendix C.

4.1.2.1. Preference of Interpersonal Conflict Resolution Strategies Form

In this form, the participants first read the same interpersonal conflict vignette presented in the first study. After reading the vignette, they are given the following instruction; "There would be different strategies to resolve this disagreement, but you were

suggested to use one of 5 following strategies to resolve this issue. Please read carefully these 5 alternatives and after that indicate your preference by checking the box next to your preference." The 5 strategies were summarized as follows;

"COLLABORATING: collaborating with the other student (by working together and reaching mutual agreement, by paying same attention to both yours and the other students' goals and needs etc.). In other words, you think that the only possible way of resolving this conflict is to build working partnership with the other student. In short, this strategy would mean that you have a high concern for yourself and other student's wants and needs."

"AVOIDING: avoiding the conflict with the other student (by overlooking disagreed subjects and physically or psychologically isolating yourself from this state etc.). In other words, you think that the only possible way of resolving this conflict is to disregard the matters of the conflict. In short, this strategy would mean that you have a low concern for both of yours wants and needs."

"FORCING: forcing your wants and needs on the other student (by verbally, physically, and psychologically dominating the other student etc.). In other words, you think that the only acceptable way of resolving this conflict is to follow through your own goals. In short, this strategy would mean that while you have a high concern for your own wants and needs, you disregard the other students' wants and needs."

"ACOMMODATING: easy going with the other students in this project (accepting his/her wishers and agreeing with his/her demands etc.). In other words, you think that the only possible way of resolving this conflict is to completely accept the requests of the other student. In short, this strategy would mean that while you ignore your own wants and needs, you have a high concern for the other students' wants and needs."

"COMPROMISING: making concessions to the other student (agreeing occasionally with his/her wants and needs with a hope that sometimes he/she would agree your wants and needs etc.). In other words, you think that the only possible way of resolving this conflict is to find the middle ground with the other student. In short, this strategy would mean that you have a moderate concern for yourself and other student's wants and needs." A copy of the instrument can be found in Appendix E.

4.1.3. Procedure

After receiving the approval from Ethics Board at Ankara Yıldırım Beyazıt University (AYBU), research forms were generated with the instruments of study 3. In this study, the participants are recruited via social media by sharing a study link. The data is collected online via google forms. The participants were first presented with the informed consent form, including information on the aims of the study, their right not to participate or withdraw from the study at any time they wish. Following the informed consent, the participants are presented with either promotion prime or prevention prime forms (control condition did not receive any priming forms). This study consisted of 1 group of participants with 3 experiment conditions (control, prevention focus primed, and promotion focus primed conditions). There were 150 participants in this study who were randomly assigned to one of the 3 experiment conditions, 50 participants in each experiment condition.

The participants in this study first read the same conflict vignette from study 1. They are then instructed to carefully read 5-resolution strategies and indicate their preferred strategy by clicking a box next to one of the described resolution strategies. Lastly, the participants completed a demography form. The instruments took approximately 10 to 15 minutes to administer online. The data was collected between 8 and 13 August 2020.

4.1.4. Results

The data collected online via google forms is entered in SPSS 25 and statistical analyses are performed on this software. As for the analysis, firstly preliminary analyses were conducted, followed by a chi square test of independence in order to examine the association between experiment conditions (control, prevention focus prime, and promotion focus prime groups) and the preferred conflict resolution strategies. The predicter variables of in this study are the random assignment of the participants in one of the three conditions (control, promotion focus, and prevention focus conditions) and the outcome variables are the preference of a conflict resolution strategy out of 5-resolution strategy options; (1) collaborating, (2) avoiding, (3) forcing, (4) accommodating, (5) compromising. The frequencies on each experiment condition are summarized in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2. Preferred conflict resolution strategy frequencies.

	Experiment Conditions						
	Control		Prevention		Promotion		Total
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency
Strategy							
Collaborating	28	30.8%	32	35.2%	31	34.0%	91
Avoiding	4	100%					4
Forcing	6	27.3	11	50.0%	5	22.7%	22
Accommodating	3	27.3	3	27.3%	5	45.5%	11
Compromising	9	40.9%	4	18.2%	9	40.9%	22
Total	50		50		50		150

A chi-square test of independence was performed to examine the association between the experiment conditions and a preferred conflict resolution strategy. The results were found to be non-significant. There was no significant association between the experiment conditions and the preference of a conflict resolution strategy, $X^2(8, 150) = 14.10$, $p > .05$. In addition, a multinominal logistic regression was performed to ascertain the effects of experiment conditions (predictor variable) on the likelihood that the participants prefer a conflict resolution strategy among 4 resolution strategies. In the analysis, avoiding resolution strategy removed from the model as only 4 participants preferred avoiding. The multinominal logistic regression model was found to be non-significant, $X^2(6, 150) = 5.97$, $p > .05$.

4.1.5. Discussion

The objective of this study is to extend findings of the second study by exploring which conflict resolution strategy would be dominant based on regulatory focus priming when the participants have an option to prefer any strategy out of 5-strategies. In study 3, the participants are provided with all 5-resolution alternatives, the differences between the prevention focus primed, the promotion focus, and the control groups were found to be non-significant in the preference of any one of the 5-strategies. These findings indicated that when participants have an option to prefer any resolution strategy, there is no significantly dominant strategy according to regulatory focus priming, which provides indirect evidence that any conflict resolution strategy could be used in the service of either advancement motivation orientation or security motivation orientation. The implication of this finding is discussed in the following overall discussion section

5. GENERAL DISCUSSION

This research aims to refine the interpersonal conflict resolution strategies according to regulatory focus motivation orientations and emotions. For this purpose, we conducted three studies. The main interest of all three studies was to study the effects of motivation orientations based on regulatory focus theory (manipulated through studies) in conflict resolution in order to refine the classical taxonomy of conflict resolution strategies (self vs other preferences). To test these assumptions, we measured participants' reasons (advancement motivation orientation or security motivation orientation) and emotional reactions (dejection and agitation) for using a given conflict resolution (study 1) or choosing a conflict resolution strategy out of two option (study 2). Finally, the third study only focused on which conflict resolution strategies (5) were preferred after regulatory focus was manipulated.

The 5-strategy taxonomy of conflict resolution strategies has received significant empirical support and widely accepted in the literature (e.g., Thomas and Kilmann 1974; Van De Vliert & Kabanoff, 1990; Puritt, 1983; De Dreu et al., 2001). This taxonomy is based on Blake and Mouton's (1964) dual concern model (a concern for people versus a concern for production). The 5-strategy taxonomy introduced a nine-point dual dimension scale, 1 for the least concern and 9 for the maximum concern; and the model posits that the classification of resolution types is based on the interaction between the nature of concern (self vs others) and the magnitude of concern (low, medium or high) (Blake & Mouton, 1964). In this model, each strategy is interpreted as a distinctive concept resulting from an interaction of the two underlying dimensions. Thus, the dual concern model argues that each strategy is theoretically distinct (Blake & Mouton, 1981). The dual concern model was later modified with two modified underlying dimensions of (1) assertiveness (i.e., striving to satisfy one's own concern, and (2) cooperativeness (i.e., striving to satisfy other's concern) (Thomas & Kilmann, 1974). Although conflict resolution strategies relate to specific behavioral differences; they were traditionally believed to be stable across various occurrences (Puritt, 1983). The significant contribution of the dual concern model is that it changed the focus from general dispositions to strategic choices. Given that interpersonal conflicts often arise from a controversy or a state of contention about tasks, opinions, outcomes, or values (Jehn & Bendersky, 2003), it is likely that the appraisals of a conflict and underlying motivational differences influence the nature and the intensity of conflicts

(Deutsch, 1973). The main assumption of present research is that although people might have instrumental objectives in relation to the concerns of self and other in conflict, more fundamental motivations and emotions can also refine dual-concern resolution strategies. Accordingly, the present studies aim at extending the dual concern model of conflict resolution strategies by refining underlying motivational differences based on Higgins' (1997) regulatory focus perspective. That is, people have fundamental motivational differences beyond outcome concerns in conflict according to transient differences in regulatory focus (i.e., promotion focus priming versus prevention focus priming).

5.1. Regulatory Focus Motivation Orientations in Conflict Resolution Strategies

In order to assess regulatory focus motivation orientations in conflict resolution, we developed a scale by integrating Regulatory Focus Scale (Lockwood, Jordan, & Kunda, 2002) and The Dutch Test for Conflict Handling Scale (Van de Vliert, 1997). In this scale, the advancement motivation orientation items are on (1) reaching ideals, (2) obtaining gains, (3) accomplishing positive outcomes, and (4) achieving goals, while the security motivation orientation items were related to (1) preventing losses, (2) fulfilling responsibility, (3) reducing anxiety, and (4) avoiding harms. The wordings of both the advancement motivation orientation and security motivation orientation items have been modified in accordance with the applicable strategy, reflecting the dual concern differences in 5-conflict resolution strategies. The results revealed that the promotion focus primed participants would use a given conflict resolution strategy significantly more in the service of advancement motivation orientation, whereas the prevention focus primed participants would use a given strategy in the service of security motivation orientation. In addition, despite the fact that the wording on these motivation orientation items were modified in accordance to dual concern differences in each group, the findings were found to be significant across all groups. For instance, the wording on advancement motivation orientation item 1 (I would use *a given strategy* in order to reach ideal) was modified as shown in the following way. In collaborating group "In order to reach our mutual ideals"; in avoiding group "In order to ensure having different ideals appear trivial"; in forcing group "In order to reach my ideals by compelling the other side"; in accommodating group "In order to look after the other side's ideals"; in compromising group "In order to look after our mutual ideals to a certain extent (neither too much nor too little)". In other words, the significance of advancement and security motivation orientations did not vary based on the specific variation of dual concern

perceptions in conflict. These results supported hypothesis 1. That is, promotion focus primed individuals will have a significantly more advancement motivation orientation while prevention focus primed individuals will have significantly more security motivation orientation when using a given strategy (Study 1) and when they have an option to select one of the two alternative conflict resolution strategies (Study 2). These findings are significant for a number of reasons.

According to regulatory focus theory, the hedonic motivation of approaching pleasure and avoiding pain function differently when used for the fundamentally different survival requirements of "advancement" versus "security" (Higgins, 1997). In line with regulatory focus theory, this research does not reject the importance of hedonic motivations in interpersonal conflict. The objective is rather to refine the fundamental motivational orientation differences in conflict resolution strategies based on regulatory focus priming. The results revealed that the same conflict resolution strategy can be used for either in the service of advancement motivation orientation or security motivation orientation. As an example, promotion focus primed participants in the collaborating group had high preferences for self and the other student significantly more in relation to advancement motivation orientation in comparison to both control and prevention focus primed groups, whereas prevention focus primed participants in the same group had high concerns for self and the other student significantly more in relation to security motivation orientation compared to both control and promotion focus primed groups. Given that advancement motivation orientation is more about moving forward and security motivation orientation is more about ensuring a current state would not get worse (Higgins, 1997), these results imply that promotion focus primed people experience *pleasure* as they move forward in line with their advancement motivation orientation; however, prevention focus primed people experience *pleasure* as they exercise due diligence in accordance with their security motivation orientation in interpersonal conflict.

Another implication of the above findings is related to personal variance in appraisals of desired end-states in conflict. That is, people might appraise desired end states distinctively based on regulatory focus differences. As discussed earlier, Higgins (1987) underlined how desired end-states differ based on own or significant others' hopes and wishes (i.e., strong-ideals) versus own or significant others' perceptions on their duties and responsibilities (i.e., strong-oughts). Regulatory focus theory proposes that ideal self-regulation relates to promotion focus (advancement motivation orientation), while ought-

self-regulation involves prevention focus (security motivation orientation) (Higgins, 1987). Accordingly, the focus in the ideal self-regulation is on the absence of positive outcomes, for instance, meeting or failing to meet with aspiration and hopes. That is, promotion focus is related to a concern with advancement and gains (i.e., advancement motivation orientation) (Higgins, 2000). On the other hand, the focus in the ought self-regulation is on the presence or absence of negative outcomes, for instance, fulfilling or failing to fulfill responsibilities and obligations (i.e., oughts). That is, the prevention focus is related to a concern with safety and responsibility (i.e., security motivation orientation) (Higgins, 2000). As underlined earlier, advancement motivation orientation is associated with accomplishment, fulfilling hopes, and aspirations (i.e., ideals). Whereas, prevention focus is related to security motivation orientation is associated with safety, meeting duties, and obligations (i.e., oughts). Regulatory focus theory has shown that in order to further examine individuals' strategic preferences in social interactions, one needs to look into the individual differences between promotion versus prevention focus (Higgins, 19997). In line with RFT, the present findings investigated the outcomes of primed regulatory focus differences in interpersonal conflict resolution strategies. Given that promotion focus versus prevention focus priming brought about higher advancement motivation orientation or security motivation orientation, respectively, in all conflict resolution groups, it is likely that people appraise desired end-states distinctively in conflict based on regulatory focus differences. That is, moving forward is more likely to be desired end state for advancement motivation-oriented people, whereas seeking safety by further assessment is more likely to be desired end-state for security motivation-oriented people.

The findings also suggest that people might approach *change* differently in conflict. Interpersonal conflict often necessitates change in the process of conflict and consequently the concept of change has important implications in the conflict resolution literature (Webb, et. al., 2017). Thus, the current findings contribute the literature on how individuals might approach change in conflict based on their regulatory focus motivations. That is, people with advancement motivation orientation would have a general objective to accomplish a change in the current states of conflicts to a better one, from "0" to "1" (i.e., moving forward), whereas people with security motivation orientation would have a general tendency to keep the current state secure to ensure it would not get worse, from "0" to "-1" (i.e., keeping it safe). Consequently, people with higher advancement motivation orientation might be likely

to be more *eager*, while people with higher security motivation orientation might be likely to be more *vigilant* in resolving interpersonal conflict.

Another notable implication of the findings is in relation to dealing with failures in social interactions. People might reach failures in interpersonal conflict differently based on regulatory focus differences. When important decisions turn out to be wrong, people typically generate counterfactual alternatives that involve envisaging alternative realities (Roese, 1997). In this regard, promotion focus primed people are found to be more likely to visualize correcting errors of omission (i.e., eager strategy), whereas prevention focus primed people tend to imagine correcting errors of commission (i.e., vigilant strategy) (Molden, Lee, & Higgins, 2008). Thus, the findings imply that people with higher advancement motivation orientation might show increased motivation in resolving conflict with success related feedback, while failure related feedback might increase motivation to resolve conflict for people with higher security motivation orientation.

Finally, the above findings imply that people might be sensitive to different types of conflict information. Previous research revealed that people are more sensitive to different types of information based on their regulatory focus tendencies (Markman, Baldwin, & Maddox, 2005). That is, promotion focus primed people are more sensitive to gain related information that includes the presence or absence of positive outcomes in conflict, whereas prevention focus primed people are more sensitive to lass related information, including presence or absence of negative outcomes in conflicts. Thus, the present findings suggest that advancement motivation orientation might facilitate information processing in relation to potential gains in conflict, whereas security motivation orientation might reinforce the information processing with regards potential losses in conflict.

5.2. Regulatory Focus Emotions in Conflict Resolution Strategies

As discussed earlier, emotions can be differentiated not only in the way they are expressed, but also in their cognitive appraisals, associated antecedent events, and behavioral response tendencies (Ekman, 1992). Each emotional experience is associated to different sets of adaptive behavior (Ekman &Friesen, 1975). For instance, fear is related with disengagement and escape, anger is associated with combative behaviours, and sadness is with attempts to recover from loss (Roseman, Cynthia, & Swartz, 1994). Emotions might also be about multi-dimensional decisions that reveal a substantial information about one's

relationship with others and one's internal thoughts in relation to these relationships (Lambie & Marcel, 2002). Regulatory focus theory (Higgins, 1997) examines the questions of how numerous emotional different experiences can be characterized, and what motivational variables account for them. Subsequently, the following four categories of emotions are put forward by RFT to answer these questions: (1) cheerfulness-related emotions (e.g., happy and elated), (2) quiescence-related emotions (e.g., calm and relaxed), (3) agitation-related emotions (e.g., tense and anxious), (4) dejection-related emotions (e.g., sad and gloomy) (Higgins, 2000). Higgins postulated that differences between these types of emotions would be better examined by self-regulatory principles and motivational states that trigger them (Higgins, 2000). It is important to note that the primary function of emotions is to signal a self-regulatory success or failure (e.g., Frijda, 1986; Mandler, 1984; Simon, 1967, as cited in Higgins, 2000). Given that people are more likely to experience negative emotions in conflict, the present studies examined only negative regulatory focus emotions in conflict resolution strategies (i.e., agitation related and dejection related emotions). In the present studies, the average agitation emotion is calculated by averaging the total scores of anxious, disgusted, calm (reverse scored). The average of dejection emotions is calculated by averaging the total scores of sad, eager (reverse scored), and happy, (reverse scored). The emotion scale also included 8 filler emotions in order to ensure the classification of agitation and dejection emotions would not be obvious to the participants.

