

REGULATORY FIT IN THE CONTEXT OF MULTIPLE GOAL-PURSUIT:
THE ROLE OF FEEDBACK VALENCE

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ABSTRACT

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Previous studies have mainly examined the effect of regulatory fit in the context of single goal-pursuit. However, the dynamics for multiple goal-pursuits have been left largely unexamined. Therefore, three studies were conducted to explore the role of regulatory fit shaped via feedback valence under the conditions of multiple goal-pursuit. The first study aims to replicate regulatory fit effect using a computer interface developed for the study. One hundred undergraduates ($M_{age} = 21.68$; $SD = 1.79$) were given bogus feedback following self-regulatory orientation framing for solving an anagram task. Results revealed that the fit between prevention focus and negative feedback increased motivation in the post-feedback session. Second study aims to test the effects of regulatory fit in a multiple-goal environment. Participants ($N = 142$; $M_{age} = 20.91$; $SD = 1.64$) were asked to allocate their limited time between the two imaginary goals following the self-regulatory orientations were primed in the experimental sessions. Results showed that participants allocated higher levels of resources on the focal goal under both fit conditions. Third study aims to extend the second study by adding an alternative goal-type. Participants ($N = 190$; $M_{age} = 20.95$; $SD = 3.28$) allocated their limited resources between the goals framed via self-regulatory orientations

after feedback manipulation. Results demonstrated that both fit conditions increased resource allocation on the promotion-framed alternative goal only. Overall, the findings suggest that regulatory fit increased motivation on the focal goal. Results highlighted the importance of the interaction between goal-pursuit strategies and feedback on resource allocation in the multiple-goal context.

Keywords: Regulatory fit, multiple goal-pursuit, dynamic self-regulation, feedback valence



ÖZ

ÇOKLU HEDEF ORTAMINDA DÜZENLEYİCİ UYUM: GERİBİLDİRİM YÖNÜNÜN ETKİSİ

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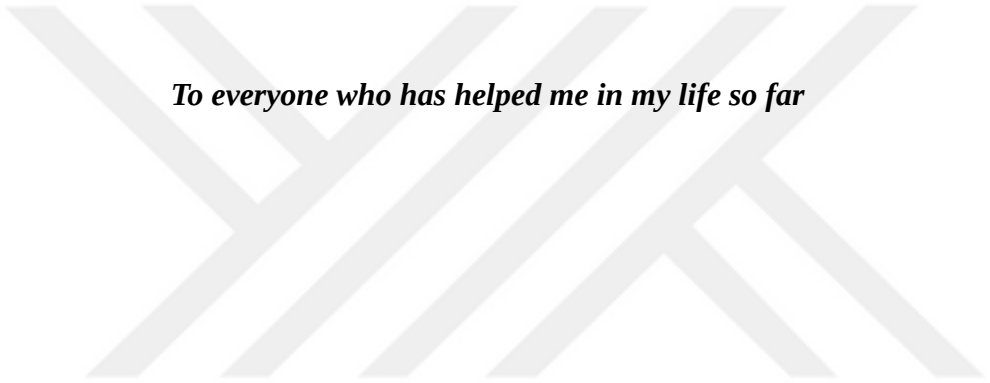
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Düzenleyici uyum geçmiş çalışmalarda genellikle tekli hedef ortamlarında incelenmiş ancak çoklu hedef ortamlarındaki dinamikler göz ardı edilmiştir. Bu nedenle, birbirini takip eden üç ayrı çalışmada geribildirim yönü (olumlu veya olumsuz) yoluyla yaratılan düzenleyici uyumun rolü çoklu hedefler ortamında araştırılmıştır. İlk çalışmada, çalışmanın amacı doğrultusunda geliştirilmiş bir bilgisayar programı aracılığıyla düzenleyici uyum deneysel olarak incelenmiştir. Katılımcılara ($N = 100$; $Ort.yaş = 21.68$; $SS = 1.79$) düzenleyici odak çerçevesinde verilen hedefe takiben sahte geribildirim verilmiştir. Sonuçlar, olumsuz geribildirim yaklaşımacı odak koşulunda motivasyonu arttırdığını göstermiştir. İkinci çalışmada düzenleyici uyum çoklu hedef ortamında ilk kez test edilmiştir. Düzenleyici odaklar çalışma öncesinde ayrı bir oturumda uyarılmıştır. Ardından katılımcılar ($N = 142$; $Ort.yaş = 20.91$; $SD = 1.64$) hayali bir senaryoda geribildirimi takiben kaynaklarını iki hedef arasında dağıtmışlardır. Sonuçlar,

uyum koşullarında kaynakların odak hedefe aktarıldığını göstermiştir. Üçüncü çalışma, ikinci çalışmayı hedef tipi ekleyerek geliştirmiştir. Katılımcılar ($N = 190$; $Ort_{yaş} = 20.95$; $SD = 3.28$) geribildirimden sonra sınırlı kaynaklarını değişik düzenleyici odağa sahip hedefler arasında dağıtmışlardır. Sonuçlar, her iki uyum koşulunda da kaynakların yaklaşımacı alternatif hedefe aktarıldığını göstermiştir. Bulgular düzenleyici uyumun hedef motivasyonunu arttırdığını göstermiştir. Bu tez çalışması hedef izleme stratejileri ile geribildirim arasındaki ortak etkinin hedeflere kaynak aktarımı üzerindeki önemini vurgulamaktadır.

Anahtar kelimeler: Düzenleyici uyum, çoklu hedef izleme, benlik düzenleme dinamikleri, geribildirim yönü



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TABLE OF CONTENTS

PLAGIARISM.....	iii
ABSTRACT	iv
ÖZ.....	vi
DEDICATION.....	viii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT	ix
TABLE OF CONTENTS	xi
LIST OF TABLES	xiv
LIST OF FIGURES	xv
CHAPTER	
1. INTRODUCTION	1
2. MULTIPLE GOAL-PURSUIT FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF DYNAMIC SELF-REGULATION.....	4
2.1 The Goal Construct in Social Psychology	4
2.2 Goal Conflict and Dynamics of Multiple Goal-pursuit.....	6
2.3 Managing Multiple Goals under Conflict.....	8
2.4 Effects of Emotions	11
2.5 Effects of Feedback	13
3. REGULATORY FIT PERSPECTIVE	17
3.1 Regulatory Focus Theory	17
3.2 Regulatory Fit Theory	19
3.3 Emotional Experience in Response to Promotion and Prevention Outcomes	22
3.4 Effects of Feedback and Goal Persistence.....	23
3.5 Motivational Correlates	26
4. PRESENT STUDY	29
5. STUDY 1.....	32
5.1 Pilot Study	32
5.2 Method.....	33
5.2.1 Participants	33
5.2.2 Anagram Software	33

5.2.3 Procedure	34
5.3 Results	35
5.3.1 Hypotheses Testing	36
5.3.2 Manipulation Check	41
5.3.3 Emotions.....	42
5.4 Discussion.....	43
6. STUDY 2.....	47
6.1 Method.....	47
6.1.1 Participants	47
6.1.2 Material.....	48
6.1.3 Procedure	48
6.2 Results	50
6.2.1 Hypotheses Testing	50
6.2.2 Manipulation Checks.....	55
6.2.3 Emotions.....	57
6.3 Discussion.....	58
7. STUDY 3.....	63
7.1 Method.....	64
7.1.1 Participants	64
7.1.2 Materials	65
7.1.3 Procedure	65
7.2 Results	67
7.2.1 Hypotheses Testing	67
7.2.2 Supplementary Analyses	75
7.2.3 Manipulation Checks.....	77
7.2.4 Emotions.....	80
7.3 Discussion.....	80
8. GENERAL DISCUSSION	85
9. CONCLUDING REMARKS	89
REFERENCES	91
APPENDICES	104
Appendix A Anagrams of Study	105

Appendix B Means and Standard Deviations of the Anagrams	106
Appendix C Sample Interfaces of the Computer Software	107
Appendix D1 Promotion Framing for Study 2	110
Appendix D2 Prevention Framing for Study 2.....	111
Appendix E1 Negative Feedback Scenario and Measures of Study 2	112
Appendix E1 Positive Feedback Scenario and Measures of Study 2.....	117
Appendix F Scenarios and Measures of Study 3	122
Appendix G CURRICULUM VITAE	128
Appendix H TURKISH SUMMARY	130
Appendix I TEZ FOTOKOPİSİ İZİN FORMU.....	155

LIST OF TABLES

TABLES

Table 1. Means and Standard Deviations for Transformed Response Times	36
Table 2. Results of MLM Analyses on Response Time at Post-feedback	37
Table 3. Means, Standard Deviations and t Values for Manipulation Check Variables	42
Table 4. Results of Mixed Design ANOVAs on Emotions	43
Table 5. Means and Standard Deviations for Resource Allocation	50
Table 6. Results of the Chi-square Analysis on Manipulations and Allocated Time Groups	52
Table 7. Results of the ANOVAs on Allocated Time on Focal and Alternative Goal	54
Table 8. Means, Standard Deviations and t Values for Manipulation Check Variables	57
Table 9. Results of the ANOVAs on Emotions	58
Table 10. Means and Standard Deviations for Resource Allocation	68
Table 11. Results of the ANOVA on Allocated Time on Economic Goal	69
Table 12. Results of ANOVA on Allocated Effort on Economic Goal	71
Table 13. Results of ANOVA on Allocated Effort on Academic Goal	74
Table 14. Means and Standard Deviations for Resource Allocation Based on (Non)fit	75
Table 15. Means, Standard Deviations and t Values for Manipulation Check Variables	79

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURES

Figure 1. Plotting the Interaction between Framing and Feedback on Response Time	40
Figure 2. Plotting the Interaction between Framing and Feedback on Goal Effort....	51
Figure 3. Plotting the Interaction between Framing and Feedback on Focal Goal Time.....	53
Figure 4. Plotting the Interaction between Framing and Feedback on Alternative Goal Time	54
Figure 5. Plotting Interaction between Focal Goal Framing, Feedback, and Alternative Goal Framing on Allocated Time on Economic Goal	70
Figure 6. Plotting Interaction between Focal Goal Framing, Feedback, and Alternative Goal Framing on Allocated Effort on Economic Goal	73
Figure 7. Plotting the Interaction between on Allocated Time on Economic Goal....	76

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

In our daily lives, we have to pursue multiple goals almost all of the time. Focusing on a research article versus hanging out with friends or having a nice dinner versus eating only vegetable salad to keep shape are the typical examples for multiple goal situations. In many cases, following a goal requires moving away from the other since they are practically conflicting. That is, they are in opposing positions representing ‘either-or’ choice situation as in the nice dinner vs. salad example. Some other goals, however, do not have to be in the opposite end-states though time and/or resource limitations may force individuals to heavily invest on one of the competing goals. Writing an article and preparing a course represents a good example for this situation.

Individuals have to distribute their efforts on multiple active goals for increasing the probability of the attainment to their goals. Previous research on motivation-goal pursuit has explored the potential harmful effects of alternative goals on focal goal by creating a competitive atmosphere for the resources (e.g., Miller, 1944; Emmons & King, 1988). However, empirical work on the dynamics of multiple goal-pursuits is still scarce. Past research has mainly devoted attention to the single goal-pursuit situations or making decisions within the alternatives. This line of research has provided considerable amount of information on individual’s goal-directed behavior. Considering that daily life situations typically include multiple active goals, previous studies focusing on single goal-pursuits seem to have limitations in terms of representing some of the real-life experiences.

Besides, extending the findings of previous research to the multiple goal environments can be misleading. For instance, previous research on decision-making and multi-tasking has focused on how we set and select goals. The main perspective behind this line of research is the limited cognitive capacity of individuals. That is, our limited ability to focus on multiple goals leads to the selection of one goal and the termination of the other. This kind of limited

capacity, indeed, implies the multiple goal-pursuit research and it is assumed that individuals dynamically allocate and reallocate their sources on their multiple goals. However, as in real-life conditions, multi-goal situations include a number of strategies beyond simply abandoning one of the goals. In conclusion, it is imperative to explore the nature of goal pursuit to better understand how we pursue multiple goals under competing situations dictated by limited capacity.

Previous research has elaborated several factors affecting the effort or resource allocation on multiple goals. Considerable attention has been devoted in understanding the effect of feedback on multiple goal-pursuit. Both positive and negative feedback received during the goal-pursuit is argued to be one of the most critical factors. Since feedback provides a reference for comparison between the current state and the desired end-state, individuals can derive information on the goal progress. Yet, deciding the goals to be selected or weighted among others in response to feedback is a controversial issue requiring further clarification.

In this dissertation, a moderating factor is proposed to explain previous mixed findings on the feedback situation in the process of self-regulatory fit. As a goal-pursuit process approach, Higgins' (2000) regulatory fit theory (RFT) basically proposes that positive and negative feedback interacts differently with the individuals' self-regulatory orientations (i.e., promotion and prevention) which are defined as the preferred actions and strategies during goal-pursuit process. Thus, beyond the effects of feedback per se, its 'fit' with the individuals' self-regulatory orientation is argued to influence the goal-pursuit process. As a result, according to RFT, both positive and negative feedback can lead to the allocation of resources either on the focal goal or the alternative goal depending on their (non)fit with the promotion and prevention self-regulatory orientations.

Based on previous evidence in the multiple goal-pursuit arena and within the framework of Higgins' (2000) regulatory fit theory, this dissertation aims to examine how and when individuals allocate resources to their multiple goals in response to feedback. I aimed to focus on (a) the nature of interactive effects between feedback on goal-pursuit and individuals' self-regulatory orientations and

(b) how this interaction affects the allocation of resources between multiple active goals.

In the following sections, goal-pursuit under single and multiple goal-pursuit situations within the framework of RFT will be elaborated. First, using the cognitive approach to goal-pursuit development of the construct of goal in the cognitive era and the relevant theoretical perspectives will be summarized together with their potential limitations. Afterwards, the perspective of multiple goal-pursuit and its theoretical and empirical refinements to the motivation-goal research will be presented. Within this section, first, managing goal-conflict will be discussed. Second, how emotions and feedback influence resource management will be elaborated considering different perspectives. Third, RFT and previous research relevant to goal-pursuit process will be reviewed. Besides, emotional experiences and feedback in relation to regulatory (non)fit will be discussed. Finally, a new perspective for resource allocation on multiple goals will be proposed by integrating past evidence on multiple goal-pursuit and the premises of RFT.

CHAPTER 2

MULTIPLE GOAL-PURSUIT FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF DYNAMIC SELF-REGULATION

2.1 The Goal Construct in Social Psychology

Although the study of goals has a long history, especially its relation to motivation, energization, and directedness, the definition of goals in the contemporary goal-motivation theories varies (see Elliot & Niesta, 2009). Indeed, as Kruglanski (1996) indicated the focus of the literature has generally been on the content and the correlates of goals without providing a clear definition of the goals, and many efforts to define goals yielded fuzzy and incomplete depictions (Heckhausen & Kuhl, 1985). Although a common understanding of the goals as a motivated construct has been accepted within the cognitive perspective, the definition problem remained unanswered (Kruglanski & Kopetz, 2009).

In the recent social-cognitive perspective, goals are viewed as knowledge structures (Shah & Kruglanski, 2003). Thereby, goals have been conceptualized and studied as the other cognitive representations and thus the basic assumptions of the social cognition tradition were also applied to the goal literature. Therefore, focus of the goal literature shifted to; (a) the knowledge accessibility referring to associations activated by either internal or external cues (e.g., Higgins, 1987), (b) accessibility of relevant knowledge drawing the attention to goal-relevant objects (e.g., selective attention, attentional blindness) (e.g., Higgins, 1996a), (c) accessibility of thoughts influencing both the goal and goal-pursuit (e.g., Shah, Friedman, & Kruglanski, 2002). Thus, social-cognitive perspective has provided a dynamic conceptualization of goals as an efficient way of seeing world (Ferguson, Hassin, & Bargh, 2008).

The goals are defined within the social cognitive perspective as an open and flexible system in which a person and situation interactions (Bargh & Huang, 2009). However, goals seem to have some critical differences from the other

cognitive representations in many aspects; (a) goals are motivational (motivation determines ‘why’ and the goal determines ‘how’ of the behavior) and thus, (b) their strength increases even after a delay of satisfaction and they persist until completion (Chartrand, Dalton, & Cheng, 2008). (c) They are valenced and committed in nature, (d) they are focused on the future and on an object (Elliot & Niesta, 2009), (e) they include affect and effort, (f) goals always include ‘moving toward’ or ‘moving away’ from the valenced goal object (Moskowitz & Grant, 2009), finally, (g) they entail multiple manners and/or means to approach goals and the most efficient and instrumental means are likely to be selected (Martin & Tesser, 2009).

The underlying assumption of the means and/or manner of goal pursuit is the hierarchy between goals. Goal hierarchy has been defined in various theories (e.g., Carver & Scheier, 1999; Elliot & Church, 1997; Higgins, 2008). Basically, the more abstract system level goals are followed by the more concrete goals and those goals are assumed to be served by goal means. Means have been formulated and tested in numerous ways including risky as well as conservative behaviors, positive/negative feedback, and so forth. These lower order constructs of fashion of goal-pursuit are supposed to serve for successful goal-attainment. Thus, goal means as a more specific and concrete construct indicates the way of attaining end-states.

Another common point of the goal-pursuit literature is that the adoption of social-cognitive perspective has been heavily reflected on single goal-pursuit or decision-making contexts. In this line of research, the basic premises of social-cognitive perspective were tested either on the goal-pursuit process or on the goal setting/selection preferences within the alternatives. Both research traditions share the common methodological perspective that they have treated goals as single isolated constructs. Pursuing a goal is assumed to be independent from other goals. However, researchers have begun to increasingly emphasize the importance of other alternative goals on the focal goal-pursuit (e.g., Carver, 2004). For instance, the hindering effects of active alternative goals on the focal goal have

drawn the attention of researchers. Hence, multiple goal-pursuit perspectives can extend our knowledge on dynamics of goal-pursuit process.

2.2 Goal Conflict and Dynamics of Multiple Goal-pursuit

It is important first to clarify the concept goal-conflict to better understand the dynamics of multiple goal-pursuit. Various forms of goal conflict have been defined in the literature and each of them has distinct implications. The term goal-conflict has been largely used for the conditions including goals which are in the opposite motivational direction. Researchers sometimes prefer the term goal competition instead of goal conflict for the goals compete for the same cognitive resources but are not in opposite motivational direction.

Goal conflict has a long and rich history in social psychology. Neal Miller (1944) was one of the earliest researchers who speculated on goal conflict and then played a critical role in the history of psychology. He defined approach-approach conflict in which individuals want to attain both goals. Accordingly, once an individual approaches to a goal, the strength of that goal increases while the strength of the competitor decreases. Kurt Lewin (1951) who is generally regarded as one of the pioneers of social psychology also defined goal-conflict in his 'field theory'. He proposed that goals are like 'quasi-needs' which are to be satisfied, and if not, creates tension. In turn, this tension energizes the goal-directed behavior (Lewin, 1951). Emmons and King (1988) also explained that conflicting goals lead to rumination and inaction which in turn lead to failure on goal attainment.

The key concept underlying aforementioned research is the limits of the cognitive limits of goal pursuer. Accordingly, the entire goal directed actions take place within the cognitive capacity of goal pursuer. Thus, any action to reach an end-state consumes energy and influences all other goal-directed activities even if they are totally irrelevant to the previous act (Muraven & Baumeister, 2000). For instance, in a classical experiment of self-control, participants were welcomed in a chocolate cookie smelling room and assigned to one of the three conditions;

eating cookie, eating radishes, and no food conditions. Then, participants were assigned to solve unsolvable anagrams. Presumably, participants who ate radish gave up anagram solving earlier than the two other groups because they depleted ego resource by exerting more self-control effort to avoid the tempting food (Baumeister, Bratslavsky, Muraven, & Tice, 1998). In this study, eating radish as a resource consuming/depleting activity hindered the motivation and persistence on the anagram solving goal.

Goals systems theory has a similar perspective for multiple goal-pursuit (Kruglanski, Shah, Fishbach, Friedman, Chun, & Sleeth-Keppler, 2002). In this theory, goals are competing for a 'constant sum' of limited resources and as the engagement to a goal increases, allocated resources to other goals decreases or totally fades away. Conversely, any cue that increases cognitive accessibility of alternative goal pulls away attention from the focal goal which has potential to hamper focal goal-pursuit (Higgins, 1996a). For instance, Shah and Kruglanski (2003) showed that mere subliminal priming of alternative goal while working on an anagram solving task led to decreased effort on focal goal as compared to control –no subliminal priming- group.

Similar to the other goal-pursuit theories, goal systems perspective proposes that individuals set their goals at different levels of hierarchy (e.g., Carver & Scheier, 2000; Scholer & Higgins, 2008) and conflict can occur between goals which are represented at different levels (Kruglanski et al., 2002). For instance, lower-order tempting goals such as eating chocolate cookie can conflict with a higher-order goal such as being fit and healthy. Successful self-regulation in this type of conflict clearly requires resisting temptations. However, resisting temptation can be difficult since higher-order goals generally represent more abstract and less salient end-states. Thus, prioritizing a higher order goal can be difficult under the presence of concrete and immediate end-states which have potential to create strong motivational force (Shah, Friedman, & Kruglanski, 2002).

Alternatively, goals do not have to be necessarily in conflict; rather they may only be simultaneously active. For instance, individuals generally pursue the same

level of higher-order goals simultaneously such as having both career and social goals. Although these goals are not in the opposite motivational direction, pursuing one of them can have a negative influence on the pursuit of the other. In general, such ongoing goals may be at different level of completion. Moreover, circumstances facilitate or obstruct the active goals (Shah, Hall, & Leander, 2009). Under these conditions, specific strategies are required for successful goal pursuit such as goal balancing, goal shifting, and goal disengagement. That is, individuals may decide to persist on one goal while disengaging or decreasing effort on other goal or they may decrease current effort on focal ongoing goal and transfer some of the resources to the other ongoing goal in order to maximize the attainment of both of them.

2.3 Managing Multiple Goals under Conflict

Research on goal management strategies under goal conflict basically focuses on two types of conflict, namely resisting temptations and allocating resources on the same level goals. Past research on the resisting temptations has heavily focused on how higher order goals are prioritized to maintain engagement and motivation. Research on this process provided bidirectional relationship between higher-order goals and lower-order temptations. The effects of temptations on diverting attention and ego depletion have showed up numerous studies (e.g., Baumeister & Heatherton, 1996; Baumeister, Heatherton, & Tice, 1994). Conversely, more recent studies have revealed that presence of temptations can activate the higher-order goal especially for successful self-regulators. As a result, goal conflict between the lower-order and higher-order goals can be managed in favor of the higher order goal. In their study, Fishbach, Friedman and Kruglanski (2003) asked participants to evaluate their higher-order academic self-regulatory success, and then, one group received subliminal tempting words such as procrastination before the higher order target words such as study. Results showed that participants with higher regulatory self-efficacy increased accessibility of higher-order academic goal while participants with lower regulatory self-efficacy could not inhibit accessibility of temptations. Therefore, in some cases, as in the regulatory self-

efficacy condition in this study, individuals can manage conflicting goals successfully.

Besides the tempting goals, individuals have to manage competing goals on the same level of hierarchy and in the similar level of priority and temporal focus. Given the potential interruptive effects of alternative goals on the focal goal because of the limited resources, individuals have to deal with same level multiple goals.

Abandoning an active and unfulfilled goal is one of the strategies proposed in the goal-pursuit research. Accordingly, Kuhl and Beckmann (1994) proposed that managing multiple goals requires shielding focal goal against the alternative ones. They defined goal shielding within the life-span development perspective as a strategy to pursue focal goal. Individuals encounter many possibilities which are available only for a limited time period throughout their lives. Therefore, it is suggested that for successful development, one must quickly disengage from the goals which are hard to attain and reallocate resources to the other available goals (Heckhausen, Wrosch, & Schulz, 2010). This kind of strategy is advantageous since it allows directing full resources to the focal goal. However, allocating full resources to an unattainable and/or difficult goal may be detrimental for successful self-regulation. Besides, sometimes given conditions may create an atmosphere suitable for attaining more than one goal. In such conditions, goal balancing may be a better strategy for goal attainment (Förster & Werth, 2009).

Some of the researchers have focused on goal shifting as a strategy for pursuing multiple goals. This strategy is formulated as transferring all of the resources to the alternative goal in a more flexible and dynamic fashion. Indeed, the logic behind this strategy is that some goals have no concrete end-state and always have room for progress such as being a moral person. While pursuing such goals, abandoning the goal at least temporarily may be required for successful self-regulation. Recent studies showed that actual or symbolic perception of goal completion or satisfaction results in lowered accessibility of that goal-related construct (e.g., Liberman, Förster, & Higgins, 2007). In one of the recent studies,

half of the participants were told that they should inform the experimenter when they saw eyeglasses after scissors on the screen. Following this procedure, participants took a lexical decision task. Among the participants who received eyeglasses, words related to eyeglasses were recognized slower than the control group (Förster, Liberman, & Higgins, 2005). This effect might indicate that the perception of partial fulfillment of a goal results in a diminished accessibility. Hence, progress perception (i.e., positive feedback) might lead to decreasing resources on focal goal. However, this doesn't necessarily indicate goal shifting in which the decreased resources on the focal goal are transferred to the alternative goal. Reallocation of sources to an alternative goal should be tested directly by measuring allocated resources on the alternative goal. In the current study, allocation of the resources to alternative goals in the context of multiple goal-pursuit was assessed and examined directly to test the above premises.

Besides the goal shifting, goal balancing has been proposed as a useful strategy for multiple goal-pursuit. Researchers, in general, emphasize that goal balancing requires the ordering and prioritizing the goals to terminate the conflict so that the likelihood of successful attainment to as many goals as possible would increase (e.g., Carver, 2004; Higgins, 1997; Shah, 2005). For instance, Carver (2004) proposed that individuals do not heighten their effort and divert full resources to one goal under any circumstances; rather they seek satisfactory progress for all of the active goals which is called goal balancing. By doing so, they try to maximize the progress in all of the active goals. Underlying assumption of this perspective is that balancing the effort and resource between goals are heavily determined by bottom-up process. Accordingly, as in other multiple goal-pursuit perspectives, it is proposed that individuals seek information about the goal progress to revise their efforts. Feedback provides this information by conveying message about the gap between current progress and end-state. Depending on this information, individuals reallocate their resources within the active goals. Specifically, when they perceive a satisfactory progress by an input on one of the goal-pursuits, they are assumed to direct their resources to the other goals. It is important to note that empirical support for these propositions is scarce and controversial as discussed

below. Besides, reallocating the sources following progress information might interact with how this information is perceived and evaluated. Specifically, individuals' self-regulatory orientations (i.e., promotion and prevention focus) might interact differently with the same progress information. Therefore, one of the purposes of the current study was to examine the role of feedback and self-regulatory orientations in the context of multiple goal pursuit.

So far, the major perspectives on managing multiple goals have been reviewed. The common point among these perspectives is the input on goal-progress. Previous work has defined two critical inputs (factors) on the goal pursuit process, which are usually treated and even measured interchangeably; emotions and feedback.

2.4 Effects of Emotions

Multiple goal-pursuit literature has paid critical attention to emotions in response to the any goal-directed action, since emotions are assumed to convey message about the discrepancy between current state and end-state (Bandura, 1991; Carver & Scheier, 1990; Higgins, 1997). In one of the earliest attempts to explain the effects of emotions on multiple goal-pursuit, Carver and Scheier (1990) proposed a bidirectional relationship between emotions and behaviors. In their perspective, individuals not only feel good or bad when they accomplish or fail on a goal, they also use these emotions as feedback information about the goal progress. Furthermore, they proposed that positive emotion signals satisfactory progress and diverts attention to other goals rather than the focal goal. Conversely, negative emotion signals lack of progress and diverts individuals' attention and resources to the focal goal rather than the alternative goal. Partial support for this proposition was found in one of the recent studies. In Orehek, Bessarabova, Chen, and Kruglanski's study (2011), participants decreased focal goal activation when they received positive feedback under the presence of alternative goal while they increased goal activation under single goal-pursuit.

Other researchers proposed a different perspective and treated emotion as an indicator of goal adoption and rejection rather than as an input to resource allocation decision (Fishbach & Labroo, 2007). According to this line of research, when emotions are attributed to an unrelated source rather than goal progress, positive emotions increase goal commitment which leads to goal adoption. Contrariwise, negative emotions may signal lack of commitment which can result in goal rejection. Eyal, Fishbach, and Labroo (2008) found evidence for this proposition. In their study, participants were induced either positive or negative mood at a task in which participants were led to believe that their creativity was assessed. Then, half of the participants were misinformed that their feelings represented their performance on task while other half were not informed. Misinformed group's performance was lower at a subsequent word-generation task when they were manipulated with positive feedback as compared to negative feedback. However, participants in the unrelated mood condition showed the opposite pattern (as cited in, Fishbach & Zhang, 2008). It is important to note that this study was conducted at a consecutive goals setting. That is, manipulations were administered on a goal and its effects were observed on the subsequent goal. Thus, these premises should be tested in a multiple goal environment in which goals are pursued simultaneously under limited time and resource conditions for the generalizability of the findings.

Another perspective on the relationship between emotions and multiple goal-pursuit has been proposed similar to Carver's cybernetic model yet it takes a broader perspective (Baumeister, Vohs, DeWall, & Zhang, 2006). In this model, it is assumed that emotional reactions are generally too slow to direct behavior on the ongoing goal-pursuit; rather it is proposed that previous emotional experiences facilitate learning about goal-pursuit (Baumeister, 2005). Furthermore, behaviors can be guided by the anticipated emotion in response to goal-directed behavior. Putting together, emotional experiences resulting from goal-pursuit process inform individuals about the goal-pursuit actions, which in turn, guide subsequent goal-pursuits.

In one of the recent studies, effects of emotions on goal-pursuit were examined directly. Louro, Pieters, and Zeelenberg (2007) proposed that emotions signaling goal progress interacts with goal proximity in determining goal-directed behavior. This proposition was tested using a scenario based imagination study. Accordingly, participants were led to believe that they experienced positive affect in response to satisfactory goal-progress. As a result, this experience led participants to reallocate resources to the alternative goal when the goal attainment is proximal. Conversely, when goals are far from completion, positive emotions minimized the goal balancing, instead led to increased effort on that focal goal. On the other hand, negative emotions signaling lack of progress led participants to allocate more sources on focal goal when the goal completion is near. However, negative emotions led participants to abandon the goals when the completion is far away. That is, participants assumed to perceive goal as unattainable under this condition.

