CONFLICT MANAGEMENT STYLES AND WORK MOTIVATION OF ENGLISH PREPARATORY PROGRAM INSTRUCTORS

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ABSTRACT

CONFLICT MANAGEMENT STYLES AND WORK MOTIVATION OF ENGLISH PREPARATORY PROGRAM INSTRUCTORS

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The main purpose of this study was to investigate the perceived conflict management styles of English Language Preparatory Program instructors working in Turkish universities in Istanbul and whether or not these styles differ accordingly to demographic features such as professional seniority. Additionally, the study investigated ELPP instructors' perceptions of work motivation, whether or not the work motivation differ accordingly to demographic features and whether there is any relationship between their conflict management styles and work motivation. The quantitative data were collected through ROCI-II Form C Questionnaire (Rahim, 1983) and Teacher Motivation Questionnaire (Kassagby et al., 2001) administered to 85 ELPP instructors. The qualitative data were collected through teacher reflections which came from 16 volunteer instructors. The study's findings indicated the most perceived conflict management style was collaboration, and teachers were motivated when there was autonomy, affiliation, and institutional support. Moreover, professional seniority had no effect on conflict management styles. However, there was a positive but weak significance between collaborating style with autonomy, affiliation, and support from the institution, and dominating style also had a positive but weak relationship with extrinsic motivators. Based on the findings, some pedagogical implications and recommendations were provided to researchers, teachers, and administrators seeking to investigate English language teachers' conflict management styles and their work motivation.

Keywords: Language Teacher, Conflict Management Styles, Professional Seniority, Work Motivation

ÖZ

İNGİLİZCE HAZIRLIK OKULU ÖĞRETİM GÖREVLİLERİNİN ÇATIŞMA STİLLERİ VE İŞ MOTIVASYONLARI

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Bu çalışmanın temel amacı, İstanbul'da bulunan Türk üniversitelerinde görev yapan İngilizce Hazırlık Programı öğretim elemanlarının çatışma yönetimi stillerini ve bu stillerin mesleki kıdem gibi çeşitli demografik özeliklere göre farklılık gösterip göstermediğini incelemektir. Ek olarak, çalışma İngilizce Hazırlık Programı öğretim elemanlarının iş motivasyonu algılarını, bu algıların çeşitli demografik özeliklere göre farklılık gösterip göstermediğini ve çatışma yönetimi tarzları ile iş motivasyonu arasında herhangi bir ilişki olup olmadığını araştırmıştır. Nicel veriler, 85 İngilizce Hazırlık Programı öğretim elemanına uygulanan ROCI-II Form C Anketi (Rahim, 1983) ve Öğretmen Motivasyon Anketi (Kassagby ve diğerleri, 2001) aracılığıyla toplanmıştır. Nitel veriler, 16 gönüllü eğitmenden gelen öğretmen yansıtıcı metinler yoluyla toplanmıştır. Çalışmanın bulguları, en çok algılanan çatışma yönetimi tarzının işbirliği olduğunu ve öğretmenlerin özerklik, aidiyet ve kurumsal destek olduğunda motive olduklarını gösterdi. Ayrıca, mesleki kıdemin çatışma yönetimi stilleri üzerinde bir etkisi saptanmamıştır. Bununla birlikte, iş birliği yapma stili ile özerklik, aidiyet ve kurum desteği arasında pozitif ancak zayıf bir anlamlılık vardır ve hükmetme tarzı da dışsal motive edici unsurlar ile pozitif ancak zayıf bir ilişkiye sahiptir. Bulgulara dayalı olarak, İngilizce öğretmenlerinin çatışma yönetimi stillerini ve çalışma motivasyonlarını araştırmak isteyen araştırmacılara, öğretmenlere ve yöneticilere bazı pedagojik çıkarımlar ve öneriler sunulmuştur.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Yabancı Dil Öğretmeni, Çatışma Yönetimi Tarzları, Mesleki Kıdem, İş Motivasyonu

To my husband, my mother, my father, and my happy future

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CEFR	Common European Framework of Reference
Df.	Degree of freedom
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELPP	English Language Preparatory Program
ESL	English as a Second Language
ROCI-II	Rahim's Organizational Conflict Inventory-II
SD.	Standard Deviation
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
SDT	Self-determination Theory
$\bar{X}$	Mean

Chapter 1
Introduction

Communication is the backbone of all social relations and it constitutes one of the basic needs of people to survive in society. The way of communication varies from culture to culture and person to person which causes conflicts in all areas of life. Conflict is inevitable and this phenomenon is observed in every aspect of life as well as in organizational life where individuals are in constant communication with each other. An organization's main element is human and personal differences, ideals, and goals are coalescent within an organization. In the workspace, it is inevitable not to have conflicts triggered by the differences in the ways that individuals communicate with each other. These conflicts are possibly caused by too little or too much communication, personal differences, beliefs, and expectations, which eventually affect an individual's performance and motivation (Darling & Walker, 2001). One occupation requiring constant communication is teaching and avoiding conflicts in an educational institution is not a solution.

A teacher communicates and interacts with the students inside and outside the classroom and in an institution such as a school or university, an instructor is in ongoing contact with other teachers, parents, and school administrators. In such cases, conflicts are unavoidable and have an impact on the instructor's motivation.

1.1 Background of the Study

1.1.1 Conflict. As Rahim (2000) describes, conflict occurs when one or more social units are obliged to be involved in an activity that is not compatible with their needs and desires and have different preferences to implement that activity in joint action (p. 18). However, conflicts are not considered conflicts if they do not exceed a threshold level and this level may vary depending on individuals' tolerance. Similarly, Pondy (1967) defines conflict as a dynamic process and suggests that a possible conflict might not be considered a conflict by both or all entities and may never arrive at resentment or aggression. Moreover, Kilmann and Thomas (1977) explain conflict as a state of disagreement between the objectives and values of an individual with others which interferes with one another's achievements with a hostile approach. In other words, conflicts are the consequence of a distinct level of

disappointment and frustration which are the consequences of the actions of other teachers and administrative parties in educational organizations (Farooqi, Arshad, Khan & Ghaffar, 2015). Therefore, the disagreement must be serious enough for all parties or one to transform into a conflict and there should be resentment or negative feelings among the social entities.