The findings on the emotional experiences revealed that prevention focus primed participants experienced more agitation across conflict resolution strategy groups compared to the participants in control and promotion focus primed conditions. However, promotion focus primed participants did not experience significantly more dejection emotions in comparison to the participants in control or prevention focus primed conditions. That is, the results supported the first part of the hypothesis (2) that prevention focus primed individuals have significantly higher agitation emotions across resolution strategy groups; however, the findings did not support the second part of the hypothesis on the relationship between promotion focus primed group and dejection emotions. Before discussing the implications of the supporting evidence, the methodological and theoretical concerns are considered in order to discuss the possible reasons for the conflicting findings.

RFT postulates that self-regulation effectiveness provides a distinctive dimension to differentiate between cheerfulness and quiescence versus agitation and dejection. The other dimension to further refine these emotions in regulatory focus perspective is the level of

arousal (Higgins,2000). Emotional experiences related to both cheerfulness and agitation involve relatively high arousal in comparison to the emotional experiences related to both quiescence and dejection (for a review, see Feldman, Barrett, & Russell, 1988, as cited in Higgins, 2000). Consequently, we can meaningfully differentiate the pains of agitation and dejection based on the level of arousal (i.e., high versus low arousal). As discussed earlier, one of the methodological limitations of the current studies is that it does not involve a real interpersonal conflict. The participants are instructed to visualize themselves being in a hypothetical conflict with another student related to an important class project. Owing to the fact that agitation emotions are high arousal and dejection emotions are low arousal emotions, the participants might be able to more easily visualize themselves experiencing agitation emotions in comparison to dejection emotions. Thus, promotion focus prime group might not have aroused compared to the participants in prevention focus prime groups and consequently not felt dejection emotions as significant as that they would have experience in real-life conflict. However, previous research found that both agitation and dejection emotions could be primed in scenario-based studies (e.g., Higgins, 2000).

The conflicting findings on emotions might also results from different emotional outcomes of regulatory focus priming. For instance, traditional goal pursuit perspectives postulate that there is an interaction of between the expectation of a success and the perceived value of successful outcomes (e.g., Feather, 1982). However, Shaw and Higgins (1997) showed that such interaction is different between promotion versus prevention focus individuals. Promotion focus people prefer the typical “expectancy X value" interaction in their choice of goals by striving to maximize their advancement, which can be achieved by both high valuable and a high likelihood of advancement. On the other hand, prevention focus individuals mainly emphasize security, which can be done by selecting the conflict resolution strategy that have high security value, without much regard how likely it can be obtained (i.e., one must use a given strategy to attain security no matter what the odds are). Consequently, the prevention focus primed participants might have felt experiencing agitation emotions more strongly than promotion focus primed participants might have felt experiencing dejection emotions. The significant findings on the relationship between prevention focus priming and higher rates of agitation emotions in conflict also suggest there might be a partial strong relationship between regulatory focus differences and motivational orientations in conflict resolution strategies. That is, prevention focus priming increased both security motivation orientation and experience of agitation emotions in interpersonal

conflicts. However, promotion focus priming increased advancement motivation orientation, but not dejection emotions.

Another methodological concern is that in real-life settings people can often select a resolution strategy among many alternative strategies. In order to address this concern, the interaction effect of regulatory focus priming and preferred resolution strategy on emotions were examined in the second study. The findings of this study revealed that the interaction effects were not significant neither on agitation emotions nor dejection emotions, and also the main effect of promotion focus priming on dejection emotions were found to be non-significant. However, the main effect of prevention focus priming on agitation emotions were found to be significant. These findings indicate that prevention focus primed people experience more agitation emotions also when they are able to make a selection out of alternative resolution strategies in conflict.

People often experience negative emotions in conflict with others that would influence their appraisals of events as well as their reactions in these incidents. The significant findings on the relationship between prevention focus priming and agitation emotions, however limited, still refines emotions during conflicts to a certain extent with several implications. First, in line with previous research (Shaw & Higgins, 2001), prevention focus primed people might be more sensitive to process the information on agitation emotions in conflict. That is, for instance, they might be quicker to evaluate interactions in conflict in relation to agitation emotions. Second, one of the primary functions of emotions is to mobilize a person to handle important social encounters (Ekman, 1992). In addition, previous research has found that agitation emotions are related to vigilant judgements Molden, Lee, & Higgins, 2008). The present findings imply that people with high prevention focus might tend to make vigilant judgements in conflict. For instance, seeking further assessments prior making a move forward with a decision. Finally, as discussed earlier, RFT posits that prevention focus orientation is related to security needs and that prevention focus individuals mainly emphasize security, which can be done by selecting the goals that have high security value, without much regard to how likely it is that this security can be obtained (i.e., one must strive to attain security no matter what the odds are) (Shaw & Higgins, 1997). Given that agitation related emotions are often associated to the prospect of failing to meet security needs, the findings indirectly suggest that prevention primed people might be more rigid in considering conflict resolution alternatives.

5.3. Dominant Conflict Resolution Strategy According to Regulatory Focus Priming

Conflict resolution strategies can be conceptualized as strategic choices based on two instrumental concerns, which are related to outcomes for self and others (Pruitt, 1983). In some real-life settings, people might have to choose between two alternative conflict resolution strategies, such as fight and flight (i.e., force and avoid), or cooperate and compete. In some other cases, people might be able to consider a number of different resolution options, followed by a decision to implement one of the 5-resolution strategies. Therefore, study 2 and 3 explored which resolution strategies would be dominant according to regulatory focus priming. In study 2, six groups of participants were given different pairs of alternative resolution strategies in which the impacts of regulatory focus priming on the preferred strategies were analyzed. The findings were not conclusive. The results were significant only in two groups; (1) forcing or avoiding and (2) collaborating or accommodating groups. The differences in other 4 groups were found to be non-significant; these groups were (1) forcing or accommodating, (2) forcing or collaborating, (3) collaborating or avoiding, (4) avoiding or accommodating.

In the forcing or avoiding group, the differences in the preference of strategy was only significant between prevention focus primed and control groups, while the differences were found to be non-significant between the prevention focus primed and the promotion focus primed groups as well as between the control and promotion focus primed groups. This finding provides partial support that prevention focus primed people might be more concerned about their security needs and they might strive to attain security needs so strongly that they would less likely to prefer avoiding over forcing (i.e., competition) strategy. In addition, both forcing and collaborating involve high concern for self, while avoiding and accommodating is related to low concern for self. In the collaborating or accommodating group, the findings were similar in that prevention focus primed people preferred collaborating over accommodating compared to the control group. It needs to be noted that no participants preferred accommodating in the prevention focus prime group. However, the differences in the preferred resolution strategy between the prevention focus primed and promotion focus primed groups, and between the promotion focus primed and the control groups were found to be non-significant.

Finally, in study 3, the participants had an option to indicate their preferences out of all 5 resolution alternatives. Study 1 explored the research question 2. That is, although people can use any one of the 5 conflict resolution strategies in the service of either advancement or security motivation orientations, when participants' promotion or prevention focus is primed and advancement or security motivation orientation is made stronger, respectively, which one of the 5-resolution strategies (collaborating, avoiding, forcing, compromising, accommodating) will be significantly more dominant? The findings revealed that the differences between the prevention focus primed, the promotion focus, and the control groups were non-significant in relation to the preference of a strategy. These findings revealed that when participants consider all 5-resolution strategies, there is no dominant resolution strategy according to regulatory focus priming. These non-significant findings provide circumstantial evidence that regulatory focus priming does not influence the preference of any particular resolution strategy, but any one of the 5-resolution strategies could be used in the service of either advancement motivation orientation or security motivation orientation in accordance with regulatory focus differences.

5.4. Strengths and Implications of the Current Research

Some of the strengths of the present studies have already been discussed above. Therefore, in this section, the focus will be on the methodological and theoretical strengths and implications of the findings. First, the regulatory focus priming method in the present studies revealed how the participants' promotion focus versus prevention focus could be significantly primed in Turkish context. The participants were asked to recollect and write about two of their previous or current experiences in relation to their duties (prevention focus prime group) or accomplishments (promotion focus prime group). One of these recollections was about a desired end state, while the other was on an undesired end state. The strength of priming effect between successful and unsuccessful past events were found to be non-significant. Given that RFT has been utilized in many areas in psychology and in many applied settings from advertisement (Mowie, Georgia, Doss, & Updegraff, 2014) to intergroup discrimination (Sassenberg, Kessler & Mummendy, 2003), this regulatory focus priming technique is noteworthy as this priming technique could be applied in many other research areas in addition to conflict resolution research. Second, the current study developed regulatory focus assessment scales in Turkish context based on the integration of Regulatory Focus Scale (Lockwood, Jordan, & Kunda, 2002) and the Dutch Test for Conflict

Handling Scale (Van de Vliert, 1997). Based on the extensive literature review for this study, there has not been a prior research that developed a scale measuring regulatory focus motivation tendencies in conflict resolution strategies. Thus, we developed these scales in order to measure advancement and security motivations tendencies in 5-resolution strategies. Back translation method was used to ensure translation equivalence. The items in these scales had a satisfactory internal consistency across all groups with the Cronbach's alpha scores ranging from .72 to .84. Finally, the measurement of emotions form method included 3 agitation related emotions, 3 dejection related emotions, and 8 filler emotions, some of which were positive emotions. The interest emotions were only total of 6 emotions; 3 agitation related and 3 dejection related emotions, including reverse scored items. Therefore, the participants were very unlikely to notice the study emotions in a research design with 8 filler emotions. The significant findings on the relationship between prevention focus priming and agitation emotions is further evidence for the regulatory focus differences in addition to the relationship between prevention focus priming and security motivation orientation.

The present research aims at refining such complex social issue as interpersonal conflict resolution strategies. This challenging objective demanded to carry out 3 studies in an experimental design, including the total of 975 participants. The significant findings in each of the 11 separate study groups provided a strong evidence that people might use conflict resolution strategies either in the service of either advancement motivation orientation or security motivation orientation based on regulatory focus priming.

Provided that these findings are supported in applied settings, the results might have some significant practical implications. One of the potential applied settings would be in the area of conflict resolution training. Any one of the 5-resolution strategies might be adaptive or maladaptive depending on contextual factors. Also, conflict resolution training has been applied in many applied settings, from elementary schools (e.g., Turnuklu, et al., 2010), corporate setting (e.g., Overton & Lowry, 2013) to law enforcement organizations (e.g., Moylan & Lindhorst, 2015). The present findings provide an exciting direction in which regulatory focus differences might be utilized to analyze adaptive versus maladaptive resolution strategies, for instance, whether conflicting parties are using a given conflict resolution strategy in the service of the same or different underlying motivation orientations might impact how adaptive these strategies can be. Therefore, interpersonal conflict resolution training manuals can be potentially enhanced by integrating the above findings in

relation to regulatory focus motivational similarities or differences between people in conflict. For instance, in the case of maladaptive avoiding strategy between married couples, marriage counsellors might refine their counselling sessions in accordance to whether a client is using maladaptive avoiding strategy in the service of advancement motivation orientation or security motivation orientation.

Another potential contribution of the present findings could be in the area of alternative dispute resolutions (ADR). As discussed earlier, advancement and security motivation orientation are likely to bring about differences in appraisals of desired end states, information process, and more importantly approach the concept of "change" differently in conflict. Advancement motivation orientation is related to bringing about a change in a positive direction, whereas security motivation orientation is about ensuring the current state would not get any worse. ADR can be described as assisting conflicting individuals to reach an agreement about a dispute by bringing them together and communicating with each other by way of various techniques (Menkel-Meadow, Love, Schneider, & Sternlight, 2005). Therefore, the present findings could provide the ADR practitioners with a perspective to better understand the involved parties' underlying emotions and motivation orientations, (i.e., their approach to *change* during and post-conflicts), which might enhance ADR techniques in accordance with regulatory focus tendencies.

5.5. Limitations of the Current Research and Suggestions for Future Studies

Interpersonal conflict might take place in various social interactions. The involved parties can see conflict as trivial or major events. In addition, conflict might be protracted or transient. Conflict can also be over tasks, outcomes, opinions, or values Jehn & Bendersky, 2003), including both objective and subjective factors (Keashly & Fisher, 1990). All these factors might influence both motivational orientations in resolution strategies as well as which strategy would be preferred to resolve conflicts. For instance, conflict over values is more challenging to resolve than disagreements over outcome preferences (Deutsch,1973). The current studies aim at analyzing such complicated phenomena in a parsimonious research design that brought about a number of limitations and some suggestions for future studies. First, the present studies included a conflict vignette involving an important class project, which was likely to be significant for the participants since all of them were students. However, the result should be cautiously generalized for interpersonal conflict about values

or principles. Future studies need to further investigate the motivation orientation differences of regulatory focus priming are consistent in other circumstances, for instance, conflict over personal values or protracted issues.

Another limitation of this research is in relation to regulatory focus *trait* differences. As previously discussed in detail, people might have promotion focus and prevention focus tendencies with stable individual differences; some people are more likely to have predominant promotion focus, or prevention focus (Higgins, 1997). Nonetheless, the present studies were limited to examining the effect of primed regulatory focus differences on motivation orientations in conflict. This limitation was considered at the design stage and after further deliberation we believed that the current design was acceptable in its complexity. Consequently, the three studies included with 12 experiment groups and the total of 975 participants. Based on the extensive literature review for this study, this has been the first research integrating regulatory focus theory in an attempt to refine dual concern model of resolution strategies. Delving into the investigation on the regulatory focus trait differences would require to include many more participants into this exploratory study. Although previous research and theory (Higgins, 1997) suggest the consequences of trait and primed regulatory differences are consistent, before generalizing the findings of the present studies to trait regulatory focus differences, future research should investigate stable regulatory focus differences in motivation orientation in conflict.

Another limitation of the study design is related to dynamic processes in conflict. In applied settings, interpersonal conflicts frequently occur in a dynamic process, which does not generally occur abruptly but often develop in various phases and also people might use different resolution strategies in the same conflict (Spaho, 2013). Therefore, the analysis of interpersonal conflict resolution strategies should consider both the history of the conflict and the involved parties' past experiences. However, in order to adapt parsimonious method, the present studies did not investigate the impacts of previous experiences or dynamic processes in appraisals. The conflict vignette was kept as static conflict in order to ensure regulatory focus priming differences can be better isolated. Future research should include dynamic conflict scenarios and past experiences of the participants to re-test the above hypothesis. Accordingly, the current study findings should be cautiously interpreted as preliminary findings in an exploratory direction.

As discussed earlier, the current perspective on competitive and cooperative aspects of interpersonal conflict is that most conflicts involve mixed motives as people often have concurrent motivations to cooperate and compete in conflicts (Elliott & Kaufman 2016). This mixed motive perspective is in fact not a novel view in the literature. For instance, game theory (Von Neumann & Morgenstern, 1944) not only provided social psychologists with prescriptions for reducing losses when facing adversary, but more importantly it underlined that the conflicting individuals can have interdependent interests. The present studies did not examine the effects of conflicting student having the same or different motivation orientations in conflict. Therefore, it would be informative to investigate the effects of having the same or different regulatory focus motivation orientation on cooperation or competition in conflict. For instance, when both individuals have primed prevention focus, they might be less likely to cooperate compared to two promotion focus primed people owing to the tendency that prevention focus people value security, without much regard how likely this security could be obtained in conflict.

The instrumental outcome differences in conflict were also not included in the current design. The present studies were limited to examine the 5-resolution strategies without looking into whether the participants successful or unsuccessful in conflict. The real or perceived success versus failure in conflict might result in different outcome emotions or motivation orientation in post conflict processes. It would be information to look into the differences between prevention and promotion motivation orientation and cognitive and emotional appraisals of success versus failure in conflict. The benefits of such research would have implications in applied settings. For instance, it can enhance our understanding of motivational differences in the willingness to participate post conflict mediation and reconciliation process. In the same vein, as discussed earlier, interpersonal conflicts certainly take place in various social settings; they are almost inevitable but not necessarily harmful. Accordingly, social psychological research has underlined the inherence of change to particular post conflict concepts such as forgiveness (Webb, et al., 2017). Future studies might investigate the effects of regulatory focus post-conflict differences. For instance, prevention focus primed people might be less willing to forgive than promotion focus primed people in post conflict reconciliation due to security motivation orientation.