In conclusion, there exist a number of controversies and mixed findings in the previous studies regarding the effects of emotions within the multiple goal-pursuit context. Resource allocation on focal goal has been proposed for both positive and negative emotions depending on the different perspectives. Indeed, similar theoretical arguments have been proposed for the effects of both positive and negative feedback on resource allocation.

2.5 Effects of Feedback

Motivation-goal theorists have largely focused on feedback as a key factor on determining the reallocation of limited resources. Basically, researchers distinguish between positive and negative feedback (Fishbach, Zhang, & Koo, 2009), though, the effect of feedback has been largely left unclear. For instance, Kluger and De Nisi (1996) reported in their meta-analysis that the effects of feedback per se and the effect of feedback valence on motivation were complex. In the motivation-goal literature, two main perspectives have been used to study effects of feedback feedback on goal-pursuit. Attitude researchers beginning from Festinger (1957), claim that positive feedback increases performance via

increased expectancy and value of attainment. Instead, negative feedback decreases performance by lowering the expectancy of goal attainment (Fishbach & Finkelstein, 2012). Individuals' desire to be consistent in their behaviors lies behind this proposition. Thus, if an action results in positive outcomes, selecting similar subsequent actions become more likely. Some of the goal-pursuit researchers also hold this perspective. For instance, Bandura (1991) claimed that while positive feedback increases self-efficacy which in turn leads to increased motivation, negative feedback decreases the sense of self-efficacy which in turn decreases motivation. In supporting this proposition, it was found that employees can be motivated more on their jobs as a result of increased self-efficacy following a positive feedback (Audia, Locke, & Smith, 2000)

Discrepancy reduction models focusing on the gap between current state and end-state take a different perspective on the effects of feedback valence. For instance, as a discrepancy reduction approach cybernetic model for self-regulation claims that positive feedback would lead to 'coasting' (decreasing effort and/or motivation on focal goal to pursue other goals) to allocate resources to other goals since positive feedback conveys a message indicating a certain amount of progress. Conversely, negative feedback signals that there is a relatively big gap between the end-state and current state indicating lack of progress, which in turn, leads to increase in motivation (Carver & Scheier, 1998). Only an indirect empirical support has been provided for the premises of cybernetic model since studies investigating the feedback effects have been commonly conducted in the consecutive single goal settings. Furthermore, these studies failed to show coasting effects on focal goal rather they assessed the reallocation of resources for the alternative goal only. For instance, Pomerantz and Trope (1998) found that following a successful experience as compared to negative feedback, participants wanted to learn more about their weaknesses in another context.

Dynamic self-regulation perspective has also potential to explain how feedback valence influences goal pursuit in a multiple goal pursuit perspective. Accordingly, it is proposed that both positive and negative feedback has different effects based on the message conveyed to the goal pursuer. If positive feedback

highlights the commitment, it would lead to increase in performance since it refers to successful pursuit of highly valued goal. In contrast, if positive feedback serves as progress information, it would lead to decrease in performance and reallocation of sources to the other goals. Similarly, negative feedback highlighting lack of commitment would lead to decrease in effort since it causes decreased expectancy of goal attainment. However, if negative feedback is perceived as lack of progress, then performance would be increased in order to close the gap between the end-state and the current state (Fishbach, Zhang, & Koo, 2009).

In one of the study, Fishbach and Dhar (2005) framed the questions based on commitment and progress. Half of the participants were asked whether they were committed after working on an academic task, and remaining of them were asked whether they made progress. Then, participants indicated their preferences for socializing goals after work. Results revealed that progress-framed participants reported more inclination to socializing alternative goals emphasizing the goal balancing as compared to commitment-framed participants. In another study, the effects of preexisting commitment levels were investigated. In this study, participants' level of commitment was manipulated to test the proposed effects (Koo & Fishbach, 2008). Following commitment manipulation, participants were given completed actions (50% to date) and lack of completion (50% to go) manipulation for the goal. Although all participants received the same progress information, among the low commitment condition those who received positive feedback given by completed actions and among the high commitment condition those who received negative feedback given by uncompleted actions increased their motivation. Hence, dynamic self-regulation perspective provided further information on how positive and negative feedback influences resource allocation. However, when the feedback information is perceived as commitment or as progress remains unanswered.

Overall, the perspective of dynamic self-regulation has extended the previous findings on feedback. As a result, either goal persistence or goal balancing can be exerted in response to goal progress and by considering the alternative goals. However, the role of feedback valence in the process of goal-pursuit is still

complicated. Hence, there is still a room for the explanation of feedback effects on multiple goal-pursuit process. It seems that regulatory fit perspective may shed some light on the feedback effects.



CHAPTER 3

REGULATORY FIT PERSPECTIVE

Past research on multiple goal-pursuit largely depends on the theoretical refinements of the previous motivation-goal theories. These theories have provided a common theoretical background for the studies on goal-pursuit within the cognitive evolution perspective. Although it has some limitations, the basic premises of single goal-pursuit theories have potential to shed light on the dynamics of self-regulation under multiple goal-pursuit conditions. Higgins' (2000) regulatory fit theory (RFT) is one of the most recent theories within this line of research. Actually, RFT is an extended and reinterpreted version of regulatory focus theory (Higgins, 1997; 1998). Therefore, regulatory focus theory will be reviewed first below to better understand RFT.

3.1 Regulatory Focus Theory

Regulatory focus theory proposes distinct self-regulatory orientations, namely *promotion and prevention self-regulatory foci*, by extending the basic pleasure (approach) - pain (avoid) distinction (Higgins, 1997; 1998). The basic assumption underlying this proposition is that individuals can approach pleasure and/or avoid pain by focusing on different concerns. Thus, the core tenet of the theory is that both promotion and prevention orientations could include approaching the desired end-states and avoiding the undesired end-states. By this way, theory goes beyond the approach – avoidance dichotomy and opposes to the value attributed to these orientations. Rather it focuses on how goal-directed behaviors are developed and operated by distinct systems, namely promotion and prevention motivations (Förster & Werth, 2009). Differences between these systems arise from the basic concerns conceptualized as ideal – ought self guides, nurturance – security needs, and positive – negative outcomes.

Regulatory focus theory proposes distinct concerns (i.e., self-guides, needs and outcomes) to clarify the development and nature of promotion and prevention

orientations. Ideal and ought self-guides are formulated as desired end-states which individuals want to achieve and are assumed to reflect their cognitive representations of self-knowledge (Higgins, 1987; 1989a). Ideal self-guides include either individuals' or significant others' wishes, aspirations, and desires, while ought self-guide includes responsibilities, duties, and obligations. These self-guides provide reference points to compare with one's own actual representations of personal attributes and/or representations of significant others' beliefs that one possess (Higgins, 1989b; Strauman, 1996).

Considering the basic survival needs, two needs have been formulated within the focus theory. Accordingly, security need is defined as a concern for safety and protection, and nurturance - advancement need is defined as a concern for growth and development. It is proposed that distinct goals are energized by motivations for distinct advancement and security needs. That is, advancement needs are served by promotion-focused goals whereas security needs are served by prevention-focused goals.

In relation to the third concern, namely positive and negative outcomes, Higgins (1997; 1998) suggested that since the promotion focus is fostered by advancement needs to maximize wins, its concern is gain (approaching desired end-state) and non-gain (avoiding undesired end-state) situations in terms of positive outcomes. Similarly, since the prevention focus is fostered by security needs which can be attained by minimizing losses and threats, its natural concern is non-loss (approaching desired end-state) and loss (avoiding undesired end-state) situations in terms of negative outcomes.

Based on these sensitivities, researchers have used to provoke promotion and prevention orientations to situationally framed self-regulatory orientations (e.g., Higgins, 2006). Indeed, considering the problems of chronic measures on regulatory focus (see for discussion Summerville & Roese, 2008), recently, framing methods have been preferred over the chronic measures of self-regulatory orientations (e.g., Markman, Baldwin, & Maddox, 2005). In the current study,

various forms of framing techniques were used to manipulate regulatory focus based on the sensitivities.

In sum, whereas individuals with prevention focus are sensitive to oughts, security needs, and non-loss incentives, those with promotion focus show greater sensitivity to ideals, advancement needs, and gain incentives. When these sensitivities interact with the two types of regulation focus, it is assumed that the most relevant one is activated, and in turn, the activation of any foci leads to specific attention to these sensitivities (Förster & Liberman, 2007). Indeed, previous findings imply that as compared to the non-fit situations, when the stimuli fit with the regulatory orientations, they are evaluated more effectively in each processing level and they yield relatively more successful outcomes.

3.2 Regulatory Fit Theory

Higgins (2000) proposed the regulatory fit theory (RFT) to better understand the dynamics underlying motivations and decision making by extending and reinterpreting the hierarchical structure assumed within regulatory focus theory. RFT asserts that compatibility between the motivational orientation and the manner of goal pursuit is assumed to affect goal process beyond their unique contributions. In other words, those with promotion are usually more concerned with achieving gains or correct responses in a given task, and those with prevention focus is usually concerned with avoiding losses or incorrect responses. Recently, researchers have also examined the interaction between these regulatory focuses and the nature or demand of the given task. If an individual's chronic (dispositional) regulatory focus is compatible with the requirement of the task or the means for attaining a goal, then s/he experiences a *regulatory fit*.

In general, manner of goal pursuit is assumed to influence the value of goal by its instrumentality or cost-benefit trade-off. Specifically, when strategies are instrumental to attain a goal or benefits of the strategy exceeds the costs, individual put higher value to the goal-pursuit (Higgins, 2008). For instance, drivers behave risky since it is instrumental to the goal of travelling fast especially

when they perceive no cost such as involving in an accident (Wilde, 1998). However, in regulatory fit perspective whenever motivational orientation, promotion and prevention in this context, and the manner of goal pursuit matches, individuals place higher value to the goal-pursuit regardless of the costs and value of the outcome itself. For instance, when a promotion focused individual reads an extra material (approach strategy fitting with promotion focus) for a course to attain AA grade and when a prevention focused individual carefully works on the assigned material to meet the standards (avoidance strategy fitting with prevention focus), they would experience ‘feeling right’ or ‘I am doing it in a proper way’ regardless of attaining or failing to receive an AA. Besides, RFT proposes that fit experience occurs as a result of goal-pursuit process rather than outcome qualities, such as receiving an AA in the previous example. Therefore, this experience should be independent from outcome and outcome-related input such as discrepancy between current state and end-state. Rather, regulatory fit has additive effects above and beyond the outcome relevant experiences. For instance, individuals might feel good or bad as a result of the progress information. However if the process (e.g., strategies, feedback etc.) fits with the orientation, evaluations and motivation would be more intense for that goal (Higgins, 2012).

Past researchers examining the effects of regulatory fit have used various methods to induce fit, which can be clustered under two main methods; integral and incidental methods (Cesario, Higgins, & Scholer, 2008). In the integral methods fit is induced within the experimental context as with framing the goal (e.g., Avnet & Higgins, 2006). In this method, goals are framed using sensitivities such as approach/avoidance or gain/loss situations. For instance, in one of the study using this method, end-state was framed as gaining or losing extra credit in an anagram solving task (see, Markman et. al., 2005). In the incidental methods, however, fit is induced outside the experimental context via a previous unrelated situation (Koenig, Cesario, Molden, Kosloff, & Higgins, 2009). For instance, Cesario, Grant, and Higgins (2004) gave participants a questionnaire in which they listed promotion prevention goals and then described approach or avoidance means to attain those goals.

Higgins (2000) proposed that fit leads to (a) intensification of the feelings for both positive and negative ones in response to a desirable and undesirable choice, respectively, (b) assigning higher value to the chosen object, (c) more positive experience for evaluations and decisions, and (d) higher motivational intensity.

Considering the intensified feelings proposition, it is proposed that desirable choice in promotion focus and undesirable choice in prevention focus matches and creates more intense positive and negative feelings, respectively (Higgins, 2006). Idson, Liberman, and Higgins (2004) found evidence that individuals feel good following a desirable choice (e.g., paying 5 \$ less by using cash for a book) and feel bad after undesirable choice (e.g., paying 5 \$ more as a penalty for using credit card). However, feelings were more intense for promotion in the first choice and prevention in the second choice.

In addition to the feelings, participants put higher values to their choice in the fit conditions as compared to the non-fit conditions (Avnet & Higgins, 2003). In another study, participants were asked to choose a mug or a pen as gift. Results revealed that all of the participants selected mug when there was no framing for the fit strategy. However, when selection information was framed with the fitting strategy (i.e., thinking about gains of choosing mug versus losses of not choosing mug), they assigned higher monetary value to the mug (Brodscholl, Kober, & Higgins, 2007; Förster & Higgins, 2005).

According to RFT, goal-pursuit might be experienced as more enjoyable and evaluated more positively under regulatory fit conditions. In one of the studies testing this proposition, Freitas and Higgins (2000) primed regulatory focus of the participants followed by an imagination task. Participants were given either approach means (e.g., spending time at the library) or avoidance means (e.g., avoid missing classes) to attain high grades from the course. Then, they were asked to indicate how much they would enjoy while pursuing the goal. Results revealed that participants would enjoy more when the means fits with the regulatory orientation as compared to non-fit conditions.

Furthermore, some other studies have yielded contradictory or mixed findings. For instance, although fit seems to lead experiencing less stress regardless of the fit type, it was found that promotion – eagerness fit yielded less stress than prevention – vigilance threat (Grant, Higgins, Baer, & Bolger, 2007; as cited in Scholer & Higgins, 2010) suggesting that concern for security may have a priority over concern for advancement even under the fit conditions. Furthermore, some other theoretical perspectives on the basic needs such as attachment theory and Maslow’s hierarchy, give priority to security as a more fundamental need. Potential hierarchy between regulatory orientations might have implications for multiple goal-pursuit. Accordingly, security meeting prevention goals might be prioritized over advancing promotion goals at least under less intense motivational conditions. Therefore, it is proposed that under low motivational conditions (i.e., non-fit) for focal goal, individuals would allocate more sources to security providing alternative goal (i.e., prevention goal). As far as I know, there is only one study that examined the potential hierarchy between regulatory orientations. In their study, Freitas, Liberman, and Higgins (2002; Study 4) found that when participants have a chance to select between the promotion and prevention goals, they first attain the prevention goals.

In addition to the emotional experience, evaluation, and value, participants persisted more (Förster et al., 1998; 2001) and performed better under the fit conditions than the non-fit conditions (Bianco, Higgins, & Klem, 2003; Spiegel, Pillow, & Higgins 2004). Since some of the basic premises of RFT such as emotional experience and persistence are critical parameters for understanding dynamics of multiple goal-pursuit, past research on these basic premises of the RFT was reviewed in detail below.

3.3 Emotional Experience in Response to Promotion and Prevention

Outcomes

Promotion and prevention foci are assumed to provoke distinct emotional experiences. Although both foci lead to positive feelings when the desired end-state is attained and negative feelings when the end-state is failed to attain, they

are qualitatively different. Accordingly, dejection-related emotions such as disappointment and sadness are experienced when desires and wishes are failed to reach, and elation and cheerfulness are experienced when they are reached. Furthermore, agitation-related emotions such as threatened and fear are experienced when duties and obligations are failed to meet, and relaxation and quiescence are experienced when they are met (Higgins et al., 1994).

Besides the qualitative differences between regulatory orientations regarding the emotions, intensity of the emotional experience is assumed to vary. In the promotion focus, attaining desired end-states leads to more intense feelings since cheerfulness-related emotions fits better with promotion focus and creates higher motivational arousal. On the contrary, in the prevention focus, attaining undesired end-states leads to more intense negative feelings, since the motivational arousal and fit is higher for agitation-related emotions (Idson, Liberman, & Higgins, 2000; Liberman, Idson, & Higgins, 2005).

In RFT, it is proposed that the fit effect is indeed an interaction between goal itself and mean or manner of goal pursuit. Thus, emotions should be independent from regulatory fit effects since the emotions occur as a result of the progress on outcome (Higgins, 2000). Therefore, RFT treats emotions as a controlling factor on testing the regulatory (non)fit effects to rule out its potential effects. However, multiple goal-pursuit research treats emotions as an information input about the goal progress similar to feedback. Current study is aimed to test both perspectives by testing emotions as covariate and dependent variable to clarify the proposed relationships and to rule out potential effects of emotions.

3.4 Effects of Feedback and Goal Persistence

According to RFT, persisting on a goal depends on the maximal or minimal goal preferences. Promotion focus is typified by setting maximal goal to attain advancement and growth, and prevention focus is characterized by setting minimal goals to meet minimum standards such as security (Brendl & Higgins, 1996). Therefore, promotion focus is hypothesized to persist more than prevention

focus since pursuing maximal goals are assumed to have a room for further gains while minimal goals have more concrete and immediate end-states (Förster & Werth, 2009).

In relation with persistence, self-regulatory orientations are assumed to respond to feedback in different ways. Hence, RFT proposes that the success feedback fits with the promotion and failure feedback fits with the prevention. As a result of this fit experience, motivation and persistence is supposed to be higher as compared to failure in promotion and success in prevention (Idson, Liberman, & Higgins, 2000). Distinct sensitivities of regulatory orientations underlies increased persistence proposition. As stated before, prevention focus has more sensitivity to loss and failure while promotion focus has more sensitivity to gain and rewards. Thus, these sensitivities increase motivation to perform relevant goal-directed behavior.

On the contrary, Scholer and Higgins (2010) recently claimed that failure feedback would increase motivation for promotion focus in the first phase of goal-pursuit but when failure accumulates it would likely to decrease motivation. However, empirical efforts on regulatory fit have failed to provide support for this recent speculation on promotion fit.

Förster and his colleagues (2001), however, provided support for the RFT's classical hypothesis on feedback. In their study, participants were requested to solve anagrams either framed as promotion or prevention. Then, participants received either positive or negative feedback on their performance while they were solving anagrams. Findings demonstrated that the success feedback increased approach motivation for promotion focus and the failure feedback increased avoidance motivation for prevention focus (Förster et al., 2001). In another study, Idson and Higgins (2000) tested the fit between regulatory orientations and feedback using chronic personality measures of promotion and prevention foci. Following the measurement of chronic regulatory orientations, they gave participants anagram solving task similar to Förster and his colleagues' study. As expected, they found that while promotion focused participants

increased their performance after positive feedback, prevention focused participants increased their performance after negative feedback. However, proposed interaction effects between regulatory orientations and feedback were significant only for some of the post-feedback anagrams.

Van-Dijk and Kluger (2004) tested the regulatory focus-feedback fit using an imagined task. University students were given a scenario in which they received either positive or negative feedback from their boss. Regulatory focus was treated as state by formulizing the job as either obligation or aspiration (Study 1) and as chronic orientation (Study 2). Afterwards, participants reported their intended effort to their job. Results confirmed the hypothesis that negative feedback fits better with prevention focus while positive feedback fits better with promotion focus which were characterized by increased effort allocation to their jobs.

Finally, in a more recent study, Shu and Lam (2011) conducted an experiment in an education setting. Participants first completed the measure of chronic regulatory focus before a word association test and they received bogus feedback in the middle of the test. Fluency, accuracy and devoted time to their task were used as dependent measures. The fit effects were found only for promotion focus, whereas prevention focus did not interact with feedback on any of the dependent measures. Furthermore, there was no significant difference between the participants with high levels of promotion and prevention focus.

Considering the controversial findings, further studies are needed to understand the dynamics of the fit between self-regulatory orientations and feedback valence. Especially, considering that the prevention orientation seems to be prevalent in the collectivist cultures, such as Turkey, testing the assumptions of RFT on feedback in non-Western cultural context can provide valuable information. Indeed, initially Higgins (1996b) speculated that prevention focus is typical for collectivist cultures while promotion focus is typical for individualistic cultures and later cross-cultural research has provided evidence for the proposed premises. For instance, Elliot, Chirkov, Kim, and Sheldon (2001) found that Asian Americans were more likely to adopt the avoidance goals which is characteristic for the

prevention focus and non-Asian Americans were more likely to adopt the approach goals which is characteristic for promotion focus. Üskül, Sherman, and Fitzgibbon (2008) provided more direct evidence. In their study, it was found that British participants, who had higher chronic promotion focus, were persuaded more with the gain-framed messages whereas East-Asian participants, who had higher chronic prevention focus, were persuaded more with the loss-framed messages. These results highlighted the importance of cultural functionalities of self-regulatory orientations. Accordingly, it can be concluded that the cultural differences have potential to moderate the proposed fit effects between self-regulatory orientations and means or manner of goal-pursuit. Thus, one of the aims of the current study is to replicate the previous findings on self-regulatory orientation-feedback fit obtained in Western cultures to see if the same effect can be obtained in Turkish cultural context before extending the previous findings obtained in the single goal to the multiple-goal environment.

3.5 Motivational Correlates

Regulatory fit has critical implications for the motivated goal-pursuit. Past studies investigating the effects of regulatory fit have generally used experimental procedures such as solving anagrams or drawing a figure using dots and generally focus on extending the classic findings of motivation literature by adding regulatory orientations.

In this line of research, ‘goal looms larger’ effect (Lewin, 1951) which is defined as increased motivation as getting closer to the goals, was investigated. Getting close to the goal in this perspective was formulated as goal progress and generally created by giving positive feedback to the participants (Förster, Grant, Idson, & Higgins, 2001). Accordingly, it was proposed that approach motivation increases as promotion focused individuals get close to the goal and avoidance motivation increases as prevention focused individuals come up to the goals. Using both chronic and situationally induced promotion and prevention focus, previous studies yielded expected results such that promotion focus predicted increased approach (eagerness) motivation and prevention focus predicted increased

avoidance (vigilance) motivation (Higgins, Friedman, Harlow, Idson, & Ayduk, 2001).

A critical limitation of the previous studies is that the goal-pursuit was treated as a single isolated process. For instance ‘goal looms larger’ effect occurred when a single task was given. However, from a multiple goal pursuit perspective, it can be suggested that as the individuals get close to the goal, they would ‘coast’ in order to transfer cognitive resources to other important goals (Carver & Scheier, 2000). For instance, in a recent study, it was found that as the individuals get close to the goal, they decreased their closeness to others who were instrumental to goal attainment (Fitzsimons & Fishbach, 2010). Thus, following an input indicating successful progress via contextual factors such as emotions and feedback, individuals might decrease their effort for successful self-regulation, namely they might exert goal balancing. Specifically, in the current study, it is proposed that under the non-fit conditions with less intense motivation, individual would coast on focal goal and may allocate resources to the alternative goal. In contrary, individuals under the fit conditions with increased motivation would allocate resources on the focal goal.

Though scarce, some of the research on motivational correlates of regulatory fit has been conducted using multiple goal-pursuit research framework. All of these studies have tested the regulatory fit under the conditions regarding the resisting short-term tempting goals against higher order goals rather than same level competing goals. In one of these studies, Freitas, Liberman and Higgins (2002) found that participants with prevention focus resist temptations better than the participants with promotion focus. Moreover, participants with prevention focus were found to both enjoy more from the task under presence of temptation and perform better. According to the researchers, resisting temptations fits well with the prevention focus since they are more inclined to avoiding obstacles to the goal attainment. Conversely, Dholakia, Gopinath, Bagozzi, and Natarajan (2006) found that although those with promotion focus desired the temptation more than those with prevention focus, promotion focused people also resisted better than the prevention-focused individuals. For instance, following a weight loss regimen,

participants were first asked to select a food from a list including both high and low calorie foods, and then, they completed a self-control measure and indicated intentions to eat a slice of cheesecake. It was found that those with promotion focus selected fewer high calorie foods than those with prevention focus, but there was no difference between the two groups of participants on the low calorie food selections. Following the selection, participants with promotion focus also reported higher levels of self-control and lower levels of behavioral intentions to eat cheesecake. In a more recent study, researchers primed regulatory fit and tested its carryover effects on an unrelated self-control task, such as handgrip stamina. Results showed that regulatory fit improves self-regulation whereas non-fit conditions impair self-regulation capacity (Hong & Lee, 2008). Specifically, participants in the fit condition outperformed the participants in the non-fit condition in both subsequent handgrip stamina and thought suppression tasks.

Taking together, Freitas and his colleagues (2002) found that resisting temptations fits better with prevention focus, where Dholakia and his colleagues (2006) reported that resisting temptation fits better with promotion focus. Hong and Lee (2008), however, found that both fit conditions resulted in better self-regulation. Hence, initial attempts to explore dynamics of regulatory focus and fit under tempting multiple goal-pursuit contexts have revealed controversial findings. In this line of research, common underpinning notion was that the fit conditions are assumed to increase motivation on the focal goal pursuit, especially long-term broader goal in this context. Thus, in the current study, it is proposed that fit conditions would increase motivation on the focal goal under the presence of alternative goal.

CHAPTER 4

PRESENT STUDY

Extending the proposed fit effects for single goal-pursuit to the multiple goal-pursuit context can have critical implications in understanding the real-life goal-directed behavior which are represented by pursuing multiple goals in most situations. Successful self-regulation in such context requires balancing the effort while pursuing different goals (Shah & Kruglanski, 2008). Nonetheless, cognitive resources are not unlimited and could be depleted when regulatory demands are high, such as when making choices. In addition, subsequent performances following depletion can be seriously impaired (Heatherton & Baumeister, 1996). Therefore, it is plausible to suggest that adjusting goal-directed action can be a useful strategy especially when pursuing multiple-goals.

How does “the fit experience” occur in a multiple goal pursuit context? This dissertation is basically trying to answer this question. Only a few studies examined the effect of regulatory fit in a multiple goal pursuit context. However, almost all of these previous studies have focused on the long-term important goals versus short-term tempting goals, rather than focusing on the same level of broader goals. As stated before, considering the dynamic self-regulation and resource allocation, it can be suggested that resisting temptations and pursuing same the level goals have different characteristics.

Taking together, on the one hand, some of the previous studies demonstrated that, as compared to non-fit conditions, fit experience increases motivation. On the other hand, others have found contradictory or insignificant (null) findings. Although the majority of the previous studies were conducted considering a single goal context, they have still suggested to clarify their findings further to better understand the dynamics of the fit experience. Therefore, replicating and extending the basic premises of RFT, especially to the multiple goal environment in a relatively collectivist cultural context can have a potential to contribute to the current literature on RFT.

In the current study, it was specifically aimed to explore how regulatory fit effects primed via feedback influence resource allocation. Considering the mixed findings summarized above, first study aimed to test if the previous findings on the fit effect could be replicated in the Turkish cultural context. It was expected that positive feedback fits better with promotion focus and negative feedback fits better with prevention focus, as originally proposed in RFT. Simply, participants are expected to allocate more resource (i.e., time) under fit conditions. In order to test this (replication) hypothesis, an anagram solving task used in the previous studies (Förster et al., 2001; Idson & Higgins, 2000) was employed in the first study.

In the second and third studies, the effects of fit and non-fit under the multiple goal-pursuit conditions were tested for the first time. In testing of these hypotheses, second study was conducted using an experimentally induced regulatory focus, and then, a scenario in which imagination of resource allocation is required. It is proposed and expected that under non-fit (conditions typified by less intense motivational state), individuals would allocate more resources to alternative goal than the fit conditions. Specifically, borrowing from the proposition of cybernetic model on allocating resources to alternative goal following positive feedback and allocating resources on focal goal following negative feedback, it is assumed that those with prevention focus would allocate more resources to the alternative goal following positive feedback whereas they would allocate more resources to the focal goal following negative feedback.

The proposition of attitude researchers (e.g., Fishbach et al., 2009) on allocating resources to alternative goal following negative feedback and allocating resources to focal goal following positive feedback was used to explain the potential effects for the promotion focused individuals. Considering that these individuals are eager to attain wins, negative feedback is assumed to divert their attention to alternative goal as a possible gain. Therefore, those with promotion focus would allocate more resources the alternative goal following negative feedback, and would allocate more resources the focal goal following positive feedback.

The third study aimed to extend the second study by adding goal type in terms of regulatory orientations. In daily lives, multiple active goals may have different characteristics that some of them are formulated and/or perceived as wishes while others may represent obligations. Therefore, investigating resource allocation under multiple goals by using a design akin to real-life setting would further clarify the dynamics self-regulation. Hence, it was aimed to explore how resources are transferred to the alternative goal when these alternative goals vary. For this aim, a scenario in which regulatory orientations are framed within the goals itself rather than pre-inducing them as in the second study, is utilized. It was hypothesized that when there is a non-fit between the focal goal and feedback given, participants are expected to allocate more resource to the prevention framed alternative goal to secure minimum standards as a part of their duty and obligation.

As stated by Fishbach and Finkelstein (2012), individuals are likely to act consistently with their previous actions on goal-pursuit. Thus, 'feeling right experience' and increased motivation under fit conditions can lead to allocating resources on same-type alternative goal. Therefore, under the conditions, it was expected that participants would allocate more sources to alternative goal matching with the previous focal goal orientation to keep consistency.

CHAPTER 5

STUDY 1

The first study aims to replicate the findings of feedback effects on different regulatory foci among Turkish students by using a similar experimental procedure used in the previous studies (e.g., Förster et al., 2001). As discussed above, it was found that while the promotion framed individuals would increase their motivation as a response to positive feedback than negative feedback, this pattern was reversed for the prevention framed individuals (e.g., Idson & Higgins, 2000).

In general, participants were framed with either promotion or prevention focus at the beginning of the experimental anagram solving task, and they received either bogus positive or negative feedback in the middle of the session. The degree of persistence on the task was used as a classical indicator of motivation in the previous goal pursuit research. This was described as the amount of time individuals prefer to spend on a given task (Weiner, 1972). Hypotheses were as follows;

H1: Negative feedback would lead to higher motivation (i.e., spending more time) than positive feedback in the prevention focus condition.

H2: Positive feedback would lead to higher motivation than negative feedback in the promotion focus condition.

5.1 Pilot Study

Pilot study was conducted to choose anagrams for the study. Besides, it was aimed to set a genuine cut-off for bogus feedback by testing subjective experience in a similar sample with the original study (see Jarzebowski, Palermo, & van de Berg, 2012). Twenty commonly used anagrams were selected from web based Turkish anagram games; each has at least two solutions (Anagrams and all possible solutions are presented in Appendix A). These anagrams task were

applied to 24 participants ($M_{age} = 23.27$, $SD = 2.87$) recruited from Middle East Technical University. They were asked to solve anagrams by using all of the words presented. They were also informed that there was no time limitation in their task. After the anagram solving, participants were asked to indicate the percentage of their performance considering all of the possible solutions.