1.1.1.1 Conflict management styles. Conflicts occur wherever there is human communication and how conflicts are distinguished varies depending on the individuals and organizations they belong to. There are different types of organizational conflicts that have been put forward by Rahim (2000) and these are categorized as either intraorganizational or interorganizational conflicts. The former refers to the conflicts that arise within an organization and the latter refers to the conflicts between two and more than two organizations. Intraorganizational conflicts have subcategories that are characterized as intrapersonal, interpersonal, intragroup, and intergroup.

One of the most experienced conflicts within an organization is interpersonal conflicts which are considered an active process that arises between interdependent individuals or groups who have various ranks and individual conditions (Rahim, 1983; Barki & Hartwick, 2004). For interpersonal conflicts, five different styles of conflict management have been identified by Rahim (1983), which are integrating, obliging, dominating, avoiding, and compromising, and it has been approached in two dimensions which are a concern for self and others (p. 369). Concern for self refers to how much a person tries to please their concerns. On the contrary, concern for others deals with how much a person attempts to satisfy the concern of others and both have either high or low degrees of concern. Thomas and Kilmann (1978) suggest an equivalent to the degrees of these dimensions: cooperation and assertiveness. The former refers to a high degree of concern to meet others' concerns and the latter suggests satisfaction of own concerns. These styles are the strategies that individuals apply when they handle interpersonal conflict. Having an interpersonal conflict in the workplace affects the teachers and this may result in a change in the motivation levels of teachers.

1.1.2 Motivation. Teacher motivation studies have always come after student motivation studies even though both have equal importance in teaching and learning.

Various researchers suggested different definitions of motivation. Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) define teacher motivation as the individual choice of action, persistence, and effort (p. 160). It involves elements such as why people decide to do an action, how long they would like to do it and how hard they would like to pursue it. Furthermore, it is described as the process that determines an individual's level of effort, direction, and tenacity in achieving a goal (Langton, Robbins & Judge, 2015). A person's motivation changes according to the level of motivation and the orientation of that motivation which shape a person's motivation to do an action, and they have been investigated through various viewpoints two of which are extrinsic and intrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000a).

1.1.2.1 Intrinsic motivation. As Deci (1975) defines, intrinsic teacher motivation is the activities or tasks pursued without any obvious rewards apart from doing the task or activity itself. Barbuto and Scholl (1998) refer to intrinsic motivation as being able to perform tasks or activities or pursue certain kinds of behaviors to purely enjoy them (p. 1012). Therefore, it ignores any outside rewards or interference. Ryan and Deci (2000b) categorized intrinsic motivation into three kinds: autonomy, relatedness, and competence (p. 68). Autonomy involves having the freedom to act, relatedness is feeling connected to the act and competence is the feeling of having the ability to succeed. As individuals are intrinsically interested in their actions or behaviors, they act willingly. Therefore, this type of motivation is considered autonomous motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2015). It is quite significant for the teacher to be able to have intrinsic motivation within the organization and this enables the teacher to build up a sense of belonging. In case this feeling has not been developed, then it is not easy for the teacher to feel motivated (Yüksel, 2020).

1.1.2.2 Extrinsic motivation. Extrinsic motivators motivate individuals to do actions or tasks for the sake of receiving a reward or attaining an external goal or escaping any punishment (Deci & Ryan, 2001). Thus, extrinsic motivation is the opposite of what extrinsic motivation is and focuses on the external outcomes of the actions. The organizational aspect of extrinsic motivation depends on the extrinsic motivators of the organization to which the teacher belongs. Income, retirement conditions, general insurance, and other additional benefits are some of the motivators for teachers (Praver & Oga-Baldwin, 2008). For teachers to have a

motivated and sustainable teaching process, there should also be satisfying working conditions in the organization, suitable working hours, and healthy communication with colleagues (İşgörür, 2020). If these conditions do not meet the needs and expectations of the teachers, then the motivation level of teachers is likely to decrease.

1.2 Purpose of the Study

The initial purpose of the study is to identify the conflict management styles and motivation levels of the English Language Prep Program (ELPP) instructors who are working at a private (non-profit) Turkish university. The second aim of the study is to investigate whether there is any relationship between the conflict management styles of ELPP instructors and their motivation levels.

1.3 Research Questions

The following research questions were addressed in this study to meet the objectives:

1) What are the ELPP instructors' overall perceptions of conflict management styles?
2) Do teachers' perceived conflict management styles differ significantly based on the following demographic features:
    a) Gender
    b) Age
    c) Education level
    d) Professional seniority
3) What are the ELPP instructors' overall perceptions of work motivation?
4) Do teachers' perceived work motivation differ significantly based on the following demographic features:
    a) Gender
    b) Age
    c) Education level
    d) Professional seniority
5) Is there any relationship between the conflict management styles of the ELPP instructors and their work motivation?

1.4 Significance of the Study

It is apparent that conflict is a part of all businesses including educational organizations. In these types of organizations, conflicts between teachers and administrators, teachers and students, and teacher and teacher conflicts are usual phenomena (Farooqi et al., 2015). Administrators and teachers need to know that conflicts are inevitable and they need to know how to handle conflicts that could arise between them. Conflicts that are not handled well may decrease the professional efficiency and motivation of the teachers; however, conflicts that are managed efficiently increase them (Yüksel, 2020). Language teaching is a prestigious and rewarding job that cannot possibly be pursued without being motivated. Interpersonal conflicts between teachers and other teachers may have an impact on teaching motivation within the same educational organization as different styles of conflict management may result in unexpected consequences. Moreover, being aware of one's conflict management style is an advantage for teachers since if language teachers can raise their awareness about it and how this affects their motivation, this can help them improve their motivation levels.