In study 1, the participants did not get to select to use a resolution strategy but, they were instructed to visualize using the described resolution strategy in accordance with the study groups, followed by questions assessing their regulatory focus motivation orientations.

However, in real-life settings, people often free to select between alternative resolution strategies in conflict. In order to address this concern, participants in study 2 were presented with two strategies (e.g., forcing versus avoiding) to select in 6 different groups, followed by questions assessing their regulatory focus motivation orientations. The findings revealed that there was no significant interaction effect of prevention focus priming and the preferred strategies on the security motivation orientation; however, there was a significant interaction effect of promotion focus priming and the preferred strategy on advancement motivation orientation, but this interaction was found to be significant only between the control and prevention groups and that promotion focus primed group had used their preferred strategy more in the service of advancement motivation orientation in comparison to both the control and the prevention focus primed groups. The same findings also revealed that the main effect of prevention focus priming on security motivation orientation was significant. Future studies should investigate the effects of regulatory focus priming on motivation orientations when participants have an option to use any conflict resolution strategy.

Finally, the findings of study 3 revealed that the preference of any specific strategy out of 5 alternative strategies did not significantly change based on regulatory focus priming. These non-significant findings might have been obtained possibly because we could not successfully manipulate the participants' regulatory focus. The first two studies confirmed that the participants' regulatory focus could be primed in the current experiment design, but because of unforeseen circumstances due to COVID-19, the same manipulation technique used online that yielded non-significant results. Future research should rule out this probability by replicating study 3 with in person manipulation.

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7. APPENDICES

APPENDIX A. Study 1 Package

A.1. Informed Consent Form

Bireyler Arası Çatışma Çözümleme Stratejileri

Sayın Katılımcı,

Ankara Yıldırım Beyazıt Üniversitesi Psikoloji Bölümü'nde bireyler arası anlaşmazlık (çatışma) çözümleme stratejileri konusunda bir doktora çalışması yürütmekteyiz. Araştırma soruları içerisinde bireyler arası anlaşmazlık çözümleme stratejileriniz, ilgili motivasyonlarınız, duygularınız ve sizinle ilgili diğer sorular sorulmaktadır.

Katılmayı kabul ettiğiniz takdirde katılımınız yaklaşık 10-15 dakika sürmektedir. ***Lütfen soruları elinizden geldiğince yanıtlamaya çalışınız.*** Anlamadığınız bir soru olursa, görevli arkadaşımıza sorabilirsiniz. Sorulara eksiksiz cevap vermeniz oldukça önemlidir. Bu araştırma sizin bilginizi **test etmemektedir.** Bundan dolayı, hiçbir sorunun doğru veya yanlış cevabı söz konusu değildir. Araştırmanın değerli ve güvenilir olabilmesi için, en önemli şey soruları yanıtlarken *dürüst* olmaktır**.**

Çalışma esnasında vereceğiniz cevaplarınız kesinlikle gizli tutulacak ve bu cevaplar sadece bilimsel araştırma amacıyla kullanılacaktır. Bildiğimiz kadarıyla, çalışma içerisinde size zarar verebilecek veya olumsuz etkileyecek soru bulunmamaktadır. Bununla beraber çalışmada sizi rahatsız eden sorular olursa yanıtlamayabilir veya çalışmanın istediğiniz aşamasında çalışmadan ayrılabilirsiniz.

Bu çalışmanın sonuçları bireysel değerlendirme içermediği için, kimliğinizi açığa çıkaracak yönde (ad, soyadı, öğrenci numarası vb.) hiçbir soru yoktur. LÜTFEN, YALNIZCA NE HİSSETTİĞİNİZİ, DAVRANIŞLARINIZI VE DURUMUNUZU ÖĞRENMEYİ AMAÇLAYAN BU SORULARA BÜTÜN SAMİMİYETİNİZLE CEVAP VERMEYE ÇALIŞIN.

Araştırmaya katılmak gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır. Araştırma ile ilgili herhangi bir sorunuz var ise aşağıdaki telefon numarası ve e-posta adreslerinden araştırmacıya ulaşabilirsiniz. Çalışmamıza katılımcı olarak katılarak verdiğiniz destekten dolayı teşekkür ederiz.

Saygılarımla,
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A.2. Regulatory Focus Priming Forms

A.2.1. Promotion Focus Priming Form

İnsanlar hayatlarının farklı zamanlarında değişik hedeflerin (idealler, hayaller, arzular vs.) peşinden koşarlar. Şimdi sizden geçmişte veya hala ulaşmaya çalıştığınız bir hedefi düşünmenizi istiyoruz. Lütfen bir iki dakikanızı ayırarak BAŞARILI BİR ŞEKİLDE ulaştığınız hedeflerden bir tanesini detaylı bir şekilde hatırlamaya çalışın. Aşağıda bırakılan boşluğa başarıyla ulaştığınız bu hedefin içeriğini (konusu, niye sizin için önemliydi, hedeflediğiniz başarı vb.) detaylı bir şekilde anlatın. Bu hedefi anlattıktan sonra sizce bu hedefinize ulaşmanızdaki başarınız hayatınızda hangi sonuçlara neden oldu (edinim veya kazançlar, mevcut durumun daha iyi hale gelmesi vs.), kısaca anlatınız?

HEDEF

HEDEFİNİZE ULAŞMANIN SONUÇLARI

Yukarı kısımda başarılı olduğunuz bir hedefi anlattınız. Şimdi ise sizden yine bir hedefi düşünmenizi istiyoruz ancak sizden bu sefer BAŞARISIZ OLDUĞUNUZ veya ulaşamadığınız bir hedefe odaklanmanızı istiyoruz. Aşağıda bırakılan boşluğa başarısız olduğunuz hedefin içeriğini (konusu, niye sizin için önemliydi, hedeflediğiniz başarı vb.) detaylı bir şekilde anlatın. Bu hedefi anlattıktan sonra sizce bu hedefinizdeki başarısızlığınız hayatınızda hangi tür sonuçlara neden oldu (edinim veya kazançlara ulaşamamak, mevcut durumun daha iyi hale gelmemesi vb.), kısaca anlatınız?

HEDEF

HEDEFİNİZE ULAŞAMAMANIZIN SONUÇLARI

(Reverse Sequence)

İnsanlar hayatlarının farklı zamanlarında değişik hedeflerin (idealler, hayaller, arzular vs.) peşinden koşarlar. Şimdi sizden geçmişte veya hala ulaşmaya çalıştığınız bir hedefi düşünmenizi istiyoruz. Lütfen bir iki dakikanızı ayırarak BAŞARISIZ OLDUĞUNUZ veya ulaşamadığınız bir hedefe odaklanmanızı istiyoruz. Aşağıda bırakılan boşluğa başarısız olduğunuz hedefin içeriğini (konusu, niye sizin için önemliydi, hedeflediğiniz başarı vb.) detaylı bir şekilde anlatın. Bu hedefi anlattıktan sonra sizce bu hedefinizdeki başarısızlığınız hayatınızda hangi tür sonuçlara neden oldu (edinim veya kazançlara ulaşamamak, mevcut durumun daha iyi hale gelmemesi vb.), kısaca anlatınız?

HEDEF

HEDEFİNİZE ULAŞAMAMANIZIN SONUÇLARI

Yukarı kısımda başarısız olduğunuz veya ulaşamadığınız bir hedefi anlattınız. Şimdi ise sizden yine bir hedefi düşünmenizi istiyoruz ancak sizden bu sefer BAŞARILI BİR ŞEKİLDE ulaştığınız hedeflerden bir tanesini detaylı bir şekilde hatırlamaya çalışın. Aşağıda bırakılan boşluğa başarıyla ulaştığınız bu hedefin içeriğini (konusu, niye sizin için önemliydi, hedeflediğiniz başarı vb.) detaylı bir şekilde anlatın. Bu hedefi anlattıktan sonra sizce bu hedefinize ulaşmanızdaki başarınız hayatınızda hangi sonuçlara neden oldu (edinim veya kazançlar, mevcut durumun daha iyi hale gelmesi vs.), kısaca anlatınız?

HEDEF

HEDEFİNİZE ULAŞMANIN SONUÇLARI

A.2.2. Prevention Focus Priming Form

İnsanlar hayatlarının farklı zamanlarında değişik görevler (zorunluluk, yükümlülük, vazife vb.) üstlenirler. Şimdi sizden geçmişte veya hala yerine getirmekle yükümlü olduğunuz bir görevi düşünmenizi istiyoruz. Lütfen bir iki dakikanızı ayırarak BAŞARILI BİR ŞEKİLDE yerine getirdiğiniz bu görevlerden bir tanesini detaylı bir şekilde hatırlamaya çalışın. Aşağıda bırakılan boşluğa başarılı olduğunuz bu görevin içeriğini (konusu, niye sizin için önemliydi, sizin sorumluluğunuz vb.) detaylı bir şekilde anlatın. Bu görevi anlattıktan sonra sizce bu görevi başarıyla yerine getirmeniz hayatınızda hangi tür sonuçlara neden oldu, (muhtemel zarar veya kayıplar önüne geçme, mevcut durumu koruma vb.), kısaca anlatınız?

GÖREV

GÖREVİNİZİ YERİNE GETİRMENİZİN SONUÇLARI

Yukarı kısımda başarılı olduğunuz bir görevi anlattınız. Şimdi ise sizden yine bir görevi düşünmenizi istiyoruz ancak sizden bu sefer BAŞARISIZ OLDUĞUNUZ veya yerine getiremediğiniz bir göreve odaklanmanızı istiyoruz. Aşağıda bırakılan boşluğa başarısız olduğunuz görevin içeriğini (konusu, niye sizin için önemliydi, sizin sorumluluğunuz vb.) detaylı bir şekilde anlatın. Bu görevi anlattıktan sonra sizce bu

görevinizdeki başarısızlığınız hayatınızda hangi tür sonuçlara neden oldu (zarar veya kayıplara maruz kalmak, mevcut durumun korunamaması vb.), Kısaca anlatınız?

GÖREV

BU DURUMUN GETİRDİĞİ SONUÇLAR

(Reverse Sequence)

İnsanlar hayatlarının farklı zamanlarında değişik görevler (zorunluluk, yükümlülük, vazife vb.) üstlenirler. Şimdi sizden geçmişte veya hala yerine getirmekle yükümlü olduğunuz bir görevi düşünmenizi istiyoruz. Lütfen bir iki dakikanızı ayırarak BAŞARISIZ OLDUĞUNUZ veya yerine getiremediğiniz bir göreve odaklanmanızı istiyoruz. Aşağıda bırakılan boşluğa başarısız olduğunuz görevin içeriğini (konusu, niye sizin için önemliydi, sizin sorumluluğunuz vb.) detaylı bir şekilde anlatın. Bu görevi anlattıktan sonra sizce bu görevinizdeki başarısızlığınız hayatınızda hangi tür sonuçlara neden oldu (zarar veya kayıplara maruz kalmak, mevcut durumun korunamaması vb.), Kısaca anlatınız?

GÖREV

BU DURUMUN GETİRDİĞİ SONUÇLAR

Yukarı kısımda başarısız olduğunuz veya yerine getirmediğiniz bir görevi anlattınız. Şimdi ise sizden yine bir görevi düşünmenizi istiyoruz ancak sizden bu sefer BAŞARILI BİR ŞEKİLDE yerine getirdiğiniz bu görevlerden bir tanesini detaylı bir şekilde hatırlamaya çalışın. Aşağıda bırakılan boşluğa başarılı olduğunuz bu görevin içeriğini (konusu, niye sizin için önemliydi, sizin sorumluluğunuz vb.) detaylı bir şekilde anlatın. Bu görevi anlattıktan sonra sizce bu görevi başarıyla yerine getirmeniz hayatınızda hangi tür sonuçlara neden oldu, (muhtemel zarar veya kayıplar önüne geçme, mevcut durumu koruma vb.), kısaca anlatınız?

GÖREV

GÖREVİNİZİ YERİNE GETİRMENİZİN SONUÇLARI

A.3. Interpersonal Conflict Vignette and motivation orientation scales in conflict resolution Strategies

A.3.1. Collaborating Group

Günümüzde üniversiteler uygulamalı eğitim programlarına daha fazla önem vermektedirler. Üniversite öğrencilerinin mezun olabilmesi için bu uygulamalı programlardan biri olan bitirme projelerini başarılı bir şekilde sonuçlandırmaları ve raporlamaları gerekmektedir. Bu konuda bölüm politikası olarak bu projelerin iki kişilik gruplar halinde hazırlanması istenmektedir ve bu yüzden başka bir öğrenci ile birlikte çalışmaktasınız. Ders sorumlusu proje raporuna göre değerlendirme yapacağı için bireysel değerlendirme olmayacaktır.

Lütfen şimdi, böyle bir bitirme projesinde yer aldığınızı hayal edin. Projenin başlaması için bazı önemli konularda kararlar vermeniz gerekiyor (verinin nasıl toplanacağı, raporun kim tarafından

yazılacağı, hangi bölümden kimin sorumlu olacağı, laboratuvarı kimin hazırlayacağı vb.). Ancak bu konularda proje arkadaşınızla ciddi anlaşmazlıklar yaşamaktasınız. Size göre arkadaşınız az iş yaparak (daha hafif işler alarak, kendisinin istediği sorumlulukların önemini abartarak, sizden daha fazla bölüm yazmanızı isteyerek vb.) sonuca ulaşmaya çalışıyor.

Bu anlaşmazlığı çözmek için farklı yollar olabilir ancak siz bu anlaşmazlığı diğer öğrenci ile iş birliği yaparak (beraber çalışarak, anlaşarak, ikinizin hedef ve isteklerini aynı ölçüde önemseyerek vb.) çözmek isteseniz. Farklı bir ifade ile bu anlaşmazlığı diğer öğrenci ile çalışma ortaklığı kurarak çözmenin mümkün olduğunu düşünüyorsunuz. Bu strateji özetle sizin ve diğer öğrencinin isteklerini ileri derecede önemsediğiniz anlamına geliyor. Böyle bir yöntemi (İŞ BİRLİĞİ) siz hangi durumlarda ve neden kullanmayı tercih ederdiniz. Lütfen, tercihiniz aşağıda sunulan soruları kullanarak derecelendirin.

	İş birliği yöntemini kullanırdım. Çünkü	**Hiçbir Zaman (0)**	**Nadiren (1)**	**Ara Sıra (2)**	**Sıklıkla (3)**	**Her Zaman (4)**
1	Birlikte olumsuz olayları engelleyebilmek için	0	1	2	3	4
2	Ortak ideallerimize ulaşmak için	0	1	2	3	4
3	Sorumluluklarımızı beraberce yerine getirmek için	0	1	2	3	4
4	Herkesin kazançlı çıkması için	0	1	2	3	4
5	Ortak kaygılarımızı gidermek için	0	1	2	3	4
6	Birlikte olumlu sonuçlar elde edebilmek için	0	1	2	3	4
7	Kimsenin zarar görmemesi için	0	1	2	3	4
8	Başarı hedeflerimize beraberce ulaşabilmek için	0	1	2	3	4

A.3.2. Avoiding Group

Günümüzde üniversiteler uygulamalı eğitim programlarına daha fazla önem vermektedirler. Üniversite öğrencilerinin mezun olabilmesi için bu uygulamalı programlardan biri olan bitirme projelerini başarılı bir şekilde sonuçlandırmaları ve raporlamaları gerekmektedir. Bu konuda bölüm politikası olarak bu projelerin iki kişilik gruplar halinde hazırlanması istenmektedir ve bu yüzden başka bir öğrenci ile birlikte çalışmaktasınız. Ders sorumlusu proje raporuna göre değerlendirme yapacağı için bireysel değerlendirme olmayacaktır.