Six anagrams (AALM, KKİES, LAASK, HLAİS, TEİK, IRKAÇ) were selected with the highest standard deviations for the critical post-feedback step of the primary study. Means and standard deviations of the whole set of anagrams are presented in Appendix B. Mean percentage of the success was 70.25 ($SD = 17.92$). Therefore, 70% was decided to use as cut-off for bogus feedback in the main study.

5.2 Method

5.2.1 Participants

A hundred undergraduate students attending various psychology courses in Middle East Technical University were recruited for the study. Only native Turkish speakers were accepted to the study. Of the participants, 48 were female (48 %) and 52 were male (52 %). There was no gender difference on the major variables (all t 's < 1.57, ns.). The average age of the participants was 21.68 ($SD = 1.79$, Range = 18-31).

5.2.2 Anagram Software

A Linux based computer software was developed for the purpose of the study. Sample of interfaces and questions fulfilled on software are presented in Appendix C. Computer software was programmed to give each instruction throughout the sessions. All interfaces including instructions, anagrams, and questionnaires had a 'next' button and participants were informed that they could press the button whenever they feel ready to proceed. After instructions, anagram appeared at the top middle part of the screen. Just under the anagram, a dialog box was presented for entries of the participants. Participants were instructed to press

‘enter’ button on the keyboard after each entry. Afterwards, dialog box was cleared and the written word was listed under the dialog box so that the participants could see the previous entries. A ‘next’ button was presented at the right bottom of the screen to proceed to the next anagram. This button is activated all the time so the participants could pass the next anagram whenever they wanted. Participants were instructed to use left click of the mouse for the ‘next’ button.

Participants were randomly assigned to the experimental conditions. To do that a software was designed to recognize the experimental condition by the first digit of the three-digit participation code. After the arrival of the participant to the lab, experimenter entered a code including the condition information. Experimental anagrams were fully randomized by the software while practice anagrams were always presented in the same order. Time spent and the generated words for each anagram and for each participant as well as the responses to questionnaires were recorded and transferred to the SPSS datasheet.

5.2.3 Procedure

The study employed a 2 (promotion; prevention focus framing) X 2 (positive; negative bogus feedback) between subjects design on time spent (persistence). When participants arrived at the laboratory they were told that they were going to attend a cognitive performance test and they were going to fill a few scales and solve anagrams. Participants began by filling a mood measure on a 7-point likert scale (Förster et al., 2001). Questions included two positive promotion related (happy, content) and two positive prevention-related (calm, relaxed), and two negative promotion-related (discouraged, disappointed) and two negative prevention-related emotions (tense, worried). Then one of two promotion or prevention framing instructions was given.

In the promotion framing, participants were told “you will get one course credit for the completed anagrams. We want you to pay attention to the task, so if you perform at the % 70 level or better you will earn an extra credit, but if you do not

perform at the % 70 level or better, you will not earn an extra credit.” In the prevention framing condition participants were instructed “you will get two course credits for the completed anagrams. We want you to pay attention to the task, so if you perform below the % 70 level, you will lose a credit, but if you do not perform below the % 70 level, you will not lose a credit.” Participants were also informed that % 70 percent refers to the portion of words generated against all of the possible solutions.

After half of the anagrams were solved, participants received either success feedback or failure feedback. All of the participants were led to believe that computer calculates the percentage of words entered. Then, participants completed mood questionnaire again. Following the questionnaire, participants solved the second set of anagrams with the same instructions. For manipulation checks, participants indicated the sign of the feedback (-5 = negative; 5 = positive), and goal type in terms of their ideal or ought qualities (“Some goals involve pursuing something we wish, whereas others involve pursuing something we have to.” “How would you describe your goal for task?) on a 10-point Likert scale (1 = ideal; 10 = ought).

Participants’ acceptance of feedback was checked to test whether participants perceive feedback as genuine (Nease, Mudgett, & Quinones, 1999). After the study, funneled debriefing procedure was used whether participants were aware of the nature of the study (Chartrand & Bargh, 1996).

Main dependent variable for motivation was the time spent for the second set of anagrams (post-feedback) and the pre-feedback performance was used as a control (base) measure.

5.3 Results

Before the main analyses, conventional data screening procedures were conducted. Response durations for anagrams were significantly skewed. Indeed, the response durations in such studies are skewed by its nature, hence square root

transformations were made for each response. Means and standard deviations of the study variables were presented at Table 1.

Table 1. Means and Standard Deviations for Transformed Response Times

Frame	Promotion		Prevention	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
<i>Feedback</i>				
Positive	6.48	2.62	6.50	2.64
Negative	6.38	2.43	8.55	2.28

5.3.1 Hypotheses Testing

Multilevel modelling (MLM) approach was used to test the hypotheses. This approach was preferred over multiple regressions since it allows taking full advantage of repeated measures of anagrams. Using a series of anagrams for each individual increases the reliability of the overall assessment. At this point, the MLM approach allows testing the non-independence of repeated data (i.e., anagrams) and estimates variation both within and between participants besides the individual-level error term (Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002).

The dependent variable in the analyses was response time at post-feedback session. Pre-feedback response times were used as covariates in all of the analyses except for the null model. Anagrams were treated as first-level variables. Since the anagrams may vary across the participants (level-2 variable), it was defined as random factor. Anagrams were nested within participants that represent the level-2 variable. In order to predict variation in the participants, firstly, a null model without predictors was conducted. Then, main manipulations, namely regulatory orientation framing and feedback type were defined as level-1 predictors as well as their interaction. Predictors were modelled as fixed factors where there is only one coefficient estimating the effect rather than varying among participants. Thirdly, promotion and prevention related emotions were added to equations as covariates separately.

In all models, maximum likelihood (ML) estimation was used. Regulatory framing and feedback type was dummy coded before the analyses. Multilevel analyses were conducted by SPSS 20 package program. Fixed effects and variance components effects for all models are presented at Table 2.

Table 2. Results of MLM Analyses on Response Time at Post-feedback

		Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
<i>Fixed Components</i>					
Intercept	γ_{00}	6.98**	8.31**	8.33**	8.15**
Time 1	γ_{40}		.03	.03	.03
Promotion Emotions	γ_{50}				.03
Prevention Emotions	γ_{60}			-.05	
Framing	γ_{10}		-2.16**	-2.16**	-2.24**
Feedback	γ_{20}		-2.06**	-2.08**	-1.86*
Framing*Feedback	γ_{30}		2.13*	2.13*	2.22**
Random variance Var. (u _{0j})		5.19**	4.11**	4.10**	4.03
Error variance Var. (r _{ij})		1.82	1.83	1.83	1.83
Deviance (-2LL)		2350.76	2333.49	2333.42	2331.92

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .001$

In the first model, a baseline or null model was conducted. This model assessed whether level-2 unit participants differ from each other on response time. This type of analysis is similar to one-way ANOVA, but it treats grouping variable as a random factor. Multilevel equation form of the model is;

$$\text{Level 1: Time}_{ij} = \beta_{0j} + r_{ij}$$

$$\text{Level 2: } \beta_{0j} = \gamma_{00} + u_{0j}$$

According to these equations, Y_{ij} represents the response time for participant j to anagram i during the experimental session. In the level-1 model, β_{0j} is the average response time for participant j on all of the anagrams he or she solved. The r_{ij} represents the difference between participant j 's average and the response time of

this participant on anagram i . In the level-2 model, γ_{00} represents the overall grand response mean time for all of the participants on all of the anagrams and u_{0j} is the difference between grand mean and participant j 's average. Combined form of the above equations in the mixed model depicted as;

$$Y_{ij} = \gamma_{00} + u_{0j} + r_{ij}$$

In general, null model has three components; participants' average response time, how much participants' overall average differ from the whole sample's grand mean, and finally how much participants' anagram i scores differ from his or her own average response time. Results of the first model revealed that, grand mean of transformed response time for the whole sample was $\gamma_{00} = 6.98$ ($t(100) = 29.76$, $p = .001$). Furthermore, variance of random intercept (u_{0j}) was 5.19 and it was significantly different from zero ($Wald = 6.68$, $p < .001$), meaning that participants differed from each other on average response time on anagrams.

Results of null model also indicated the degree of nonindependence of outcome variable, namely response time, across level-1 unit anagrams. This statistic called as intra-class correlation (ICC) and calculated via random variance (u_{0j}) divided by the total variance. Consequently, ICC for the null model was .74 (5.19/7.01) meaning that 74 % percent of the overall variance can be explained by level-2 variation in the participants.

In the second model, main predictor variables and their interaction were added to the model to predict this variation. Accordingly, average response time was hypothesized to vary as a function of regulatory orientation framing, type of bogus feedback, and their interactive effect. The multilevel model equations for the model is

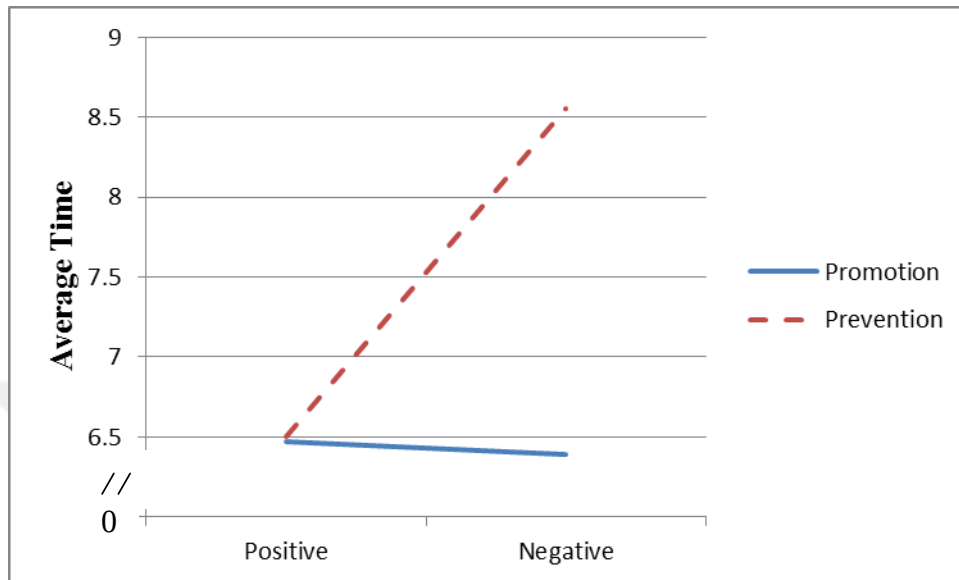
$$\text{Level 1: Time}_{ij} = \beta_{0j} + \beta_{1j}\text{Framing}_{ij} + \beta_{2j}\text{Feedback}_{ij} + \beta_{3j}\text{Framing}_{ij}\text{Feedback}_{ij} + \beta_{4j}\text{Time1}_{ij} + r_{ij}$$

$$\text{Level 2: } \beta_{0j} = \gamma_{00} + u_{0j}; \beta_{1j} = \gamma_{10}; \beta_{2j} = \gamma_{20}; \beta_{3j} = \gamma_{30}; \beta_{4j} = \gamma_{40}$$

β_{1j} , β_{2j} and β_{3j} at the above equation which are conceptually correspondent to unstandardized regression coefficient, represents the relationship between participants' response time as a function of framing, feedback, and interaction, respectively. In other words, slope between independent variables and response time is fixed; not allowed to vary across participants. In a similar way, effects of pre-feedback response times were added to the equation to control its effects.

The maximum likelihood fit value of the null model 2350.76 which represented as -2 Log Likelihood. New model had an improvement with 2333.49 log-likelihood value. The difference between two models with a 4 parameter change was yielded a significant improvement ($\Delta\chi^2(4) = 17.27, p < .01$). Results of fixed effects revealed a significant main effect for framing ($\beta_{1j} = -2.16, p < .001$). Main effect of feedback also yielded significant results ($\beta_{2j} = -2.06, p < .001$). Finally, interaction term between framing and feedback had a significant effect on response time ($\beta_{3j} = 2.13, p < .001$). Further analysis to explore the nature of interaction effects yielded significant results only for prevention focus framing. As depicted at Figure 1, there was a relationship between feedback valence and persistence on the anagrams in the prevention primed group. Accordingly, those who received negative feedback had higher levels of persistence than those who received positive feedback. Type of feedback had no effect on response time for the promotion focus primed participants.

Figure 1. Plotting the Interaction between Framing and Feedback on Response Time



In the third and fourth model, one of the basic premises of the regulatory fit model on emotion was tested. RFT proposes that fit effects, regulatory orientation and feedback type match in this study, should be independent from the emotions occurred from the interaction of orientation and the fitting construct. Because it is assumed that effects created by fit experience is above and beyond the effects of emotions (Higgins, 2012). In order to test this assumption, emotions measured just after the bogus feedback were entered the equation as two separate variables, namely promotion and prevention related emotions. In order to control effects of pre-feedback emotions, they were subtracted from post-feedback emotions.

Results showed that neither promotion-related nor prevention-related emotions had a significant impact on the response times ($t < 1.96$). Furthermore, model fit comparison did not yield significant improvement for the third model testing prevention-related emotions as compared the second model ($\Delta\chi^2(2) = 1.57$, ns). Similarly, fourth model in testing promotion-related emotions yielded an insignificant improvement above main model ($\Delta\chi^2(2) = .07$, ns).

Overall, these results indicated that basic premises of the RFT were partially supported among Turkish participants. As expected, supporting the basic premises

of RFT, fit experience was enhanced via prevention focus and negative feedback increased the motivation of these participants that they spent more time on the post-feedback anagrams. However, results failed to support second hypothesis such that participants who were given the promotion frame did not increase their motivation following positive feedback.

5.3.2 Manipulation Check

Type of bogus feedback for the anagram performances was analyzed as a function of participants' post-manipulation evaluation of feedback. As expected, participants who received positive feedback ($M = 3.26$, $SD = 1.63$) perceived the bogus feedback more positive as compared to participants who received negative feedback ($M = .62$, $SD = 2.02$; $t(98) = 7.20$). Mean values, standard deviations and t values for manipulation check variables were presented in Table 3. Participants in the positive feedback condition ($M = 7.04$, $SD = 2.00$) reported that feedback reflected their performance more than participants in the negative feedback condition ($M = 5.20$, $SD = 1.85$; $t(98) = 4.77$). It was expected that positive feedback would be perceived as more genuine. More importantly, both groups' average was higher than mid-point of the scale indicating that all of the participants perceived feedback as genuine. Finally, there was no significant difference between the goal type ratings within two promotion and prevention framed participants. These results revealed that manipulations successfully worked and participants did not realize the true purpose of the study. Besides, none of the participants were suspicious about the purpose of study during debriefings.

Table 3. Means, Standard Deviations and t Values for Manipulation Check Variables

	Promotion		Prevention		<i>T</i>
	Mean	<i>SD</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>	
<i>Focus Priming</i>					
Goal type	6.65	2.10	6.20	2.37	.99
<i>Feedback Type</i>	Negative		Positive		
Feedback genuineness	7.04	2.00	5.20	1.85	4.77**
Feedback sign	3.26	1.63	.62	2.02	7.20**

** $p < .001$

5.3.3 Emotions

Emotions were tested to check the effectiveness of manipulation. According to the RFT, positive feedback would lead to increase in promotion related emotions for promotion framed individuals. Similarly, since prevention framed individuals are more concerned with negative feedback, this type feedback would increase their prevention related emotions. In order to test these assumptions, composite scores for the promotion and prevention related emotions were constructed. For clarity, promotion related emotions coded as positive, meaning that higher levels indicate more positive emotions, and prevention related emotions coded as negative which means higher level indicates more negative emotions.

Two 2 (promotion framing; prevention framing) X 2 (positive feedback; negative feedback) X 2 (pre-feedback emotions; post-feedback emotions) mixed design ANOVAs were conducted on two types of emotions. Results of the mixed design ANOVAs are presented in Table 4 with their eta squares.

Results showed that only feedback type had a main effect on promotion-related emotions ($F(1, 96) = 25.12, p < .001$). Accordingly, participants who received positive feedback ($M = 4.75, SE = .81$) reported higher positive promotion related emotions than the participants who received negative feedback ($M = 4.17, SE =$

.81). The interaction term between framing and feedback was not significant ($F < 1$).

Results for the prevention related emotions yielded significant main effect only for feedback type ($F(1, 96) = 17.13, p < .001$). As expected, participants who received negative feedback ($M = 3.59, SE = .13$) reported higher negative prevention related emotion than the participants who received positive feedback ($M = 2.83, SE = .13$). The interaction term between framing and feedback was not significant ($F < 1$).

Table 4. Results of Mixed Design ANOVAs on Emotions

Promotion related emotions			
Source	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	Eta squared
Framing	.25	.618	.003
Feedback	25.12	.001	.207
Framing*Feedback	.34	.474	.005
Prevention related emotions			
	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	Eta squared
Framing	.07	.796	.001
Feedback	17.13	.001	.151
Framing*Feedback	3.72	.057	.037

In general, participants' promotion and prevention related emotions changed significantly in the expected direction. Whereas both promotion and prevention framed participants reported higher levels of promotion related emotions in the positive feedback condition, prevention framed individuals reported higher prevention related emotions in the negative feedback condition.

5.4 Discussion

The first study aimed to test one of the basic premises of RFT on goal persistence in Turkish cultural context. Accordingly, it was hypothesized that the fit between promotion focus and positive feedback, and prevention focus and negative

feedback should lead to higher persistence on goal-pursuit. Partial support was obtained in the first study.

The RFT proposes that while positive feedback fits with promotion focus, negative feedback fits with prevention focus (Förster et al., 2001). Thus, individuals increase their effort as an indication of motivation under fit conditions as compared to non-fit conditions. Results confirmed the hypothesis only those in the prevention-focused - negative feedback fit condition significantly persisted more on the post-feedback anagrams than those in the prevention-focused - positive feedback condition. However, feedback type had no effect among the promotion focused framed individuals.

Several speculations can be made to explain the obtained findings. First general argument would be the effect of the potential hierarchical order of self-regulatory orientations. In his original formulation, Higgins (1997) relies on Maslow's hierarchy of needs and Bowlby's formulation of basic survival needs. However, he defined orthogonal dimensions which are quite different from their original formulation. Maslow (1965) put these needs on a hierarchy in which security is the basic dimension. Similarly, attachment theory defines providing security as the basic system and once activated it inhibits other behavioral systems, such as exploration (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2003). Thus, it is possible that prevention motives are the fundamental ones and have a priority over the promotion motives, especially in the collectivist cultural context. Although there has been no effort devoted to the hierarchical relationship between the two regulatory orientations, two previous studies provided indirect evidence. Accordingly, it was found that participants having any orientations behaved in the same manner when they received negative stimuli (Scholer et al., 2008) and participants first paid attention to the prevention goals when they had a chance to select between the promotion and prevention goals (Freitas et al., 2002; Study 4). This view can also be supported from signal detection perspective which argues that individuals have a basic inclination of being vigilant subsequently (i.e., preventive), after detecting a potential threat (e.g., Öhman & Mineka, 2001). Thus, it is likely that prevention focus with increased vigilance to threat and negative feedback might have created

a stronger motivational pull as compared to the promotion fit condition. As a result, participants in this condition might have devoted most of their efforts on anagrams.

Another possible explanation is the cultural backgrounds of the participants. Higgins (1996) proposed that promotion focus is one of the characteristics of individualist cultures while prevention focus is typical for collectivist cultures. Therefore, regulatory orientation framing might have interacted with more global self-regulatory orientations, and thus, the prevention condition might have yielded stronger effects than the promotion condition among Turkish participants. Indirect evidence for this explanation comes from Shu and Lam's (2011) study. Contrary to the findings of the current study, they found no significant effect for prevention focus using similar experimental setting at Hong Kong college sample. Students in Hong Kong, who are one of the top ranked in international PISA achievement tests, reported that they are ready to do what it takes to success. This drive has been defined by 'everything to gain' motive which is typified as promotion focus (Idson & Higgins, 2010). Therefore, such cultural speculations should be empirically examined in the further studies using cross-cultural comparisons.

Finally, research on the basic premises of RFT has been criticized for the potential limitations in its methodology (Watling, Driessen, Vleuten, Vanstone, & Lingard, 2012). Accordingly, the majority of the previous studies, including the current one, were conducted at the controlled laboratory settings by using cognitive tasks such as anagram solving. This type of investigation might have limitations due to the lack of relevance to real-life settings. Interestingly, among the studies investigating the effects of feedback on regulatory orientations, only Van-Dijk and Kluger (2004) found full support for all of the hypothesized effects. Furthermore, their study is the only one that used a scenario, based on a real-life setting. Thus, it can be proposed that there might be a gap between cognitive tasks and real life tasks which requires further clarification.

This gap may also arise from the gained experience during the goal-pursuit process in real-life settings. For instance, it was proposed that emotions, as input

information during the goal-pursuit, have a long-term effect in which the pursuer learns how to act in response to the specific conditions rather than a short-term immediate effect (Baumeister et al., 2006). Therefore, this may be the reason underlying the mixed findings. Individuals might respond to real-life feedback by using a different set of schema based on their experience as compared to the cognitive tasks used in the lab condition. Second study aimed ruled out the limitations of such cognitive tasks by using a scenario-based procedure on a real life multiple goal-pursuit situation.

Overall, first study contributed to the current literature by investigating the basic premises of RFT in Turkish cultural context.

CHAPTER 6

STUDY 2

The second study aims to extend the findings of the first study in several ways. First, how fit and non-fit situations primed via feedback valence influences resource allocation in a multiple goal context was tested for the first time. Second, a real-life context was used to increase generalizability of the findings. Third, feedback magnitude was set around the mid-point (i.e., 48%) of goal completion for both positive and negative feedback to better test the effects of feedback valence. This procedure will help to rule out the possible confounding effects of the magnitude of feedback. Finally, unrelated studies paradigm rather than ambient framing was used in the second study to prime regulatory orientations. In the first study, regulatory orientations framed within the task by using gain and loss situations. Second study, however, primed regulatory orientations in a so-called ‘different study’ conducted prior to feedback manipulation. By doing so, both focal and alternative goals were evaluated by the same regulatory focus standpoint while keeping participants unaware from the regulatory focus manipulation. Hypotheses were as follows;

H1: Prevention primed participants would allocate more time and effort to the focal goal as compared to alternative goal when they receive negative feedback.

H2: Promotion primed participants would allocate more time and effort to the focal goal as compared to alternative goal when they receive positive feedback.

6.1 Method

6.1.1 Participants

One hundred and forty-two participants were recruited from two different state universities in Ankara. Participants were attending to an elective introductory to psychology classes in both universities. Of the participants, 68 (47.9%) were from Middle East Technical University and 74 (52.1%) were from Yıldırım Beyazıt University. Participants were randomly assigned to the experimental conditions.

Analyses showed that there was no significant difference between two university students on the major study variables (for all variables; $t < 1$). The majority of the participants were female ($N = 119$, 83.8 %). The average age of the participants was 20.91 ($SD = 1.64$, Range = 19-30).

6.1.2 Material

In order to manipulate regulatory orientations, an essay writing session was administered before the experimental sessions. This procedure was derived from the Selves Questionnaires and various forms have been used in the literature (e.g., Dholakia, et. al., 2006; Liberman, Molden, Idson, & Higgins, 2001). Participants were led to think about their concerns that were related to either promotion (e.g., hopes, aspirations) or prevention (e.g., duties, obligations) focus. Afterwards, they were instructed to list at least five of their concerns and write an essay on how those concerns changed and developed during their lives (Appendix D). An essay was deemed as adequate if it consisted of at least five sentences.

Participants then fulfilled the manipulation check questions followed by the time and effort allocation questions on each goal.

6.1.3 Procedure

A 2 (promotion; prevention focus) X 2 (positive; negative feedback) between subjects design with effort as dependent variable was used. At the beginning of the study, participants were told that they are going to attend two unrelated studies in order to keep them unaware from the true nature of the manipulation. A confederate experimenter conducted the first –manipulation- part of the study. In the first part of the study, participants were assigned one of the two regulatory focus manipulations as used in previous studies (e.g., Liberman, Molden, Idson, & Higgins, 2001). In promotion priming, participants described their current hopes and aspirations and how they differed from their hopes and aspirations as they were growing up. In the prevention priming condition participants described their current duties and obligations and how they differed from their duties and

obligations as they were growing up. There was no time constraint during the writing session.

Next, participants were asked to imagine a scenario in which they considered a multiple goal-pursuit situation. Accordingly, participants were told they have exams on two must courses scheduled on the same day, three days from the experiment date. Goal of the participant described as taking the highest grade possible from both exams. Both of the exams were defined as similar in importance and as highly desired end-states. Instructions also emphasized the neutral nature of tasks in terms of their being ideal-ought goals or eager-vigilant frames. The rest of survey referred to only one of these tasks as focal task (for the scenarios, see Appendix E).

To manipulate feedback, a flow chart was represented at first page of the questionnaire depicting the materials that they have already covered (to-date) or that they have yet to cover (to-go) similar to the Koo and Fishbach's (2008) study. The bar chart contains an arrow showing the progress. Bar represents the total amount of work (100%) and arrow represents the current level which was 48% for all conditions.

In the positive feedback condition; arrow was colored from starting point to the current point to emphasize the successful attainment, whereas arrow was colored from current state to the end point to emphasize unattained part of the task in the negative feedback condition.

Next, to measure motivation to study for the exams as dependent measure, participants were asked to indicate the amount of time they would spend studying for the exam during three days over maximum 18 hours.

For manipulation checks, mood scale used in the Study 1 was administered. Besides, because RFT assumes that fit effect is different from outcome value, desirability of the tasks was also asked. By doing so, the value of outcome effects against fit effects emerging from feedback was controlled for. Furthermore, attractiveness of each goal taken from Shah and Higgins (1997; e.g., "How good

would be if you attained your goal of XXX?”), and level of goal competition (e.g., Emmons & King, 1998; Does working on the ‘focal goal’ have a helpful, a harmful, or no effect at all on your ‘alternative goal’) were reported. Furthermore, participant indicated sign of the feedback on an 11-point likert scale (-5= negative; 5=positive). Finally, goal type was assessed for each goal in terms of their ideal or ought qualities (“Some goals involve pursuing something we wish, whereas others involve pursuing something we have to.” “How would you describe your goal for task XXX?) on a 10-point scale (1= ideal; 10= ought). It was expected that goals are perceived similar in importance, attractiveness, and content but competing. Moreover, it was expected that to-go feedback is perceived as negative and to-date feedback was perceived as positive. Participants were debriefed using funneled debriefing technique to test whether they are suspicious about the true nature of the study.

6.2 Results

6.2.1 Hypotheses Testing

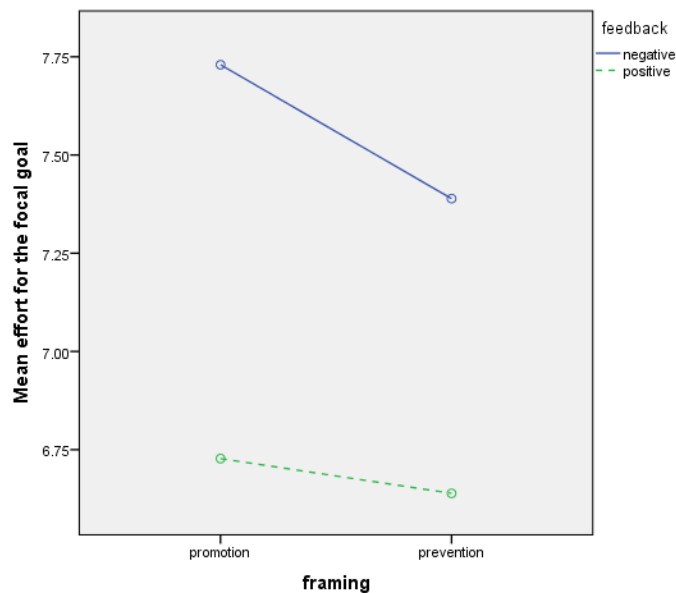
In order to test hypotheses, a series of 2 (promotion; prevention focus) X 2 (positive; negative feedback) between subjects design were conducted. Dependent variables were time that the participants were willing to spend on both courses and effort they would likely to put on both focal and alternative courses. Means and standard deviations based on the priming and feedback were presented at Table 5.

Table 5. Means and Standard Deviations for Resource Allocation

Frame	Focal Goal				Alternative Goal			
	Promotion		Prevention		Promotion		Prevention	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
<i>Feedback</i>								
Positive	7.97	2.42	6.19	2.28	8.73	2.42	10.33	2.99
Negative	6.81	2.14	7.89	2.14	10.19	2.75	9.20	2.59

In the first analysis, the effects of manipulations on the focal goal effort allocation were tested. Neither main effects nor interaction term were significant. However, further analysis yielded unexpected results that the promotion primed individuals who received negative feedback reported higher intentions to put effort on the focal goal ($M = 7.73$, $SE = .31$) as compared to participants who received positive feedback ($M = 6.73$, $SE = .33$; $F(1, 138) = 4.97$, $p < .05$; Figure 2). Interaction term for the prevention-primed individuals was non-significant.

Figure 2. Plotting the Interaction between Framing and Feedback on Goal Effort



Analysis on the effort that participants were intended to put on the alternative goal yielded no significant effects for both main effects and interaction term.

For the third and fourth analysis, time that participants were planning to spend on goals was used as dependent variables. Since participants were allowed to split their times over 18 hours to create goal competition depending on the limited sources, it was planned to test the allocated time only for alternative goal as in the other similar studies in the literature (e.g., Koo & Fishbach, 2008). Because some of the participants preferred to allocate less than a total of 18 hours, the allocated

time for the focal and alternative goals were asymmetrical. Thus, both of the variables were tested separately.