Conflict management styles and motivation have been investigated from different aspects regarding various educational organizations from K-12 to higher education. Conflict management (Cornille, 1999; Farooqi, 2015; Arslan, 2020; Ören, 2021) and teacher motivation (Lu, 1999; Partlak, 2014; Tsutsumi, 2014; İşgörür, 2020; Yüksel, 2020) have been explored depending on different variables such as the impact of conflict management styles of administrators on teachers, administrators and teachers' perceptions of their conflict management strategies and styles and the relationship between administrators' conflict management strategies and teachers' motivational levels.

On the global scale and in Turkey, after reviewing the literature, it has been concluded that the number of studies on the interpersonal conflict styles of language teachers and their teaching motivational levels is not efficient and it needs to be extended as not much is explored about the relationship between teachers' conflict management styles and motivation levels. The studies tend to investigate the relationship between the conflict management styles of the principals and the teachers with different variables. Not much has been focused on the conflict management styles between teachers and teachers and there have not been many

studies conducted especially in English preparatory programs. This is a neglected area as the number of administrators is far less than the number of teachers in an educational organization and teachers work together more than they work with administrators. Therefore, this study contributes to the field and literature by exploring ELPP instructors' conflict management styles and their impact on teachers' motivational levels in private universities in Turkey. The results of this study shed a light on teachers' relationships with their peers and how this relationship affects their motivation for teaching.

Chapter 2
Review of the Literature

The organization of this chapter can be described as follows. In the first part, conflict in organizations, factors causing conflict, stages, types and levels of conflict, conflict management styles, and conflict management in educational institutions will be explained in detail to construct the phenomenon of conflict management. Rahim's (1983) interpersonal conflict management styles will be provided to support the construct. Afterward, types of motivation, motivational theories, and motivation in educational institutions will be clarified to understand the phenomenon. Finally, as the focus of this study is to investigate the relationship between the conflict management styles of teachers and their motivation levels, related studies will be introduced to provide sufficient information about conflict management and motivation from various aspects.

2.1 Conflict in Organizations

Conflicts are observed wherever individuals interact with each other and the causes of conflict may range from differences in ideas and self-interests. It is commonly believed that conflict in organizations is perceived as a negative concept (Rahim, 1985, p. 81). With the developments in the field, attitudes regarding conflict shifted and it has started to be regarded as a positive factor that can benefit organizations (Thomas & Kilmann, 1978; Rahim, 1983; Thomas, 1992). The kinds of conflicts that are useful for the organization are regarded as functional conflicts, whereas conflicts that are destructive are regarded as dysfunctional conflicts (Maltz

& Kohli, 2000, p. 481; Katz & Flynn, 2013, p. 396; Langdon et al., 2015). Moreover, conflict, according to traditional organizational theorists, causes inefficiency and is thus undesirable, harmful to the organization, and should be avoided or minimized to the greatest extent feasible. Conflict may be avoided or at least minimized by employing effective management concepts in the development of high-quality interpersonal connections and conflict management highlights that although it has some costs, conflict may also have significant advantages to the organization (Lee, 2008). Therefore, contrary to common belief, the conflict in organizations should not necessarily be diminished or decreased but should be managed (Rahim, 1985, p. 81). With reference to this, for the last decade conflict has not been ignored or avoided but tried to be managed.

Various definitions of conflict have been suggested when the literature is reviewed. These definitions have some commonalities; however, they have highlighted different aspects of the conflict. According to Rahim (1985), conflict has been defined as an interaction as a result of controversy or disagreement within and between individuals or groups (p. 82). Incompatibility, disagreement, and conflicting behavior are considered this kind of interaction and they may result in undesirable consequences. Thomas (1992) referred to it as a process that starts once one of the individuals thinks that the other one has disappointed that individual's concerns (p. 265). This definition highlights the starting position of a conflict. Another definition of conflict regards it as a disagreement that arises when the objectives or beliefs of individuals or teams are not in accord with others resulting in frustration (Henry, 2009, p. 16). As highlighted earlier, conflict tends to be seen as a negative occurrence; however, the way it is perceived actually defines it for individuals. Conflicts happen because one individual perceives the other individual's behavior negatively (Robbins & Judge, 2013, p. 446), which means conflicts only happen when it is perceived as an undesirable action for the individual. Organizational conflicts occur because of the problems that individuals encounter while working together, which may lead to the work being delayed. Therefore, these kinds of conflicts may cause individuals who work at the same organization to part ways because of conflicting ideas. In these situations, the organizations are affected in damaging ways especially if the conflict is resolved in an aggressive manner.

Nowadays, the idea of conflict not being perceived as a malfunction or as an undesirable phenomenon within organizations has been increasing. How successful an organization is, depends on the ability to establish and employ suitable instruments to handle conflict (Pondy, 1967, p. 299). Moreover, the classical view which suggests avoiding conflicts has also been changing as mentioned earlier. The focus has been shifted to how well conflicts are managed and how they can bear new opportunities for the organizations including educational ones.

The modern theory of conflict management combines previous ideas from Thomas (1992), Blake, and Mouton (1964), as well as Pondy's (1967) and Rahim's (1985) models and theories, to build a greater theory. After examining many hypotheses, it was discovered that they all had the same basic structure and could be classified into the same categories.

2.2 Factors Causing Conflict

Many factors have been claimed to be the causes of conflict in organizations. Conflict is the result of the actions of employees and administrators in the same occupational group in their organizations. As mentioned earlier, conflict has been defined in many ways including the way it is perceived. When an action of an individual is perceived as incompatible, it may lead to the right conditions to form conflict. This incompatibility reveals itself in many ways such as preventing someone's promotion. Communication issues are another kind of incompatibility and they may occur due to a misunderstanding rather than a real disagreement (Folger, Poole & Stutman, 2021, p. 5). The structure of the organization is considered to be another factor that leads to conflicts. The factors can be the results of the requirements of the workplace rather than personality differences. The structure of an organization includes the group size, experience, nature of the group, rewards, objectives, and how much dependence there is between individuals or among groups (Langton, Robbins & Judge, 2015, p. 313). The clashes within these structural features prepare the right conditions for conflicts. Interdependence of one individual on another to achieve the goals stand out among the other factors as dependence is the prerequisite for conflict. In other words, an individual's success depends on the other individual's actions which may create tension and disagreement (Barki & Hartwick, 2004, p. 235).