Lütfen şimdi, böyle bir bitirme projesinde yer aldığınızı hayal edin. Projenin başlaması için bazı önemli konularda kararlar vermeniz gerekiyor (verinin nasıl toplanacağı, raporun kim tarafından yazılacağı, hangi bölümden kimin sorumlu olacağı, laboratuvarı kimin hazırlayacağı vb.). Ancak bu konularda proje arkadaşınızla ciddi anlaşmazlıklar yaşamaktasınız. Size göre arkadaşınız az iş yaparak (daha hafif işler alarak, kendisinin istediği sorumlulukların önemini abartarak, sizden daha fazla bölüm yazmanızı isteyerek vb.) sonuca ulaşmaya çalışıyor.

Bu anlaşmazlığı çözmek için farklı yollar olabilir ancak siz bu anlaşmazlığı diğer öğrenci ile zıtlaşmaktan kaçınarak (anlaşmazlık konularını görmezlikten gelerek, kendinizi fiziki veya psikolojik olarak bu durumdan soyutlayarak vb.) çözmek isteseniz. Farklı bir ifade ile bu sorunu anlaşamadığınız konuları önemsemeyerek çözmenin mümkün olduğunuzu düşünüyorsunuz. Bu strateji özetle ikinizin isteklerini umursamamanız anlamına geliyor. Böyle bir yöntemi (ZITLAŞMAKTAN KAÇINMA) siz hangi durumlarda ve neden kullanmayı tercih ederdiniz. Lütfen, tercihiniz aşağıda sunulan soruları kullanarak derecelendirin.

	Kaçınma yöntemini kullanırdım. Çünkü	Hiçbir Zaman (0)	Nadiren (1)	Ara Sıra (2)	Sıklıkla (3)	Her Zaman (4)
1	Olumsuz sonuçların nasıl engellenebileceği konusunda tartışmamak için	0	1	2	3	4
2	Farklı ideallere sahip olunmasının önemsiz görünmesini sağlamak için	0	1	2	3	4
3	Sorumluluklarımızın neler olduğu konusunda görüş ayrılıklarından kaçınmak için	0	1	2	3	4
4	Olası kazanımlar (edinimler) konusunda zıtlaşmamak için	0	1	2	3	4
5	Farklı konularda endişeleniyor olmamızın önemsiz görünmesini sağlamak için	0	1	2	3	4
6	Olumlu sonuçların nasıl elde edilebileceği konusunda tartışmamak için	0	1	2	3	4
7	Olası kayıplar (zararlar) konusunda zıtlaşmamak için	0	1	2	3	4
8	Başarı hedeflerimizin neler olduğu konusunda görüş ayrılıklarından kaçınmak için	0	1	2	3	4

A.3.3. Forcing Group

Günümüzde üniversiteler uygulamalı eğitim programlarına daha fazla önem vermektedirler. Üniversite öğrencilerinin mezun olabilmesi için bu uygulamalı programlardan biri olan bitirme projelerini başarılı bir şekilde sonuçlandırmaları ve raporlamaları gerekmektedir. Bu konuda bölüm politikası olarak bu projelerin iki kişilik gruplar halinde hazırlanması istenmektedir ve bu yüzden başka bir öğrenci ile birlikte çalışmaktasınız. Ders sorumlusu proje raporuna göre değerlendirme yapacağı için bireysel değerlendirme olmayacaktır.

Lütfen şimdi, böyle bir bitirme projesinde yer aldığınızı hayal edin. Projenin başlaması için bazı önemli konularda kararlar vermeniz gerekiyor (verinin nasıl toplanacağı, raporun kim tarafından yazılacağı, hangi bölümden kimin sorumlu olacağı, laboratuvarı kimin hazırlayacağı vb.). Ancak bu konularda proje arkadaşınızla ciddi anlaşmazlıklar yaşamaktasınız. Size göre arkadaşınız az iş yaparak (daha hafif işler alarak, kendisinin istediği sorumlulukların önemini abartarak, sizden fazla bölüm yazmanızı isteyerek vb.) sonuca ulaşmaya çalışıyor.

Bu anlaşmazlığı çözmek için farklı yollar olabilir ancak siz bu anlaşmazlığı diğer öğrenciye isteklerinizi zorla (sözel, fiziksel veya psikolojik üstünlük kurmak vb.) çözmek isteseniz. Farklı bir ifade ile sizin için kabul edilebilir tek çözüm yolunun kendi hedeflerinizi gerçekleştirmek olduğunu düşünüyorsunuz. Bu strateji özetle kendi hedeflerinizi çok önemserken diğer öğrencinin hedeflerini görmezlikten gelmeniz anlamına geliyor. Böyle bir yöntemi (ZORLA KABUL ETTİRME) siz hangi durumlarda ve neden kullanmayı tercih ederdiniz. Lütfen, tercihiniz aşağıda sunulan soruları kullanarak derecelendirin.

	Zorla kabul ettirme yöntemini kullanırdım. Çünkü	Hiçbir Zaman (0)	Nadiren (1)	Ara Sıra (2)	Sıklıkla (3)	Her Zaman (4)
1	Olumsuz sonuçların nasıl engellenebileceği konusunda kendi yöntemimi kabul ettirmek için	0	1	2	3	4
2	Kendi ideallerime ulaşmak için karşı tarafı zorlamak için	0	1	2	3	4
3	Sorumluluklarımızın neler olduğu konusunda kendi görüşümü kabul ettirmek için	0	1	2	3	4
4	Olası kazanımları (edinimler) elde etmek için elimden geleni yapmak için	0	1	2	3	4
5	Kendi endişelerimi gidermek için karşı tarafı zorlamak için	0	1	2	3	4
6	Olumlu sonuçlara nasıl ulaşılabileceği konusunda kendi yöntemimi kabul ettirmek için	0	1	2	3	4
7	Olası kayıplardan (zararlardan) kaçınmak için elimden geleni yapmak	0	1	2	3	4
8	Hedeflediğimiz başarıların neler olduğu konusunda kendi görüşümü kabul ettirmek için	0	1	2	3	4

A.3.4 Accommodating Group

Günümüzde üniversiteler uygulamalı eğitim programlarına daha fazla önem vermektedirler. Üniversite öğrencilerinin mezun olabilmesi için bu uygulamalı programlardan biri olan bitirme projelerini başarılı bir şekilde sonuçlandırmaları ve raporlamaları gerekmektedir. Bu konuda bölüm politikası olarak bu projelerin iki kişilik gruplar halinde hazırlanması istenmektedir ve bu yüzden başka bir öğrenci ile birlikte çalışmaktasınız. Ders sorumlusu proje raporuna göre değerlendirme yapacağı için bireysel değerlendirme olmayacaktır.

Lütfen şimdi, böyle bir bitirme projesinde yer aldığınızı hayal edin. Projenin başlaması için bazı önemli konularda kararlar vermeniz gerekiyor (verinin nasıl toplanacağı, raporun kim tarafından yazılacağı, hangi bölümden kimin sorumlu olacağı, laboratuvarı kimin hazırlayacağı vb.). Ancak bu konularda proje arkadaşınızla ciddi anlaşmazlıklar yaşamaktasınız. Size göre arkadaşınız az iş yaparak (daha hafif işler alarak, kendisinin istediği sorumlulukların önemini abartarak, sizden fazla bölüm yazmanızı isteyerek vb.) sonuca ulaşmaya çalışıyor. Bu anlaşmazlığı çözmek için farklı yollar olabilir ancak siz bu anlaşmazlığı diğer öğrenci ile uyumlu çalışarak (onun isteklerini kabul ederek ve taleplerine eyvallah diyerek, vb.) çözmek isteseniz. Farklı bir ifade bu anlaşmazlığı çözmenin diğer öğrencinin taleplerini tam olarak kabul ederek mümkün olduğunu düşünüyorsunuz. Bu strateji özetle kendi hedeflerinizi göremezlikten gelirken diğer öğrencinin hedeflerini çok önemsemeniz anlamına geliyor. Böyle bir yöntemi (KOLAYLAŞTIRMA) siz hangi durumlarda ve neden kullanmayı tercih ederdiniz. Lütfen, tercihiniz aşağıda sunulan soruları kullanarak derecelendiriniz.

	Kolaylaştırma yöntemini kullanırdım. Çünkü	Hiçbir Zaman (0)	Nadiren (1)	Ara Sıra (2)	Sıklıkla (3)	Her Zaman (4)
1	Olumsuz sonuçların nasıl engellenebileceği konusunda diğer öğrencinin çözüm yolunu benimsediğim için	0	1	2	3	4
2	Karşı tarafın ideallerini önemsediğim için	0	1	2	3	4
3	Sorumluluklarımızın neler olduğu konusunda karşı tarafın görüşünü kabul etmek için	0	1	2	3	4
4	Olası kazanımlar (edinimler) ile ilgili karşı tarafın isteklerini kabul ettiğim için	0	1	2	3	4
5	Karşı tarafın endişelerini önemsediğim için	0	1	2	3	4
6	Olumlu sonuçların nasıl elde edilebileceği konusunda karşı tarafın çözüm yolunu benimsemek için	0	1	2	3	4
7	Olası kayıplar (zararlar) ile ilgili karşı tarafın ihtiyaçlarını gözettiğim için	0	1	2	3	4
8	Başarı hedeflerinin neler olduğu konusunda karşı tarafın görüşünü kabul ettiğim için	0	1	2	3	4

A.3.5. Compromising Group

Günümüzde üniversiteler uygulamalı eğitim programlarına daha fazla önem vermektedirler. Üniversite öğrencilerinin mezun olabilmesi için bu uygulamalı programlardan biri olan bitirme projelerini başarılı bir şekilde sonuçlandırmaları ve raporlamaları gerekmektedir. Bu konuda bölüm politikası olarak bu projelerin iki kişilik gruplar halinde hazırlanması istenmektedir ve bu yüzden başka bir öğrenci ile birlikte çalışmaktasınız. Ders sorumlusu proje raporuna göre değerlendirme yapacağı için bireysel değerlendirme olmayacaktır.

Lütfen şimdi, böyle bir bitirme projesinde yer aldığınızı hayal edin. Projenin başlaması için bazı önemli konularda kararlar vermeniz gerekiyor (verinin nasıl toplanacağı, raporun kim tarafından yazılacağı, hangi bölümden kimin sorumlu olacağı, laboratuvarı kimin hazırlayacağı vb.). Ancak bu konularda proje arkadaşınızla ciddi anlaşmazlıklar yaşamaktasınız. Size göre arkadaşınız az iş yaparak (daha hafif işler alarak, kendisinin istediği sorumlulukların önemini abartarak, sizden fazla bölüm yazmanızı isteyerek vb.) sonuca ulaşmaya çalışıyor. Bu anlaşmazlığı çözmek için farklı yollar olabilir ancak siz bu anlaşmazlığı diğer öğrenciye taviz vererek (bazı konular da onun isteklerini kabul ederken onun da sizin bazı isteklerini kabul etmesini bekleyerek vb.) çözmek isteseniz. Farklı bir ifade ile bu anlaşmazlığı çözmenin orta yolu bularak mümkün olduğunu düşünüyorsunuz. Bu strateji özetle kendi ve diğer öğrencinin hedeflerinin orta derecede önemsemeniz anlamına geliyor. Böyle bir yöntemi (TAVİZ VERME) siz hangi durumlarda ve neden kullanmayı tercih ederdiniz. Lütfen, tercihiniz aşağıda sunulan soruları kullanarak derecelendiriniz.

	Taviz verme yöntemini kullanırdım. Çünkü	Hiçbir Zaman (0)	Nadiren (1)	Ara Sıra (2)	Sıklıkla (3)	Her Zaman (4)
1	Olumsuz sonuçların nasıl engellenebileceği konusunda orta yolun bulmak için	0	1	2	3	4
2	Hepimizin idealini bir yere kadar (ne çok fazla ne çok az) önemsediğim içim	0	1	2	3	4
3	Sorumlulukların tam olarak neler olduğu konusunda her ikimizin de taviz vermesi gerektiğini vurgulamak için	0	1	2	3	4
4	Olası kazanımlar (edinimler) ile ilgili karşılıklı fedakârlık yapılması için	0	1	2	3	4
5	Hepimizin kaygısını bir yere kadar (ne çok fazla ne çok az) önemsediğim için	0	1	2	3	4
6	Olumlu sonuçların nasıl elde edilebileceği konusunda orta yolun bulmak için	0	1	2	3	4
7	Olası kayıplar (zararlar) ile ilgili karşılıklı fedakârlık yapılması için	0	1	2	3	4
8	Hedeflenen başarının tam olarak ne olduğu konusunda ikimizde taviz vermesi gerektiğini vurgulamak için	0	1		3	4

A.4. Measurement of Emotions

İnsanlar anlaşmazlık durumlarında olumlu veya olumsuz farklı duygular yaşayabilirler. Şimdi sizden bu bitirme projesindeki anlaşmazlığı çözmeye çalışırken hissettiğiniz duyguları düşünmenizi istiyoruz. Lütfen, aşağıda verilen duyguların her birini bu anlaşmazlıkta hangi sıklıkla hissederdiniz belirtiniz.

	Hiçbir Zaman (0)	Nadiren (1)	Ara Sıra (2)	Sıklıkla (3)	Her Zaman (4)
1. ÖFKELİ (Sinirli, Çileden Çıkmış, Kızgın)	0	1	2	3	4
2. MUTLU (Sevinçli, Coşkulu, Neşeli)	0	1	2	3	4
3. KORKU (Tehdit Edilmiş, Dehşete Düşmüş, Ürkmüş)	0	1	2	3	4
4. GURURLU (Kıvançlı, Başarılı, Mağrur)	0	1	2	3	4
5. KAYGILI (Endişeli, Gergin, Stresli)	0	1	2	3	4
6. ÜZGÜN (Depresif, Hüzünlü, Kırgın)	0	1	2	3	4
7. İLGİLİ (İstekli, Hevesli, Alakalı)	0	1	2	3	4
8. UTANMIŞ (Mahcup, Yüzü Kızarmış, Aşağılanmış)	0	1	2	3	4
9. SIKILMIŞ (Canı Sıkılmış, Bunalmış, Bıkkın)	0	1	2	3	4
10. SAKİN (Rahat, Huzurlu, Dingin)	0	1	2	3	4
11. SUÇLU (Pişmanlık, Sorumlu, Kusurlu)	0	1	2	3	4
12. İĞRENMİŞ (Tiksinme, Midesi Kalkmış, Nefret)	0	1	2	3	4
13. ŞAŞKIN (Hayrete Düşmüş, Sürpriz, Şaşırmış)	0	1	2	3	4
14. SEVGİ (Sevgi Dolu, Şefkat, Duygusal Yakınlık)	0	1	2	3	4

A.5. Demographic Information Form

BİREYSEL BİLGİ FORMU

1) Cinsiyetiniz? _____

2) Doğum yılınız? _____

3) Eğitim durumunuz (En son mezun olduğunuz okul) nedir?

☐ Okur-yazar değil ☐ Okur-yazar ☐ İlkokul mezunu

☐ Ortaokul mezunu ☐ Lise mezunu ☐ Yüksekokul mezunu (2 yıllık)

☐ Üniversite mezunu ☐ Yüksek lisans derecesi ☐ Doktora derecesi

Öğrenci iseniz,

a- Eğitim gördüğünüz üniversiteyi belirtiniz:_____

b- Okuduğunuz bölümü belirtiniz:_____

c- Okuduğunuz sınıfı belirtiniz:_____

4) Babanızın eğitim durumu nedir?

☐ Okur-yazar değil ☐ Okur-yazar ☐ İlkokul mezunu

☐ Ortaokul mezunu ☐ Lise mezunu ☐ Yüksekokul mezunu (2 yıllık)

☐ Üniversite mezunu ☐ Yüksek lisans derecesi ☐ Doktora derecesi

5) Annenizin eğitim durumu nedir?

☐ Okur-yazar değil ☐ Okur-yazar ☐ İlkokul mezunu

☐ Ortaokul mezunu ☐ Lise mezunu ☐ Yüksekokul mezunu (2 yıllık)

☐ Üniversite mezunu ☐ Yüksek lisans derecesi ☐ Doktora derecesi

9) Hangi şehirde yaşamaktasınız? _____

10) Yaşamınızın büyük bölümünü nasıl bir yerde geçirdiniz?

☐ Köy ☐ Şehir ☐ Kasaba ☐ Büyükşehir ☐ İlçe ☐

Diğer:_____

11) Yaşıtlarınızla karşılaştırdığınızda genel olarak sağlık durumunuz nasıldır?

☐ Çok iyi ☐ İyi ☐ Orta ☐ Kötü ☐ Çok kötü

12) Bugünlerde genel olarak mutlu olup olmadığınızı söyler misiniz?