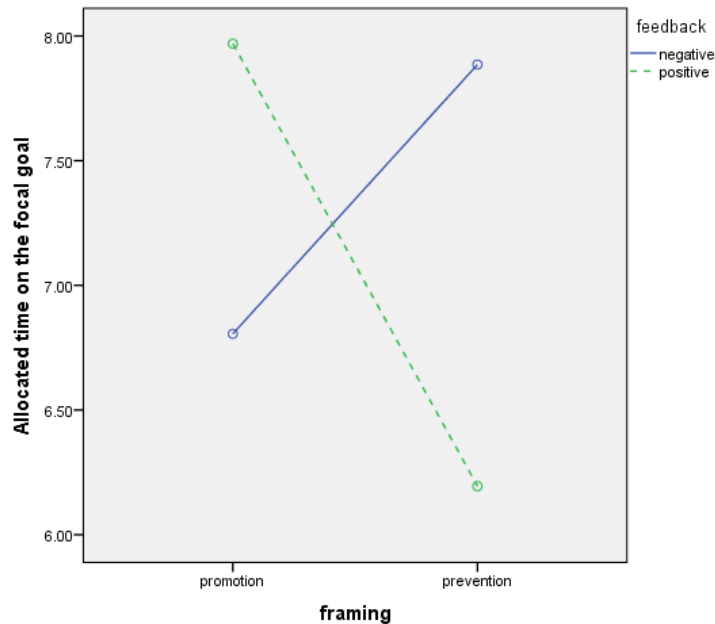
Participants who allocated less than 18 hours were cross tabulated with regulatory orientation priming and feedback type. Chi-square results revealed that participants who allocated less than 18 did not differ between the promotion or prevention prime conditions as well as between the positive or negative feedback condition. Therefore, they were included for the further analyses (Table 6).

Table 6. Results of the Chi-square Analysis on Manipulations and Allocated Time Groups

<i>Regulatory Orientation</i>	Manipulation		χ^2
	Promotion	Prevention	
18 hours	57	57	.13
Less than 18 hours	12	14	
<i>Feedback Type</i>	Negative	Positive	
18 hours	61	53	1.92
Less than 18 hours	10	16	

The results of ANOVA for the focal goal in which participants received feedback yielded no significant main effects for both manipulations. However, the interaction effect was significant ($F(1, 139) = 14.17, p < .001$). Table 7 presents F values and eta squares. As seen in Figure 3, pairwise comparisons showed that positive feedback ($M = 7.97, SE = .39$) increased the allocated time on focal goal more than the negative feedback in the promotion primed participants ($M = 6.81, SE = .37, F(1, 136) = 4.61, p < .05$). However, as expected, participants primed with prevention reacted to feedback in the opposite pattern than those in the promotion condition ($F(1, 136) = 10.10, p < .05$). Specifically, among the prevention primed participants, those who received negative feedback ($M = 7.89, SE = .38$) allocated more time on that focal goal than those who received positive feedback ($M = 6.19, SE = .37$).

Figure 3. Plotting the Interaction between Framing and Feedback on Focal Goal Time

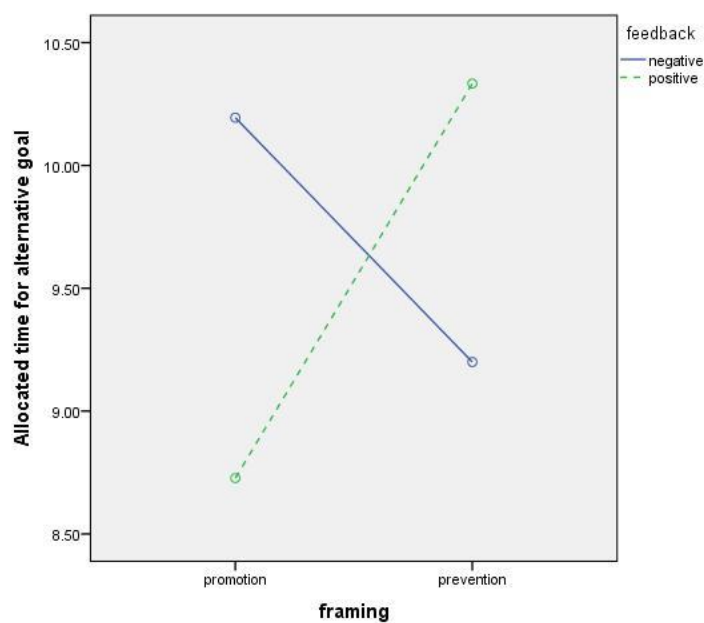


ANOVA for the alternative goal showed no significant main effects for both manipulations. However, the interaction effect was significant ($F(1, 136) = 7.84, p < .05$). Further analyses to explore the nature of interaction term showed that promotion primed participants allocated more time on the alternative course when they receive negative feedback ($M = 10.19, SE = .46$) than they receive positive feedback ($M = 8.73, SE = .48$). For prevention primed participants, however, the effect was marginally significant ($F(1, 136) = 3.02, p < .08$). As depicted in Figure 4, prevention primed participants allocated more time to the alternative goal when they received positive feedback on focal goal ($M = 10.33, SE = .46$) than negative feedback ($M = 9.20, SE = .46$).

Table 7. Results of the ANOVAs on Allocated Time on Focal and Alternative Goal

Allocated time for focal goal			
Source	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	Eta squared
Framing	.840	.361	.006
Feedback	.483	.483	.004
Framing*Feedback	14.17	.001	.094
Allocated time for alternative goal			
	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	Eta squared
Framing	.433	.511	.003
Feedback	.129	.720	.001
Framing*Feedback	7.84	.006	.054

Figure 4. Plotting the Interaction between Framing and Feedback on Alternative Goal Time



Main hypotheses were also tested using the emotions as covariates in the promotion and prevention conditions. Emotions did not have a significant effect in any of these analyses.

In general, results supported the hypothesis. Effects of manipulations on effort allocation on both goals revealed non-significant effects. Only significant effect was found on the focal goal for the participants who received negative feedback in the promotion focus condition. This result was in unexpected direction that promotion framed participants were seemed to increase their motivation after negative feedback. Besides, hypotheses of the study were confirmed when allocated time for both goals was used as dependent variables.

6.2.2 Manipulation Checks

For manipulation checks, a series of independent samples *t*-tests were conducted. In order to test the effects of priming, data collected on goal importance, goal competition, goal type, and goal attractiveness were tested on experimental conditions. Means, standard deviations, and *t* values of the manipulation check variables were presented at Table 8. Results were in the expected direction. None of these analyses revealed significant differences on the regulatory focus priming (all *t* values < 1.96).

Specifically, results demonstrated that participants perceived the must course exam goals as similarly important and attractive as well as they perceived the goals indifferent in terms of their type. Specifically, both promotion ($M = 8.73$, $SD = 1.25$; $M = 8.63$, $SD = 1.46$; for focal and alternative goals, respectively) and prevention primed participants ($M = 8.50$, $SD = 1.51$; $M = 8.11$, $SD = 1.93$; for focal and alternative goals, respectively) perceived goals as highly important. Similarly, both promotion ($M = 9.14$, $SD = 1.64$; $M = 9.23$, $SD = 1.44$; for focal and alternative goals respectively) and prevention ($M = 8.86$, $SD = 1.69$; $M = 8.99$, $SD = 1.47$; for focal and alternative goals respectively) primed groups perceived the goals as highly attractive.

No significant differences between the goal types were expected since the regulatory orientation manipulation was conducted in a different session. Besides, since the regulatory foci primed in a different session it was assumed that the average ratings about goals would be around midpoint meaning that no attitude in terms of regulatory focus was attached to the goals. As expected, both promotion ($M = 4.39$, $SD = 2.93$; $M = 4.13$, $SD = 2.89$; for focal and alternative goals, respectively) and prevention ($M = 3.97$, $SD = 3.12$; $M = 3.85$, $SD = 2.93$; for focal and alternative goals, respectively) primed participants perceived goals as neutral. Similarly, priming groups were not different from each other on the goal competition. They perceived the goals as similarly competing. Mean rating for promotion primed participants were $-.84$ ($SD = 3.10$), while it was $-.22$ ($SD = 3.33$) for the prevention primed participants on the question that was asked using a 11-point Likert scale ($-5 =$ competing; $0 =$ unrelated; $5 =$ complements). Although the ratings were close to the midpoint, there was a tendency to perceive the goals as competing for both groups. Similarly, there was no significant difference between positive and negative feedback groups on goal competition ($M = -.92$, $SD = 3.17$; $M = -.12$, $SD = 2.25$; for negative and positive respectively). Furthermore, both feedback groups perceived goals as similarly competing.

As expected, significant effect was observed on the evaluation of focal goal. Participants in the to-date (positive) feedback condition ($M = 2.27$, $SD = 2.01$) perceived their position more positive than the participants in the to-go (negative) condition ($M = .67$, $SD = 2.56$; $t(139) = -4.09$, $p < .001$). Thus, it can be concluded that although the participants received feedback on the same magnitude, they perceive them differently in line with expectations from the manipulation.

Table 8. Means, Standard Deviations and t Values for Manipulation Check Variables

	Promotion		Prevention		<i>t</i>
<i>Focus Priming</i>					
Focal goal importance	8.73	1.25	8.50	1.51	.98
Alternative goal importance	8.63	1.46	8.11	1.93	1.80
Goal conflict	-.84	3.10	-.22	3.33	-1.14
Focal goal type	4.39	2.93	3.97	3.12	.81
Alternative goal type	4.13	2.89	3.85	2.93	.58
Focal goal attractiveness	9.14	1.64	8.86	1.69	1.01
Alternative goal attractiveness	9.23	1.44	8.99	1.47	1.00
<i>Feedback Type</i>					
	Negative		Positive		<i>t</i>
Evaluation of feedback	.67	2.56	2.27	2.01	-4.09**
Goal conflict	-.92	3.17	-.12	3.25	-1.48

** $p < .001$

In general, manipulation checks provided the expected results.

6.2.3 Emotions

In order to test how manipulations affected participants' emotions a 2 (promotion framing; prevention framing) X 2 (positive; negative feedback) between subject ANOVAs were conducted on two types of emotions. Emotions were coded as in the Study 1. Results of these analyses are presented at Table 9.

Considering the promotion related emotions, only feedback type had a main effect ($F(1, 140) = 64.33, p < .001$). Accordingly, participants who took positive feedback ($M = 4.69, SE = .14$) reported higher positive (promotion related) emotions than the participants who took negative feedback ($M = 3.08, SE = .14$). The interaction between framing and feedback did not show a significant effect ($F < 1$).

Considering the emotions related to prevention, only feedback type had a significant main effect ($F(1, 141) = 29.76, p < .001$). Participants who received negative feedback ($M = 5.63, SE = .16$) reported higher negative prevention related emotions than the participants who received positive feedback ($M = 4.39, SE = .16$). Similar to the emotions related to promotion, interaction term was not significant ($F < 1$).

Table 9. Results of the ANOVAs on Emotions

Promotion related emotions			
Source	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>	Eta squared
Framing	.485	.487	.004
Feedback	64.33	.001	.320
Framing*Feedback	.056	.813	.001
Prevention related emotions			
	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>	Eta squared
Framing	.612	.435	.004
Feedback	29.76	.001	.177
Framing*Feedback	.038	.846	.001

In general, it seems that participants reacted mainly to the type of feedback. Therefore, it can be concluded that feedback manipulation was successful. Because emotions were measured just after the to-date (positive feedback) or to-go (negative feedback) manipulation, it might override the effects of framing manipulation. Therefore, results of the emotions might heavily reflect effects of feedback manipulation.

6.3 Discussion

First study tested the RFT's proposition on self-regulatory orientation and feedback valence at a single goal context in order to clarify controversial findings. Second study tested this proposition in a multiple goal environment for the first time. In the second study, it was hypothesized that under fit conditions participants would allocate more effort to the focal goal as compared to the

alternative goal. Besides, it was expected that under non-fit conditions compared to the fit conditions, they would allocate more resources to the alternative goal. Results supported the hypotheses for both promotion and prevention fit conditions.

However, the results were in expected direction for time allocation but not for effort allocation. It is possible that the participants intended to put effort on both goals since both of the goals were formulized as equally important and desired end-states. Thus, effort allocation might have reflected the participants' desire to attain end-states rather than allocating limited resources. Besides, because effort allocation was more abstract in its nature as compared to the time allocation, it might have failed to reflect the goal competition. Put differently, participants might simply have reported that they wanted to reach both goals by reporting similarly high levels of effort allocation, but when they had to allocate time, they made decision between the goals in favor of self-regulatory orientation.

Results showed that the fit between regulatory orientations and feedback valence led to an increase in the motivation, which was depicted by increased allocated time. These results, for the first time, confirmed the RFT's basic premises under multiple goal pursuit situations. Accordingly, Higgins (2000) proposed that pursuing a goal under fitting conditions would increase motivation because of the 'feeling right' experience and sense of 'I am doing it in a proper way'. Furthermore, this proposition was established under multiple goal-pursuit conditions created by equally important and attractive goals. In the current study, regulatory focus was primed using unrelated studies paradigm at a different session, so that the competing goals had no weight in terms of aspirations (promotion) or obligations (prevention). Thus, results suggest that when participants in a specific regulatory context, they are more likely to allocate sources to the goal which signals matching information about the goal progress.

Results supported both cybernetic models and attitude research on feedback effects on multiple goal-pursuit. On the one hand, in line with the cybernetic models' propositions (Carver & Scheier, 1998), participants allocated more

resources to the alternative goal after positive feedback only under prevention non-fit condition and allocated more resources to the focal goal after negative feedback only under prevention fit condition. On the other hand, in accordance with the attitude research (e.g., Fishbach et al., 2009), participants allocated more resources to the alternative goal after negative feedback only under promotion non-fit condition and allocated more resources to focal goal after positive feedback only under promotion fit condition. Hence, regulatory fit theory shed some light on the controversial propositions on how feedback valence influences resource allocation under multiple goal-pursuit.

Results can also be interpreted in another way considering the premises of cybernetic model. Given that the participants perceived goals slightly preventive (evaluations below the mid-point on goal-type question), an incidental fit situation rather than integral fit might have occurred. Accordingly, prevention priming followed by a prevention task (i.e., working on courses) might have created a fit condition whereas promotion priming followed by prevention task might have created a non-fit condition. As a result, participants might have responded to positive or negative feedback under previously created fit or non-fit situation. Based on this approach, it can be concluded that positive feedback on incidental fit condition and negative feedback on incidental non-fit condition increased time allocated to the alternative goal. Thus, it can be argued that the participants perceived positive feedback as progress information and negative feedback as gap information under fit conditions. Therefore, it seems that information signaling function of feedback might be processed more efficiently and fluently under the fit rather than non-fit condition. Supporting this argument, Lee and Aaker (2004) showed that processing fluency underlies the feeling right experience of regulatory fit. Accordingly, when mean and/manner of goal pursuit is compatible with the orientation, it is relatively easy to process information. Thus, under the fit conditions participants might have processed the feedback more fluently, and that in turn, might have lead to allocating resources accordingly.

Fit effects obtained in the current study are similar to the effects of self-efficacy on goal-pursuit from a control theory perspective (Vancouver, Thompson, &

Williams, 2001). Accordingly, goal-pursuers are expected to allocate more resources to the goal that have the highest self-efficacy attributions. Similarly, fit experience might have created a sense of control and mastery feelings based on the feeling right experience during the goal-pursuit, which in turn, leads to increased resource allocation.

Increased motivation under regulatory fit has also implications for successful self-regulation. In all conditions, participants allocated more effort to the alternative goal that had no progress information. Since half of the work had completed on the first goal, it seems that allocating more resources to the alternative goal is a better strategy in terms of successful self-regulation. Therefore, it can be concluded that both fit and non-fit conditions have similar self-regulatory success at least for the current study, but they have different preferences on the weighting resource allocation. However, since only imagined resource allocation was measured rather than actual motivation, further studies are needed to clarify self-regulatory success under (non)fit conditions.

On the one hand, increased motivation under fit conditions has a potential to increase the likelihood of successful attainment. Since, increased motivation on one goal due to the feeling right experience would lead to shielding that focal goal against alternative goals. Such shielding is one of the factors that increase the successful goal attainment (Kuhl & Beckmann, 1994). On the other hand, increased motivation because of the fit might cause rumination especially on the unattainable goals (Jostmann & Koole, 2009). Fit experience occurs when self-regulatory orientation and the mean or manner of goal pursuit matches independent from the outcome itself. Therefore, goal-pursuer might fail to detect probability of successful attainment.

Third study was designed to empirically explain above arguments by adding a goal type in terms of promotion and prevention goals. Because, in real-life settings, multiple goals might have distinct self-regulatory characteristics and/or they may provoke different self-regulatory orientations. For instance, an academic goal may be perceived as a promotion or prevention goal based on the subjective

experiences of the goal-pursuer (Higgins, 1997). As a result, consideration of the goal-type would increase our knowledge on resource allocation under multiple goal-pursuit situations.



CHAPTER 7

STUDY 3

In the third study, the findings of previous studies were extended by adding goal content for both the focal and competing alternative goals. In the second study, both goals were pursued and evaluated from the same regulatory focus. However, in daily lives, multiple goals might be pursued using different regulatory foci. Besides, it is likely that different goals might provoke different regulatory foci based on the past experience (Higgins, 1997). For instance, an academic goal might be perceived as a prevention goal to meet standards of the parents or it might be perceived as a promotion goal to achieve intellectual aspirations. Thus, adding a specific goal-type in terms of regulatory focus would strengthen the convergence of the findings to the real-life setting. Accordingly, goals were formulized –framed- as either a promotive or a preventive goal to investigate the further effects of resource allocation under (non)fit conditions. For this aim, regulatory focus was framed in an ambient situation as embedded framing within the task. In the second study, regulatory foci were primed previous to the experimental task by an irrelevant task and its carryover effects were examined. By doing so, both goals were perceived from the same regulatory orientation. In the current study, however, each goal was framed using promotion or prevention sensitivities. Therefore, each goal was perceived based on the framing strategy targeted to that goal. In order to prevent a potential confusion, the terms of ideal frame and ought frame were used for the alternative goal framing replacing promotion and prevention framing, respectively.

In this study, it was expected that under less intense motivational conditions created by non-fit, resources would be allocated to the ought alternative goal. That is, under non-fit conditions with less intense motivational state, loss (i.e., ought alternative goal) would be weighed more than the gain (i.e., ideal alternative goal) since loss situations create stronger motivational pull than the gain situations (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979). Considering the fit-conditions, ‘feeling right’

experience would divert resources to the fitting alternative goal. Furthermore, this action would be compatible with the desire to be consistent on goal-pursuit actions (Fishbach & Finkelstein, 2012). Therefore, allocating resource to the alternative goal consistent with the previous fit is assumed to have a stronger motivational state than the non-fitting goal, and creates sense of efficient goal-pursuit. Hypotheses were as follows;

H 1: Non-fit between focal goal and feedback would lead to allocation of resources to ought alternative goal as compared to ideal alternative goal. Under low motivational situations as in non-fit, participants would divert their attention to ought goal to meet security.

H 2: The fit between promotion focal goal and positive feedback would lead to allocation of resources to the ideal alternative goal to maintain a consistency on gain.

H 3: Fit between prevention focal goal and negative feedback would lead to allocation of sources to ought alternative goal to provide security at least on one goal.

7.1 Method

7.1.1 Participants

One hundred and ninety participants attended to the study from two different state universities of Ankara, Yıldırım Beyazıt University ($N = 125$, 65.8 %) and Middle East Technical University ($N = 65$, 34.2 %). Participants were freshmen or sophomores at psychology department. Participants were randomly assigned one of the experimental conditions considering all of the possible conditions. The majority of the participants were female ($N = 147$, 77.4 %), while 3 of the participants did not report their gender. The average age of the participants was 20.95 ($SD = 3.28$, Range = 18-53).

7.1.2 Materials

In order to manipulate focal goal and alternative goal types in terms of regulatory orientation framing and feedback type in terms of positive and negative valance, eight different scenarios were prepared. All of the scenarios were identical except for the manipulation parts. Focal goal and alternative goals were decided at a pilot study on a similar sample with the main study. Fifty undergraduates from Middle East Technical University were asked to write their current life-goals to an open-ended question as a part of different study. Responses were grouped on four main categories; academic goals, close relationship goals, financial goals, and moral goals. Since close relationship and moral goals have more abstract and long-distant end-states and academic goals and financial goals have more concrete short-distant end-states, academic and financial goals were selected for the main study.

Similar to the previous study, questions for manipulation check were about resource and effort allocation on the alternative goal.

7.1.3 Procedure

A 2 (promotion; prevention focus focal goal framing) X 2 (positive; negative feedback) X 2 (ideal; ought alternative goal framing) between subjects design were tested. Participants read a scenario including two competing goals and they were asked to allocate resources on alternative goal. Focal goal was an academic goal, concerned working on courses to get better grades for graduate school applications. In the promotion goal condition, participants read ‘your ideal is to qualify for the grad school. You wish to accomplish all courses in this semester with good grades since you feel eager to continue your academic career. You are working 18 hours per week to attain your goal’. In the prevention goal condition, participants read ‘your responsibility is to qualify for the grad school. You have to meet all of the course standards in this semester with required grades since you thought you have to maintain your academic career. You are working 18 hours per week to meet your goal’.

In the positive feedback condition, participants read the feedback stating that ‘so far everything is going well, you have successful grades from midterms’. In the negative feedback condition, participants read the feedback stating that ‘so far everything is not going well, you have unsuccessful grades from midterms’.

Then, all of the participants were confronted with a competing goal that was formulized as a financial goal. In the promotion competing goal condition (adapted from Louro, Peeters, & Zeelenberg, 2007), participants read the feedback stating that ‘on your way to dormitory, you keep thinking about your hopes and aspirations that how would be good to find a way to earn extra money for travelling with friends or for buying new stuff even though you are focused on academic goals. Later, you saw an announcement at the library offering a part-time job for arrangement of the shelves. These positions do not open often and are highly sought after. You talked with the manager of the library and she offered you to start working. You would like to accept the offer because your ideal is to gain some extra money. The library job is, for now, on a trial basis. The decision of whether or not to hire you permanently for the semester will be based on the quality of your work. You are thinking that you can accomplish and gain a permanent position since you are eager to earn extra money. The job will start tomorrow and you may choose to work between 6 to 18 hours each week. The library manager needs an answer today. You only have a few minutes to think about this, and then make a decision’.

In the prevention competing goal condition, participants read ‘on your way to dormitory, you keep thinking about your duties and obligations that how would be good to find a way to earn extra money for meeting the life standards and not to be fall short before month ends even though you are focused on academic goals. Later, you saw an announcement at the library offering a part-time job for arrangement of the shelves. These positions do not open often and are highly sought after. You talked with the manager of the library and she offered you to start working. You thought to accept the offer because your responsibility is to earn some extra money. The library job is, for now, on a trial basis. The decision of whether or not to hire you permanently for the semester will be based on the

quality of your work. You are thinking that you can meet the standard and not lose a permanent position since you are vigilant to earn extra money. The job will start tomorrow and you may choose to work between 6 to 18 hours each week. The library manager needs an answer today. You only have a few minutes to think about this, and then make a decision'. All types of scenarios and following questionnaires were presented at Appendix F.

Next, to measure motivation to study for the goals as dependent measure, participants indicated how much effort they would allocate to pursue each goal on a 10-point likert scale adapted from Louro et al. (2007) ('How hard will you work to satisfy academic/financial goal?'). Participants also indicated the amount of time they would put for alternative goal up to 18 hours (0 hours for alternative goal refers to not accepting job).

For manipulation checks, adapted forms of the questions used in the second study were applied. Participants were thanked and debriefed using the same strategy with previous studies.

7.2 Results

7.2.1 Hypotheses Testing

A series of 2 (promotion; prevention focus framing) X 2 (positive; negative feedback) X 2 (ideal; ought alternative goal framing) between subjects design on and economic (alternative) goal effort, and time allocated to economic goal with academic and economic goal importance as covariates, were conducted. Main dependent variable was allocated time to the alternative goal as an indication of motivation, similar to the previous studies in the literature. Besides, to support the findings on time, effort that participants were willing to allocate on both focal and academic goal were tested as dependent variable. Means and standard deviations on the allocated time were presented at Table 10.

Table 10. Means and Standard Deviations for Resource Allocation

<i>Feedback</i>	Promotion				Prevention			
	Positive		Negative		Positive		Negative	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
<i>Alternative Goal</i>								
Ideal	8.35	4.08	6.56	3.59	6.88	4.20	8.31	4.44
Ought	6.86	3.74	8.46	3.50	8.84	4.60	6.79	3.72

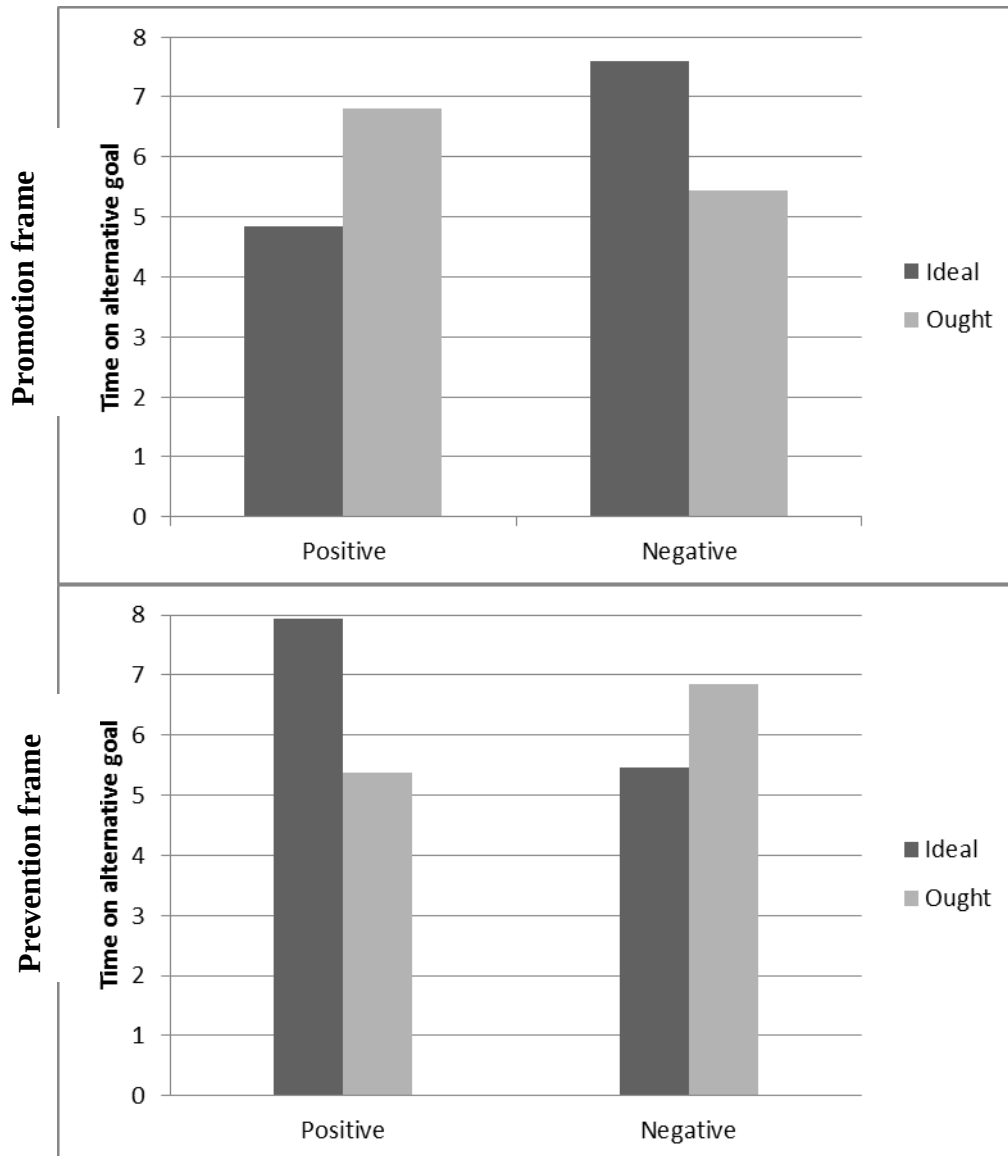
In the first series of analyses, effects of manipulations were tested on time allocated on alternative economic goal was tested. The F values, their significance, and eta squared parameters were presented at Table 11. Since the goal importance yielded significant effects at manipulation check phase, results were presented and discussed with the model including covariates.

Among the covariates, both academic goal importance ($F(1, 189) = 8.92, p < .05$) and economic goal importance ($F(1, 189) = 22.77, p < .001$) yielded significant effects. After controlling for the effects of covariates, no significant main effects and two-way interactions were observed. However, three-way interaction was significant ($F(1, 189) = 19.78, p < .001$). Further comparisons with the bonferroni adjustment revealed that among the participants in the ideal (alternative) goal condition who received positive feedback to their promotion focal goal allocated more time to economic (alternative) goal ($M = 7.94, SE = .63$) than those in the ought alternative goal condition, who received positive feedback to their promotion framed focal goal ($M = 5.37, SE = .62; F(1, 180) = 8.37, p < .05$). The effects were not significant on ideal against ought alternative goal frames, who received negative feedback to their promotion framed focal goal (Figure 6).

Table 11. Results of the ANOVA on Allocated Time on Economic Goal

	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>	η^2
<i>Covariates</i>			
Academic goal importance	8.92	.003	.047
Economic goal importance	22.77	.001	.112
<i>Study Variables</i>			
Focal goal frame	.27	.604	.002
Feedback type	.04	.842	.001
Alternative goal frame	.54	.463	.003
Frame1*Feedback type	1.63	.203	.009
Frame1*Frame2	.29	.593	.002
Feedback type*Frame2	.01	.935	.001
Frame1*Feedback type*Frame2	19.78	.001	.099

Figure 5. Plotting Interaction between Focal Goal Framing, Feedback, and Alternative Goal Framing on Allocated Time on Economic Goal



Among the prevention focal goal framed participants with the positive feedback for that goal, ought alternative goal framed ones ($M = 6.81$, $SE = .67$) significantly allocated more time on that goal as compared to ideal alternative goal framed participants ($M = 4.85$, $SE = .67$; $F(1, 180) = 4.27$, $p < .05$). This pattern was reversed for negative feedback condition ($F(1, 180) = 5.59$, $p < .05$). Accordingly, as depicted in Figure 6 above participants who received negative

feedback to their prevention framed focal goal allocated more time to the alternative goal when it was ideal framed ($M = 7.59$, $SE = .67$) than it was ought framed ($M = 5.43$, $SE = .63$).

In the second set of analyses, mean level of effort that participants were willing to allocate to the economic alternative goal was tested. The F values and their significance with eta squared parameters were presented at Table 12.