Finally, individual differences are the other leading factor that should be highlighted along with the others. Beliefs and actions of individuals vary depending on their educational background, social and cultural status, age, and gender (Harris & Hartman, 2001, p. 377). All these differences create one's own thinking and behavioral styles and when individuals with different styles interact, it is undeniable that these differences can bear conflicts.

Furthermore, Pondy (1967) categorized the causes of conflict into four different groups; antecedent conditions, feelings, consciousness, and controversial behaviors (p. 299). These categories tend to arise from not having enough resources in the organization, tension or anxiety between the individuals, different perceptions of the conflict, and nonviolent or violent aggression. Whichever category the conflict in organizations falls into, explaining the relationship between them is more important than solving the conflicts. This broad categorization embraces all the common features of conflict which pave the way for the following integrative studies on conflict.

The factors that cause conflict vary depending on the perception of the researchers, however, it can be said that incompatibility, communication problems, hierarchy in the institution, and individual differences are the leading factors that cause conflict in organizations.

2.3 Stages of Conflict

When a conflict emerges due to certain factors, it goes through certain stages and evolves. In this process, certain behaviors reveal themselves in different ways, some of which can be positive or negative. There have been some models proposed to explain these stages and behaviors.

2.3.1 Pondy's model. Pondy (1967) developed a five-stage model for the development of conflicts within organizations. These are latent conflict conditions, perceived conflict, felt conflict, manifest conflict, and conflict aftermath conditions.

Latent conflict conditions are referred to as unrecognized conflicting problems including clashing objectives or inadequate resources within an organization. Having a lack of resources, power struggles, and differences in goals are the basic factors that pave the way to conflicts (Beck & Betz, 1975, p. 60). Latent conflict is

formed, when the demands of two parties exceed the available sources or if there isn't a common ground for an idea or a task.

Perceived conflict is reached when latent problems are recognized by any of the individuals. It is also highlighted that a conflict can occur even if the latent conflict stage is missed. This stage emerges because of the misperception of the positions of the individuals in the organization by others (Folger, Poole & Stutman 2021, p. 77). This results in miscommunication or misunderstanding between individuals.

Felt conflict is accessed when the conflict transforms an individual's feelings towards others (Maltz & Kohli, 2000, p. 480). There is a difference between this stage and the perceived conflict stage in that one of the individuals may not feel any negative feelings even if there is a conflict between two individuals.

Individuals enter the manifest conflict stage when each exhibit more than one incompatible behavior. Verbal and sometimes physical aggression is the most common behavior in this stage (Pondy, 1967, p. 303). This means that they have felt the differences, perceived the negative behavior, and understood the behavior in the context in which it occurs.

The last stage of the conflict is the conflict aftermath which is referred to as the stage where the conflict is resolved in a positive or a negative way. If the conflict is not properly resolved, then the risk of going back to the latent stage is possible (Folger, Poole & Stutman, 2021, p. 78). However, if the conflict is handled satisfactorily and accepted optimistically by all parties, then a more collaborative rapport can be established.

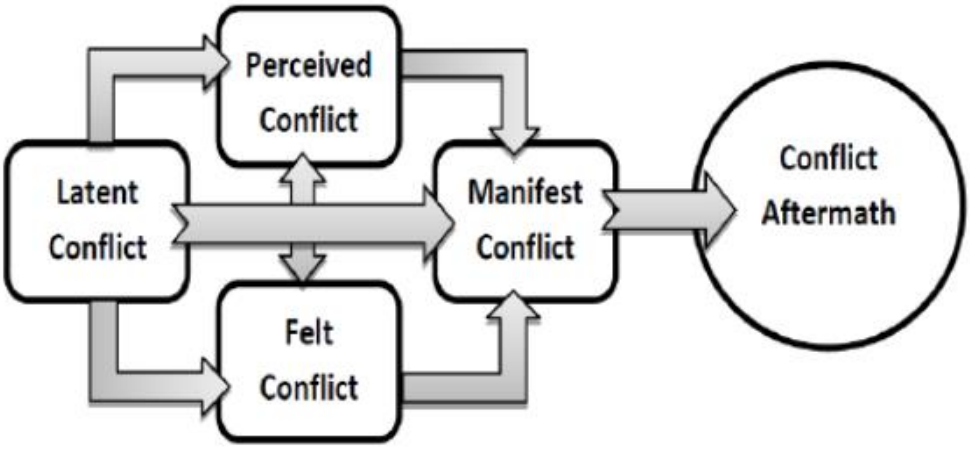

Figure 1. Flowchart of Pondy's Five-Stage Model (Pondy, 1967).

2.3.2 Rahim's model. Rahim (2000) developed an integrated model with five stages and it is used to define interpersonal, intragroup, and intergroup conflicts (p. 119).

The first stage is the antecedent conditions that emerge from the previously experienced situations and conditions. This stage has three subcategories: behavioral conditions, demographic conditions, and structural conditions. Behavioral conditions refer to the behaviors and approaches of the individual toward the conflict. Demographic conditions refer to the age, gender, marital status, and educational level of the individuals who are conflicting with each other. The last one is the structural conditions which refer to the conflicts that arise from the structure of the organization (Rahim, 2000, p. 119). All these conditions form the basic stage of conflict that may emerge in the organization.

The second stage is the behavioral changes in which the behaviors of the individuals in the organization may transform due to powerful conflict. In this case, the behaviors shift to the purpose of solely winning the conflict rather than solving the problem and being beneficial to the organization (Harris & Hartman, 2001, p. 383). Therefore, in this stage, depending on the hierarchical levels of individuals, different types of behaviors are observed. If both individuals have equal authority then compromising is observed. If one of the individuals has a higher status than the other one, then the dominating style outweighs the other behavior.

The next stage is structure formation referring to the change in the way that the individuals who are in conflict communicate (Rahim, 2000, p. 121). In this stage, the conflict becomes more rigid. Rather than freely communicating face-to-face, it is reduced to only written form. This means that the exchange of written information is based only on strict formal rules.