☐ Çok mutluyum ☐ Mutluyum ☐ Orta

☐ Pek mutlu değilim ☐ Hiç mutlu değilim

13) Din hayatınızda ne kadar önem teşkil ediyor? (Seçtiğiniz rakamı yuvarlak içine alınız)

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

Hiç önemli değil — Kesinlikle çok önemli

15) Genel olarak bugünlerde hayatınızdan ne kadar memnunsunuz?

☐ Çok memnunum ☐ Memnunum ☐ Orta ☐ Pek mutlu değilim

☐ Hiç memnun değilim

16) Çalışma durumunuz ☐ Bir işte çalışıyorum ☐ Bir işte çalışmıyorum

Çalışıyor iseniz mesleğiniz nedir? ___

1APPENDIX B. Study 2 Package

B.1. Informed Consent Form

Bireyler Arası Çatışma Çözümleme Stratejileri

Sayın Katılımcı,

Ankara Yıldırım Beyazıt Üniversitesi Psikoloji Bölümü'nde bireyler arası anlaşmazlık (çatışma) çözümleme stratejileri konusunda bir doktora çalışması yürütmekteyiz. Araştırma soruları içerisinde bireyler arası anlaşmazlık çözümleme stratejileriniz, ilgili motivasyonlarınız, duygularınız ve sizinle ilgili diğer sorular sorulmaktadır.

Katılmayı kabul ettiğiniz takdirde katılımınız yaklaşık 10-15 dakika sürmektedir. ***Lütfen soruları elinizden geldiğince yanıtlamaya çalışınız.*** Anlamadığınız bir soru olursa, görevli arkadaşımıza sorabilirsiniz. Sorulara eksiksiz cevap vermeniz oldukça önemlidir. Bu araştırma sizin bilginizi **test etmemektedir.** Bundan dolayı, hiçbir sorunun doğru veya yanlış cevabı söz konusu değildir. Araştırmanın değerli ve güvenilir olabilmesi için, en önemli şey soruları yanıtlarken *dürüst* olmaktır**.**

Çalışma esnasında vereceğiniz cevaplarınız kesinlikle gizli tutulacak ve bu cevaplar sadece bilimsel araştırma amacıyla kullanılacaktır. Bildiğimiz kadarıyla, çalışma içerisinde size zarar verebilecek veya olumsuz etkileyecek soru bulunmamaktadır. Bununla beraber çalışmada sizi rahatsız eden sorular olursa yanıtlamayabilir veya çalışmanın istediğiniz aşamasında çalışmadan ayrılabilirsiniz.

Bu çalışmanın sonuçları bireysel değerlendirme içermediği için, kimliğinizi açığa çıkaracak yönde (ad, soyadı, öğrenci numarası vb.) hiçbir soru yoktur. LÜTFEN, YALNIZCA NE HİSSETTİĞİNİZİ, DAVRANIŞLARINIZI VE DURUMUNUZU ÖĞRENMEYİ AMAÇLAYAN BU SORULARA BÜTÜN SAMİMİYETİNİZLE CEVAP VERMEYE ÇALIŞIN.

Araştırmaya katılmak gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır. Araştırma ile ilgili herhangi bir sorunuz var ise aşağıdaki telefon numarası ve e-posta adreslerinden araştırmacıya ulaşabilirsiniz. Çalışmamıza katılımcı olarak katılarak verdiğiniz destekten dolayı teşekkür ederiz.

Saygılarımla,
Ahmet DEMİRDEN
Psikoloji Bölümü, Ankara Yıldırım Beyazıt Üniversitesi, ANKARA
Tel (312) 906 1479
E-posta: ahmet.demirden@pa.edu.tr

B.2. Regulatory Focus Priming Forms

B.2.1. Promotion Focus Priming Form

İnsanlar hayatlarının farklı zamanlarında değişik hedeflerin (idealler, hayaller, arzular vs.) peşinden koşarlar. Şimdi sizden geçmişte veya hala ulaşmaya çalıştığınız bir hedefi düşünmenizi istiyoruz. Lütfen bir iki dakikanızı ayırarak BAŞARILI BİR ŞEKİLDE ulaştığınız hedeflerden bir tanesini detaylı bir şekilde hatırlamaya çalışın. Aşağıda bırakılan boşluğa başarıyla ulaştığınız bu hedefin içeriğini (konusu, niye sizin için önemliydi, hedeflediğiniz başarı vb.) detaylı bir şekilde anlatın. Bu hedefi anlattıktan sonra sizce bu hedefinize ulaşmanızdaki başarınız hayatınızda hangi sonuçlara neden oldu (edinim veya kazançlar, mevcut durumun daha iyi hale gelmesi vs.), kısaca anlatınız?

HEDEF

HEDEFİNİZE ULAŞMANIN SONUÇLARI

Yukarı kısımda başarılı olduğunuz bir hedefi anlattınız. Şimdi ise sizden yine bir hedefi düşünmenizi istiyoruz ancak sizden bu sefer BAŞARISIZ OLDUĞUNUZ veya ulaşamadığınız bir hedefe odaklanmanızı istiyoruz. Aşağıda bırakılan boşluğa başarısız olduğunuz hedefin içeriğini (konusu, niye sizin için önemliydi, hedeflediğiniz başarı vb.) detaylı bir şekilde anlatın. Bu hedefi anlattıktan sonra sizce bu hedefinizdeki başarısızlığınız hayatınızda hangi tür sonuçlara neden oldu (edinim veya kazançlara ulaşamamak, mevcut durumun daha iyi hale gelmemesi vb.), kısaca anlatınız?

HEDEF

HEDEFİNİZE ULAŞAMAMANIZIN SONUÇLARI

(Reverse Sequence)

İnsanlar hayatlarının farklı zamanlarında değişik hedeflerin (idealler, hayaller, arzular vs.) peşinden koşarlar. Şimdi sizden geçmişte veya hala ulaşmaya çalıştığınız bir hedefi düşünmenizi istiyoruz. Lütfen bir iki dakikanızı ayırarak BAŞARISIZ OLDUĞUNUZ veya ulaşamadığınız bir hedefe odaklanmanızı istiyoruz. Aşağıda bırakılan boşluğa başarısız olduğunuz hedefin içeriğini (konusu, niye sizin için önemliydi, hedeflediğiniz başarı vb.) detaylı bir şekilde anlatın. Bu hedefi anlattıktan sonra sizce bu hedefinizdeki başarısızlığınız hayatınızda hangi tür sonuçlara neden oldu (edinim veya kazançlara ulaşamamak, mevcut durumun daha iyi hale gelmemesi vb.), kısaca anlatınız?

HEDEF

HEDEFİNİZE ULAŞAMAMANIZIN SONUÇLARI

Yukarı kısımda başarısız olduğunuz veya ulaşamadığınız bir hedefi anlattınız. Şimdi ise sizden yine bir hedefi düşünmenizi istiyoruz ancak sizden bu sefer BAŞARILI BİR ŞEKİLDE ulaştığınız hedeflerden bir tanesini detaylı bir şekilde hatırlamaya çalışın. Aşağıda bırakılan boşluğa başarıyla ulaştığınız bu hedefin içeriğini (konusu, niye sizin için önemliydi, hedeflediğiniz başarı vb.) detaylı bir şekilde anlatın. Bu hedefi anlattıktan sonra sizce bu hedefinize ulaşmanızdaki başarınız hayatınızda hangi sonuçlara neden oldu (edinim veya kazançlar, mevcut durumun daha iyi hale gelmesi vs.), kısaca anlatınız?

HEDEF

HEDEFİNİZE ULAŞMANIN SONUÇLARI

B.2.2. Prevention Focus Priming Form

İnsanlar hayatlarının farklı zamanlarında değişik görevler (zorunluluk, yükümlülük, vazife vb.) üstlenirler. Şimdi sizden geçmişte veya hala yerine getirmekle yükümlü olduğunuz bir görevi düşünmenizi istiyoruz. Lütfen bir iki dakikanızı ayırarak BAŞARILI BİR ŞEKİLDE yerine getirdiğiniz bu görevlerden bir tanesini detaylı bir şekilde hatırlamaya çalışın. Aşağıda bırakılan boşluğa başarılı olduğunuz bu görevin içeriğini (konusu, niye sizin için önemliydi, sizin sorumluluğunuz vb.) detaylı bir şekilde anlatın. Bu görevi anlattıktan sonra sizce bu görevi başarıyla yerine getirmeniz hayatınızda hangi tür sonuçlara neden oldu, (muhtemel zarar veya kayıplar önüne geçme, mevcut durumu koruma vb.), kısaca anlatınız?

GÖREV

GÖREVİNİZİ YERİNE GETİRMENİZİN SONUÇLARI

Yukarı kısımda başarılı olduğunuz bir görevi anlattınız. Şimdi ise sizden yine bir görevi düşünmenizi istiyoruz ancak sizden bu sefer BAŞARISIZ OLDUĞUNUZ veya yerine getiremediğiniz bir göreve odaklanmanızı istiyoruz. Aşağıda bırakılan boşluğa başarısız olduğunuz görevin içeriğini (konusu, niye sizin için önemliydi, sizin sorumluluğunuz vb.) detaylı bir şekilde anlatın. Bu görevi anlattıktan sonra sizce bu görevinizdeki başarısızlığınız hayatınızda hangi tür sonuçlara neden oldu (zarar veya kayıplara maruz kalmak, mevcut durumun korunamaması vb.), Kısaca anlatınız?

GÖREV

BU DURUMUN GETİRDİĞİ SONUÇLAR

(Reverse Sequence)

İnsanlar hayatlarının farklı zamanlarında değişik görevler (zorunluluk, yükümlülük, vazife vb.) üstlenirler. Şimdi sizden geçmişte veya hala yerine getirmekle yükümlü olduğunuz bir görevi düşünmenizi istiyoruz. Lütfen bir iki dakikanızı ayırarak BAŞARISIZ OLDUĞUNUZ veya yerine getiremediğiniz bir göreve odaklanmanızı istiyoruz. Aşağıda bırakılan boşluğa başarısız olduğunuz görevin içeriğini (konusu, niye sizin için önemliydi, sizin sorumluluğunuz vb.) detaylı bir şekilde anlatın. Bu görevi anlattıktan sonra sizce bu görevinizdeki başarısızlığınız hayatınızda hangi tür sonuçlara neden oldu (zarar veya kayıplara maruz kalmak, mevcut durumun korunamaması vb.), Kısaca anlatınız?

GÖREV

BU DURUMUN GETİRDİĞİ SONUÇLAR

Yukarı kısımda başarısız olduğunuz veya yerine getirmediğiniz bir görevi anlattınız. Şimdi ise sizden yine bir görevi düşünmenizi istiyoruz ancak sizden bu sefer BAŞARILI BİR ŞEKİLDE yerine getirdiğiniz bu görevlerden bir tanesini detaylı bir şekilde hatırlamaya çalışın. Aşağıda bırakılan boşluğa başarılı olduğunuz bu görevin içeriğini (konusu, niye sizin için önemliydi, sizin sorumluluğunuz vb.) detaylı bir şekilde anlatın. Bu görevi anlattıktan sonra sizce bu görevi başarıyla yerine getirmeniz hayatınızda hangi tür sonuçlara neden oldu, (muhtemel zarar veya kayıplar önüne geçme, mevcut durumu koruma vb.), kısaca anlatınız?

GÖREV

GÖREVİNİZİ YERİNE GETİRMENİZİN SONUÇLARI

B.3. Interpersonal Conflict Vignette and motivation orientation scales in conflict resolution Strategies

B.3.1. Forcing or Accommodating Group

Günümüzde üniversiteler uygulamalı eğitim programlarına daha fazla önem vermektedirler. Üniversite öğrencilerinin mezun olabilmesi için bu uygulamalı programlardan biri olan bitirme projelerini başarılı bir şekilde sonuçlandırmaları ve raporlamaları gerekmektedir. Bu konuda bölüm politikası olarak bu projelerin iki kişilik gruplar halinde hazırlanması istenmektedir ve bu yüzden başka bir öğrenci ile birlikte çalışmaktasınız. Ders sorumlusu proje raporuna göre değerlendirme yapacağı için bireysel değerlendirme olmayacaktır.

Lütfen şimdi, böyle bir bitirme projesinde yer aldığınızı hayal edin. Projenin başlaması için bazı önemli konularda kararlar vermeniz gerekiyor (verinin nasıl toplanacağı, raporun kim tarafından yazılacağı, hangi bölümden kimin sorumlu olacağı, laboratuvarı kimin hazırlayacağı vb.). Ancak bu konularda proje arkadaşınızla ciddi anlaşmazlıklar yaşamaktasınız. Size göre arkadaşınız az iş yaparak (daha hafif işler alarak, kendisinin istediği sorumlulukların önemini abartarak, sizden fazla bölüm yazmanızı isteyerek vb.) sonuca ulaşmaya çalışıyor.

Bu anlaşmazlığı çözmek için farklı yollar olabilir ancak aşağıda size bu sorunu çözmek için iki yol önerilmiştir. Lütfen iki alternatifi önce dikkatlice okuyun ve sonra yanındaki kutuyu işaretleyerek bir tanesini seçiniz. Seçimi böyle yaptıktan sonra böyle bir yöntemi niye seçtiğinizi, tercihinizin altındaki sorulara cevap vererek derecelendirin.

☐ **ZORLA KABUL ETTIRME:** Diğer öğrenciye isteklerinizi zorla (sözel, fiziksel veya psikolojik üstünlük kurmak vb.) çözmektir. Farklı bir ifade ile sizin için kabul edilebilir tek çözüm yolunun kendi hedeflerinizi gerçekleştirmek olduğunu düşünüyorsunuz. Bu strateji özetle kendi hedeflerinizi çok önemserken diğer öğrencinin hedeflerini görmezlikten gelmeniz anlamına geliyor.

Zorlama kabul ettirme yöntemini kullanırdım. Çünkü		**Hiçbir Zaman (0)**	**Nadiren (1)**	**Ara Sıra (2)**	**Sıklıkla (3)**	**Her Zaman (4)**
1	Olumsuz sonuçların nasıl engellenebileceği konusunda kendi yöntemimi kabul ettirmek için	0	1	2	3	4
2	Kendi ideallerime ulaşmak için karşı tarafı zorlamak için	0	1	2	3	4
3	Sorumluluklarımızın neler olduğu konusunda kendi görüşümü kabul ettirmek için	0	1	2	3	4
4	Olası kazanımları (edinimler) elde etmek için elimden geleni yapmak için	0	1	2	3	4
5	Kendi endişelerimi gidermek için karşı tarafı zorlamak için	0	1	2	3	4
6	Olumlu sonuçlara nasıl ulaşılabileceği konusunda kendi yöntemimi kabul ettirmek için	0	1	2	3	4
7	Olası kayıplardan (zararlardan) kaçınmak için elimden geleni yapmak	0	1	2	3	4
8	Hedeflediğimiz başarıların neler olduğu konusunda kendi görüşümü kabul ettirmek için	0	1	2	3	4

☐ **KOLAYLAŞTIRMA:** Diğer öğrenci ile uyumlu çalışarak (onun isteklerini kabul ederek ve taleplerine eyvallah diyerek vb.) çözmektir. Farklı bir ifade bu anlaşmazlığı çözmenin diğer öğrencinin taleplerini tam olarak kabul ederek mümkün olduğunu düşünüyorsunuz. Bu strateji özetle kendi hedeflerinizi göremezlikten gelirken diğer öğrencinin hedeflerini çok önemsemeniz anlamına geliyor.

	Kolaylaştırma yöntemini kullanırdım. Çünkü	**Hiçbir Zaman (0)**	**Nadiren (1)**	**Ara Sıra (2)**	**Sıklıkla (3)**	**Her Zaman (4)**
1	Olumsuz sonuçların nasıl engellenebileceği konusunda diğer öğrencinin çözüm yolunu benimsediğim için	0	1	2	3	4
2	Karşı tarafın ideallerini önemsediğim için	0	1	2	3	4
3	Sorumluluklarımızın neler olduğu konusunda karşı tarafın görüşünü kabul etmek için	0	1	2	3	4
4	Olası kazanımlar (edinimler) ile ilgili karşı tarafın isteklerini kabul ettiğim için	0	1	2	3	4
5	Karşı tarafın endişelerini önemsediğim için	0	1	2	3	4
6	Olumlu sonuçların nasıl elde edilebileceği konusunda karşı tarafın çözüm yolunu benimsemek için	0	1	2	3	4
7	Olası kayıplar (zararlar) ile ilgili karşı tarafın ihtiyaçlarını gözettiğim için	0	1	2	3	4
8	Başarı hedeflerinin neler olduğu konusunda karşı tarafın görüşünü kabul ettiğim için	0	1	2	3	4

B.3.2. Forcing or Avoiding Group

Günümüzde üniversiteler uygulamalı eğitim programlarına daha fazla önem vermektedirler. Üniversite öğrencilerinin mezun olabilmesi için bu uygulamalı programlardan biri olan bitirme projelerini başarılı bir şekilde sonuçlandırmaları ve raporlamaları gerekmektedir. Bu konuda bölüm politikası olarak bu projelerin iki kişilik gruplar halinde hazırlanması istenmektedir ve bu yüzden başka bir öğrenci ile birlikte çalışmaktasınız. Ders sorumlusu proje raporuna göre değerlendirme yapacağı için bireysel değerlendirme olmayacaktır.