According to the model with covariates included, only economic alternative goal importance had significant effect ($F(1, 189) = 64.57$, $p < .001$). Academic goal importance was not significant. After the effects of covariates were controlled for, the main effects of manipulations and their two-way interactions had no significant effects. Three-way interaction, however, was significant on the allocated effort to the alternative economic goal ($F(1, 189) = 6.16$, $p < .05$).

Table 12. Results of ANOVA on Allocated Effort on Economic Goal

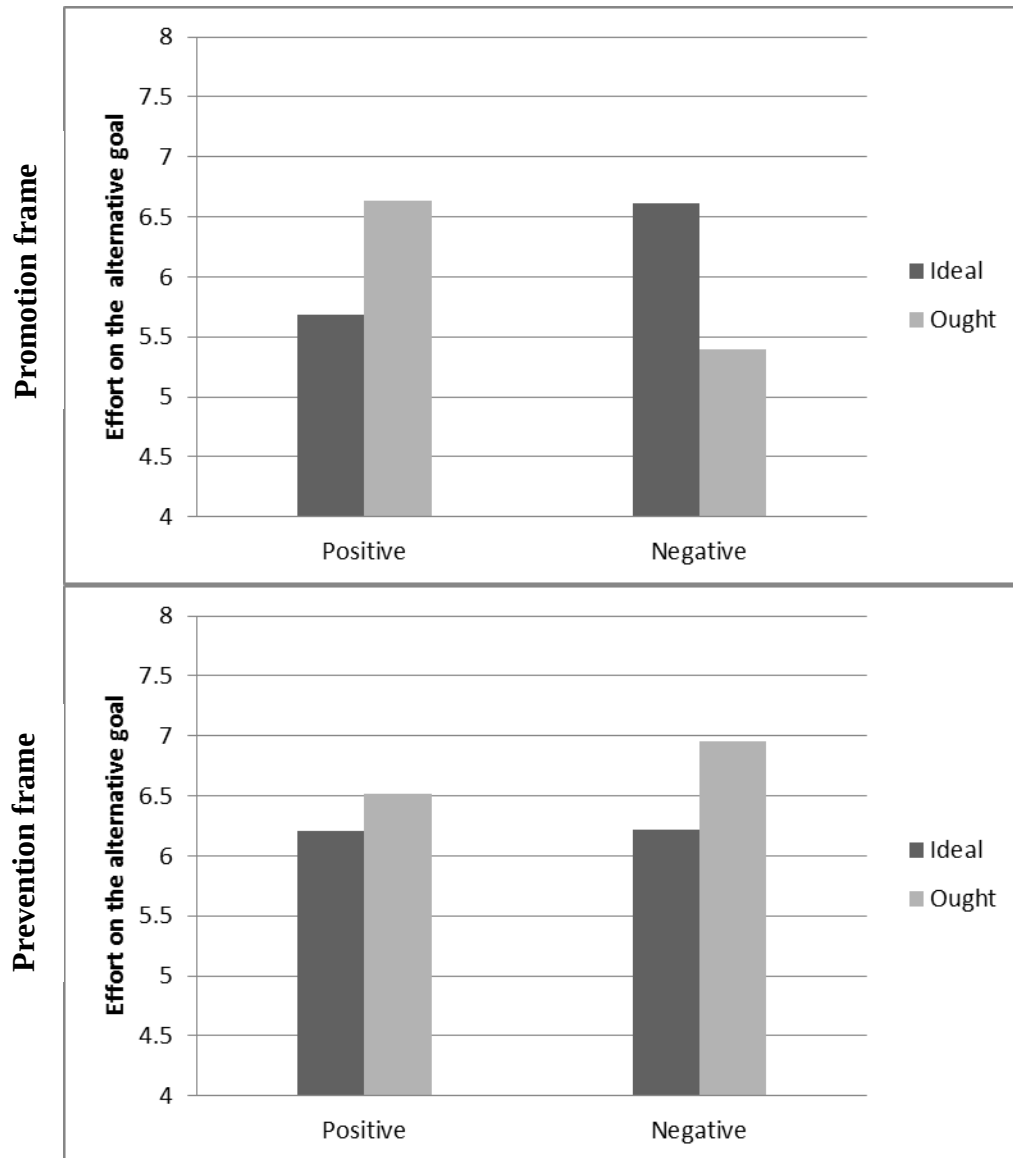
	F	P	η^2
<i>Covariates</i>			
Academic goal importance	1.24	.267	.007
Economic goal importance	64.57	.001	.264
<i>Study Variables</i>			
Focal goal frame	2.27	.134	.012
Feedback type	.02	.887	.001
Alternative goal frame	.53	.469	.003
Frame1*Feedback type	.52	.471	.003
Frame1*Frame2	1.61	.206	.009
Feedback type*Frame2	2.75	.099	.015
Frame1*Feedback type*Frame2	6.16	.014	.033

Further analyses on exploring the nature of three-way interaction revealed significant results only for prevention focal goal framing condition (Figure 7). Comparisons on prevention focal goal framed participants who received positive feedback yielded marginally significant effect ($F(1, 180) = 3.00$, $p = .085$).

Accordingly, among the participants who received positive feedback to their prevention framed focal goal allocated more effort on their alternative goal when it was in ought framed ($M = 6.63$, $SE = .39$) than it was in ideal framed condition ($M = 5.68$, $SE = .39$). This pattern was reversed when feedback type was negative. Participants in the ideal framed alternative goal condition ($M = 6.61$, $SE = .39$) allocated more effort to that goal than participants in the ought framed alternative goal condition ($M = 5.40$, $SE = .36$), when negative feedback was received for prevention framed focal goal ($F(1, 180) = 5.40$, $p < .05$). Comparisons on promotion framing conditions were not significant.



Figure 6. Plotting Interaction between Focal Goal Framing, Feedback, and Alternative Goal Framing on Allocated Effort on Economic Goal



In the last series of analyses, hypotheses were tested on allocated effort on academic focal goal. Results were presented at Table 13. The results of the covariates included model showed that academic ($F(1, 189) = 55.01, p < .001$) and economic goal ($F(1, 189) = 5.54, p < .05$) importance yielded significant effects. However, main effects, two-way interactions, and three-way interaction were all not significant. Only feedback type had a marginally significant main

effect on academic goal effort ($F(1, 189) = 3.69, p = .056$). Accordingly, participants who received positive feedback ($M = 8.66, SE = .14$) reported more effort on academic goal than the participants who received negative feedback ($M = 8.29, SE = .14$).

Table 13. Results of ANOVA on Allocated Effort on Academic Goal

	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>	η^2
<i>Covariates</i>			
Academic goal importance	55.01	.001	.234
Economic goal importance	5.54	.020	.030
<i>Study Variables</i>			
Focal goal frame	.29	.594	.002
Feedback type	3.69	.056	.020
Alternative goal frame	.72	.40	.004
Frame1*Feedback type	.34	.560	.002
Frame1*Frame2	.04	.835	.001
Feedback type*Frame2	.01	.920	.001
Frame1*Feedback type*Frame2	.22	.644	.001

Main analyses for hypotheses testing were conducted with promotion and prevention related emotions as covariates. None of the covariates influenced the significance of proposed effects.

Overall, results provided partial support for the proposed hypotheses. Specifically, the participants with prevention prime allocated more effort and time for the ought alternative goal after receiving positive feedback which indicated security meeting concerns than the ideal alternative goal as stated at the first hypothesis. However, the same non-fit condition for those with promotion frame did not yield significant effect. Considering the second hypothesis, promotion framed participants allocated more time to ideal alternative goal after receiving positive feedback. Thus, the results supported the hypothesis that those with promotion fit participants allocated their time based on the preference for consistent goal-

pursuit actions. This hypothesis did not confirmed by allocated effort on alternative goal. Finally, analyses also showed contradictory findings regarding the third hypothesis. Prevention primed participants allocated more time to the ideal alternative goal after receiving negative feedback though they were expected to allocate more time on the ought alternative goal.

7.2.2 Supplementary Analyses

In the supplementary analyses, an alternative approach was tested. Although it was not hypothesized, a possible incidental fit experience based on the focal and alternative goal framing was tested. Considering a potential incidental fit effects in the first (culture and framing) and second study (priming and task), testing possible incidental fit effects would be informative on resource allocation process. To test these effects, two groups were created using the goal framing conditions. Specifically, participants those who received promotion focal goal and ideal alternative goal framing, and prevention focal goal and ought alternative goal framing were assigned to the fit condition, and remaining of the participants was assigned to the non-fit condition. A two (fit; non-fit) X 2 (positive; negative feedback) between subjects design on allocated time on the economic (alternative) goal with academic and economic goal importance as covariates, was conducted. Means and standard deviations were presented at Table 14.

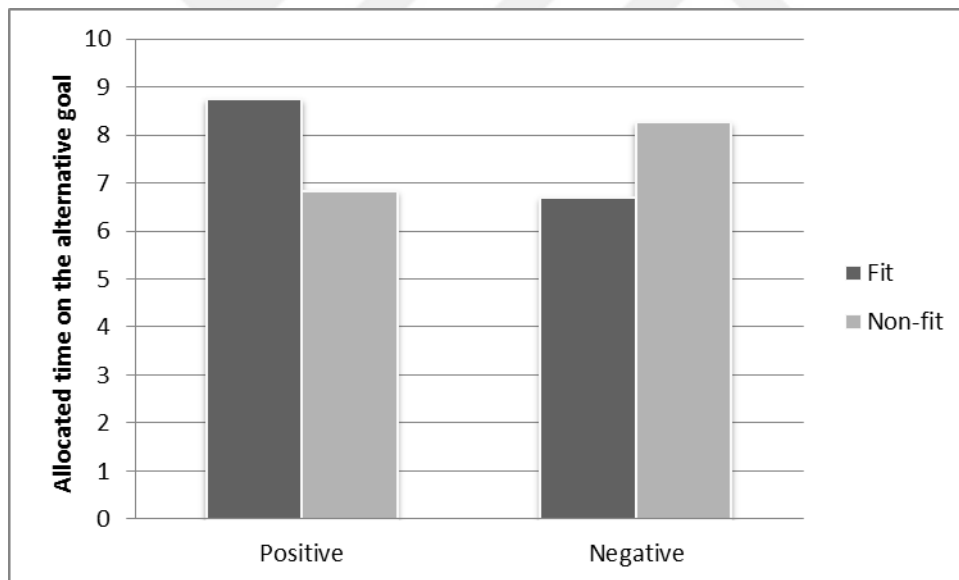
Table 14. Means and Standard Deviations for Resource Allocation Based on (Non)fit

	Fit		Non-fit	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
<i>Feedback</i>				
Positive	8.59	4.31	6.87	3.94
Negative	6.67	3.63	8.39	3.96

Among the covariates, economic goal importance ($F(1, 259) = 31.85, p < .001$) yielded significant effects. After controlling for the effects of covariates, no

significant main effects were observed. However, two-way interaction was significant ($F(1, 259) = 14.29, p < .001$). Further comparisons with the bonferroni adjustment revealed that among the participants in the fit condition those who received positive feedback allocated more time to economic (alternative) goal ($M = 8.74, SE = .47$) than those who received negative feedback ($M = 6.69, SE = .46$; $F(1, 259) = 9.85, p < .01$)(Figure 8). This pattern was reversed for the non-fit condition. Accordingly, among the participants in the non-fit condition those who received negative feedback allocated more time to economic (alternative) goal ($M = 8.26, SE = .47$) than those who received positive feedback ($M = 6.83, SE = .46$; $F(1, 259) = 4.82, p < .05$).

Figure 7. Plotting the Interaction between on Allocated Time on Economic Goal



Overall, results revealed that the fit experience between focal and alternative goal draw participants' attention to the alternative goal when they received positive feedback. Besides, non-fit between multiple goals frames draw participants' attention to the alternative goal when they received negative feedback.

7.2.3 Manipulation Checks

In order to check effectiveness of manipulations, a series of independent samples *t*-tests were conducted. Mean values, standard deviations and *t* values were presented in Table 15. First, regulatory orientation manipulation on the academic goal was tested on academic goal importance, goal attractiveness, academic goal type in terms of self-regulatory perception, and goal conflict. Evaluations on goal conflict yielded expected results that promotion ($M = .16$, $SD = 3.07$) and prevention ($M = -.39$, $SD = 3.10$) framed participants perceived goal competition similarly ($t < 1.23$, ns). This result also indicated that goal competition rated around mid-point of the scale that the goals were not perceived as competing to a large extent. However, since the time allocation task forced the participants to make a choice within a limited time period, their decisions reflected the goal competition in its nature. Thus, it is possible that participants did not perceived the goals as extremely competing while they were rating the goal competition question just after reading the scenario, but it was assumed that goal competition was provided by forcing participants to allocate their limited time. Results on the goal type question revealed the expected results that promotion framed participants perceived academic goal more ‘aspired’ than prevention framed participants ($M = 7.78$, $SD = 2.77$, $M = 6.36$, $SD = 2.92$; for promotion and prevention frame respective, $t(188) = 3.43$, $p < .001$). Results on the goal attractiveness also supported the hypothesis that both promotion ($M = 9.28$, $SD = 1.20$) and prevention ($M = 9.07$, $SD = 1.10$; $t < 1.30$, ns) framed participants perceived the goals as similarly attractive. However, there were also unexpected results regarding the goal importance evaluations. Participants framed with promotion focus ($M = 8.88$, $SD = 1.22$) perceived academic goal more important than participants framed with prevention focus ($M = 8.45$, $SD = 1.41$; $t(188) = 2.24$, $p < .05$). It was expected that regardless of the regulatory focus framing participants would perceive goals as similarly important. Therefore, to control the confounding effects of academic goal importance, it was controlled for as the covariate variable in further analyses.

The same analyses were conducted for goal conflict, economic goal importance, goal type, and attractiveness with economic goal framing as grouping factor. Results demonstrated that promotion ($M = -.37$, $SD = 3.06$) and prevention ($M = .16$, $SD = 3.11$) framed participants perceived academic and economic goal conflict at similar levels on the goal conflict question with no significant difference ($t > -1.17$, ns). The question on economic goal type revealed the expected results that promotion framed participants ($M = 5.69$, $SD = 3.14$) perceived the goal more 'aspired' than the prevention framed participants ($M = 4.20$, $SD = 2.80$; $t(188) = 3.46$, $p < .001$). Besides, economic goal was perceived as similarly attractive to both promotion ($M = 7.90$, $SD = 2.00$) and prevention ($M = 8.28$, $SD = 1.68$; $t > -1.40$, ns) framed participants, as expected. However, prevention framed participants ($M = 7.23$, $SD = 1.97$) perceived economic goal more important than promotion framed participants ($M = 6.34$, $SD = 2.25$; $t(188) = 2.88$, $p < .05$). Considering that regulatory frame conditions would not differ on goal importance, economic goal importance will be treated as covariate in the further analyses in which allocated time and effort on economic goal were used as dependent variables.

Finally, different feedback groups were tested on their evaluation of feedback type. Accordingly, as predicted, participants receiving positive feedback ($M = 2.66$, $SD = 1.89$) rated the feedback more positive as compared to those receiving negative feedback ($M = .30$, $SD = 2.58$), as expected ($t(185) = 7.14$, $p < .001$).

Table 15. Means, Standard Deviations and t Values for Manipulation Check Variables

	Promotion frame		Prevention frame		
	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t</i>
<i>Academic Goal</i>					
Importance	8.79	1.22	8.45	1.42	2.24*
Conflict	.16	3.07	-.39	3.10	1.22
Goal type	7.78	2.77	6.36	2.92	3.43**
Attractiveness	9.28	1.20	9.07	1.10	1.30
<i>Economic Goal</i>					
Importance	6.34	2.25	7.23	1.97	-2.88*
Conflict	-.37	.3.06	.16	3.11	-1.16
Goal type	5.69	3.14	4.20	2.80	3.46**
Attractiveness	7.90	2.00	8.28	1.68	-1.41
Feedback Type	Positive feedback		Negative feedback		
Feedback evaluation	2.66	1.89	.30	2.58	7.14**

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .005$

Overall, all of the tests for manipulation check revealed the expected results except for goal importance. As expected, participants perceived both goals as similarly attractive and conflicting regardless of their experimental condition. Furthermore, expected differences were observed among the goal type and feedback type. Promotion framed participants in both focal and alternative goal perceived the goals more idealized and/or aspired as compared to prevention framed participants. Similarly, positive feedback was perceived as more positive than negative feedback. Unexpectedly, significant differences were found on goal importance for both goals. Since the participants were university undergraduates, they might have perceived academic goal in terms of aspiration while they might have perceived economic goal in terms of obligation. Goal importance was treated as covariate at the analyses to rule out its possible effects. However, these findings

should be replicated in the future studies by using different goals to be able to generalize the current findings.

7.2.4 Emotions

In order to test the effects of feedback type on emotion evaluations, two 2 (promotion framing; prevention framing) X 2 (positive feedback; negative feedback) X 2 (ideal; ought alternative goal framing) mixed design ANOVAs were conducted on two types of emotions. According to the results of promotion related emotions, only feedback had a significant main effect ($F(1, 187) = 7.07, p < .05$). As a result, participants who took positive feedback ($M = 4.40, SE = .14$) reported higher positive promotion related emotions than the participants who took negative feedback ($M = 3.89, SE = .14$). Results for prevention related emotions yielded only marginally significant effect for feedback type ($F(1, 187) = 2.82, p = .095$). Negative feedback condition ($M = 5.24, SE = .14$) made participants feel more negative prevention related emotions than positive feedback condition ($M = 4.91, SD = .14$). All other comparisons revealed insignificant effects. Thus, it seems that feedback manipulation affected participants' emotions to some extent in an expected way. Since regulatory fit theory proposes that fit effect is independent from the expected effects of emotions, further analyses were run on emotion evaluations to test basic premises of the theory.

7.3 Discussion

In the second study, regulatory orientations were manipulated at a supposedly different session and its subsequent carryover effects were tested on the same type goals. Third study, however, used a different method in which goals were framed using regulatory orientations. This kind of ambient framing is important since most of the research devoted to goal-pursuit have used priming techniques in which tasks are pursued in a fixed regulatory context (Watling et al., 2012). However, in real life settings, different goals may be perceived in distinct ways in terms of regulatory focus or different goals may provoke distinct regulatory foci at the same time.

In the third study, it was hypothesized that under non-fit conditions participants would allocate more resources to the ought alternative goal. Because motivational intensity for the focal goal would be low due to the non-fit and among the alternatives, providing security (ought goal) have more motivational intensity than gain (ideal goal). In addition, under both fit conditions, participants would allocate more resources to the same type of alternative goal with the focal goal. Because, goal-directed actions, consistent with the previous ones, are more likely to be selected during the goal-pursuit (Fishbach & Finkelstein, 2012).

Results of the third study provided partial support for the hypotheses. Participants in the promotion fit condition allocated more resources to ideal goal than ought goal, whereas promotion non-fit condition revealed insignificant effects. Moreover, as expected, participants in the prevention non-fit condition allocated more resources to the ought alternative goal as compared to the ideal alternative goal. However, prevention fit condition revealed unexpected effects. Specifically, they allocated more time to the ideal alternative goal as compared to the ought alternative goal. Results on the effort allocation revealed similar results with resource allocation on the prevention fit, however, the promotion fit and non-fit condition revealed insignificant results.

Individuals' desire to be consistent might underlie the effects on allocating resources to the alternative goal matching with the previous focal goal. One of the important findings of goal-pursuit research is the inclination to express stable preferences over time on goal-directed action (Harmon-Jones & Mills, 1999). Hence, positive feedback on completed actions increases the likelihood of selecting similar actions. In the current study, positive feedback to the promotion focus created a sense of 'doing it in a proper way' within the fit experience which leads to increased motivation. Besides, feeling of 'being in charge' created by regulatory fit might increase this consistency inclination. Thus, fit effect would divert individuals' attention to invest more on similar goals. By this way, they both maintain consistency on their goal-directed actions and their sense of effective functioning. This type of action is formulized as control effectiveness by RFT (Higgins, 2012). In view of that maintaining regulatory fit by choosing

similar actions to regulatory orientation is assumed to provide more efficient goal-pursuit. It should be noted that the sense of efficiency is a subjective experience rather than actual efficient goal-pursuit indicating successful self-regulation.

In the second study, promotion fit led to increased motivation on the focal goal. Third study extended the results of the second study by demonstrating one of the possible conditions in which promotion fit leads to coasting instead of persistence. Accordingly, it seems that if the alternative goal provides an opportunity for additional gain rather than potential threat of loss, promotion fit leads to goal balancing to some extent. It should be noted that only resource allocation to the alternative goal was examined in the current study. Recently, such boundary conditions of fit experience have attracted attention from researchers. Wang and Lee (2006) reported that high involvement conditions with increased engagement might undermine the effects of fit experience. Hence, future research investigating the boundary conditions of regulatory fit has potential to advance our knowledge on dynamic self-regulation.

For instance, in one of these studies, participants' level of involvement to the task was manipulated by informing them that their opinion is very important (in a small group) or not important (in a big group) (Wang & Lee, 2006). Results revealed that regulatory fit had a significant effect on participants' information search and judgments only under low involvement conditions. According to the results, it can be concluded that the high involvement condition with increased engagement undermined the effects of fit experience.

Unexpectedly, results showed that increased motivation under prevention fit condition was diverted to the ideal alternative goal. However, since the prevention focused individuals are vigilant to loss situations, they would allocate resources to ought alternative goal to meet their security needs on that goal. Similar unexpected results regarding the choosing non-fitting strategy were found in a recent study. Scholer, Stroessner, and Higgins (2008) in their series of studies, gave participants negative and positive valenced words followed by a recall task. Their findings showed that both promotion and prevention focused participants

showed risky bias against negative valenced words. That is, they were inclined to say ‘yes, it is an old one’ to the words in order to hit old words as a gain strategy. Nevertheless, RFT proposes that conservative bias rather than risky bias fits with prevention focus (e.g., Crowe & Higgins, 1997; Friedman & Förster, 2001). Thus, as in the findings of the current study, prevention framed participants focused on the promotive goal.

Prevention system overload might be the underlying reason for the unexpected results. That is, prevention goal in terms of duties and obligations and negative feedback have a potential to create an intense situation for the participants. As a result, getting away from such strong threat might become a paramount concern.

One of the possible explanations underlying the unexpected results might be the effect of increased stress under prevention fit condition. Since previous research on prevention fit has been focused on single goal-pursuit contexts, whether it leads to increased stress as well as increased motivation under multiple goal-pursuit is unclear. Scholer and Higgins (2010) reported indirect evidence from an unpublished data that prevention fit participants showed more stress as compared to promotion fit participants (Grant et al., 2007). Therefore, increased stress under prevention fit condition with the additive effects of competing alternative goal might have created an intense situation. Thus, in order to get away from the stress, allocating resources to the ideal alternative goal rather than ought one might be preferred by prevention fit participants.

It should be noted that the current study didn’t address whether turning to ideal alternative goal rather than meeting security demands is a self-regulation failure. Accordingly, if allocating resources on the ought alternative goal rather than the ideal alternative goal following a failure on focal, is merely a stress-reduction strategy, it might have detrimental effects on alternative goal-pursuit. Consequently, further clarification on whether relevant features of alternative goal such as the level of completion are considered for successful self-regulation is needed to better understand the dynamics of resource allocation under these conditions.

Results of the supplementary analysis have potential to further our understanding of resource allocation process. Parallel with the interpretations on the second study using the incidental fit perspective, participants allocated more time to the alternative goal when they received positive feedback under the fit condition. Therefore, results of the supplementary analysis extended the possible incidental fit effects to the multiple goal-pursuit condition, which was created by distinct goal-types.

Overall, resource allocation on distinct type of multiple goals as a characteristic of real-life goal-pursuit seems to have different dynamics than single goal situations and it has critical implications for motivation and decision making for alternative tasks having compatible importance. Therefore, more research and alternative approaches are needed to better understand the dynamic nature of self-regulation.

CHAPTER 8

GENERAL DISCUSSION

The objective of this dissertation was to examine the moderating role of the regulatory fit on resource allocation under multiple goal-pursuit situations. Besides it was also aimed to test one of the basic premises of RFT on the fit between regulatory orientation and feedback valence before extending it to the multiple goal-pursuit environment. Results of these studies showed that regulatory fit (non-fit) moderates the effects of feedback on resource allocation. In general, feedback valence compatible with the self-regulatory orientation led to allocation of resources on the focal goal whereas incompatible feedback led to allocation of resources to the other goal.

In this light, one of the contributions of the current research was to provide data from a non-Western culture on regulatory orientation and feedback valence fit. As seen in the previous research on this premise, the results have partially supported the hypotheses. Specifically, the findings in this dissertation mostly supported the propositions regarding prevention focus – negative feedback fit, but failed to support promotion focus – positive feedback fit condition. Considering the relatively preventive nature of the non-Western cultures (e.g., Üskül et. al., 2008), results might indicate a potential interaction between global prevention focus and framing. Thus, participants might have responded to feedback under already existing fit or non-fit situations created by an incidental fit between preventive cultural context and the framing of the anagrams. However, since the global regulatory orientations have not been examined in the current study, further research is necessary to clarify the effects of the interaction between trait (dispositional) and state effects of self-regulatory orientation.

A second contribution of the current research was to explore the moderating role of the regulatory fit on the resource allocation under the context of multiple goal-pursuit. Second study showed that regulatory fit increased the resource allocation on the focal goal while regulatory non-fit led to coasting. Third study extended the findings of the second study by adding goal type to further explore the dynamics

of resource allocation process. It was found that promotion fit leads to allocation of resources to the compatible alternative goal, whereas prevention fit leads to allocation of resources to the incompatible alternative goal. Thus, it seems that increased engagement and/or feeling right experience led to allocation of resources on the goal that provides the compatible (or congruent) progress information.

These studies were the first attempts to explore the effects of the interaction between regulatory orientation and feedback valence on the resource allocation under multiple goal-pursuit. Further attempts are required to increase generalizability of the findings. Furthermore, exploring mediating factors such as goal commitment and goal expectancy are important to extend our understanding on the dynamic resource allocation process. Especially, whether or not these resource allocation preferences result in a successful self-regulation is an important remaining question. Since the fit experience are assumed to occur outside of the awareness of the goal-pursuer and independent from outcome valence (Higgins, 2000), it might lead to misevaluation of the likelihood of successful attainment. That is, feeling right experience might lead to overestimating the probability goal attainment. Thus, it is important to reexamine these effects under the conditions in which assessment of self-regulation success is available.

A third contribution of the current research was to adopt a person – situation interaction perspective on dynamic resource allocation process. After adoption of cognitive perspective, motivation-goal researchers have formulized goal-pursuit process as an interaction between goal pursuer and the environment (Bargh & Huang, 2009). However, research on dynamic self-regulation under multiple goal-pursuit context have been heavily focused only on one side of the process. Characteristics of the goal-pursuer have been misrepresented on the research focusing on the effects of the environmental factors such as feedback (e.g., Carver & Scheier, 2004). Furthermore, environmental cues have not been integrated in the research focusing on the effects of the goal pursuer's qualities such as self-efficacy (e.g., Bandura, 1991). In this study, interaction between goal-pursuer's

qualities regarding the self-regulatory orientations and the environmental factors as feedback valence was integrated to further explore the dynamic resource allocation process under multiple goal-pursuit condition. Thus, how environmental cues interact with the qualities of goal-pursers have potential to shed light on the dynamic self-regulation. Shah and his colleagues (2009) have defined the concept of ‘margins of opportunity’ considering the environmental circumstances on goal attainment. Integrating how these opportunities are perceived and reacted might provide additional knowledge.

A fourth contribution of the current research was to shed some light on the potential hierarchy between self-regulatory orientations. In the third study, prevention non-fit participants allocated more time on the ought alternative goal. It is possible that lower motivational intensity allowed non-fit participants to divert their attention to another prevention goal. Considering the results of the first study, it can be concluded that providing security, which is regulated by prevention orientation, might precede promotion orientation under multiple goal-pursuit situations especially under lower motivational conditions as non-fit. Thus, maintaining vigilance on security by allocating resources was preferred over turning to advancement after successful progress. “Loss looms larger effect” characterized by greater concern for loss than gain might play role on this strategy (see Kahneman & Tversky, 1979). Thus, all else being equal, prevention goals seem to attract more resources than promotion goals but under low motivation only.

Although it was out of the scope of this research, potential incidental fit effects interacting with feedback valence were also considered. Fit between global regulatory orientation and framing in the first study, regulatory orientation priming and prevention task in the second study, and focal goal and alternative goal in the third study can be interpreted altogether. In other words, the results of the three studies can be reinterpreted in a way that the negative feedback to the fit conditions leads to allocation of resources to that goal and positive feedback to the fit conditions leads to allocation of resources to the alternative goal. Although reinterpretation of the results is speculative, how feedback valence is processed

under fit and non-fit condition requires further elaboration. Accordingly, it is possible that relative to non-fit condition, under fit conditions participants seem to process feedback more efficiently and fluently. Previous research documented the effect of processing fluency under fit conditions (e.g., Lee & Aaker, 2004). Thus, fit condition might lead to progress perception following positive feedback which leads to allocation of resources to the alternative goal and gap perception following negative feedback which leads to allocation of resources to the focal goal. Since global or dispositional regulatory orientations were not measured in the first study and results were reinterpreted based on the goal type evaluations in the second study, these interpretations should be treated cautiously.

Finally, the limitations of the current dissertation should be considered while interpreting the findings. First, goals were selected from the same goal dimensions. Thus, adopting different types of goals such as relationship goals would enhance the generalizability. Besides, in the third study, counterbalancing the financial and economic goals between the focal and alternative goals would eliminate the confounding effects of the goal importance. Another limitation of the current research was that all of the studies used between subjects design. Adding within subject conditions would increase the credibility of the findings. Besides, global or trait self-regulatory orientations was not measured in these studies. However, especially considering the culture-specific effects, the interaction between trait and state regulatory orientations might have played a critical role.

CHAPTER 9

CONCLUDING REMARKS

Three studies were conducted to further our understanding of the dynamic self-regulation under multiple goal-pursuit environments. Furthermore, basic premises of RFT were re-tested and extended to add knowledge on the fit effects framed by feedback valence. First, this dissertation improved our knowledge on regulatory fit theory via a replication study. Study 1 provided partial support to RFT, which suggests a culture-specific pattern and a possible hierarchical relationship between promotion and prevention focus. Considering the mixed findings of the first study and previous studies on the fit between regulatory orientation and feedback valence, further clarification is needed to explore of RFT on basic premises.