The conflict evolves to another stage at this point and that is the decision process. In this stage, different conflict management strategies can be used depending on the intensity of the conflict, the hierarchical level of conflicting individuals, and the level of conflict (Folger, Poole & Stutman, 2021, p. 79). These strategies may range from bargaining, compromising, and negation.

The last stage of this five-stage model is the conflict aftermath. In this stage, the conflict is resolved, and according to how the conflicts are handled in the decision process stage, individuals' perceptions of the conflict may change (Rahim,

2000, p. 122). It is highly important to resolve the conflict satisfactorily for both parties since if one of the parties is not content with it, this may lead to future conflicts.

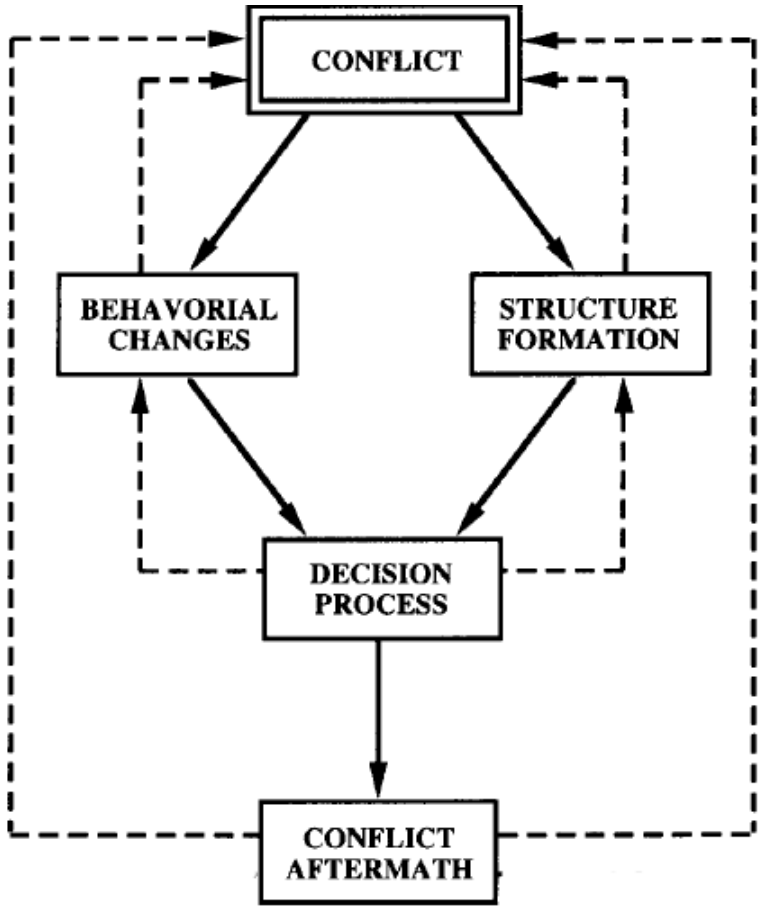

Figure 2. Flowchart of Rahim's Five-Stage Model (Rahim, 2000).

Whether it is a four or five-stage model as explained above, every conflict evolves and transforms in different stages which means it does not exist the way it first occurs. Therefore, each stage is to be experienced and certain actions are needed to be taken to resolve the conflicts.

2.4 Types of Conflict

When the literature on conflict is reviewed**,** it has been concluded that conflict has been categorized into different types. In some studies, conflict is classified into three types, which are task conflict, interpersonal conflict, and procedural conflict (De Dreu, 2005, p. 106; Henry, 2009, p. 17). Task conflict refers to the concrete problems that individuals have related to the work. Interpersonal conflict involves individuals' personality differences which lead them to have disagreements.

Procedural conflict occurs when team members do not share the same ideas about which procedures or methods should be followed by the group. Langton, Robbins, and Judge (2015) complement these types by adding two dimensions; functional and dysfunctional conflict which respectively refer to improvement and decline in work performance (p. 310). Rahim (2000) categorized the types of conflict according to how they occur and the factors causing them. This categorization is taken as the basis for this research along with others to emphasize the types of conflict in a more comprehensible way.

2.3.1 Sources of conflict. The categorization of conflict depends on the precursory conditions that form the basis of conflict (Rahim, 2000, p. 21). As conflict may arise from various sources including values, beliefs, and objectives, it is more pertinent to categorize it according to its characteristics and associations.

2.4.1.1 Affective conflict. This type of conflict emerges when there is an interaction between two individuals to solve a problem in an organization. If the individual's feelings and attitudes are contradictory to one another, then it leads to this type of conflict (Rahim, 2000, p. 21). The feelings of stress, pressure, resentment and concern reveal themselves and the involvement of these feelings leads to conflict (Pondy, 1967, p. 298).

2.4.1.2 Substantive conflict. This type of conflict arises when two or more group members have contradicting ideas about the task they do (Rahim, 2000) Similarly, Jehn (1997) refers to this conflict as the disagreement concerning the group's task (p. 531). Therefore, it is the type of conflict among the group members rather than between individuals which involves work-related problems.

2.4.1.3 Conflict of interest. This type of conflict is characterized by the discrepancy between two individuals' preferences in the distribution of a rare resource. When each individual or group, sharing the same understanding of the circumstance, favors a diverse and rather contradictory arrangement to an issue including either dissemination of scarce assets between them or a choice to share the work of understanding it (Rahim, 2000).

2.4.1.4 Conflict of values. Conflict of values emerges when an individual holds solid individual principles or values on certain topics that are in contradiction with the organization's or other individuals' values. This type of conflict is also referred to as ideological conflict (Rahim, 2000).

2.4.1.5 Goal conflict. When a favored or successful outcome of two individuals in an organization is conflicting, goal conflict occurs. In an environment where goals conflict, the realization of the purpose of one of the parties may lead to the complete disappearance of the purpose of the other party (Rahim, 2000; Barbuto & Xu, 2006, p. 6). Therefore, the inconsistency of the goals preferred by two opposing groups causes goal conflict.