Lütfen şimdi, böyle bir bitirme projesinde yer aldığınızı hayal edin. Projenin başlaması için bazı önemli konularda kararlar vermeniz gerekiyor (verinin nasıl toplanacağı, raporun kim tarafından yazılacağı, hangi bölümden kimin sorumlu olacağı, laboratuvarı kimin hazırlayacağı vb.). Ancak bu konularda proje arkadaşınızla ciddi anlaşmazlıklar yaşamaktasınız. Size göre arkadaşınız az iş yaparak (daha hafif işler alarak, kendisinin istediği sorumlulukların önemini abartarak, sizden fazla bölüm yazmanızı isteyerek vb.) sonuca ulaşmaya çalışıyor.

Bu anlaşmazlığı çözmek için farklı yollar olabilir ancak aşağıda size bu sorunu çözmek için iki yol önerilmiştir. Lütfen iki alternatifi önce dikkatlice okuyun ve sonra yanındaki kutuyu işaretleyerek bir tanesini seçiniz. Seçimi böyle yaptıktan sonra böyle bir yöntemi niye seçtiğinizi, tercihinizin altındaki sorulara cevap vererek derecelendirin.

☐ **ZORLA KABUL ETTİRME:** Diğer öğrenciye isteklerinizi zorla (sözel, fiziksel veya psikolojik üstünlük kurmak vb.) çözmektir. Farklı bir ifade ile sizin için kabul edilebilir tek çözüm yolunun kendi hedeflerinizi gerçekleştirmek olduğunu düşünüyorsunuz. Bu strateji özetle kendi hedeflerinizi çok önemserken diğer öğrencinin hedeflerini görmezlikten gelmeniz anlamına geliyor.

	Zorlama kabul ettirme yöntemini kullanırdım. Çünkü	**Hiçbir Zaman (0)**	**Nadiren (1)**	**Ara Sıra (2)**	**Sıklıkla (3)**	**Her Zaman (4)**
1	Olumsuz sonuçların nasıl engellenebileceği konusunda kendi yöntemimi kabul ettirmek için	0	1	2	3	4
2	Kendi ideallerime ulaşmak için karşı tarafı zorlamak için	0	1	2	3	4
3	Sorumluluklarımızın neler olduğu konusunda kendi görüşümü kabul ettirmek için	0	1	2	3	4
4	Olası kazanımları (edinimler) elde etmek için elimden geleni yapmak için	0	1	2	3	4
5	Kendi endişelerimi gidermek için karşı tarafı zorlamak için	0	1	2	3	4
6	Olumlu sonuçlara nasıl ulaşılabileceği konusunda kendi yöntemimi kabul ettirmek için	0	1	2	3	4
7	Olası kayıplardan (zararlardan) kaçınmak için elimden geleni yapmak	0	1	2	3	4
8	Hedeflediğimiz başarıların neler olduğu konusunda kendi görüşümü kabul ettirmek için	0	1	2	3	4

☐ **KAÇINMA:** Diğer öğrenci ile zıtlaşmaktan kaçınarak (anlaşmazlık konularını görmezlikten gelerek, kendinizi fiziki veya psikolojik olarak bu durumdan soyutlayarak vb.) çözmektir. Farklı bir ifade ile bu sorunu anlaşamadığınız konuları önemsemeyerek çözmenin mümkün olduğunuzu düşünüyorsunuz. Bu strateji özetle ikinizin isteklerini umursamamanız anlamına geliyor.

	Kaçınma yöntemini kullanırdım. Çünkü	**Hiçbir Zaman (0)**	**Nadiren (1)**	**Ara Sıra (2)**	**Sıklıkla (3)**	**Her Zaman (4)**
1	Olumsuz sonuçların nasıl engellenebileceği konusunda tartışmamak için	0	1	2	3	4
2	Farklı ideallere sahip olunmasının önemsiz görünmesini sağlamak için	0	1	2	3	4
3	Sorumluluklarımızın neler olduğu konusunda görüş ayrılıklarından kaçınmak için	0	1	2	3	4
4	Olası kazanımlar (edinimler) konusunda zıtlaşmamak için	0	1	2	3	4
5	Farklı konularda endişeleniyor olmamızın önemsiz görünmesini sağlamak için	0	1	2	3	4
6	Olumlu sonuçların nasıl elde edilebileceği konusunda tartışmamak için	0	1	2	3	4
7	Olası kayıplar (zararlar) konusunda zıtlaşmamak için	0	1	2	3	4
8	Başarı hedeflerimizin neler olduğu konusunda görüş ayrılıklarından kaçınmak için	0	1	2	3	4

B.3.3. Forcing or Collaborating Group

Günümüzde üniversiteler uygulamalı eğitim programlarına daha fazla önem vermektedirler. Üniversite öğrencilerinin mezun olabilmesi için bu uygulamalı programlardan biri olan bitirme projelerini başarılı bir şekilde sonuçlandırmaları ve raporlamaları gerekmektedir. Bu konuda bölüm politikası olarak bu projelerin iki kişilik gruplar halinde hazırlanması istenmektedir ve bu yüzden başka bir öğrenci ile birlikte çalışmaktasınız. Ders sorumlusu proje raporuna göre değerlendirme yapacağı için bireysel değerlendirme olmayacaktır.

Lütfen şimdi, böyle bir bitirme projesinde yer aldığınızı hayal edin. Projenin başlaması için bazı önemli konularda kararlar vermeniz gerekiyor (verinin nasıl toplanacağı, raporun kim tarafından yazılacağı, hangi bölümden kimin sorumlu olacağı, laboratuvarı kimin hazırlayacağı vb.). Ancak bu konularda proje arkadaşınızla ciddi anlaşmazlıklar yaşamaktasınız. Size göre arkadaşınız az iş yaparak (daha hafif işler alarak, kendisinin istediği sorumlulukların önemini abartarak, sizden fazla bölüm yazmanızı isteyerek vb.) sonuca ulaşmaya çalışıyor.

Bu anlaşmazlığı çözmek için farklı yollar olabilir ancak aşağıda size bu sorunu çözmek için iki yol önerilmiştir. Lütfen iki alternatifi önce dikkatlice okuyun ve sonra yanındaki kutuyu işaretleyerek bir tanesini seçiniz. Seçimi böyle yaptıktan sonra böyle bir yöntemi niye seçtiğinizi, tercihinizin altındaki sorulara cevap vererek derecelendirin.

☐ **ZORLA KABUL ETTİRME:** Diğer öğrenciye isteklerinizi zorla (sözel, fiziksel veya psikolojik üstünlük kurmak vb.) çözmektir. Farklı bir ifade ile sizin için kabul edilebilir tek çözüm yolunun kendi hedeflerinizi gerçekleştirmek olduğunu düşünüyorsunuz. Bu strateji özetle kendi hedeflerinizi çok önemserken diğer öğrencinin hedeflerini görmezlikten gelmeniz anlamına geliyor.

	Zorlama kabul ettirme yöntemini kullanırdım. Çünkü	**Hiçbir Zaman (0)**	**Nadiren (1)**	**Ara Sıra (2)**	**Sıklıkla (3)**	**Her Zaman (4)**
1	Olumsuz sonuçların nasıl engellenebileceği konusunda kendi yöntemimi kabul ettirmek için	0	1	2	3	4
2	Kendi ideallerime ulaşmak için karşı tarafı zorlamak için	0	1	2	3	4
3	Sorumluluklarımızın neler olduğu konusunda kendi görüşümü kabul ettirmek için	0	1	2	3	4
4	Olası kazanımları (edinimler) elde etmek için elimden geleni yapmak için	0	1	2	3	4
5	Kendi endişelerimi gidermek için karşı tarafı zorlamak için	0	1	2	3	4
6	Olumlu sonuçlara nasıl ulaşılabileceği konusunda kendi yöntemimi kabul ettirmek için	0	1	2	3	4
7	Olası kayıplardan (zararlardan) kaçınmak için elimden geleni yapmak	0	1	2	3	4
8	Hedeflediğimiz başarıların neler olduğu konusunda kendi görüşümü kabul ettirmek için	0	1	2	3	4

☐ **İŞ BİRLİĞİ:** Diğer öğrenci ile işbirliği yaparak (beraber çalışarak, anlaşarak, ikinizin hedef ve isteklerini aynı ölçüde önemseyerek vb.) çözmektir. Farklı bir ifade ile bu anlaşmazlığı diğer öğrenci ile çalışma ortaklığı kurarak çözmenin mümkün olduğunu düşünüyorsunuz. Bu strateji özetle sizin ve diğer öğrencinin isteklerini ileri derecede önemsediğiniz anlamına geliyor.

	İş birliği yöntemini kullanırdım. Çünkü	**Hiçbir Zaman (0)**	**Nadiren (1)**	**Ara Sıra (2)**	**Sıklıkla (3)**	**Her Zaman (4)**
1	Birlikte olumsuz olayları engelleyebilmek için	0	1	2	3	4
2	Ortak ideallerimize ulaşmak için	0	1	2	3	4
3	Sorumluluklarımızı beraberce yerine getirmek için	0	1	2	3	4
4	Herkesin kazançlı çıkması için	0	1	2	3	4
5	Ortak kaygılarımızı gidermek için	0	1	2	3	4
6	Birlikte olumlu sonuçlar elde edebilmek için	0	1	2	3	4
7	Kimsenin zarar görmemesi için	0	1	2	3	4
8	Başarı hedeflerimize beraberce ulaşabilmek için	0	1	2	3	4

B.3.4. Collaborating or Accommodating Group

Günümüzde üniversiteler uygulamalı eğitim programlarına daha fazla önem vermektedirler. Üniversite öğrencilerinin mezun olabilmesi için bu uygulamalı programlardan biri olan bitirme projelerini başarılı bir şekilde sonuçlandırmaları ve raporlamaları gerekmektedir. Bu konuda bölüm politikası olarak bu projelerin iki kişilik gruplar halinde hazırlanması istenmektedir ve bu yüzden başka bir öğrenci ile birlikte çalışmaktasınız. Ders sorumlusu proje raporuna göre değerlendirme yapacağı için bireysel değerlendirme olmayacaktır.

Lütfen şimdi, böyle bir bitirme projesinde yer aldığınızı hayal edin. Projenin başlaması için bazı önemli konularda kararlar vermeniz gerekiyor (verinin nasıl toplanacağı, raporun kim tarafından yazılacağı, hangi bölümden kimin sorumlu olacağı, laboratuvarı kimin hazırlayacağı vb.). Ancak bu konularda proje arkadaşınızla ciddi anlaşmazlıklar yaşamaktasınız. Size göre arkadaşınız az iş yaparak (daha hafif işler alarak, kendisinin istediği sorumlulukların önemini abartarak, sizden fazla bölüm yazmanızı isteyerek vb.) sonuca ulaşmaya çalışıyor.

Bu anlaşmazlığı çözmek için farklı yollar olabilir ancak aşağıda size bu sorunu çözmek için iki yol önerilmiştir. Lütfen iki alternatifi önce dikkatlice okuyun ve sonra yanındaki kutuyu işaretleyerek bir tanesini seçiniz. Seçimi böyle yaptıktan sonra böyle bir yöntemi niye seçtiğinizi, tercihinizin altındaki sorulara cevap vererek derecelendirin.

☐ **İŞ BİRLİĞİ:** Diğer öğrenci ile iş birliği yaparak (beraber çalışarak, anlaşarak, ikinizin hedef ve isteklerini aynı ölçüde önemseyerek vb.) çözmektir. Farklı bir ifade ile bu anlaşmazlığı diğer öğrenci ile çalışma ortaklığı kurarak çözmenin mümkün olduğunu düşünüyorsunuz. Bu strateji özetle sizin ve diğer öğrencinin isteklerini ileri derecede önemsediğiniz anlamına geliyor.

	İş birliği yöntemini kullanırdım. Çünkü	**Hiçbir Zaman (0)**	**Nadiren (1)**	**Ara Sıra (2)**	**Sıklıkla (3)**	**Her Zaman (4)**
1	Birlikte olumsuz olayları engelleyebilmek için	0	1	2	3	4
2	Ortak ideallerimize ulaşmak için	0	1	2	3	4
3	Sorumluluklarımızı beraberce yerine getirmek için	0	1	2	3	4
4	Herkesin kazançlı çıkması için	0	1	2	3	4
5	Ortak kaygılarımızı gidermek için	0	1	2	3	4
6	Birlikte olumlu sonuçlar elde edebilmek için	0	1	2	3	4
7	Kimsenin zarar görmemesi için	0	1	2	3	4
8	Başarı hedeflerimize beraberce ulaşabilmek için	0	1	2	3	4

☐ **KOLAYLAŞTIRMA:** Diğer öğrenci ile uyumlu çalışarak (onun isteklerini kabul ederek ve taleplerine eyvallah diyerek vb.) çözmektir. Farklı bir ifade bu anlaşmazlığı çözmenin diğer öğrencinin taleplerini tam olarak kabul ederek mümkün olduğunu düşünüyorsunuz. Bu strateji özetle kendi hedeflerinizi göremezlikten gelirken diğer öğrencinin hedeflerini çok önemsemeniz anlamına geliyor.

	Kolaylaştırma yöntemini kullanırdım. Çünkü	**Hiçbir Zaman (0)**	**Nadiren (1)**	**Ara Sıra (2)**	**Sıklıkla (3)**	**Her Zaman (4)**
1	Olumsuz sonuçların nasıl engellenebileceği konusunda diğer öğrencinin çözüm yolunu benimsediğim için	0	1	2	3	4
2	Karşı tarafın ideallerini önemsediğim için	0	1	2	3	4
3	Sorumluluklarımızın neler olduğu konusunda karşı tarafın görüşünü kabul etmek için	0	1	2	3	4
4	Olası kazanımlar (edinimler) ile ilgili karşı tarafın isteklerini kabul ettiğim için	0	1	2	3	4
5	Karşı tarafın endişelerini önemsediğim için	0	1	2	3	4
6	Olumlu sonuçların nasıl elde edilebileceği konusunda karşı tarafın çözüm yolunu benimsemek için	0	1	2	3	4
7	Olası kayıplar (zararlar) ile ilgili karşı tarafın ihtiyaçlarını gözettiğim için	0	1	2	3	4
8	Başarı hedeflerinin neler olduğu konusunda karşı tarafın görüşünü kabul ettiğim için	0	1	2	3	4

B.3.5. Collaborating or Avoiding Group

Günümüzde üniversiteler uygulamalı eğitim programlarına daha fazla önem vermektedirler. Üniversite öğrencilerinin mezun olabilmesi için bu uygulamalı programlardan biri olan bitirme projelerini başarılı bir şekilde sonuçlandırmaları ve raporlamaları gerekmektedir. Bu konuda bölüm

politikası olarak bu projelerin iki kişilik gruplar halinde hazırlanması istenmektedir ve bu yüzden başka bir öğrenci ile birlikte çalışmaktasınız. Ders sorumlusu proje raporuna göre değerlendirme yapacağı için bireysel değerlendirme olmayacaktır.

Lütfen şimdi, böyle bir bitirme projesinde yer aldığınızı hayal edin. Projenin başlaması için bazı önemli konularda kararlar vermeniz gerekiyor (verinin nasıl toplanacağı, raporun kim tarafından yazılacağı, hangi bölümden kimin sorumlu olacağı, laboratuvarı kimin hazırlayacağı vb.). Ancak bu konularda proje arkadaşınızla ciddi anlaşmazlıklar yaşamaktasınız. Size göre arkadaşınız az iş yaparak (daha hafif işler alarak, kendisinin istediği sorumlulukların önemini abartarak, sizden fazla bölüm yazmanızı isteyerek vb.) sonuca ulaşmaya çalışıyor.