Second, initial evidence was provided on the resource allocation to multiple active goals in the context of self-regulatory fit and non-fit. Second and third study tested the regulatory fit effects using an imagination task in the multiple goal environment. Hence, this dissertation contributed to RFT by testing its propositions under competing multiple active goals. Third, this dissertation contributed to current literature in explaining the controversial and/or mixed findings for feedback effects. Regulatory fit as a moderating factor sheds light on the effects of positive and negative feedback on motivation. Thus, these studies highlighted the importance of goal-pursuer's experience in response to environmental factors such as feedback and multiple active goals.

Results of this dissertation have important implications for education, work, and health settings. Goal setting using promotive ideals and preventive oughts, and the way of providing feedback for those goals have potential to influence resource allocation. Creating a more facilitating atmosphere for goal-pursuit such as regulatory fit might improve learning and performance. Feeling right experience and control effectiveness can increase resource allocation on the focal goal leading to successful attainment. For instance, health goals such as quitting

smoking generally framed in terms of prevention goal via highlighting its threat to life. Under such circumstances positive feedback (i.e., remaining abstinent) has potential to decrease motivation and in turn it leads to higher levels of relapse. Framing goals and providing feedback accordingly might increase successful attainment to those goals.

Furthermore, identifying self-regulatory success under (non)fitting multiple goal-pursuit conditions is the next critical step. This dissertation has provided the first hand knowledge on the fit effects on resource allocation strategies. However, whether these strategies are effective for successful attainment on all aspects of goal-pursuit await further investigations.

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Appendix A Anagrams of Study

laask	kmloa	teik	eeklm	Mlkia	uatky	iilmk	aalm	hmail	Eaeftlk
sakal	lokma	etki	melek	Malik	yutak	imlik	mala	halim	Felaket
salak	olmak	etik	elmek	Ikmal	yakut	iklim	lama	hamil	Kefalet
skala		ekti	eklem	Kamil	yatuk	ilmik	amal	ihmal	
kalas		tike	kelem	Klima	aykut	kilim	alma	ilham	
alsak			emlek		kutay	milka			
kalsa									
iftair	mıayk	kkies	ktree	Itarf	zica	hlais	oplat	ırkaç	Şiret
iftira	yakım	sikke	kerte	Rafit	icaz	sahil	palto	çakır	Reşit
irtifa	yıkma	eksik	terek	tarif	caiz	silah	plato	çarık	Şerit
itiraf	kıyam	kesik	teker	Ifrat	aciz	ihlas	polat	çıkır	Teşri
tarifi	kıyma	keski		Iftar		halis	topal	çıkra	Tirşe
						ishal	topla	çırak	Işret
								kıraç	
								kaçır	

Appendix B Means and Standard Deviations of the Anagrams

4 solutions			5 solutions			6 solutions		
	M	SD		M	SD		M	SD
Mlkia	1.46	.66	LAASK	2.17	.96	TEİK	1.38	1.11
AALM	1.88	.80	Eeklm	1.83	.82	Uatky	1.88	.85
Hmail	1.20	.51	İilmk	1.63	.77	Mıayk	1.17	.76
İftair	.88	.34	HLAİS	2.17	1.17	IRKAÇ	2.13	1.04
KKİES	1.25	.85	Oplat	.78	.78			
itarf	1.33	.49	şiret	1.58	.83			

*Bold ones used at the post-feedback part of the first study

Appendix C Sample Interfaces of the Computer Software



Alıştırma

aalm

mala

Kelimenin kaydedilmesi için
'ENTER' TUŞUNA BASIN

Sonraki!

Çalışmada çözdüğünüz anagramlar karşılığında 2 puan bonus kazanacaksınız. Ancak, çalışmaya gerekli önemi ve dikkati vermenizi sağlamak için performansınız bilgisayar tarafından değerlendirilecek. Buna göre, üretilebilecek bütün kelimelerin % 70'ini üretmeyi **BECEREMEZSENİZ**, 1 bonus **KAYBEDECEKSİNİZ**. Eğer % 70 üzeri standardını tutturabilerseniz 1 bonus **KAYBETMEKTEN KURTULACAKSINIZ**.

Devam!

Şu ana kadar % 70'in **üzerinde** performans gösterdiniz.

Devam!

Aşağıdaki ifadeler pek çok insanın sahip olduğu özellikler olabilir, ancak bizim için önemli olan maddenin sizi ne kadar tanımladığını belirtmenizdir. Aşağıdaki her bir cümleye, her birinin sizin için genel olarak ne kadar doğru olduğunu düşünerek yanıt veriniz. Lütfen değerlendirmelerinizi size göre doğru olan ifadeyi temsil eden ilgili rakamı tıklayarak belirtiniz.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Hiç doğru değil			Bir dereceye kadar doğru			Çok doğru
Kendimi capcanlı ve hayat dolu hissedirim.	☒ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5	☐ 6	☐ 7
Bazen o kadar hayat dolu hissedirim ki içim içime sığmaz.	☒ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5	☐ 6	☐ 7
Enerjim ve şevkim vardır; moralim iyidir.	☒ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5	☐ 6	☐ 7
Her yeni günü dört gözle beklerim.	☒ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5	☐ 6	☐ 7
Kendimi neredeyse her zaman atık ve gözü açık hissediyorum.	☒ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5	☐ 6	☐ 7
Kendimi zinde hissedirim.	☒ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5	☐ 6	☐ 7

Devam Et!

Appendix D1 Promotion Framing for Study 2

İDEALLER UMUTLAR VE HAYALLER

Her insanın hayatta **umutları**, **idealleri** ve **hayalleri** vardır. Lütfen mevcut ideallerinizi ve umutlarınızı aşağıya listeleyiniz. Listeye mevcut **idealleriniz** ve **umutlarınız** yanında **hayallerinizi** de yazabilirsiniz. Lütfen en az **beş** ayrı hedef belirtiniz.

Şimdi, lütfen çocukluğunuzdan bu yana **idealleriniz**, **hayalleriniz** ve **umutlarınızın** nasıl değiştiğini ve farklılaştığını anlatınız. Lütfen en az **beş** cümlelik bir metin yazınız. Zaman sınırlaması yoktur, istediğiniz kadar vakit kullanabilirsiniz.

Appendix D2 Prevention Framing for Study 2

GÖREVLER, SORUMLULUKLAR VE ZORUNLULUKLAR

Her insanın hayatta **görevleri, sorumlulukları ve zorunlulukları** vardır. Lütfen mevcut sorumluluk ve zorunluluklarınızı aşağıya listeleyiniz. Listeye mevcut **sorumluluk ve zorunluluklarınızın** yanında **mecburiyetlerinizi** de yazabilirsiniz. Lütfen en az **beş** ayrı hedef belirtiniz.

Şimdi, lütfen çocukluğunuzdan bu yana **görevlerinizin, sorumluluklarınızın ve zorunluluklarınızın** nasıl değiştiğini ve farklılaştığını anlatınız. Lütfen en az **beş** cümlelik bir metin yazınız. Zaman sınırlaması yoktur, istediğiniz kadar vakit kullanabilirsiniz.

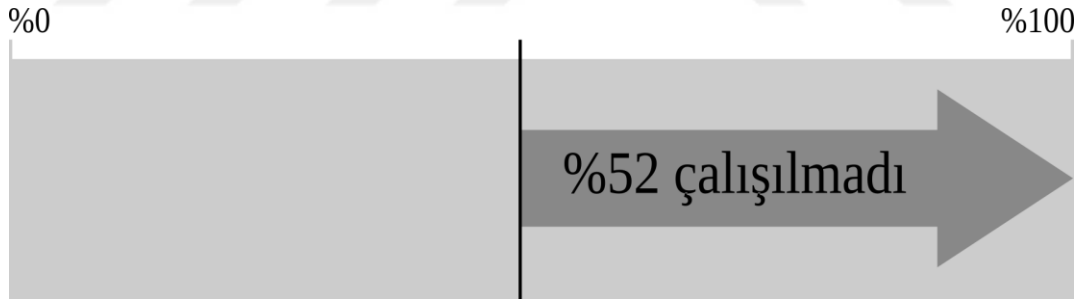
Appendix E1 Negative Feedback Scenario and Measures of Study 2

Bu çalışmada akademik hedefler ile ilgili değerlendirmeler incelenmektedir.

Burada önemli olan **KENDİNİZİ AŞAĞIDA VERİLEN DURUMDA DÜŞÜNMENİZ/CANLANDIRMANIZ** ve **O DURUMDAKİ HİSLERİNİZ VE DÜŞÜNCELERİNİZE GÖRE SORULARI CEVAPLAMANIZDIR.**

Bu günden üç gün sonra, aynı gün içinde iki farklı zorunlu dersten (must course) sınavınızın olduğunu düşünün. Her iki ders de (A ve B dersleri) sizin mümkün olduğunca yüksek not almayı hedeflediğiniz ve **eşit derecede önem** verdiğiniz dersler. Aşağıda bu derslerden birincisi (A dersi) ile ilgili hedefinize ulaşmak için çalışılacak bütün ders materyali ve sizin bunun ne kadarını tamamladığınızı gösteren bir figür bulunmaktadır.

Buna göre **derslerden birinde (A dersi)**, şekilde de gördüğünüz gibi hedefinize ulaşmak için ilgili ders materyalinin, bugün itibariyle % 52'lik bir kısmını hala çalışmadınız.



Bu durumda kendinizi nasıl hissederdiniz?

Her maddeyi dikkatlice okuduktan sonra size en uygun cevabı işaretleyiniz.

1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7

Hiç

Çok

Hissetmiyorum

Hissediyorum

1. Mutlu	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Cesareti kırılmış	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

3. Dingin (Sakin)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Gevşemiş	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Hayal kırıklığına uğramış	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Hoşnut	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Gergin	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Kaygılı	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

S: A dersi için hedefinize ulaşmak sizin için ne kadar önemli olurdu?

Hiç önemli
değil

Tamamıyla
Önemli

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
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S: B dersi için hedefinize ulaşmak sizin için ne kadar önemli olurdu?

Hiç önemli
değil

Tamamıyla
Önemli

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----

S: A dersindeki hedefinize ulaşmaya çalışmak, B dersindeki hedefiniz üzerinde ne tür bir etkiye sahip olurdu?

Çakışır
(Zarar
verir)

Etkisi
olmaz

Örtüşür
(Yardımlı
olur)

-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5
----	----	----	----	----	---	---	---	---	---	---

S: A dersindeki mevcut çalışma durumunuzu nasıl değerlendirirdiniz?

Olumsuz

Olumlu

-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5
----	----	----	----	----	---	---	---	---	---	---

Bazı hedeflere onları arzuladığımız için ulaşmaya çalışırız ama bazılarına da zorunda olduğumuz için ulaşmaya çalışırız.

S: Buna göre, A dersi için hedefinizi nasıl değerlendirirdiniz?

Zorunluluktan
dolayı çalışırım

Arzuladığım için
çalışırım

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----

S: Buna göre, B dersi için hedefinizi nasıl değerlendirirdiniz?

Zorunluluktan
dolayı çalışırım

Arzuladığım için
çalışırım

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----

S: Bu durumda, önümüzdeki 3 gün boyunca BU (A dersi) derse kaç saat daha çalışdınız (A ve B dersleri için TOPLAM 18 saat üzerinden)?

_____ saat

S: Bu durumda, önümüzdeki 3 gün boyunca BU (A dersi) ders için ne kadar çabaldınız?

Hiç
çabalamam

Çok
Çabalarım

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----

S: Bu durumda, önümüzdeki 3 gün boyunca DİĞER (B dersi) derse kaç saat çalıştınız (A ve B dersleri için TOPLAM 18 saat üzerinden)?

_____ saat

S: Bu durumda, önümüzdeki 3 gün boyunca DİĞER (B dersi) ders için ne kadar çabalandınız?

Hiç
çabalamazdım

Çok
Çabalandım

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----

S: Bu koşulda, A dersinden istediğiniz notu almak sizin için ne kadar iyi olurdu?

Hiç iyi
olmazdı

Çok iyi
Olurdu

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----

S: Bu koşulda, B dersinden istediğiniz notu almak sizin için ne kadar iyi olurdu?

Hiç iyi
Olmazdı

Çok iyi
Olurdu

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----

S: A dersi için kendinizi ne kadar adadığınızı düşünürdünüz?

Hiç adanmış
Hissetmem

Tamamıyla
adanmış
hissederim

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----

S: B dersi için kendinizi ne kadar adadığınız düşünürdünüz?

Hiç adanmış

Tamamıyla

Hissetmem

adanmış

hissederim

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----

S: A dersindeki hedefiniz için ne kadar yol kat ettiğiniz düşünüyorsunuz?

Hiç yol

Çok büyük

Katetmedim

yol katettim

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----

S: B dersindeki hedefiniz için ne kadar yol kat ettiğiniz düşünüyorsunuz?

Hiç yol

Çok büyük

Katetmedim

yol katettim

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----

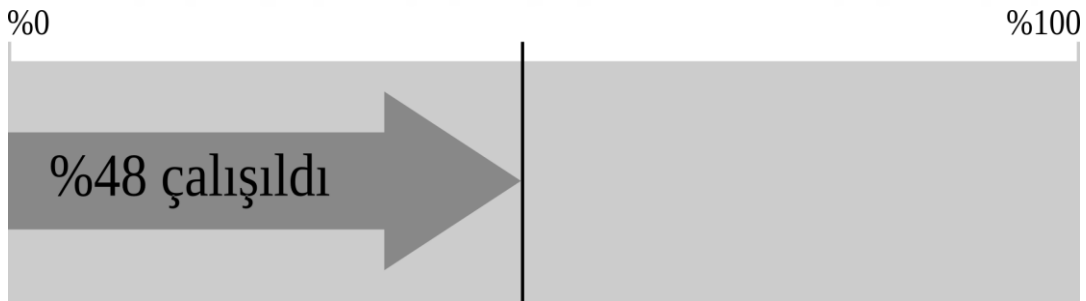
Appendix E1 Positive Feedback Scenario and Measures of Study 2

Bu çalışmada akademik hedefler ile ilgili değerlendirmeler incelenmektedir.

Burada önemli olan **KENDİNİZİ AŞAĞIDA VERİLEN DURUMDA DÜŞÜNMENİZ/CANLANDIRMANIZ ve O DURUMDAKİ HİSLERİNİZ VE DÜŞÜNCELERİNİZE GÖRE SORULARI CEVAPLAMANIZDIR.**

Üç gün sonra, aynı gün içinde iki farklı zorunlu dersten (must course) sınavınızın olduğunu düşünün. Her iki ders de (A ve B dersleri) sizin mümkün olduğunca yüksek not almayı hedeflediğiniz ve **eşit derecede önem** verdiğiniz dersler. Aşağıda bu derslerden birincisi (A dersi) ile ilgili hedefinize ulaşmak için çalışılacak bütün ders materyali ve sizin bunun ne kadarını tamamladığınızı gösteren bir figür bulunmaktadır.

Buna göre **derslerden birinde (A dersi)**, aşağıdaki şekilde de gördüğünüz gibi hedefinize ulaşmak için ilgili ders materyalinin, % 48'ini bugün itibarıyla çalışmayı tamamladınız.



Bu durumda kendinizi nasıl hissederdiniz?

Her maddeyi dikkatlice okuduktan sonra size en uygun cevabı işaretleyiniz.

1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7

Hiç

Çok

Hissetmiyorum

Hissediyorum

9. Mutlu

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

10. Cesareti kırılmış	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Dingin (Sakin)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Gevşemiş	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Hayal kırıklığına uğramış	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Hoşnut	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Gergin	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. Kaygılı	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

S: A dersi için hedefinize ulaşmak sizin için ne kadar önemli olurdu?

Hiç önemli
değil

Tamamıyla
Önemli

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----

S: B dersi için hedefinize ulaşmak sizin için ne kadar önemli olurdu?

Hiç önemli
değil

Tamamıyla
Önemli

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----

S: A dersindeki hedefinize ulaşmaya çalışmak, B dersindeki hedefiniz üzerinde ne tür bir etkiye sahip olurdu?

Çakışır
(Zarar
verir)

Etkisi
olmaz

Örtüşür
(Yardımlı
olur)

-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5
----	----	----	----	----	---	---	---	---	---	---

S: A dersindeki mevcut çalışma durumunuzu nasıl değerlendirirdiniz?

Olumsuz

Olumlu

-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5
----	----	----	----	----	---	---	---	---	---	---

Bazı hedeflere onları arzuladığımız için ulaşmaya çalışırız ama bazılarına da zorunda olduğumuz için ulaşmaya çalışırız.

S: Buna göre, A dersi için hedefinizi nasıl değerlendirirdiniz?

Zorunluluktan
dolayı çalışırım

Arzuladığım için
çalışırım

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----

S: Buna göre, B dersi için hedefinizi nasıl değerlendirirdiniz?

Zorunluluktan
dolayı çalışırım

Arzuladığım için
çalışırım

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----

S: Bu durumda, önümüzdeki 3 gün boyunca BU (A dersi) derse kaç saat daha çalışırdınız (A ve B dersleri için TOPLAM 18 saat üzerinden)?

_____ saat

S: Bu durumda, önümüzdeki 3 gün boyunca BU (A dersi) ders için ne kadar çabalandınız?

Hiç
çabalamam

Çok
Çabalarım

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----

S: Bu durumda, önümüzdeki 3 gün boyunca DİĞER (B dersi) derse kaç saat çalışdınız (A ve B dersleri için TOPLAM 18 saat üzerinden)?

_____ saat

S: Bu durumda, önümüzdeki 3 gün boyunca DİĞER (B dersi) ders için ne kadar çabalandınız?

Hiç
çabalamazdım

Çok
Çabalandım

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----

S: Bu koşulda, A dersinden istediğiniz notu almak sizin için ne kadar iyi olurdu?

Hiç iyi
olmazdı

Çok iyi
Olurdu

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----

S: Bu koşulda, B dersinden istediğiniz notu almak sizin için ne kadar iyi olurdu?

Hiç iyi
Olmazdı

Çok iyi
Olurdu

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----

S: A dersi için kendinizi ne kadar adadığınızı düşünürdünüz?

Hiç adanmış
Hissetmem

Tamamıyla
adanmış
hissederim

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----

S: B dersi için kendinizi ne kadar adadığınız düşünürdünüz?

Hiç adanmış

Hissetmem

Tamamıyla

adanmış

hissederim

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----

S: A dersindeki hedefiniz için ne kadar yol kat ettiğiniz düşünüyorsunuz?

Hiç yol

Katetmedim

Çok büyük

yol katettim

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----

S: B dersindeki hedefiniz için ne kadar yol kat ettiğiniz düşünüyorsunuz?

Hiç yol

Katetmedim

Çok büyük

yol katettim

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
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Appendix F Scenarios and Measures of Study 3

Bu çalışmada kişilerin sahip oldukları hedeflerle ilgili değerlendirmeler incelenmektedir. Burada önemli olan **KENDİNİZİ AŞAĞIDA** verilen **DURUMDA DÜŞÜNMENİZ/CANLANDIRMANIZ** ve ilgili **DURUMDAKİ HİSLERİNİZ VE DÜŞÜNCELERİNİZİN** ne olabileceğini dikkate alarak soruları cevaplandırmanızdır.

Prevention focal goal framing

‘Bölümünüzde yüksek lisans eğitime devam etmenin en büyük zorunluluk ve görevlerinizden birisi olduğunu düşünün. Bu sorumluluğunuzu yerine getirmek için bu dönem aldığınız derslerden yüksek not almak ve not standartlarını tutturmak zorundasınız, çünkü akademik kariyerinizi sürdürmenizin gerekli olduğunu hissediyorsunuz. Bu hedefinizi tutturabilmek için haftada 18 saat çalışıyorsunuz.’

Promotion focal goal framing

‘Bölümünüzde yüksek lisans eğitime devam etmenin en büyük ideallerinizden ve hayallerinizden birisi olduğunu düşünün. Bu hayalinize ulaşmak için bu dönem aldığınız derslerden yüksek not almayı arzuluyorsunuz, çünkü akademik kariyerinizi sürdürmek için oldukça istekli ve heveslisiniz. Bu hedefinizi başarabilmek için haftada 18 saat çalışıyorsunuz.’

Negative feedback

‘Şu ana kadar her şey kötü gidiyor. Derslerinizin ara sınavlarından başarısız notlar aldınız.’

Positive feedback

‘Şu ana kadar her şey çok iyi gidiyor. Derslerinizin ara sınavlarından başarılı notlar aldınız.’

Prevention alternative goal framing

‘Bölümden yurda dönerken, sorumluluklarınız ve görevleriniz üzerine düşünürken aklınıza bir düşünce geliyor. Yaşam standartlarınızı karşılamak, ay sonunda para sıkıntısı yaşamamak ve ailenize daha az yük olmanız için ekstra para kazanmanın gerekli olduğunu düşünüyorsunuz. Bu sırada, çarşıdan geçerken, ilan panosunda, çarşıdaki mağazalardan birinin satış elemanı pozisyonu için yarı-zamanlı bir iş önerdiğine dair bir ilan görüyorsunuz. Bu tür iş fırsatları ender olarak ortaya çıkıyor ve çok rağbet görüyor. Siz de gidip mağazanın yetkilisiyle görüşüyorsunuz ve size işe başlamanızı öneriyor. İş kabul etme eğiliminiz var çünkü kendinizi ekstra para kazanmak zorunda ve sorumlu hissediyorsunuz. İş yarın başlıyor ve sizin haftada 6 ila 18 saat arasında bir çalışma programı seçmeniz gerekiyor. Yetkili sizden bir an evvel cevap vermenizi istiyor. Karar vermek için sadece bir kaç dakikanız var ve sonra karar veriyorsunuz.’

Promotion alternative goal framing

‘Bölümden yurda dönerken, hayalleriniz ve umutlarınız üzerine düşünürken aklınıza bir düşünce geliyor. Arkadaşlarınızla seyahat etmek ya da son dönemde almak istediğiniz şeyleri alabilmek gibi hayallerinizi gerçekleştirebilmek için biraz ekstra para kazanmanın ne kadar iyi olacağını düşünüyorsunuz. Bu sırada, çarşıdan geçerken ilan panosunda çarşıdaki mağazalardan birinin satış elemanı pozisyonu için yarı-zamanlı bir iş ilanı görüyorsunuz. Bu tür iş fırsatları ender olarak ortaya çıkıyor ve hemen kapanıyor. Siz de gidip mağazanın yetkilisiyle görüşüyorsunuz ve size işe başlamanızı öneriyor. İş kabul etmek istiyorsunuz çünkü hayaliniz ekstra para kazanmak. İş hemen yarın başlıyor ve size haftada 6 ila 18 saat arasında çalışabileceğiniz söyleniyor. Yetkili sizden bir an önce cevap vermenizi istiyor. Karar vermek için sadece bir kaç dakikanız var ve sonra karar veriyorsunuz.’

Bu durumda kendinizi nasıl hissederdiniz?

Her maddeyi dikkatlice okuduktan sonra size en uygun cevabı işaretleyiniz.

1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7							
Hiç Hissetmiyorum							Çok Hissediyorum
17. Mutlu	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. Cesareti kırılmış	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. Dingin (Sakin)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. Gevşemiş	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. Hayal kırıklığına uğramış	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. Hoşnut	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. Gergin	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. Kaygılı	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Akademik hedefinize ulaşmak sizin için ne kadar önemli olurdu?

Hiç önemli
değil

Tamamıyla
Önemli

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
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Ekonomik hedefinize ulaşmak sizin için ne kadar önemli olurdu?

Hiç önemli
değil

Tamamıyla
Önemli

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
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Akademik hedefinize ulaşmaya çalışmak, ekonomik hedefiniz üzerinde ne tür bir etkiye sahip olurdu?

Çakışır
(Zarar verir)

Etkisi
olmaz

Örtüşür
(Yardımlı
olur)

-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5
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Bazı hedeflere onları arzuladığımız için ulaşmaya çalışırız ama bazılarını zorunda olduğumuz için ulaşmaya çalışırız.

Buna göre, akademik hedefinizi nasıl değerlendirirdiniz?

Zorunluluk

Arzulanan

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
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Buna göre, ekonomik hedefinizi nasıl değerlendirirdiniz?

Zorunluluk

Arzulanan

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
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Akademik hedeflerinize ulaşmak sizin için ne kadar iyi olurdu?

Hiç iyi
Olmazdı

Çok iyi
Olurdu

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----

Ekonomik hedeflerinize ulaşmak sizin için ne kadar iyi olurdu?

Hiç iyi
olmazdı

Çok iyi
Olurdu

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----

Akademik hedefinizdeki mevcut durumunuzu nasıl değerlendirirdiniz?

Olumsuz

Olumlu

-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5
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Bu durumda, ekonomik hedefinize ulaşmak için haftada kaç saat çalıştınız
(Lütfen bu iki hedef için haftada TOPLAM 18 saatiniz olduğunu unutmayınız)?

_____ saat (0 ila 18 saat arasında)(0 saat işi kabul etmediğinizi
göstermektedir)

Bu durumda, akademik hedefinize ulaşmak için haftada kaç saat çalıştınız?

_____ saat (0 ila 18 saat arasında)

Bu durumda, akademik hedefinize ulaşmak için ne kadar çabaldınız?

Hiç

Çok

Çabalamam

Çabalarım

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
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Bu durumda, ekonomik hedefinize ulaşmak için ne kadar çabaldınız?

Hiç

Çok

Çabalamam

Çabalarım

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----

Akademik hedefiniz için kendinizi ne kadar adanmıştığınızı düşünürdünüz?

Hiç adanmış

Tamamıyla

hissetmem

adanmış

hissederim

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----

Ekonomik hedefiniz için kendinizi ne kadar adadığınızı düşünürdünüz?

Hiç adanmış
hissetmem

Tamamıyla
adanmış
hissederim

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----

Akademik hedefiniz için ne kadar yol kat ettiğinizi düşünürdünüz?

Hiç yol
Katetmedim

Çok büyük
yol katettim

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
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Ekonomik hedefiniz için ne kadar yol kat ettiğinizi düşünürdünüz?

Hiç yol
Katetmedim

Çok büyük
yol katettim

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CURRICULUM VITAE

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Graduate Courses)

- 2011 Fall, 2012 Fall STRCT (The Scientific and Technological Research Council of Turkey) 111K333 (Measuring Safety and Perceptual Motor Driving Skills with IAT and Their Relation to Objective Performance Tests)
- 2010 to current RS-10 (Road Safety in 10 Countries) JH-IIRU (Johns Hopkins International Injury Research Unit in Collaboration with World Health Organization, Center for Injuries, Violence and Accident Prevention)
- 2008 Summer, 2010 Fall COST 357 (Researches Accident Prevention Options with Motorcycle Helmet) Safety Research Unit (SRU) in METU
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FOREIGN LANGUAGES

Advanced English,

PUBLICATIONS

- Özkan, T., Lajunen, T., **Doğruyol, B.**, Yıldırım, Z., and Çoymak, A. (2012). Motorcycle accidents, rider behavior, and psychological models. *Accident Analysis and Prevention*, 49, 124-132.
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ÖZET

Günlük yaşantılarımızda, çoğu zaman birden çok hedefe ulaşmaya çalışırız. Bir yandan güzel bir akşam yemeği yemek isterken, diğer yandan sağlıklı kalmak için salata yemek isteyebiliriz. Bu ve benzeri birçok çoklu hedef durumunda hedefler birbiriyle çatışır. Bu sebeple, hedeflerden birine ulaşmaya çalışmak diğerinden uzaklaşmayı gerektirir. Öte yandan, bazı çoklu hedefler birbiriyle çatışmaz, ancak zaman ve kaynak sınırlılıkları hedeflerin bu kaynaklar için yarışmasına yol açar. Örneğin aynı zamanda hem bir araştırma makalesine odaklanmak hem de derse hazırlanmak durumunda kalınabilir.

Bireyler, hedeflerine ulaşabilmek için sınırlı kaynaklarını bu hedeflere dengeli ve başarılı bir şekilde yöneltmek ve/ya dağıtmak durumundadır. Çünkü, motivasyon ve hedef ilişkisini inceleyen önceki çalışmaların gösterdiği gibi, alternatif hedeflerin varlığı mevcut hedefler üzerinde olumsuz etkilere yol açabilir (örn., Miller, 1944; Emmons ve King, 1988). Bu tür bir kaç bulguya karşın, çoklu hedeflerin dinamiklerine yönelik çalışmalar oldukça kısıtlıdır. Ayrıca, bu alandaki geçmiş çalışmaların büyük çoğunluğu tek hedefe ulaşmaya çalışılan koşullara ya da birden çok hedef arasında seçim yapılan koşullara dayanmaktadır. Günlük hayatın tipik gereklerinden birisi olan birden çok hedefin varlığı göz önüne alındığında, bu tür çalışmaların bulgularının gerçek hayattaki deneyimlere genellenebilirliğinin düşük olduğu söylenebilir.

Ek olarak, tek hedefin izlendiği çalışmaların bulgularının çoklu hedef koşullarına aktarılması bazı hatalı değerlendirmelere yol açabilir. Örneğin, bu alandaki geçmiş çalışmalar temel olarak hedeflerin nasıl edinildiği ve diğer hedefler arasından nasıl seçildiğine odaklanmıştır. Bu çalışmaların dayandığı temel fikir, bireylerin sınırlı bilişsel kapasitelerinin onları mevcut hedeflerden birini seçerken diğerini sonlandırmaya yönlendirmesidir. Çoklu hedef çalışmaları da benzer bir yaklaşıma sahiptir. Ancak bu yaklaşımda, gerçek hayat koşullarında olduğu gibi, kaynaklar hedefler arasında dinamik bir şekilde sürekli olarak yeniden dağıtılır. Diğer bir deyişle, gerçek hayat koşulları, hedeflerden sadece birinin seçilip izlendiği sınırlı bir yaklaşımın ötesinde karmaşık stratejileri içermektedir. Bu

nedenle, sınırlı kaynaklar tarafından dayatılan çoklu hedeflerin yarıştığı koşullarda, bu hedeflerin nasıl izlendiğini ortaya koymak, çoklu hedefe dayalı stratejilerin doğasını anlamak bakımından oldukça önemlidir.