2.4.1.6 Realistic versus nonrealistic conflict. These are also known as real and induced conflicts. Realistic conflict refers to each disagreement that is associated with rational context as obligations, goals, values, and resources. However, nonrealistic conflict exists because of an individual's irrational desire to express anxiety, anger, obliviousness, or mistakes just to release tension or aggression (Rahim, 2000). Such conflicts, which do not have a realistic reason, do not have a specific purpose, but they aim to create a conflicting environment.

2.4.1.7 Institutionalized versus noninstitutionalized conflict. Institutional conflict refers to the conditions in which individuals follow clear rules, exhibit foreseeable behavior, and have consistency in the same behavior. However, noninstitutionalized conflict lacks rules, shows unexpected behavior, and lacks continuous behavior (Rahim, 2000).

2.4.1.8 Retributive conflict. Individuals have pre-determined goals and demands on others and they want the conflicting party to undergo punishment or a high cost (Saaty, 1990, p. 49; Rahim, 2000). Such conflicts may occur for the sole purpose of causing harm, even in circumstances where the other party's loss yields no gain for them.

2.4.1.9 Misattributed conflict. A conflict that occurs as a statement of confrontation among the wrong entities and sequentially, about the wrong problems is referred to as misattributed conflict (Deutsch, Coleman & Marcus, 2006, p. 444).

These kinds of conflicts are often attributed to incorrect individuals or causes (Rahim, 2000).

2.4.1.10 Displaced conflict. This conflict emerges when the individuals in disagreement channel their disappointment and aggression toward the individuals who are not included in the conflict (Rahim, 2000). This may be effective for the weaker individual to set an easier target to reflect their feelings under this intentional directing behavior.

Therefore, types of conflicts are characterized depending on how they occur and the reasons that lead to them. Conflicts may arise between individuals and among group members due to conflicting interests, values and goals, limited resources, rational and irrational reasons, and rules that are not followed.

2.4.2 Levels of conflict. Two types of conflict are categorized depending on where they occur which are intraorganizational and interorganizational conflicts. The main focus of this study is intraorganizational conflicts which refer to conflicts that emerge in the same organization. Depending on the levels of conflict four classifications can be made which are, intrapersonal, interpersonal, intragroup, and intergroup (Rahim, 2002, p. 215).

2.4.2.1 Intrapersonal conflict. In general descriptions, this type of conflict is regarded as an individual's experience within themselves (Eunson, 2011, p. 3). This conflict is also referred to as intraindividual or intrapsychic conflict. In the organizational context, this type of conflict exists when an individual in an organization is instructed to do a task and take on certain roles which are not compatible with that individual's experience, interests, objectives, and beliefs (Rahim, 2000).

2.4.2.2 Interpersonal conflict. This type of conflict is also regarded as dyadic conflict which means a clash between two or more individuals that hold different titles or come from different departments within an organization (Rahim, 2000). This conflict is one of the most common types of conflict within organizations.

2.4.2.3 Intragroup conflict. This conflict occurs when there is a disagreement within an organizational group or a team (Langdon, Robbins & Judge, 2015, p. 311).

This type of conflict usually emerges because of incompatibilities among group members on the assignments, objectives, and procedures (Rahim, 2000).

2.4.2.4 Intergroup conflict. This type of conflict emerges when two or more groups experience a conflict within an organization. It usually reveals itself between departments or units in an organization. (Rahim, 2000). In these cases, individuals are not perceived as sole individuals but the representatives of their groups (Folger, Poole & Stutman, 2021, p. 6).

Levels of conflicts in an organization can be summarized as the conflicts that occur because of inexperienced employees, title clashes, incompatibilities among employers, and differences between units in an organization.

2.5 Conflict Management

The conflicts that arise between the individuals and how these conflicts will proceed, depend on the conflict management skills of the individuals. As mentioned earlier, conflicts are inevitable in organizations and are not necessarily negative. The common idea is that a reasonable amount of conflict is required for organizations (Rahim, 1985, p. 82). This means conflicts can be constructive and beneficial for the individual, involved parties, and the organization. Therefore, organizations and individuals should have the awareness of what a conflict is and how to manage the conflict by utilizing the appropriate conflict management styles.

2.5.1 Conflict management styles. There have been many studies conducted to conceptualize the conflict management styles of individuals. In these studies, conflict management styles have been classified into two dimensions; concern for self and concern for others. Concern for self is solely based on meeting the needs of the individual, however, concern for others deals with satisfying other individuals' concerns. Based on these two dimensions, Blake and Mouton (1964) suggested a structure that categorized interpersonal conflict styles into five: problem-solving, obliging, withdrawal, smoothing, and cooperating. Thomas and Kilmann (1978) constructed another classification based on Blake and Mouton's (1964) categories by combining the cooperation and assertiveness dimensions. Rahim (1985) reinterpreted and combined these two categorizations and formed a model of two-dimensional five conflict management styles.

2.5.1.1 Rahim's conflict management styles. According to Rahim (1985), conflict management styles are integrating, obliging, dominating, avoiding, and compromising. These styles are taken as the basis for this study since Rahim's Organizational Conflict Inventory scale (ROCI-II) that is used in this study was developed by Rahim (1983).

2.5.1.1.1 Integrating. This style is also known as the problem-solving style. This style specifies high concern for self and others' needs which includes cooperation between the conflicting parties (Rahim, 2000, p. 28). In this case, both sides exchange information, and they examine their perspectives, understand the differences and try to arrive at a resolution that is feasible for each individual. This style has many benefits, one of which is its positive outcome on job performance since the conflict is intended to be terminated by the individuals (Trudel & Reio 2011, p. 399). Therefore, this style is seen as the most effective style to manage a conflict.

2.5.1.1.2 Obliging. This style is also regarded as accommodating because the individual has a high concern for others and a low concern for self. In this style, the individual underemphasizes the differences between oneself and others and puts greater emphasis on the similarities to meet the needs of the other individual (Rahim, 2000). The individual that adopts this behavior ignores the contradictions and focuses on the similar aspects between himself and other individuals. If the individual shows an obliging style, this means that there is the negligence of one's self. This style seems to be a simple and effective way to solve a conflict, however, as one individual's concerns are not satisfied, that individual's problem still remains (Freidman, Tidd, Currall & Tsai, 2000, p. 38).