Bu anlaşmazlığı çözmek için farklı yollar olabilir ancak aşağıda size bu sorunu çözmek için iki yol önerilmiştir. Lütfen iki alternatifi önce dikkatlice okuyun ve sonra yanındaki kutuyu işaretleyerek bir tanesini seçiniz. Seçimi böyle yaptıktan sonra böyle bir yöntemi niye seçtiğinizi, tercihinizin altındaki sorulara cevap vererek derecelendirin.

☐ **İŞ BİRLİĞİ:** Diğer öğrenci ile iş birliği yaparak (beraber çalışarak, anlaşarak, ikinizin hedef ve isteklerini aynı ölçüde önemseyerek vb.) çözmektir. Farklı bir ifade ile bu anlaşmazlığı diğer öğrenci ile çalışma ortaklığı kurarak çözmenin mümkün olduğunu düşünüyorsunuz. Bu strateji özetle sizin ve diğer öğrencinin isteklerini ileri derecede önemsediğiniz anlamına geliyor.

	İş birliği yöntemini kullanırdım. Çünkü	**Hiçbir Zaman (0)**	**Nadiren (1)**	**Ara Sıra (2)**	**Sıklıkla (3)**	**Her Zaman (4)**
1	Birlikte olumsuz olayları engelleyebilmek için	0	1	2	3	4
2	Ortak ideallerimize ulaşmak için	0	1	2	3	4
3	Sorumluluklarımızı beraberce yerine getirmek için	0	1	2	3	4
4	Herkesin kazançlı çıkması için	0	1	2	3	4
5	Ortak kaygılarımızı gidermek için	0	1	2	3	4
6	Birlikte olumlu sonuçlar elde edebilmek için	0	1	2	3	4
7	Kimsenin zarar görmemesi için	0	1	2	3	4
8	Başarı hedeflerimize beraberce ulaşabilmek için	0	1	2	3	4

☐ **KAÇINMA:** Diğer öğrenci ile zıtlaşmaktan kaçınarak (anlaşmazlık konularını görmezlikten gelerek, kendinizi fiziki veya psikolojik olarak bu durumdan soyutlayarak vb.) çözmektir. Farklı bir ifade ile bu sorunu anlaşamadığınız konuları önemsemeyerek çözmenin mümkün olduğunuzu düşünüyorsunuz. Bu strateji özetle ikinizin isteklerini umursamamanız anlamına geliyor.

	Kaçınma yöntemini kullanırdım. Çünkü	**Hiçbir Zaman (0)**	**Nadiren (1)**	**Ara Sıra (2)**	**Sıklıkla (3)**	**Her Zaman (4)**
1	Olumsuz sonuçların nasıl engellenebileceği konusunda tartışmamak için	0	1	2	3	4
2	Farklı ideallere sahip olunmasının önemsiz görünmesini sağlamak için	0	1	2	3	4
3	Sorumluluklarımızın neler olduğu konusunda görüş ayrılıklarından kaçınmak için	0	1	2	3	4
4	Olası kazanımlar (edinimler) konusunda zıtlaşmamak için	0	1	2	3	4
5	Farklı konularda endişeleniyor olmamızın önemsiz görünmesini sağlamak için	0	1	2	3	4
6	Olumlu sonuçların nasıl elde edilebileceği konusunda tartışmamak için	0	1	2	3	4
7	Olası kayıplar (zararlar) konusunda zıtlaşmamak için	0	1	2	3	4
8	Başarı hedeflerimizin neler olduğu konusunda görüş ayrılıklarından kaçınmak için	0	1	2	3	4

B.3.6. Avoiding or Accommodating Group

Günümüzde üniversiteler uygulamalı eğitim programlarına daha fazla önem vermektedirler. Üniversite öğrencilerinin mezun olabilmesi için bu uygulamalı programlardan biri olan bitirme projelerini başarılı bir şekilde sonuçlandırmaları ve raporlamaları gerekmektedir. Bu konuda bölüm politikası olarak bu projelerin iki kişilik gruplar halinde hazırlanması istenmektedir ve bu yüzden başka bir öğrenci ile birlikte çalışmaktasınız. Ders sorumlusu proje raporuna göre değerlendirme yapacağı için bireysel değerlendirme olmayacaktır.

Lütfen şimdi, böyle bir bitirme projesinde yer aldığınızı hayal edin. Projenin başlaması için bazı önemli konularda kararlar vermeniz gerekiyor (verinin nasıl toplanacağı, raporun kim tarafından yazılacağı, hangi bölümden kimin sorumlu olacağı, laboratuvarı kimin hazırlayacağı vb.). Ancak bu konularda proje arkadaşınızla ciddi anlaşmazlıklar yaşamaktasınız. Size göre arkadaşınız az iş yaparak (daha hafif işler alarak, kendisinin istediği sorumlulukların önemini abartarak, sizden fazla bölüm yazmanızı isteyerek vb.) sonuca ulaşmaya çalışıyor.

Bu anlaşmazlığı çözmek için farklı yollar olabilir ancak aşağıda size bu sorunu çözmek için iki yol önerilmiştir. Lütfen iki alternatifi önce dikkatlice okuyun ve sonra yanındaki kutuyu işaretleyerek bir tanesini seçiniz. Seçimi böyle yaptıktan sonra böyle bir yöntemi niye seçtiğinizi, tercihinizin altındaki sorulara cevap vererek derecelendirin.

☐ **KAÇINMA:** Diğer öğrenci ile zıtlaşmaktan kaçınarak (anlaşmazlık konularını görmezlikten gelerek, kendinizi fiziki veya psikolojik olarak bu durumdan soyutlayarak vb.) çözmektir. Farklı bir ifade ile bu anlaşmazlığı zıtlaştığınız konuları önemsemeyerek çözmenin mümkün olduğunuzu düşünüyorsunuz. Bu strateji özetle ikinizin isteklerini umursamamanız anlamına geliyor.

	Kaçınma yöntemini kullanırdım. Çünkü	**Hiçbir Zaman (0)**	**Nadiren (1)**	**Ara Sıra (2)**	**Sıklıkla (3)**	**Her Zaman (4)**
1	Olumsuz sonuçların nasıl engellenebileceği konusunda tartışmamak için	0	1	2	3	4
2	Farklı ideallere sahip olunmasının önemsiz görünmesini sağlamak için	0	1	2	3	4
3	Sorumluluklarımızın neler olduğu konusunda görüş ayrılıklarından kaçınmak için	0	1	2	3	4
4	Olası kazanımlar (edinimler) konusunda zıtlaşmamak için	0	1	2	3	4
5	Farklı konularda endişeleniyor olmamızın önemsiz görünmesini sağlamak için	0	1	2	3	4
6	Olumlu sonuçların nasıl elde edilebileceği konusunda tartışmamak için	0	1	2	3	4
7	Olası kayıplar (zararlar) konusunda zıtlaşmamak için	0	1	2	3	4
8	Başarı hedeflerimizin neler olduğu konusunda görüş ayrılıklarından kaçınmak için	0	1	2	3	4

☐ **KOLAYLAŞTIRMA:** Diğer öğrenci ile uyumlu çalışarak (onun isteklerini kabul ederek ve taleplerine eyvallah diyerek vb.) çözmektir. Farklı bir ifade bu anlaşmazlığı çözmenin diğer öğrencinin taleplerini tam olarak kabul ederek mümkün olduğunu düşünüyorsunuz. Bu strateji özetle kendi hedeflerinizi göremezlikten gelirken diğer öğrencinin hedeflerini çok önemsemeniz anlamına geliyor.

	Kolaylaştırma yöntemini kullanırdım. Çünkü	**Hiçbir Zaman (0)**	**Nadiren (1)**	**Ara Sıra (2)**	**Sıklıkla (3)**	**Her Zaman (4)**
1	Olumsuz sonuçların nasıl engellenebileceği konusunda diğer öğrencinin çözüm yolunu benimsediğim için	0	1	2	3	4
2	Karşı tarafın ideallerini önemsediğim için	0	1	2	3	4
3	Sorumluluklarımızın neler olduğu konusunda karşı tarafın görüşünü kabul etmek için	0	1	2	3	4
4	Olası kazanımlar (edinimler) ile ilgili karşı tarafın isteklerini kabul ettiğim için	0	1	2	3	4
5	Karşı tarafın endişelerini önemsediğim için	0	1	2	3	4
6	Olumlu sonuçların nasıl elde edilebileceği konusunda karşı tarafın çözüm yolunu benimsemek için	0	1	2	3	4
7	Olası kayıplar (zararlar) ile ilgili karşı tarafın ihtiyaçlarını gözettiğim için	0	1	2	3	4
8	Başarı hedeflerinin neler olduğu konusunda karşı tarafın görüşünü kabul ettiğim için	0	1	2	3	4

B.4. Measurement of Emotions

İnsanlar anlaşmazlık durumlarında olumlu veya olumsuz farklı duygular yaşayabilirler. Şimdi sizden bu bitirme projesindeki anlaşmazlığı çözmeye çalışırken hissettiğiniz duyguları düşünmenizi istiyoruz. Lütfen, aşağıda verilen duyguların her birini bu anlaşmazlıkta hangi sıklıkla hissederdiniz belirtiniz.

	Hiçbir Zaman (0)	**Nadiren (1)**	**Ara Sıra (2)**	**Sıklıkla (3)**	**Her Zaman (4)**
1. ÖFKELİ (Sinirli, Çileden Çıkmış, Kızgın)	0	1	2	3	4
2. MUTLU (Sevinçli, Coşkulu, Neşeli)	0	1	2	3	4
3. KORKU (Tehdit Edilmiş, Dehşete Düşmüş, Ürkmüş)	0	1	2	3	4
4. GURURLU (Kıvançlı, Başarılı, Mağrur)	0	1	2	3	4
5. KAYGILI (Endişeli, Gergin, Stresli)	0	1	2	3	4
6. ÜZGÜN (Depresif, Hüzünlü, Kırgın)	0	1	2	3	4
7. İLGİLİ (İstekli, Hevesli, Alakalı)	0	1	2	3	4
8. UTANMIŞ (Mahcup, Yüzü Kızarmış, Aşağılanmış)	0	1	2	3	4
9. SIKILMIŞ (Canı Sıkılmış, Bunalmış, Bıkkın)	0	1	2	3	4
10. SAKİN (Rahat, Huzurlu, Dingin)	0	1	2	3	4
11. SUÇLU (Pişmanlık, Sorumlu, Kusurlu)	0	1	2	3	4
12. İĞRENMİŞ (Tiksinme, Midesi Kalkmış, Nefret)	0	1	2	3	4
13. ŞAŞKIN (Hayrete Düşmüş, Sürpriz, Şaşırmış)	0	1	2	3	4
14. SEVGİ (Sevgi Dolu, Şefkat, Duygusal Yakınlık)	0	1	2	3	4

B.5. Demographic Information Form

BİREYSEL BİLGİ FORMU

1) Cinsiyetiniz? _____

2) Doğum yılınız? _____

3) Eğitim durumunuz (En son mezun olduğunuz okul) nedir?

☐ Okur-yazar değil ☐ Okur-yazar ☐ İlkokul mezunu

☐ Ortaokul mezunu ☐ Lise mezunu ☐ Yüksekokul mezunu (2 yıllık)

☐ Üniversite mezunu ☐ Yüksek lisans derecesi ☐ Doktora derecesi

Öğrenci iseniz,

a- Eğitim gördüğünüz üniversiteyi belirtiniz:_____

b- Okuduğunuz bölümü belirtiniz:_____

c- Okuduğunuz sınıfı belirtiniz:_____

4) Babanızın eğitim durumu nedir?

☐ Okur-yazar değil ☐ Okur-yazar ☐ İlkokul mezunu

☐ Ortaokul mezunu ☐ Lise mezunu ☐ Yüksekokul mezunu (2 yıllık)

☐ Üniversite mezunu ☐ Yüksek lisans derecesi ☐ Doktora derecesi

5) Annenizin eğitim durumu nedir?

☐ Okur-yazar değil ☐ Okur-yazar ☐ İlkokul mezunu

☐ Ortaokul mezunu ☐ Lise mezunu ☐ Yüksekokul mezunu (2 yıllık)

☐ Üniversite mezunu ☐ Yüksek lisans derecesi ☐ Doktora derecesi

9) Hangi şehirde yaşamaktasınız? _____

10) Yaşamınızın büyük bölümünü nasıl bir yerde geçirdiniz?

☐ Köy ☐ Şehir ☐ Kasaba ☐ Büyükşehir ☐ İlçe ☐

Diğer:_____

11) Yaşıtlarınızla karşılaştırdığınızda genel olarak sağlık durumunuz nasıldır?

☐ Çok iyi ☐ İyi ☐ Orta ☐ Kötü ☐ Çok kötü

12) Bugünlerde genel olarak mutlu olup olmadığınızı söyler misiniz?

☐ Çok mutluyum ☐ Mutluyum ☐ Orta

☐ Pek mutlu değilim ☐ Hiç mutlu değilim

13) Din hayatınızda ne kadar önem teşkil ediyor? (Seçtiğiniz rakamı yuvarlak içine alınız)

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

Hiç önemli değil

Kesinlikle çok önemli

15) Genel olarak bugünlerde hayatınızdan ne kadar memnunsunuz?

☐ Çok memnunum ☐ Memnunum ☐ Orta ☐ Pek mutlu değilim

☐ Hiç memnun değilim

16) Çalışma durumunuz ☐ Bir işte çalışıyorum ☐ Bir işte çalışmıyorum

Çalışıyor iseniz mesleğiniz nedir? ___

APPENDIX C. Study 3 Package

C.1. Informed Consent Form

Bireyler Arası Çatışma Çözümleme Stratejileri

Sayın Katılımcı,

Ankara Yıldırım Beyazıt Üniversitesi Psikoloji Bölümü'nde bireyler arası anlaşmazlık (çatışma) çözümleme stratejileri konusunda bir doktora çalışması yürütmekteyiz. Araştırma soruları içerisinde bireyler arası anlaşmazlık çözümleme stratejileriniz, ilgili motivasyonlarınız, duygularınız ve sizinle ilgili diğer sorular sorulmaktadır.

Katılmayı kabul ettiğiniz takdirde katılımınız yaklaşık 10-15 dakika sürmektedir. ***Lütfen soruları elinizden geldiğince yanıtlamaya çalışınız.*** Anlamadığınız bir soru olursa, görevli arkadaşımıza sorabilirsiniz. Sorulara eksiksiz cevap vermeniz oldukça önemlidir. Bu araştırma sizin bilginizi **test etmemektedir.** Bundan dolayı, hiçbir sorunun doğru veya yanlış cevabı söz konusu değildir. Araştırmanın değerli ve güvenilir olabilmesi için, en önemli şey soruları yanıtlarken *dürüst* olmaktır**.**

Çalışma esnasında vereceğiniz cevaplarınız kesinlikle gizli tutulacak ve bu cevaplar sadece bilimsel araştırma amacıyla kullanılacaktır. Bildiğimiz kadarıyla, çalışma içerisinde size zarar verebilecek veya olumsuz etkileyecek soru bulunmamaktadır. Bununla beraber çalışmada sizi rahatsız eden sorular olursa yanıtlamayabilir veya çalışmanın istediğiniz aşamasında çalışmadan ayrılabilirsiniz.

Bu çalışmanın sonuçları bireysel değerlendirme içermediği için, kimliğinizi açığa çıkaracak yönde (ad, soyadı, öğrenci numarası vb.) hiçbir soru yoktur. LÜTFEN, YALNIZCA NE HİSSETTİĞİNİZİ, DAVRANIŞLARINIZI VE DURUMUNUZU ÖĞRENMEYİ AMAÇLAYAN BU SORULARA BÜTÜN SAMİMİYETİNİZLE CEVAP VERMEYE ÇALIŞIN.

Araştırmaya katılmak gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır. Araştırma ile ilgili herhangi bir sorunuz var ise aşağıdaki telefon numarası ve e-posta adreslerinden araştırmacıya ulaşabilirsiniz. Çalışmamıza katılımcı olarak katılarak verdiğiniz destekten dolayı teşekkür ederiz.