İlgili yazın kaynakların hedeflere dağıtımını etkileyen bazı temel etkenler üzerinde durmaktadır. Bunlardan en çok dikkat çeken hedeflere verilen geribildirimlerdir. Olumlu ya da olumsuz, geribildirimler ulaşmak istenen nihai durumla mevcut durum arasında bir karşılaştırma olanağı sağladığı için hedefe ilerleme konusunda bilgi sağlarlar. Ancak, geribildirim sonrasında hangi hedeflerin seçileceği ya da vurgulanacağı tartışmalı bir araştırma konusudur.

Bu çalışmada, geribildirim çoklu hedefler üzerindeki etkilerinin açıklığa kavuşturulması amacıyla benlik düzenleyici uyum yazını kapsamında bir etkileşim değişkeni önerilmektedir. Düzenleyici Uyum Teorisi (DUK, Higgins, 2000) temel olarak olumlu ve olumsuz geribildirim bireylerin benlik düzenleme yönelimleri ile (yaklaşmacı ve kaçınmacı odak) farklı şekillerde etkileştiğini öne sürmektedir. Buna göre, geribildirim hedefler üzerindeki özgün etkilerinin ötesinde, onların bireylerin benlik düzenleme yönelimleri ile olan ‘uyumlarının’ hedefe ulaşma sürecini etkilediği öne sürülmektedir. Bu durumda DUK, benlik düzenleme yönelimleri ile olan etkileşimlerine göre, hem olumlu hem de olumsuz geribildirim, hem mevcut hedefe hem de alternatif hedefe kaynak ayrılmasına yol açabileceğini öne sürmektedir.

Bu çalışma çoklu hedefler yazınına ve Higgins’in (2000) DUK yaklaşımına dayanarak, geribildirim sonucunda çoklu hedeflere nasıl kaynak ayrıldığını ortaya koymayı amaçlamaktadır. Özel olarak, (a) geribildirim ile benlik düzenleyici yönelimler arasındaki etkileşimin doğası ve (b) bu etkileşimin çoklu hedeflere ayrılan kaynakları nasıl etkilediği incelenmektedir.

Hedeflerin Çatışması ve Dinamik Hedef İzleme

Hedeflerin çatışması ile ilgili yazının dayandığı temel nokta hedeflere ulaşmaya yönelik bütün davranışların bireylerin sınırlı bilişsel alanında yer aldığı yaklaşımıdır. Buna göre, herhangi bir hedefe yönelik her bir davranış bu sınırlı

kapasitenin geçici olarak azalmasına yol açmaktadır. Bunun sonucunda diğer her türlü hedefe yönelik davranış bu kapasite azalmasından olumsuz olarak etkilenir (Muraven ve Baumeister, 2000).

Hedef sistemleri teorisi de çoklu hedeflerin izlenmesini açıklarken benzer bir yaklaşıma dayanır (Kruglanski, Shah, Fishbach, Friedman, Chun ve Sleeth-Keppler, 2002). Bu teoriye göre, hedefler kaynakların sabit olduğu bir ortamda bu kaynaklar için yarışmalar ve hedefe yönelik her davranış diğer hedeflerin ulaşılabilirliğinin azalmasına ya da tamamen ortadan kalkmasına yol açar. Bu yaklaşımın bir diğer temel sayıltısı da hedeflerin belirli bir hiyerarşi içerisinde organize edildiğidir. Buna göre, kaynaklar için yarışan hedefler bu hiyerarşinin aynı ya da değişik basamaklarında temsil ediliyor olabilirler (Carver ve Scheier, 2000). Örneğin, hiyerarşinin alt basamaklarında yer alan çikolata yemek gibi cezbedici hedefler, sağlıklı kalmak gibi daha yüksek basamaklarda yer alan hedeflerle çatıma içinde olabilirler. İlgili yazın, bu tür çatışmaların başarılı bir şekilde çözülmesinin yüksek basamaklarda temsil edilen hedeflerin korunması ve kaynakların bunlara yöneltilmesi ile sağlanacağını öne sürmektedir (Shah, Friedman ve Kruglanski, 2002).

Bazı durumlarda ise hedefler birbirleri ile doğrudan bir çatışma içinde olmazlar, sadece aynı anda aktif durumda olurlar. Örneğin, hiyerarşinin aynı basamaklarında yer alan akademik ve sosyal hedefler birbirleri ile doğrudan çatışma içinde olmadıkları halde aynı kaynaklar için yarışabilirler. Bu durumda, bu hedeflerden bir tanesine kaynak ayırmak diğeri üzerinde olumsuz bir etkiye yol açabilir. İşte bu gibi koşullarda bireyler mevcut bütün hedeflerine ulaşabilmek adına kaynaklarını dengeli ve başarılı bir şekilde dağıtmak durumundadırlar.

Çatışan Hedeflerin Yönetimi

Çatışan hedeflerin doğasını anlamaya yönelik çalışmalar temelde iki tip hedefler arası çatışma üzerinde yoğunlaşmaktadır. Bunlardan birincisi, örneğin dondurma yemek gibi cezbedici kısa süreli hedefler ile sağlıklı olmak gibi uzun süreli hedefler arasındaki çatışmadır. Bu tip bir çatışmada temel amaç uzun süreli hedeflerin öncelenmesi ve korunması olarak tanımlanmaktadır. Diğer taraftan,

benzer önem ve öncelik sırasına sahip uzun süreli hedefler de çatışma içinde olabilir. Bu gibi durumlarda, hedeflerden birisine yapılacak yatırımın diğeri üzerindeki potansiyel olumsuz etkileri düşünüldüğünde, bireylerin bu hedeflerin hangisine ne zaman ve ne kadar kaynak ayıracağı önemli bir soru haline gelmektedir.

Bu alandaki çalışmalar hedeflerden birisini tamamen iptal etmek (örn.; Kuhl ve Beckman, 1994) ya da bir süreliğine rafa kaldırmak (örn.; Liberman, Förster ve Higgins, 2007) gibi değişik stratejiler önermektedir. İlgili yazında, en çok dikkat çeken ve çalışılan çatışma çözüm stratejilerinden biri de hedeflerin ya da kaynakların dengelenmesidir. Bu yaklaşımda, bireylerin hiçbir koşulda hiçbir hedefe bütün kaynaklarını ayırmayacağı, bunun yerine ulaşılmaya çalışılan bütün hedeflerde anlamlı ve yeterli bir ilerleme amaçlayacağı öne sürülmektedir (Carver, 2004). Bu amaç doğrultusunda, bireylerin hedeflere ayrılan sınırlı kaynakları dengelemek ve geçici öncelikler belirlemek gibi stratejiler kullandığı öne sürülmektedir. Böylelikle, bütün aktif hedefler için belirli oranda bir ilerleme sağlanması garanti altına alınmaktadır.

Bu yaklaşımın altında yatan temel mekanizmalardan biri hedeflere ayrılan kaynakların dengelenmesinde aşağıdan yukarıya süreçlerin işletilmesidir. Buna göre, bireyler kaynaklarını dengelemek için hedeflerinin durumuyla ilgili bilgiye ihtiyaç duyarlar. Hedeflerin hangi aşamada olduğuna yönelik geribildirim, mevcut durumla ulaşılmak istenen nokta arasındaki mesafe konusunda bilgi sağlayarak bu işlevi görebilir. Geribildirim aracılığıyla elde edilen bu bilgi sayesinde bireyler hedeflere yönelttikleri kaynakları yeniden düzenleyebilirler. Spesifik olarak, olumlu geribildirim o hedef üzerinde başarılı bir ilerleme kaydedildiği mesajını vererek hedeflerin alternatif hedefe yönltilmesini sağlarken, olumsuz geribildirim mevcut hedefe üzerinde başarısız bir ilerleme olduğu mesajını vererek kaynakların aynı odak hedef üzerinde tutulmasına yol açmaktadır. Bu noktada göz önüne alınması gereken önemli bir nokta, hedeflerle ilgili ilerleme bilgisini sağlayan geribildirimın bireyler tarafından nasıl algılandığı ve değerlendirildiğidir. Örneğin, bireylerin hedefleri düzenleme konusundaki genel tercihlerini belirleyen benlik düzenleme stratejileri (örn.; yaklaşmacı ve

kaçınmacı odak) geribildirim sonucu kaynakların düzenlemesi ile etkileşim içinde olabilir. Bu sebeple, bu tezin amaçlarından birisi çoklu hedeflere ulaşılmaya çalışıldığı koşullarda geribildirim ve bireylerin benlik düzenleme odaklarının nasıl etkileştiğini ortaya koymaktır. Hedefler üzerindeki geribildirim çoklu hedeflere ayrılan kaynakların dengelenmesinde önemli bir role sahip olduğu varsayıldığı halde, ilgili yazında geribildirim etkisi konusunda çelişkili önermeler ve bulgular bulunmaktadır. Sonraki kısımda ilgili konular ele alınmıştır.

Geribildirim etkisi

Motivasyon ve hedefler üzerine yapılan çalışmaların önemli bir kısmı sınırlı kaynakların değerlendirilmesinde geribildirim anahtar etmenlerden birisi olarak tanımlamışlardır. Araştırmacılar, temel olarak, geribildirim olumlu ve olumsuz olmak üzere iki başlık altında incelemişlerdir (Fishbach, Zhang ve Koo, 2009). Buna karşın, geribildirim hedefler üzerindeki etkisi açık değildir. Örneğin Kluger ve De Nisi (1996) yaptıkları meta-analizde, geribildirim olumlu veya olumsuz olarak yönünün ve hatta varlığının etkilerinin karmaşık olduğunu bulmuşlardır. İlgili yazında, geribildirim etkilerinin üzerine iki temel yaklaşım bulunmaktadır. Örneğin tutumlar konusunda çalışan araştırmacılar, olumlu geribildirim ilgili hedef üzerindeki motivasyonu arttırdığını, bunu da hedefe yönelik beklentilerin artması yoluyla gerçekleştirdiğini öne sürmüşlerdir. Diğer taraftan, olumsuz geribildirim hedefe yönelik beklentileri düşürerek hedefe ayrılan kaynağın azaltılmasına yol açtığı bulunmuştur (Fishbach ve Finkelstein, 2012). Bu yaklaşıma dayanak olarak, bireylerin davranışları konusunda tutarlı olma isteğinin yattığı öne sürülmektedir. Buna göre, eğer bir davranış olumlu sonuçlar doğuruyorsa, sonraki durumlarda aynı ya da benzer davranışların sergilenmesi olasılığı artmaktadır.

Farklılığın azaltılmasına odaklanan modeller ise hedefler üzerindeki mevcut durum ile arzulan sonuç arasındaki mesafeye odaklanarak farklı bir yaklaşım önermektedirler. Buna göre, olumlu geribildirim o hedef üzerinde ‘kaytarma’ davranışına yol açarak kaynakların diğer hedeflere yönlendirilmesine yol açar.

Çünkü olumlu geribildirim belirli bir aşamanın kaydedildiği mesajını vermektedir. Olumsuz geribildirim ise hedef üzerinde arzulanan sonuçla mevcut durum arasında görece büyük bir mesafe olduğu mesajını vererek kaynakların o hedefe yönlendirilmesine yol açmaktadır (Carver ve Scheier, 1998).

Her iki yaklaşımda da dikkat edilmesi gereken önemli bir husus, bu yaklaşımları destekleyen çalışmaların tek bir hedefin izlendiği koşullarda yapılmış olmasıdır. Bu yaklaşımlar geribildirim hedefler üzerindeki etkisi konusunda önemli bilgiler sağlamış olsalar da bu önermelerin çoklu hedefler ortamında sınanması ve çelişkili bulguları açıklamaya yardımcı olacak yeni deneylerin yapılması gerekmektedir. Bu noktada, bireylerin olumlu ve olumsuz geribildirimini nasıl değerlendirip buna nasıl cevap verdikleri üzerine önermeleri bulunan ‘düzenleyici uyum’ yaklaşımı ilgili yazına ışık tutabilir.

Düzenleyici Uyum Yaklaşımı

Çoklu hedefleri izleme alanındaki çalışmalar çoğunlukla daha önceki motivasyon-hedef kuramlarının yeniden yorumlanmış versiyonlarına dayanmaktadır. Bu kuramlar, psikoloji alanında gerçekleşen bilişsel devrim sonrasında hedefleri izleme yazını için ortak bir teorik arka plan sağlamışlardır. Bu teorilerin kendi sınırlılıkları olmakla birlikte, çoklu hedeflerin izlendiği durumlarda kaynakların yönetimi anlayışımıza katkıda bulunacak potansiyele sahiptirler. Higgins’in (2000) Düzenleyici Uyum Teorisi (DUT) bu çerçevede öne sürülen en yeni kuramlardan biridir. Aslında, DUT düzenleyici odak teorisinin (Higgins, 1997; 1998) geliştirilmesi ve yeniden yorumlanması sonucu ortaya çıkmıştır. Bu sebeple öncelikle düzenleyici odak kuramına kısaca değinilmiştir.

Düzenleyici Odak Kuramı

Düzenleyici odak kuramı ‘yaklaşmacı ve kaçınmacı odak’ olmak üzere iki temel benlik düzenleme yaklaşımı tanımlamaktadır. Bu kuramın temel fikri, bireylerin acıdan kaçınmak ve hazzı ulaşmak için değişik stratejilere odaklanmalarıdır. Buna göre, hem yaklaşmacı odak hem de kaçınmacı odak arzu edilen sonuçlara ulaşmayı, arzu edilmeyenlerden ise kaçınmayı içeren iki farklı sistemdir. Bu iki

sistem arasındaki temel farklılıklar ideal – gerekir benlik rehberlikleri, bakım – güvenlik ihtiyaçları ve olumlu – olumsuz sonuçlara yönelik duyarlılıklar temelinde belirlenmektedir.

Yaklaşmacı odak ideal benliğe ulaşmayı, ayrıca olumlu sonuçlara ulaşma ve kazanma arzuları ile bunları destekleyen gelişme ve ilerleme ihtiyaçlarını düzenleyen benlik odağıdır. Kaçınmacı odak ise sorumlulukları ya da yükümlülükleri ve zorunlulukları yerine getirmeyi, olumsuz sonuçlardan ve kaybetmekten kaçınma ile bunları destekleyen güvenlik ihtiyaçlarını düzenleyen benlik odağıdır.

Düzenleyici Uyum Kuramı

Higgins (2000) hedefleri izlemedeki motivasyonları ve karar verme süreçlerini daha iyi anlayabilmek adına düzenleyici odak kuramını geliştirerek düzenleyici uyum kuramını geliştirmiştir. Bu kurama göre, düzenleyici odak ile hedef izleme araçları arasındaki uyum, hedefler üzerinde bunların özgün ana etkilerinin ötesinde bir etkiye sahiptir. Diğer bir deyişle, yaklaşmacı odağa sahip kişilerin yönelimleri genellikle kazanmaya ve ilerlemeye dönükken kaçınmacı odağa sahip kişilerin yönelimleri kaybetmemeye ve korunmaya dönüktür. Araştırmacılar, yakın zamanda düzenleyici odak ile bu yönelimlerin arasındaki etkileşimin özgün etkilerine odaklanmışlardır. Buna göre, eğer bireyin düzenleyici odağı hedefe ulaşmak için kullanılan yönelimler ve araçlar ile uyumlu ise düzenleyici uyum deneyimi yaşanmaktadır. Örneğin, yaklaşmacı yönelime sahip birine bir görevin ne kadarını başardığına ilişkin, kaçınmacı yönelime sahip birine de ne kadarını başaramadığına ilişkin geribildirim verilmesi uyumlu düzenleyici deneyimlerdir.

Genel olarak, hedeflere ulaşılırken kullanılan araçlar ve izlenilen yollar, o hedefe ulaşmayı kolaylaştırıyor ve elde edilen yarar bedelini geçiyorsa, bireyler bu araçlara ve yollara daha yüksek bir değer atfederler (Higgins, 2008). Örneğin, sürücüler hem onları hedefe daha çabuk ulaştırdığı hem de ceza ya da kaza riski taşımadığına inandıklarında daha riskli araç kullanabilmektedirler (Wilde, 1998). Buna karşın, düzenleyici uyum yaklaşımı, düzenleyici odak ile bu araçlar arasında bir uyum ya da örtüşme olduğu koşullarda, bireylerin sonuçlarından

bağımsız olarak o hedefe daha çok değer atfettiğini öne sürmektedir. Örneğin, yaklaşmacı odağa sahip bir öğrenci dersten AA almak için ekstra okumalar yaparsa (yaklaşmacı odağa uyan yaklaşma stratejisi) ve kaçınmacı odağa sahip bir öğrenci dersin gerekliliklerini dikkatli bir şekilde yerine getirirse (kaçınmacı odağa uyan kaçınma stratejisi), ‘ben bu işi doğru bir şekilde yapıyorum’ ve ‘doğru hissetme’ deneyimi yaşarlar. Ayrıca bu deneyim, kullanılan stratejilerin onları gerçekten hedefledikleri nota ulaştırıp ulaştırmamasından bağımsız şekilde ortaya çıkmaktadır.

Bu çerçevede, Higgins (2000) düzenleyici uyumun (a) hem olumlu hem de olumsuz duyguların daha yoğun yaşanmasına, (b) seçilen nesneye daha yüksek değer atfedilmesine, (c) değerlendirme ve karar alma süreçleri sonucunda daha olumlu deneyim yaşanmasına ve son olarak, (d) hedefi izlemede daha yoğun motivasyona yol açtığını öne sürmektedir.

İlgili yazında bu önermeleri destekleyen birçok çalışma mevcuttur (örn.; Avnet ve Higgins, 2003; Brodscholl, Kober ve Higgins, 2007; Förster ve Higgins, 2005; Liberman ve Higgins, 2004). Diğer taraftan bazı çalışmalarda, kuramın temel önermeleri ile çelişkili bulgular da yayınlanmıştır. Örneğin, uyumun genel olarak daha az strese yol açtığı öne sürülmüş olsa da, kaçınmacı uyumun yaklaşmacı uyuma göre daha yüksek strese yol açtığı bulunmuştur (Scholer ve Higgins, 2010). Bu bulgu, güvenliği sağlama ihtiyaçlarının ilerleme ve kazanma ihtiyaçlarına göre daha öncelikli olabileceğine işaret etmektedir. Temel ihtiyaçlara odaklanan diğer bazı teorik yaklaşımlar da benzer bir öncelik sırası ya da hiyerarşiden bahsetmektedir. Örneğin, Maslow’un (1954) güdüler hiyerarşisi ve Bowlby’nin (1969) bağlanma kuramı güvenliği daha temel bir ihtiyaç olarak tanımlamaktadır. Bu tür bir hiyerarşinin hedefleri izleme üzerinde de potansiyel etkileri olabileceği öne sürülebilir. Buna göre, güvenliği sağlama ihtiyaçlarını düzenleyen kaçınmacı odak ve ilgili hedefler, ilerleme ve kazanma ihtiyaçlarını düzenleyen yaklaşmacı odak ve ilgili hedeflere göre daha önemli ve birincil olarak algılanabilir. Bu durum özellikle, düzenleyici uyumsuzluk gibi düşük motivasyonel koşullarda daha belirgin bir şekilde ortaya çıkabilir. Çünkü hedeflerin öncelenmesini etkileyebilecek düzenleyici uyum gibi diğer etmenlerin

motivasyonel itkisi daha düşük olacaktır. Buradan hareketle, bu çalışmada bireylerin düzenleyici uyumsuzluk gibi düşük motivasyonel koşullarda kaçınmacı hedeflere daha çok kaynak ayıracağı hipotez edilmiştir.

Geribildirim Etkisi ve Hedefte Devamlılık

DUK'a göre, yaklaşmacı ve kaçınmacı odak, olumlu ve olumsuz geribildirim farklı şekillerde tepki vermektedir. Buna göre, olumlu geribildirim yaklaşmacı odağa uyarken, olumsuz geribildirim kaçınmacı odağa uyduğu öne sürülmektedir. Bu uyumun bir sonucu olarak, yaklaşmacı odağa sahip bireyler olumlu geribildirim karşısında daha yüksek motivasyon ve hedefte devamlılık gösterirken, kaçınmacı odağa sahip bireylerin olumsuz geribildirim karşısında daha yüksek motivasyon ve hedefte devamlılık gösterdiği bulunmuştur (Idson, Liberman ve Higgins, 2000). Bu sürecin altında yatan mekanizma farklı düzenleyici odağa sahip bireylerin farklı hassasiyet ve yatkınlıklarının bulunması olarak açıklanmaktadır. Daha önce de belirtildiği üzere yaklaşmacı odağa sahip bireyler kazanma ve ödüle daha duyarlı iken kaçınmacı odağa sahip bireyler kaybetme ve hataya daha duyarlıdır. Bu duyarlılık ve hassasiyetler de bireylerin hedefler üzerindeki motivasyonlarını arttırarak hedefe yönelik davranışları etkilemektedirler.

İlgili yazında söz konusu hipotezleri destekleyen çalışmalar mevcuttur (örn.; Van-Dijk ve Kluger, 2004). Diğer taraftan bazı çelişkili bulgular da bulunmaktadır. Örneğin Idson ve Higgins (2000) yaptıkları çalışmada katılımcılara anagram çözme görevi vermiş ve bu görevin ortasında katılımcılara sahte olumlu ya da olumsuz geribildirim vermişlerdir. Analizlerde, öngörülen uyum etkisinin sadece bazı anagramlarda ortaya çıktıklarını bulmuşlardır. Bir başka çalışmada ise Shu ve Lam (2011) sadece yaklaşmacı odak ile olumlu geribildirim arasında bir uyum etkisinin olduğunu göstermişlerdir.

Bütün çalışmalar göz önüne alındığında, düzenleyici odak ile geribildirim yönü arasındaki uyumun motivasyon ve hedeflere ayrılan kaynaklar üzerindeki etkisini daha açık bir şekilde ortaya koymak için yeni çalışmaların gerekliliği ortaya çıkmaktadır. Özellikle, Türkiye gibi kaçınmacı odağın daha yaygın olabileceği

kültürlerde, bu etkilerin incelenmesi daha da kritik bir önem taşımaktadır. Zira Higgins (1996b) kolektivist toplumlarda kaçınmacı odağın daha yaygın olabileceğini öne sürmüştür. İlgili yazında bu önermeyi destekleyen bulgular da mevcuttur. Üskül, Sherman ve Fitzgibbon (2008) daha yüksek yaklaşmacı odağa sahip İngiliz katılımcıların kazanma odaklı mesajlarla daha fazla ikna olduklarını, daha yüksek kaçınmacı odağa sahip doğu Asyalı katılımcıların ise kaybetme odaklı mesajlarla daha fazla ikna olduklarını göstermişlerdir. Bu ve benzeri bulgular, kültürel özelliklerin benlik düzenleme odağı üzerindeki potansiyel etkilerini göstermesi açısından oldukça önemlidir. Buna göre, kültürel özelliklerin benlik düzenleme odağı ile geribildirim gibi hedef izleme stratejisi ve tercihleri arasındaki uyum üzerinde potansiyel bir etkisi olduğu söylenebilir. Buradan hareketle, bu çalışmanın temel hedeflerinden birisi, geribildirim yönü ile benlik düzenleme odakları arasındaki uyumu Batı kültürleri dışındaki bir kültürde test ederek mevcut bulguları tekrarlamak ve kuramın sayılıtlarına katkıda bulunmaktır.

Düzenleyici Uyum ve Motivasyon

Düzenleyici uyum teorisinin motivasyonel süreçler üzerindeki önermelerinin hedefleri izleme üzerinde önemli sonuçları vardır. Bu alandaki geçmiş çalışmalar genel olarak anagram çözme gibi klasik deneysel yöntemleri kullanarak motivasyon yazınının bulgularını geliştirmeyi hedeflemiştir.

Bu çalışmaların odaklandığı temel bulgulardan birisi hedefe yaklaşıldıkça motivasyonun arttığını öne süren (Lewin, 1951) hipotezin test edildiği çalışmalardır. Bu çalışmalarda hedefe yaklaşma, genel olarak katılımcıya verilen olumlu geribildirim ile sağlanan hedef üzerindeki ilerleme algısı olarak tanımlanmaktadır (Förster, Grant, Idson ve Higgins, 2001). Buna göre, yaklaşmacı odağa sahip bireyler hedefe yaklaştıkça ‘yaklaşma’ motivasyonunun artacağı, kaçınmacı odağa sahip bireyler hedefe yaklaştıkça ‘kaçınma’ motivasyonunun artacağı öne sürülmektedir (Higgins, Friedman, Harlow, Idson ve Ayduk, 2001).

Bu konuya odaklanan alıřmaların ortak sınırlılıklarından biri, hedefleri izleme srecinin tek bir hedefin izlendiđi sınırlandırılmıř bir ortam olarak tanımlanmasıdır. Bu bulgular, oklu hedeflerin izlendiđi bir yaklařımla ele alındıđında, hedefe yaklařıldıka motivasyonun artmayacađı tersine dřeceđi ne srlebilir (Carver ve Scheier, 2000). Bu nermeye temel olan yaklařım, bireylerin oklu hedeflere ulařmaya alıřtıđı kořullarda btn hedefleri gzetecek bir biimde kaynak aktarımı yapmaları gerekliliđidir. Buna gre, bireyler olumlu geribildirim gibi bir bilgiye dayanarak, o hedef zerindeki kaynaklarını azaltma yoluna gidebilirler. Buradaki ama, bařarılı bir benlik dzenleme stratejisi kullanarak btn hedefler iin kaynak yaratmaktır. Byle bir strateji, oklu hedefler yaklařımında kaynakları dengeleme olarak tanımlanmıřtır. Buradan hareketle bu alıřmanın temel hipotezi, dzenleyici uyumsuzluk gibi dřk motivasyonel kořullarda, olumlu geribildirim sonucunda kaynakların alternatif hedefe ynlendirileceđidir. Ayrıca, dzenleyici uyum gibi yksek motivasyonel kořullarda ise olumlu geribildirim sonucunda ise kaynakların odak hedefe ynlendirileceđi hipotezi ileri srlmřtr.

Dzenleyici uyum ile ilgili yazında sınırlı sayıda alıřma oklu hedeflerin izlendiđi kořullarda kaynakların hedeflere nasıl aktarıldıđını incelemiřtir. Ancak bu alıřmaların hepsi dřk dzey cezbedici hedefler ile yksek dzey hedefleri temel alarak yapılmıřtır. Bu konuyla ilgili alıřmaların bulguları farklı sonular vermiř olsa da hepsinin dayandıđı ortak bir nokta gze arpmaktadır. Buna gre, dzenleyici odak ile geribildirim yn arasında dzenleyici uyum ortaya ıktıđında bireyler o hedefe daha fazla kaynak ayırmaktadırlar. Bu da, kuramın dzenleyici uyumun hedef zerindeki motivasyonu arttıracaađına ynelik hipotezini desteklemektedir. Buradan hareketle, bu alıřmada da dzenleyici uyumun ortaya ıktıđı kořullarda bireylerin ilgili hedefe daha ok kaynak ayıracađı hipotez edilmiřtir.

Geribildirim yn ve benlik dzenleme odađı arasındaki uyum(suzluk) zerine yapılan btn alıřmalar gz nne alındıđında, bu uyumun kaynakların hedeflere yneltilmesi zerindeki etkisinin incelenmesi kritik nem tařıymaktadır. Bu alandaki alıřmaların tekli hedeflerin izlendiđi kořullarda ve sadece batı

kültürlerinde yapılmış olması ilgili yazında göze çarpan önemli sınırlılıklardır. Yine de düzenleyici uyum kuramının bu alandaki önermelerinin çoklu hedeflerin izlendiği ortamlara aktarılması bu alandaki açığın kapanmasına katkıda bulunacaktır. Buradan hareketle, bu çalışmanın amacı geribildirim yönü ve benlik düzenleme odağı ile yaratılan düzenleyici uyum(suzluk) durumlarının hedeflere kaynak aktarımı üzerindeki etkisinin incelenmesidir. Bu çalışmada, teoride öne sürüldüğü şekilde olumlu geribildirim yaklaşmacı odakla, olumsuz geribildirim de kaçınmacı odakla uyum göstereceği beklenmektedir. Bu hipotezi test etmek için birinci çalışmada anagram çözme görevi kullanılmıştır.

İkinci ve üçüncü çalışmalarda ise yukarıda bahsedilen düzenleyici uyum(suzluk) koşullarının çoklu hedeflerin izlendiği durumlarda hangi hedefe nasıl ve ne kadar kaynak aktarılmasına yol açtığı test edilmiştir. Bu amaçla, ikinci çalışmada benlik düzenleme odağı deneysel olarak uyandırılmış (tetiklenmiş) ve ardından katılımcılardan hayali bir senaryo temelinde kaynak aktarımı yapmaları istenmiştir. Bu çalışmada, uyum koşulundaki katılımcıların geribildirimi aldıkları odak hedefe, uyumsuzluk koşulundaki katılımcıların ise alternatif hedefe daha çok kaynak ayıracağı beklenmektedir. Üçüncü çalışmada, ikinci çalışmanın bulgularının benlik düzenleme odağı bağlamında hedef tipi eklenerek geliştirilmesi hedeflenmiştir. İkinci çalışmada, odaklar katılımcı temelinde uyandırılmış ve hedeflerin aynı odak perspektifinden değerlendirilmesi amaçlanmıştır. Bu çalışmada ise her hedef yaklaşmacı ya da kaçınmacı odak temelinde bir çerçevede verilmiştir. Bu çalışmada da hayali bir senaryo kullanılarak kaynakların ne kadarının alternatif hedefe yönlendirileceği test edilmiştir. Düzenleyici uyumsuzluk koşulundaki katılımcıların kaçınmacı odağa sahip hedefe daha fazla kaynak ayıracağı beklenmektedir. Kaçınmacı odağa sahip hedeflerin güvenliği sağlamaya yönelik olması ve bu ihtiyacın kazanma ihtiyacına göre görece daha temel ihtiyaç olması dolayısıyla, kaçınmacı çerçevede verilen alternatif hedefin katılımcıların kaynaklarını daha çok çekmesi beklenmektedir. Ayrıca, düzenleyici uyum koşulundaki katılımcıların bu uyumu sürdüren odağa sahip alternatif hedefe daha çok kaynak ayıracakları beklenmektedir.

Fishbach ve Finkelstein'in (2012) özetlediği üzere, bireyler olumlu ve beklendik sonuçlar doğuran davranışları ya da benzerlerini daha sonraki durumlarda da uygulama eğilimi gösterirler. Böyle bir davranış, hem tutarlılığı sürdürmeyi hem de istendik sonuçların olasılığını arttırmayı sağlamaktadır. Buradan hareketle, düzenleyici uyumun yarattığı kontrol duygusu ve 'doğru yapıyor olma' hissinin sürdürülmesi adına uyum koşulunu sürdüren alternatif hedeflere daha çok kaynak aktarılması beklenmektedir.