2.5.1.1.3 Dominating. This style is based on a win-lose focus as the individual's main objective is to win his position disregarding the concern for others. Dominating style is also referred to as competing. The needs of the other individual are often overlooked and the dominating individual fights for his position at all costs (Rahim, 2000). In this style, the pressured individual is generally displeased with the gain, as it is forced action. This may appear as an effective style to handle conflict from the dominating individual's point of view since that individual vocalizes his

concerns in an assertive way. However, in this case, possible joint objectives are ignored, therefore the chance of managing the conflict decreases, which makes reaching an agreement more difficult (Friedman et al., 2000).

2.5.1.1.4 Avoiding style. When an individual has an avoiding style, it means that he has a low interest in both himself and others. This style is also regarded as suppression because the individual suppresses his own needs and others' needs (Rahim, 2000). Individuals who have an avoiding style generally have difficulty understanding themselves and expressing their problems and addressing others' needs due to low concern. This makes them unassertive and uncooperative (Wall & Callister, 1995, p. 538), and avoiding means that these individuals do not have enough desire to solve the conflict (Friedman et al., 2000). Avoiding may solve the conflict for a short time, however, when the conflict becomes persistent, it can make the conflict more permanent which does not provide any benefit to the organization.

2.5.1.1.5 Compromising style. This style has moderate concern for self and others, which indicates an intermediate level of assertiveness and cooperativeness (Thomas & Kilmann, 1978, p. 1139). The compromising individual has a give-and-take style which indicates each individual is willing to give up to a certain extent to solve the conflict (Trudel & Reio, 2011). This means that the individuals do not win or lose completely. When compared to dominating style, individuals with a compromising style tend to give up more, however, they fight for less than individuals with an obliging style (Rahim, 2000).

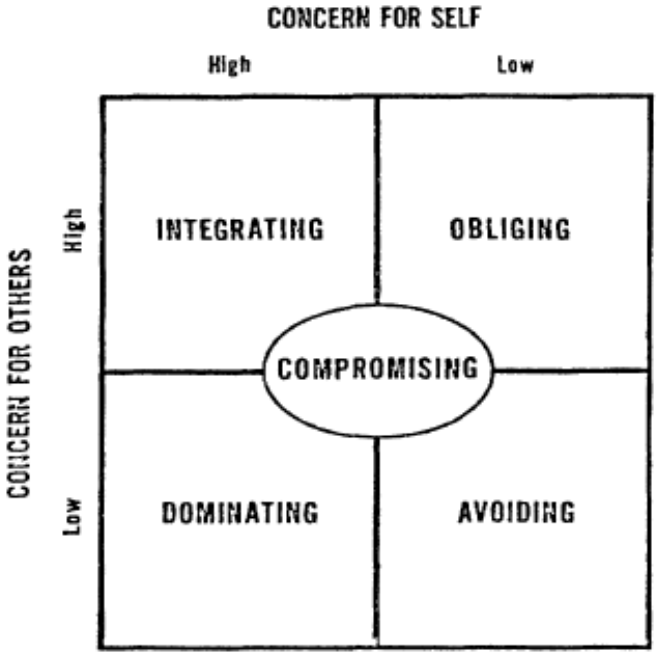

Figure 3. Rahim's Conflict Management Styles (Rahim, 1985).

2.5.2 Conflict management in educational institutions. When there is human interaction, there is conflict. Therefore, in all organizations including educational organizations, conflicts are inevitable. Educational institutions are susceptible to conflict because of the stressful nature of the occupation, the wide range of human interaction, the number of members, and the duties. Therefore, conflicts should be managed well and it should be emphasized that it is not the conflict that causes the problem, however, how it is managed can cause problems (Ghaffar, 2009, p. 215).

In educational organizations, conflict takes place in a variety of forms as it can occur between superiors and subordinates as in administrators and teachers, peer to peers as in teachers and teachers, or even between teachers and students. There could be different reasons behind each conflict and one of the reasons could be the size of the organization (Beck & Betz, 1975, p. 61). The larger an educational organization is, the more conflicts may be observed since among workers different work formations may emerge and these can be supported by others. In situations like these, conflict may arise between administrations and teachers and teachers and teachers.

Educational administrators try to seek solutions to manage conflicts that occur within the organization. When the goal is achieving and maintaining a positive, collaborative and harmonious work environment, administrators and teachers should support each other. To reach this goal, it is necessary for them to learn how to

manage conflicts and make use of the skills they acquire whenever needed (Balay, 2006, p. 6). Reaching positive results is only possible with constructive conflict management. When there is poorly managed conflict, it may damage the relationships between the conflicting parties and may lead to a decline in the teacher's performance and motivation.

2.6 Motivation

One of the questions that humans are trying to find an answer about human behavior is the question of why; why do humans do certain actions which are directly related to motivation and it is one of the most studied subjects of psychology (Deci, 1975, p. 3). Many researchers have tried to explain motivation and most of the explanations are based on *the move* or *the drive* behind a specific human behavior (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2010, p. 3; Hall & Goetz, 2013, p. 58).

When the literature is reviewed, the definition of motivation can be summarized as the individual's choice of the action, his persistence, and the effort given to it and it involves why individuals decide to do an action, how long they would like to do it and how hard they would like to pursue it (Deci, 1975; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2010; Barbuto & Xu, 2016). One important feature of motivation is that it varies according to the individual. This means that a situation that satisfies one person may not satisfy another. Therefore, it can be said that it is important for individuals to be aware of the type of motivation and the motivating factors that they have in order to ensure the continuity of their actions.

2.6.1 Types of motivation. The motivation that drives individuals to pursue an action has two distinct origins: intrinsic and extrinsic. When the individual feels excited by doing the job or does the job only for the complete fun that he is going to have, then this individual is intrinsically motivated (Barbuto & Xu, 2006, p. 5). On the contrary, when the individual's motive is to reach an external result, then this individual is extrinsically motivated (Çetin & Aşkun, 2018, p. 187). Some of the external results include salary and status in the organization. The motivational levels of the individuals within an organization are quite important since the higher the motivation is, the higher the work performance.