Saygılarımla,
Ahmet DEMİRDEN
Psikoloji Bölümü, Ankara Yıldırım Beyazıt Üniversitesi, ANKARA
Tel (312) 906 1479
E-posta: ahmet.demirden@pa.edu.tr

C.2. Regulatory Focus Priming Forms

C.2.1. Promotion Focus Priming Form

İnsanlar hayatlarının farklı zamanlarında değişik hedeflerin (idealler, hayaller, arzular vs.) peşinden koşarlar. Şimdi sizden geçmişte veya hala ulaşmaya çalıştığınız bir hedefi düşünmenizi istiyoruz. Lütfen bir iki dakikanızı ayırarak BAŞARILI BİR ŞEKİLDE ulaştığınız hedeflerden bir tanesini detaylı bir şekilde hatırlamaya çalışın. Aşağıda bırakılan boşluğa başarıyla ulaştığınız bu hedefin içeriğini (konusu, niye sizin için önemliydi, hedeflediğiniz başarı vb.) detaylı bir şekilde anlatın. Bu hedefi anlattıktan sonra sizce bu hedefinize ulaşmanızdaki başarınız hayatınızda hangi sonuçlara neden oldu (edinim veya kazançlar, mevcut durumun daha iyi hale gelmesi vs.), kısaca anlatınız?

HEDEF

HEDEFİNİZE ULAŞMANIN SONUÇLARI

Yukarı kısımda başarılı olduğunuz bir hedefi anlattınız. Şimdi ise sizden yine bir hedefi düşünmenizi istiyoruz ancak sizden bu sefer BAŞARISIZ OLDUĞUNUZ veya ulaşamadığınız bir hedefe odaklanmanızı istiyoruz. Aşağıda bırakılan boşluğa başarısız olduğunuz hedefin içeriğini (konusu, niye sizin için önemliydi, hedeflediğiniz başarı vb.) detaylı bir şekilde anlatın. Bu hedefi anlattıktan sonra sizce bu hedefinizdeki başarısızlığınız hayatınızda hangi tür sonuçlara neden oldu (edinim veya kazançlara ulaşamamak, mevcut durumun daha iyi hale gelmemesi vb.), kısaca anlatınız?

HEDEF

HEDEFİNİZE ULAŞAMAMANIZIN SONUÇLARI

(Reverse Sequence)

İnsanlar hayatlarının farklı zamanlarında değişik hedeflerin (idealler, hayaller, arzular vs.) peşinden koşarlar. Şimdi sizden geçmişte veya hala ulaşmaya çalıştığınız bir hedefi düşünmenizi istiyoruz. Lütfen bir iki dakikanızı ayırarak BAŞARISIZ OLDUĞUNUZ veya ulaşamadığınız bir hedefe odaklanmanızı istiyoruz. Aşağıda bırakılan boşluğa başarısız olduğunuz hedefin içeriğini (konusu, niye sizin için önemliydi, hedeflediğiniz başarı vb.) detaylı bir şekilde anlatın. Bu hedefi anlattıktan sonra sizce bu hedefinizdeki başarısızlığınız hayatınızda hangi tür sonuçlara neden oldu (edinim veya kazançlara ulaşamamak, mevcut durumun daha iyi hale gelmemesi vb.), kısaca anlatınız?

HEDEF

HEDEFİNİZE ULAŞAMAMANIZIN SONUÇLARI

Yukarı kısımda başarısız olduğunuz veya ulaşamadığınız bir hedefi anlattınız. Şimdi ise sizden yine bir hedefi düşünmenizi istiyoruz ancak sizden bu sefer BAŞARILI BİR ŞEKİLDE ulaştığınız hedeflerden bir tanesini detaylı bir şekilde hatırlamaya çalışın. Aşağıda bırakılan boşluğa başarıyla ulaştığınız bu hedefin içeriğini (konusu, niye sizin için önemliydi, hedeflediğiniz başarı vb.) detaylı bir şekilde anlatın. Bu hedefi anlattıktan sonra sizce bu hedefinize ulaşmanızdaki başarınız hayatınızda hangi sonuçlara neden oldu (edinim veya kazançlar, mevcut durumun daha iyi hale gelmesi vs.), kısaca anlatınız?

HEDEF

HEDEFİNİZE ULAŞMANIN SONUÇLARI

C.2.2. Prevention Focus Priming Form

İnsanlar hayatlarının farklı zamanlarında değişik görevler (zorunluluk, yükümlülük, vazife vb.) üstlenirler. Şimdi sizden geçmişte veya hala yerine getirmekle yükümlü olduğunuz bir görevi düşünmenizi istiyoruz. Lütfen bir iki dakikanızı ayırarak BAŞARILI BİR ŞEKİLDE yerine getirdiğiniz bu görevlerden bir tanesini detaylı bir şekilde hatırlamaya çalışın. Aşağıda bırakılan boşluğa başarılı olduğunuz bu görevin içeriğini (konusu, niye sizin için önemliydi, sizin sorumluluğunuz vb.) detaylı bir şekilde anlatın. Bu görevi anlattıktan sonra sizce bu görevi başarıyla yerine getirmeniz hayatınızda hangi tür sonuçlara neden oldu, (muhtemel zarar veya kayıplar önüne geçme, mevcut durumu koruma vb.), kısaca anlatınız?

GÖREV

GÖREVİNİZİ YERİNE GETİRMENİZİN SONUÇLARI

Yukarı kısımda başarılı olduğunuz bir görevi anlattınız. Şimdi ise sizden yine bir görevi düşünmenizi istiyoruz ancak sizden bu sefer BAŞARISIZ OLDUĞUNUZ veya yerine getiremediğiniz bir göreve odaklanmanızı istiyoruz. Aşağıda bırakılan boşluğa başarısız olduğunuz görevin içeriğini (konusu, niye sizin için önemliydi, sizin sorumluluğunuz vb.) detaylı bir şekilde anlatın. Bu görevi anlattıktan sonra sizce bu görevinizdeki başarısızlığınız hayatınızda hangi tür sonuçlara neden oldu (zarar veya kayıplara maruz kalmak, mevcut durumun korunamaması vb.), Kısaca anlatınız?

GÖREV

BU DURUMUN GETİRDİĞİ SONUÇLAR

(Reverse Sequence)

İnsanlar hayatlarının farklı zamanlarında değişik görevler (zorunluluk, yükümlülük, vazife vb.) üstlenirler. Şimdi sizden geçmişte veya hala yerine getirmekle yükümlü olduğunuz bir görevi düşünmenizi istiyoruz. Lütfen bir iki dakikanızı ayırarak BAŞARISIZ OLDUĞUNUZ veya yerine getiremediğiniz bir göreve odaklanmanızı istiyoruz. Aşağıda bırakılan boşluğa başarısız olduğunuz görevin içeriğini (konusu, niye sizin için önemliydi, sizin sorumluluğunuz vb.) detaylı bir şekilde anlatın. Bu görevi anlattıktan sonra sizce bu görevinizdeki başarısızlığınız hayatınızda hangi tür sonuçlara neden oldu (zarar veya kayıplara maruz kalmak, mevcut durumun korunamaması vb.), Kısaca anlatınız?

GÖREV

BU DURUMUN GETİRDİĞİ SONUÇLAR

Yukarı kısımda başarısız olduğunuz veya yerine getirmediğiniz bir görevi anlattınız. Şimdi ise sizden yine bir görevi düşünmenizi istiyoruz ancak sizden bu sefer BAŞARILI BİR ŞEKİLDE yerine getirdiğiniz bu görevlerden bir tanesini detaylı bir şekilde hatırlamaya çalışın. Aşağıda bırakılan boşluğa başarılı olduğunuz bu görevin içeriğini (konusu, niye sizin için önemliydi, sizin sorumluluğunuz vb.) detaylı bir şekilde anlatın. Bu görevi anlattıktan sonra sizce bu görevi başarıyla yerine getirmeniz hayatınızda hangi tür sonuçlara neden oldu, (muhtemel zarar veya kayıplar önüne geçme, mevcut durumu koruma vb.), kısaca anlatınız?

GÖREV

GÖREVİNİZİ YERİNE GETİRMENİZİN SONUÇLARI

C.3. Interpersonal Conflict Vignette and Selection List of Conflict Resolution Strategies

Günümüzde üniversiteler uygulamalı eğitim programlarına daha fazla önem vermektedirler. Üniversite öğrencilerinin mezun olabilmesi için bu uygulamalı programlardan biri olan bitirme projelerini başarılı bir şekilde sonuçlandırmaları ve raporlamaları gerekmektedir. Bu konuda bölüm politikası olarak bu projelerin iki kişilik gruplar halinde hazırlanması istenmektedir ve bu yüzden başka bir öğrenci ile birlikte çalışmaktasınız. Ders sorumlusu proje raporuna göre değerlendirme yapacağı için bireysel değerlendirme olmayacaktır.

Lütfen şimdi, böyle bir bitirme projesinde yer aldığınızı hayal edin. Projenin başlaması için bazı önemli konularda kararlar vermeniz gerekiyor (verinin nasıl toplanacağı, raporun kim tarafından yazılacağı, hangi bölümden kimin sorumlu olacağı, laboratuvarı kimin hazırlayacağı vb.). Ancak bu konularda proje arkadaşınızla ciddi anlaşmazlıklar yaşamaktasınız. Size göre arkadaşınız az iş yaparak (daha hafif işler alarak, kendisinin istediği sorumlulukların önemini abartarak, sizden fazla bölüm yazmanızı isteyerek vb.) sonuca ulaşmaya çalışıyor.

Bu anlaşmazlığı çözmek için farklı yollar olabilir ancak aşağıda size bu sorunu çözmek için 5 farklı yol önerilmiştir. Lütfen 5 alternatifi önce dikkatlice okuyun ve sonra yanındaki kutuyu işaretleyerek hangisini tercih ettiğinizi belirtiniz.

☐ **ZORLA KABUL ETTIRME:** Diğer öğrenciye isteklerinizi zorla (sözel, fiziksel veya psikolojik üstünlük kurmak vb.) çözmektir. Farklı bir ifade ile sizin için kabul edilebilir tek çözüm yolunun kendi hedeflerinizi gerçekleştirmek olduğunu düşünüyorsunuz. Bu strateji özetle kendi hedeflerinizi çok önemserken diğer öğrencinin hedeflerini görmezlikten gelmeniz anlamına geliyor.

☐ **KOLAYLAŞTIRMA:** Diğer öğrenci ile uyumlu çalışarak (onun isteklerini kabul ederek ve taleplerine eyvallah diyerek vb.) çözmektir. Farklı bir ifade bu anlaşmazlığı çözmenin diğer öğrencinin taleplerini tam olarak kabul ederek mümkün olduğunu düşünüyorsunuz. Bu strateji özetle kendi hedeflerinizi göremezlikten gelirken diğer öğrencinin hedeflerini çok önemsemeniz anlamına geliyor.

☐ **İŞ BİRLİĞİ:** Diğer öğrenci ile beraber çalışarak (anlaşarak, ikinizin hedef ve isteklerini aynı ölçüde önemseyerek vb.) çözmektir. Farklı bir ifade ile bu anlaşmazlığı diğer öğrenci ile çalışma ortaklığı kurarak çözmenin mümkün olduğunu düşünüyorsunuz. Bu strateji özetle sizin ve diğer öğrencinin isteklerini ileri derecede önemsediğiniz anlamına geliyor.

☐ **KAÇINMA:** Diğer öğrenci ile zıtlaşmaktan kaçınarak (anlaşmazlık konularını görmezlikten gelerek, kendinizi fiziki veya psikolojik olarak bu durumdan soyutlayarak vb.) çözmektir. Farklı bir ifade ile bu sorunu anlaşamadığınız konuları önemsemeyerek çözmenin mümkün olduğunuzu düşünüyorsunuz. Bu strateji özetle ikinizin isteklerini umursamamanız anlamına geliyor.

☐ **TAVİZ VERME:** Diğer öğrenciye taviz vererek (bazı konular da onun isteklerini kabul ederken onun da sizin bazı isteklerini kabul etmesini bekleyerek vb.) çözmektir. Farklı bir ifade ile bu anlaşmazlığı çözmenin orta yolu bularak mümkün olduğunu düşünüyorsunuz. Bu strateji özetle kendi ve diğer öğrencinin hedeflerinin orta derecede önemsemeniz anlamına geliyor.

C.4. Demographic Information Form

BİREYSEL BİLGİ FORMU

1) Cinsiyetiniz? _____

2) Doğum yılınız? _____

3) Eğitim durumunuz (En son mezun olduğunuz okul) nedir?

☐ Okur-yazar değil ☐ Okur-yazar ☐ İlkokul mezunu

☐ Ortaokul mezunu ☐ Lise mezunu ☐ Yüksekokul mezunu (2 yıllık)

☐ Üniversite mezunu ☐ Yüksek lisans derecesi ☐ Doktora derecesi

4) Öğrenci misiniz? Evet ( ), Hayır ( )

Öğrenci iseniz,

a- Eğitim gördüğünüz üniversiteyi belirtiniz:_____

b- Okuduğunuz bölümü belirtiniz:_____

c- Okuduğunuz sınıfı belirtiniz:_____

5) Babanızın eğitim durumu nedir?

☐ Okur-yazar değil ☐ Okur-yazar ☐ İlkokul mezunu

☐ Ortaokul mezunu ☐ Lise mezunu ☐ Yüksekokul mezunu (2 yıllık)

☐ Üniversite mezunu ☐ Yüksek lisans derecesi ☐ Doktora derecesi

6) Annenizin eğitim durumu nedir?

☐ Okur-yazar değil ☐ Okur-yazar ☐ İlkokul mezunu

☐ Ortaokul mezunu ☐ Lise mezunu ☐ Yüksekokul mezunu (2 yıllık)

☐ Üniversite mezunu ☐ Yüksek lisans derecesi ☐ Doktora derecesi

9) Hangi şehirde yaşamaktasınız? _____

10) Yaşıtlarınızla karşılaştırdığınızda genel olarak sağlık durumunuz nasıldır?

☐ Çok iyi ☐ İyi ☐ Orta ☐ Kötü ☐ Çok kötü

11) Bugünlerde genel olarak mutlu olup olmadığınızı söyler misiniz?

☐ Çok mutluyum ☐ Mutluyum ☐ Orta

☐ Pek mutlu değilim ☐ Hiç mutlu değilim

12) Din hayatınızda ne kadar önem teşkil ediyor? (Seçtiğiniz rakamı yuvarlak içine alınız)

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

Hiç önemli değil — Kesinlikle çok önemli

16) Çalışma durumunuz ☐ Bir işte çalışıyorum ☐ Bir işte çalışmıyorum

Çalışıyor iseniz mesleğiniz nedir?_____

APPENDIX D. Ethic Board Approval

ANKARA YILDIRIM BEYAZIT ÜNİVERSİTESİ (AYBÜ)
ETİK KURULU
PROJE ONAY BELGESİ

Ankara Yıldırım Beyazıt Üniversitesi İnsan ve Toplum Bilimleri Fakültesi Psikoloji bölümü, 165222401 numaralı, öğrencilerinden Ahmet Demirden 'in, **"Regulatory Focus and Emotions in the Context of Interpersonal Conflict Resolution Strategies"** adlı araştırması değerlendirilmiştir.

Proje etik açısından uygun bulunmuştur. ☑

Proje etik açısından geliştirilmesi gerekmektedir. ☐

Proje etik açısından uygun bulunmamıştır. ☐

AYBÜ ETİK KURULU KARARI (Etik Kurul tarafından doldurulacaktır)	
Araştırma kodu (Yıl – Araştırma sıra no)	2019 – 384
Başvuru formunun Etik Kurula ulaştığı tarih	20.09.2019
Etik Kurul Karar toplantı tarihi ve karar no	16.10.2019-45
Yer	Yıldırım Beyazıt Üniversitesi, Esenboğa Külliyesi
Katılımcılar	Formda imzası bulunan üyelerimiz toplantıya katılmıştır.

KURUL BAŞKANI, BAŞKAN YARDIMCISI VE ÜYELER:

		İMZA
Prof. Dr. Cem Şafak ÇUKUR	Üye	
Prof. Dr. Tekin AKDEMİR	Üye	
Prof. Dr. Muharrem KILIÇ	Üye	
Doç. Dr. Özge GÖKBULUT ÖZDEMİR	Üye	
Doç. Dr. Behlül TOKUR	Üye	
Doç. Dr. Birgül ÖZKAN	Üye	
Dr. Ögr. Üyesi Şule KAYA	Üye	
Dr. Ögr. Üyesi Ertuğrul DEMİRDEL	Üye	
Dr. Ögr. Üyesi Nimet YILDIRIM TİRGİL	Üye	