Çalışma 1

Birinci çalışmada geribildirim yönü kullanılarak yaratılan düzenleyici uyum(suzluk) koşullarının tek hedefin izlendiği durumlarda motivasyona etkisini gösteren bulguların tekrarlanması amaçlanmıştır. Bu amaçla, daha önceki çalışmalardakine benzer şekilde bilgisayar ortamında anagram çözme görevi kullanılmıştır (Förster ve arkadaşları, 2001).

Katılımcıların benlik düzenleme odakları, anagram çözme görevindeki kazanma ve kaybetme bağlamında uyandırılmış ve görevin ortasında sahte bir geribildirim verilmiştir. Motivasyon, ilgili yazında da sıklıkla kullanıldığı gibi hedefe ayrılan süre ile ölçülmüştür (Weiner, 1972). Çalışmanın hipotezleri aşağıdaki gibidir.

H1: Kaçınmacı odak koşulunda, olumsuz geribildirim olumlu geribildirime göre daha fazla zaman harcanmasına yol açacaktır.

H2: Yaklaşmacı odak koşulunda, olumlu geribildirim olumsuz geribildirime göre daha fazla zaman harcanmasına yol açacaktır.

Pilot Çalışma

Çalışmada kullanılacak anagramların belirlenmesi için önce bir pilot çalışma yapılmıştır. Ayrıca, sahte geribildirim gerçeğe algılanmasını sağlamak amacıyla ana çalışmada kullanılacak başarı düzeyinin tespit edilmesi de amaçlanmıştır. Türkçe anagram çözme sitelerinde sıklıkla kullanılan 20 anagram 24 üniversite öğrencisine ($Ort_{yaş.} = 23.27$, $SS. = 2.87$) çözdürülmüştür. Katılımcılardan her bir anagramı bütün harfleri kullanarak çözmeleri istenmiştir.

Ardından, katılımcılardan bütün olası çözümlerin yüzde kaçını çözdüklerini tahmin etmeleri istenmiştir. En yüksek standart sapmaya sahip altı anagram geribildirim sonrası koşulda kullanılmak üzere seçilmiştir. Bütün anagramlar ve olası çözümleri Ek B’de verilmiştir. Katılımcıların ortalama başarı beklentisi % 70.25 (SS. = 17.92) olarak bulunmuştur. Bu bulguya dayanarak ana çalışmada sahte geribildirimde kullanmak üzere % 70 başarı kriteri seçilmiştir.

Yöntem

Katılımcılar

Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi Psikoloji Bölümünde çeşitli derslere devam eden 100 öğrenci çalışmaya katılmıştır. Katılımcıların 48’i kadın, 52’si erkektir. Anagramlara harcanan süre üzerinde herhangi bir cinsiyet farkı bulunmamıştır. Katılımcıların ortalama yaşı 21.68’dir (SS. = 1.79, Yaş aralığı = 18-31).

Anagram Programı

Çalışmanın amaçlarına uygun olarak Linux temelinde çalışan bir bilgisayar programı geliştirilmiştir. Anagramlar ekranın üst orta kısmında verilmiştir ve altında katılımcıların yazdıkları kelimeler listelenmiştir. Program katılımcıların her bir anagram için harcadığı süreyi ve yazdıkları kelimeleri kaydetmiştir.

İşlem ve Araçlar

Katılımcılar laboratuvara geldiklerinde bir bilişsel performans testine katılacakları söylenmiştir. Ardından bilgisayar ortamında yaklaşımacı ve kaçınmacı koşullardan birini almışlardır. Yaklaşımacı odak koşulunda, % 70’in üzerinde performans gösterirlerse ekstra bir bonus puan alacakları, kaçınmacı odak koşulunda ise % 70’in altında performans gösterirlerse bir bonus puan kaybedecekleri söylenmiştir. Anagram görevinin ortasında geribildirim verilmiştir. Katılımcılara bilgisayarın katılımcıların performansını kaydettiğini ve onlara geribildirim vereceği söylenmiştir. Son olarak, katılımcıların farkındalığını ve manipülasyonların başarısını test etmek amacıyla, geribildirim yönü, hedefin

yaklaşmacı ya da kaçınmacı olup olmadığı, geribildirim ne kadar gerçekçi algılandığı sorulmuştur.

Çalışmanın ana bağımlı değişkeni sahte geribildirimden sonraki anagramlara harcanan ortalama süredir. Ayrıca, geribildirimden önceki ortalama süre de kontrol değişkeni olarak kullanılmıştır.

Sonuçlar

Hipotezleri test etmek amacıyla çoklu düzey modelleme yaklaşımı kullanılmıştır. Bu yaklaşım, katılımcılar arası değişimin (varyansın) yanı sıra tekrarlı anagram ölçümlerinden kaynaklanan değişimi de hesaba katabilmesi ve yordayabilmesi sebebiyle tercih edilmiştir (Radenbush ve Bryk, 2002). İki düzeyli analizlerde anagramlar ilk düzey değişken, katılımcılar ise ikinci düzey değişken olarak değerlendirilmiştir. İlk modelde hiçbir bağımsız değişkenin modele dahil edilmediği temel model test edilmiştir. İkinci modelde ise düzenleyici odak, geribildirim ve bu iki değişkenin ortak değişkeni analize eklenmiştir. Katılımcıların ortalama süreleri tek yöne yatık bir dağılım sergilediği için ortalama süreler karekök dönüştürülmesi uygulanmıştır. Etkiler ve değişim değerleri Tablo 1’de verilmiştir.

Tablo 1. Çoklu Düzey Modelleme Analizi Sonuçları

		Model 1	Model 2
<i>Sabit Unsurlar</i>			
Kesen (Intercept)	γ_{00}	6.98**	8.31**
Zaman 1	γ_{40}		.03
Düzenleyici odak	γ_{10}		-2.16**
Geribildirim	γ_{20}		-2.06**
Ortak etki	γ_{30}		2.13*
Seçkisiz varyans Var. (u0j)		5.19**	4.11**
Hata varyansı Var. (rij)		1.82	1.83
Sapma (-2LL)		2350.76	2333.49

Birinci modelde katılımcıların anagramlar üzerinde harcadıkları zamanın katılımcılar arasında bir farklılık gösterip göstermediği test edilmiştir. Sonuçlar, bütün örneklemin genelinde anagramlar üzerinde geçirilen ortalama sürenin 6.98 ($t(100) = 29.76, p = .001$) olduğunu göstermiştir. Ayrıca, katılımcıların ortalama anagram sürelerinin birbirinden farklılaştığı bulunmuştur ($Wald = 6.68, p < .001$). Ek olarak, değişkenliğin % 74'ünün katılımcılar arasındaki varyans ile açıklanabileceği bulunmuştur ($ICC = .74$).

İkinci modelde, bu değişkenliği yordayabilmek amacıyla çalışmanın temel değişkenleri ve onların ortak etkisi analize sokulmuştur. Modele eklenen değişkenlerin, bu modeli temel modele göre geliştirdiği bulunmuştur ($\Delta\chi^2(4) = 17.27, p < .01$). Özel olarak, hem düzenleyici odağın ($\beta_{1j} = -2.16, p < .001$) ana etkisi hem de geribildirim ($\beta_{2j} = -2.06, p < .001$) ana etkisi olduğu gözlenmiştir. Ek olarak, hipotez edilen ortak etkinin de anlamlı olduğu bulunmuştur ($\beta_{3j} = 2.13, p < .001$). Ortak etkinin örüntüsünü ortaya koymak amacıyla yapılan ileri analizler, sadece kaçınmacı odak için anlamlı sonuçlar vermiştir. Kaçınmacı odak koşulundaki katılımcılardan olumsuz geribildirim alanlar, olumlu geribildirim alanlara göre anagramları çözmek için daha fazla süre harcamışlardır.

Sonuçlar kaçınmacı odak ile ilgili hipotezi desteklerken, yaklaşmacı odak ile ilgili hipotez desteklenmemiştir. Olumsuz geribildirim alan kaçınmacı odak koşulundaki katılımcıların motivasyonu artmış ve anagramlar üzerinde ortalama olarak daha fazla süre harcamışlardır. Sonuçlar düzenleyici uyum teorisinin geribildirim ile ilgili temel hipotezinin bir kısmının doğrulandığını göstermektedir. Bu sonuçlar, çalışmanın yapıldığı örneklemin genel olarak daha kaçınmacı bir benlik düzenleme odağına sahip olmasından kaynaklanıyor olabilir. Katılımcıların deney ortamına taşıdıkları temel kaçınmacı odak yaklaşımları, deneyde kaçınmacı odak çerçevesinde verilen olumsuz geribildirim verilen tepkinin şiddetlenmesine ve anagramlara daha fazla süre ayrılmasına yol açmış olabilir.

Çalışma 2

İkinci çalışma, birinci çalışmayı birkaç şekilde geliştirmeyi amaçlamıştır. İlk olarak, düzenleyici uyum(suzluk) ilk defa çoklu hedeflerin izlendiği bir ortamda test edilmiştir. İkinci olarak, anagram çözme gibi deneysel bir görevin yerine, sonuçların genellenebilirliğini arttırmak için gerçek hayata uygun bir senaryo kullanılmıştır. Üçüncüsü, katılımcılara verilen sahte geribildirimün büyüklüğünün karıştırıcı etkilerini kontrol etmek için olumlu ve olumsuz geribildirim aynı büyüklük kullanılarak verilmiştir. Bu amaçla, geribildirim % 48 seviyesinde sabit tutulmuş ancak olumsuz geribildirimde ‘kalan işler’ vurgulanırken olumlu geribildirimde ‘tamamlanmış işler’ vurgulanmıştır. Çalışmanın hipotezleri aşağıdaki gibidir.

H1. Kaçınmacı odak koşulundaki katılımcılar olumsuz geribildirim aldıklarında odak hedefe alternatif hedefe göre daha fazla kaynak ayıracaklardır.

H2. Yaklaşmacı odak koşulundaki katılımcılar olumlu geribildirim aldıklarında odak hedefe alternatif hedefe göre daha fazla kaynak ayıracaklardır.

Yöntem

Katılımcılar

Çalışmaya Yıldırım Beyazıt Üniversitesi ve Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi’nde psikoloji lisans eğitimine devam etmekte olan 142 katılımcı katılmıştır. Katılımcıların 68’i ODTÜ’de, 74’ü ise YBÜ’de çalışmaya katılmışlardır. Üniversiteler arasında çalışmanın değişkenleri üzerinde fark çıkmamıştır. Katılımcıların büyük çoğunluğu kadın katılımcılardan oluşmaktadır (N = 119, % 83.8). Çalışmaya katılan katılımcıların yaş ortalaması 20.91’dir (SS = 1.64, Yaş aralığı = 19-30).

İşlem ve Araçlar

Benlik düzenleme odağını manipüle edebilmek amacıyla ‘birbirinden bağımsız çalışmalar’ yaklaşımı kullanılmıştır. Buradaki amaç, katılımcının manipülasyon ile deneysel koşullar arasındaki bağlantıyı kurmaması ve çalışmanın gerçek

amacını anlamamasını sağlamaktır. Bu sebeple, çalışmaya katılan katılımcılara iki farklı çalışmaya katılacakları söylenmiştir. Düzenleyici odak manipülasyonu sahte deneyci yardımıyla gerçekleştirilmiştir. Düzenleyici odak, daha önceki çalışmalara benzer şekilde uyandırılmıştır (örn.; Liberman, Molden, Idson ve Higgins, 2001). Yaklaşmacı odak koşulundaki katılımcılara umutları ve hayalleri üzerine düşünceleri ve bunların nasıl geliştiği ile ilgili bir paragraf yazmaları söylenmiştir. Kaçınmacı odak koşulundaki katılımcılara ise sorumlulukları ve zorunlulukları üzerine düşünceleri ve paragraf yazmaları söylenmiştir. Ardından, bir başka deneyci ikinci çalışmayı tanıtmıştır. Bu çalışmada, katılımcılardan senaryoyu okumaları ve senaryoda verilen durumda olduklarını düşünceleri ve buna göre karar vermeleri istenmiştir. Senaryoda üç gün sonra aynı öneme sahip iki zorunlu dersten sınav olduğu, önlerinde ders çalışabilecekleri toplam 18 saatleri olduğu söylenmiştir. Ardından bu derslerden biri için olumlu ya da olumsuz geribildirim verilmiştir. Geribildirimde dersin çalışmasının yarısının tamamlandığı ya da daha tamamlanamadığı söylenmiştir. Ardından, katılımcılara bu koşullarda hangi derse ne kadar süre ayırdıklarını belirtmeleri istenmiştir.

Sonuçlar

Hipotezleri test etmek amacıyla bir dizi 2 (yaklaşmacı; kaçınmacı odak) X 2 (olumlu; olumsuz geribildirim) kişilerarası desen test edilmiştir. Analizlerde her iki derse ayrılan süre bağımlı değişken olarak alınmıştır. Her iki analizin sonuçları Tablo 2’de verilmiştir.

Tablo 2. Hedeflere Ayrılan Zamanlar Üzerindeki ANOVA Sonuçları

Odak hedefe ayrılan zaman			
Kaynak	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	Eta Kare
Düzenleyici Odak	.840	.361	.006
Geribildirim	.483	.483	.004
Ortak Etki	14.17	.001	.094
Alternatif hedefe ayrılan zaman			
	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	Eta Kare
Düzenleyici Odak	.433	.511	.003
Geribildirim	.129	.720	.001
Ortak Etki	7.84	.006	.054

İlk analizde, katılımcıların geribildirim aldıkları odak hedefe ayırdıkları süre bağımlı değişken olarak alınmıştır. Sonuçlar, hem düzenleyici odağın hem de geribildirim ana etkisinin anlamsız olduğunu göstermiştir. Ancak, bu iki değişkenin ortak etkisinin anlamlı olduğu bulunmuştur ($F(1, 139) = 14.17, p < .001$). Ortak etkinin örüntüsünü ortaya çıkarmak amacıyla yapılan ileri analizlerin sonuçlarına göre, yaklaşmacı odak koşulundaki katılımcılar olumlu geribildirim aldıklarında ($Ort. = 7.97, SH = .39$), olumsuz geribildirime ($Ort. = 6.81, SH = .37, F(1, 136) = 4.61, p < .05$) kıyasla odak hedefe daha çok zaman ayırmışlardır. Ayrıca, kaçınmacı odak koşulundaki katılımcılar, olumsuz geribildirim aldıklarında ($Ort. = 7.89, SH = .38$), olumlu geribildirime ($Ort. = 6.19, SH = .37, F(1, 136) = 10.10, p < .05$) kıyasla odak hedefe daha çok zaman ayırmışlardır.

İkinci analizde, katılımcıların alternatif hedefe ayırdıkları süre bağımsız değişken olarak analize dahil edilmiştir. Sonuçlar hem düzenleyici odağın hem de geribildirim ana etkilerinin anlamsız olduğunu göstermiştir. Ancak, bu iki değişkenin ortak etkisinin anlamlı olduğu bulunmuştur ($F(1, 136) = 7.84, p < .001$). Ortak etkinin doğasını ortaya çıkarmak amacıyla yapılan ileri analizlerin sonuçlarına göre, yaklaşmacı odak koşulundaki katılımcılar olumsuz geribildirim aldıklarında ($Ort. = 7.97, SH = .39$), olumlu geribildirime ($Ort. = 10.19, SH = .46$)

kıyasla alternatif hedefe daha çok zaman ayırmışlardır. Ayrıca, kaçınmacı odak koşulundaki katılımcılar, olumlu geribildirim aldıklarında ($Ort. = 10.33$, $SH = .46$), olumsuz geribildirime ($Ort. = 9.20$, $SH = .46$) kıyasla alternatif hedefe daha çok zaman ayırmışlardır.

Sonuçlar genel olarak değerlendirildiğinde, çalışmanın bütün hipotezlerinin desteklendiği görülmektedir. Katılımcılar, düzenleyici uyum yaşadıkları koşullarda, bu uyumun ortaya çıkmasını sağlayan geribildirim verildiği hedefe daha çok kaynak ayırmışlardır. Geribildirim odağa uymadığı durumlarda ise kaynaklar alternatif hedefe yönlendirilmiştir. Bu bulgular, düzenleyici uyum teorisinin önerdiği gibi uyum koşullarının motivasyonu arttırdığını göstermektedir. Dikkat çekici olan, bu çalışmada önermenin çoklu hedeflerin izlendiği koşullarda da geçerli olduğu göstermiş olmasıdır. Diğer taraftan, uyumsuzluk yaşandığı koşullarda katılımcılar dikkatlerini alternatif hedefe yönlendirerek, ilgili hedefte ilerleme kaydetmeyi amaçlamışlardır.

Çalışma 3

Üçüncü çalışmada, ikinci çalışmadakine benzer bir desen kullanılmıştır. Bu çalışmada ek olarak, katılımcılara sunulan hedefler kendi içlerinde ayrı ayrı düzenleyici odak çerçevesinde tasarlanmıştır. Böylelikle, alternatif hedefin değişik düzenleyici odaklar ile tanımlandığı koşullarda kaynakların nasıl dağıtıldığı ölçülmeye çalışılmıştır. Buradaki amaç, gerçek hayattaki çoklu hedef izleme koşullarını deney ortamına yansıtmaktır. Günlük hayatlarımızda, önümüze gelen hedefleri yaklaşmacı ya da kaçınmacı hedefler olarak algılayabiliriz. Ek olarak, seçtiğimiz hedefler aynı anda hem yaklaşmacı hem de kaçınmacı hedeflerden oluşuyor olabilir. Dolayısıyla, hedeflerin düzenleyici odak bağlamında organize edildiği bir çalışma deseni, ikinci çalışmanın bulgularının gerçek hayata daha fazla yakınsanmasını sağlayacaktır. Bu amaçlar doğrultusunda, üçüncü çalışmada ikinci çalışmaya benzer bir şekilde, katılımcılara bir senaryo verilmiş ve kendilerini senaryoda verili durumda düşünmeleri ve değerlendirmelerini bu doğrultuda yapmaları istenmiştir. Çalışmanın hipotezleri aşağıdaki gibidir.

H1. Düzenleyici uyumsuzluk olduğu koşullarda, kaynaklar yaklaşmacı alternatif hedefe kıyasla kaçınmacı alternatif hedefe daha çok ayrılacaktır.

H2. Yaklaşmacı odak hedef ve olumlu geribildirim arasındaki uyum koşulunda katılımcılar kaynaklarını kaçınmacı alternatif hedefe kıyasla yaklaşmacı alternatif hedefe ayıracaklardır.

H3. Kaçınmacı odak hedef ve olumsuz geribildirim arasındaki uyum koşulunda katılımcılar kaynaklarını yaklaşmacı alternatif hedefe kıyasla kaçınmacı alternatif hedefe ayıracaklardır.

Yöntem

Katılımcılar

Çalışmaya Yıldırım Beyazıt Üniversitesi ve Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi'nde Psikoloji lisans eğitimine devam etmekte olan 190 katılımcı katılmıştır. Katılımcıların 65'i ODTÜ'de, 125'i ise YBÜ'de çalışmaya katılmışlardır. Üniversiteler arasında çalışmanın değişkenleri üzerinde fark çıkmamıştır. Katılımcıların büyük çoğunluğu kadın katılımcılardan oluşmaktadır (N = 147, % 77.4). Çalışmaya katılan katılımcıların yaş ortalaması 20.95'dir (SS = 3.28, Yaş aralığı = 18-53).

İşlem ve Araçlar

Odak ve alternatif hedeflerin düzenleyici odağı ile geribildirim değiştiği sekiz senaryo hazırlanmıştır. Senaryoların manipülasyon kısımları haricinde bütün kısımları birebir aynı tutulmuştur. Odak ve alternatif hedeflerin içeriğini belirlemek amacıyla bir pilot çalışma yapılmıştır. Çalışmada 50 ODTÜ lisans öğrencisinden günlük hayatlarındaki hedeflerini listelemeleri istenmiştir. Yanıtlar dört temel grupta toparlanmıştır. Bunlar; ahlaki hedefler, ilişkisel hedefler, ekonomik hedefler ve akademik hedeflerdir. Ekonomik ve akademik hedeflerin daha yakınsak ve somut hedeflerden oluşması sebebiyle ana çalışmada bu hedefler kullanılmıştır.

Ana çalışmada katılımcılara hayali bir durum verilmiştir. Bu senaryoda, katılımcıların akademik hedeflerine ulaşmak için yoğun bir şekilde çalıştıkları söylenmiştir. Ardından bu hedefle ilgili olumlu ya da olumsuz geribildirim verilmiştir. Daha sonra, yarı-zamanlı bir iş fırsatı ile karşılaştıkları ve çalışacakları süreyi belirleme imkanları olduğu anlatılmıştır. Son olarak, katılımcılardan işi kabul edip etmedikleri, ettilerse haftada 18 üzerinden ne kadar zaman ayırabileceklerini belirtmeleri istenmiştir. Çalışmada kullanılan bütün senaryolar Ek F’de verilmiştir.

Sonuçlar

Hipotezleri test etmek için 2 (yaklaşmacı, kaçınmacı odak hedef) X 2 (olumlu, olumsuz geribildirim) X 2 (yaklaşmacı, kaçınmacı alternatif hedef) kişilerarası desen ANOVA analizi yapılmıştır (Tablo 3). Analizde bağımlı değişken olarak, alternatif hedefe ayrılan süre kullanılmıştır.

Tablo 3. Alternatif hedefe ayrılan zaman üzerindeki ANOVA sonuçları

	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>	η^2
<i>Değişkenler</i>			
Odak hedef	.27	.604	.002
Geribildirim	.04	.842	.001
Alternatif hedef	.54	.463	.003
Odak*Geribildirim	1.63	.203	.009
Odak*Alternatif	.29	.593	.002
Geribildirim*Alternatif	.01	.935	.001
Odak*Geribildirim*Alternatif	19.78	.001	.099

Analiz sonuçlarına göre, hiçbir ana etki ve ikili ortak etkinin istatistiksel olarak anlamlı etkisi olmadığı gözlenmiştir. Ancak üçlü ortak etkinin alternatif hedefe ayrılan zaman üzerinde anlamlı bir etkisi olduğu bulunmuştur ($F(1, 189) = 19.78$, $p < .001$). Üçlü ortak etkinin örüntüsünü ortaya çıkarmak amacıyla ileri analizler yapılmıştır. Bu analizin sonuçlarına göre, yaklaşmacı odak hedefine yönelik

olumlu geribildirim alan yaklaşmacı alternatif hedef koşulundaki katılımcılar, bu hedeflerine yaklaşmacı odak hedefine olumlu geribildirim alan kaçınmacı alternatif hedef koşulundakilere göre daha fazla zaman ayırmışlardır. Yaklaşmacı odak hedefe olumsuz geribildirim verildiği koşullarda yaklaşmacı ve kaçınmacı alternatif hedefler arasında anlamlı bir fark bulunmamıştır. Ayrıca, kaçınmacı odak hedefine olumlu geribildirim alan kaçınmacı alternatif hedef koşulundaki katılımcılar, bu hedeflerine kaçınmacı odak hedefine olumlu geribildirim alan yaklaşmacı alternatif hedef koşulundakilere göre daha fazla zaman ayırmışlardır. Olumsuz geribildirim durumlarında bu ilişkinin tersine döndüğü gözlenmiştir. Buna göre, kaçınmacı odak hedefine olumsuz geribildirim alan yaklaşmacı alternatif hedef koşulundaki katılımcılar, bu hedeflerine kaçınmacı hedefine olumsuz geribildirim alan kaçınmacı alternatif hedef koşulundakilere göre daha fazla zaman ayırmışlardır.

Bu sonuçlar, hipotezlerin bir kısmının desteklendiğini göstermektedir. Birinci hipotezde öne sürülen uyumsuzluk koşullarında kaçınmacı alternatif hedefe daha çok zaman ayrılacağı beklentisi sadece kaçınmacı uyumsuzluk koşulunda gözlenirken, yaklaşmacı uyumsuzluk koşulunda sonuçlar anlamsız çıkmıştır. İkinci hipotezde öne sürülen yaklaşmacı uyum koşulunda yaklaşmacı alternatif hedefe daha çok kaynak ayrılacağı beklentisi karşılanmıştır. Katılımcılar, olumlu sonuçlar doğuran davranışlarını sürdürme eğiliminin bir yansıması olarak olumlu geribildirim aldıkları odak tipine kaynak ayırmaya devam etmeyi tercih etmişlerdir. Üçüncü hipotezde öne sürülen, kaçınmacı uyum koşulundaki katılımcıların kaçınmacı alternatif hedefe kaynak ayıracakları beklentisi karşılanmamıştır. Aksine, bu koşuldaki katılımcılar yaklaşmacı alternatif hedefe daha çok kaynak ayırmışlardır. Bunun muhtemel sebeplerinden birisi, iki tane kaçınmacı yani kaybetmeyi vurgulayan hedef olduğu koşullarda, geribildirim de olumsuz olması olabilir. Bu durum, katılımcılar için ciddi bir tehdit ortamı yaratmış olabilir. Bu tehdidin bir sonucu olarak, içinde bulundukları durumdan bir an önce kurtulmak için yönlerini yaklaşmacı hedefe çevirmiş olabilirler.

Tartışma

Bu çalışmada çoklu hedeflerin izlendiği koşullarda düzenleyici uyumun kaynakların dağıtımını üzerindeki etkisi incelenmiştir. Yanı sıra, düzenleyici uyum teorisinin temel hipotezlerinden birisi olan geribildirim ile düzenleyici odak arasındaki uyum incelenmiştir. Sonuçlar, düzenleyici uyumun hedeflere aktarılan kaynakların miktarını belirleme üzerinde bir etkisi olduğunu göstermiştir. Genel olarak, düzenleyici uyumun deneyimlendiği koşullarda, ilgili hedefe daha çok kaynak ayrıldığı, düzenleyici uyumsuzluk deneyimlendiği koşullarda ise alternatif hedefe daha çok ayrıldığı bulunmuştur.

Bu çalışmanın ilgili yazına katkılarından birisi, düzenleyici uyum teorisinin tartışmalı temel hipotezlerinden birisi olan geribildirim ile yaratılan uyumun dinamiklerini ilk kez Batı kültürü dışında bir örneklem kullanarak test etmesidir. Bulgular, temel hipotezi kısmen desteklemiştir. Özel olarak, olumsuz geribildirim ile kaçınmacı odak arasındaki uyumun motivasyon üzerinde anlamlı bir etkisi olduğu gözlenmiştir. Örneklemin görece daha kaçınmacı odağa sahip bir kültürden geliyor olması, potansiyel bir kültürel ortak etkinin varlığını ortaya koyuyor olabilir. Bu çalışmada, katılımcıların kronik ya da kişilik özelliği temelinde düzenleyici odakları ölçülmediğinden ileride yapılacak çalışmalar bu tür potansiyel etkileri ortaya koymak açısından önemli olacaktır.

Çalışmanın ilgili yazına ikinci katkısı düzenleyici uyumun çoklu hedef ortamında kaynak aktarımı üzerindeki etkilerini ortaya koyması olmuştur. Bu alanda yapılacak yeni çalışmalar, bu bulguların genellenebilirliğini arttırmak açısından önemli olacaktır. Bunun yanı sıra, kaynakların dağıtılması sürecindeki aracı değişkenlerin ortaya konması, bireylerin çoklu hedefleri izlerken kullandıkları stratejileri daha iyi anlamamıza yardımcı olabilir. Örneğin, hedefe duyulan bağlılık ya da hedefi başarma konusundaki beklentiler de düzenleyici uyumun kaynak aktarımı üzerindeki etkilerine aracılık ediyor olabilir. Bir başka önemli nokta ise, ortaya konulan bulguların bireylerin benlik düzenleme becerileri ve başarıları üzerindeki potansiyel etkileridir. Bu çalışmanın bulguları, katılımcıların izledikleri stratejilerin başarılı bir şekilde sonuçlanıp sonuçlanmadığını göstermemektedir. Bu alanda yapılacak çalışmalar yaklaşmacı ya da kaçınmacı

uyum(suzluk) koşullarının benlik düzenleme başarısı hakkında fikir vermesi açısından önemli olacaktır.

Çalışmanın bir başka katkısı benlik düzenleme odakları arasındaki potansiyel bir hiyerarşiye işaret etmesidir. Kuram, yaklaşmacı ve kaçınmacı odağın aynı düzeyde iki strateji olduğunu önermektedir. Ancak, birinci ve üçüncü çalışmanın bulguları, bireylerin en azından belli koşullar altında güvenliği sağlamayı (kaçınmacı yönelimi) kazanım ve ilerlemeye (yaklaşmacı yönelime) tercih ediyor olabileceğini göstermektedir.

Çalışmanın bulgularının eğitim, sağlık ve iş ortamı alanlarına önemli çıkarımları bulunmaktadır. Bu alanlarda, öğrencilere, çalışanlara ya da hastalara verilen kaçınmacı ya da yaklaşmacı hedefler ile bu hedeflere verilen geribildirim özelliklerinin motivasyonel süreçleri etkileme olasılığı vardır. Çalışmanın bulguları, performansı ve öğrenme sürecini arttıracak şekilde düzenlenmiş ortamlar yaratmak için kullanılabilir. Örneğin, sigarayı bırakmak gibi sağlıkla ilgili hedefler yaşamsal tehditlerinden ötürü genellikle kaçınmacı hedefler olarak algılanmaktadır. Bu gibi durumlarda, olumlu geribildirim motivasyonu azaltarak sigarayı bırakmada başarısız olma ve geri dönüş yaşamaya sebep olabilir. Bu ve benzeri durumlarda benlik düzenleme başarısı sağlamak için hedeflerin kaçınmacı ya da yaklaşmacı bağlamda özel olarak çerçevelenmesi ve bu çerçeveye uyan geribildirimlerin kullanılması önemli olabilir. Genel olarak değerlendirildiğinde, bireylerin benlik düzenleme eğilimleri ile dışarıdan verilen geribildirim onların başarısı üzerinde anlamlı bir etkisi olabileceği görülmektedir. Bu anlamda, bu çalışmanın bulguları alana özgün bir katkı niteliğindedir.

TEZ FOTOKOPİSİ İZİN FORMU

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