2.6.1.1 Intrinsic motivation. In a general sense, intrinsic motivation has been associated with nonrewarding actions which an individual performs only to enjoy them. When an individual is engaged in a task, for which he is intrinsically motivated, he dedicates himself to it, enjoys it, and during the performing of the task, he can even tolerate basic needs such as hunger (Deci, 1975, p. 24). Therefore, when the individual is intrinsically motivated, the requirement to achieve the task diminishes, and the interest to carry out the task becomes the main drive.

Certain psychological conditions have also been highlighted when constructing the concept of intrinsic motivation. Self-determination or in other words having a perceived power for engagement in the task can contribute to intrinsic motivation by improving one's perceptions of competence (Ryan & Deci, 2000b). When individuals feel that they are competent enough to perform a task, they are more intrinsically motivated. According to recent studies, intrinsically driven tasks are more influential sources of motivation for behavior than extrinsically motivated actions (Yau, 2010; Erkaya, 2012; Tsutsumi, 2014; Sözen, 2015). Individuals tend to involve in a task, consistently behave the same way, and carry out the task competently only if they enjoy performing it. Rather than the extrinsic rewards, the feelings and the perceptions of the individuals towards a task pose a stronger sign of motivation (Graef, Csikszentmihalyi & Gianinno, 1983, p. 156). This implies that when people carry out an action, they receive instant, internal benefits. With regard to these features of intrinsic motivation, it is significant for the individual to have this kind of motivation within the organization in order to perform competently.

2.6.1.2 Extrinsic motivation. Extrinsic motivation, which contrasts with intrinsic motivation, is the motivation to carry out a task in order to reach an externally formed goal or a reward (Hennessey, Moran, Altringer & Amabile, 2015, p. 1). This type of motivation may involve various feelings such as pressure, stress, ambition, and anxiety while reaching the desired outcome. However, these feelings should not be considered negative because the vital argument is what reason the individual perceives for his action (Lindenberg, 2001, p. 321). Within the framework of extrinsic motivation, receiving a reward or carrying out the task is the ultimate goal rather than being satisfied while performing a task. In an organization, extrinsic motivators are salary, job security, benefits, working conditions, and mobility and

they are directly related to the satisfaction that the individual feels when he carries out a task (Huang & Van De Vlier, 2003, p. 159).

Ryan and Deci (2000a) propose that extrinsic motivation is based on an individual's degree of being autonomous in performing the action (p. 60). Avoiding negative external outcomes such as punishment and instrumental reasons such as working hard for getting a promotion are two different extrinsic motives. In the former, autonomy does not exist as the punishment comes from an outside source, however, in the latter, working hard is an autonomous decision. In some studies, it has been suggested that extrinsic motivation undermines intrinsic motivation (Reiss, 2012; Deci & Ryan, 2015). To exemplify, if an individual is offered a reward such as money for an action that he normally enjoys performing without having any rewards, then he becomes less intrinsically driven and more likely to perform the same task again with less intrinsic motivation.

In brief, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation are two different types of motivation that stimulate an individual to perform an action. Although they are categorized at the opposite ends of the motivation spectrum, there are some processes in which rewards may affect an individual's both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Sansone & Harackiewicz, 2000, p. 267). Therefore, they should be considered intertwined with each other depending on how the individual perceives them.

2.7 Motivational Theories

Motivation theorists have sought to figure out why individuals are driven to perform actions even when they are not required to and they recognize how difficult it is to encourage others, as well as to motivate oneself, due to individuals' intricacies and personal variances (Deci, 1975; Deci & Ryan, 2001; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2010). Since the theories of motivation were first introduced, many aimed to explain the motivation that affects productivity. Theories show that individuals' behavior and performance are influenced by different motives and these theories offer different frameworks explaining motivational styles and motivational factors. These theories are based on understanding the cognitive processes of human behavior and there are different approaches to explaining these cognitive theories; two of which are process and content theories.

2.7.1 Content theories. Content theories are the approaches to examining the specific features that motivate individuals and their focus is on the nature of people's needs and sources of motivation. They are concerned with determining people's specific needs and goals that they have to meet these needs (Ivancevich, Konopaske & Matteson, 2013, p. 115). There are four major theories that deal with content theories; hierarchy of needs theory, modified need hierarchy model, two-factor theory, and achievement motivation theory.

***2.7.1.1 Hierarchy of needs theory*.** Maslow (1943) based this theory on human needs proposing that human beings always want more and what they desire relies on what they already achieved. Built around this proposition, his suggestion is to classify human needs in a hierarchy of importance. This hierarchical model orders these needs into five basic levels which are from the lowest to the highest; physiological needs, safety needs, love needs, esteem needs, and the need for actualization (Maslow, 1943). According to this model, the lowest needs should be satisfied in order for the individual to proceed to other needs. One of the highlights of this classification that makes it different from other classifications is that it does not classify single needs, instead, needs are grouped together according to their contribution to personality development (Heckhausen & Heckhausen, 2008, p. 56).

According to Maslow's (1943) model, physiological needs such as hunger are the basic and most important needs that need to be satisfied. When the individual satisfies these basic needs, then they stop motivating the individual and the individual will no longer strive for meeting these needs and is motivated to satisfy the consequent need that comes after it. When this hierarchical model is applied to the workplace, these physiological needs stand for salary and rewards (Langton et al., 2015, p. 130). Unless these basic needs are met in the workplace, individuals cannot proceed to the higher needs.

When the physiological needs are reasonably met, safety needs emerge. In the hierarchy of needs, the security needs level consists of needs such as shelter, protection of private property, needing laws and laws to ensure security (Maslow, 1943). People need assurances and want to protect their right to live and maintain their possessions. The purpose of addressing one's need for safety on a constant basis

is to achieve stability in one's life and in an organizational setting, it is about having a sense of job safety (Poston, 2009).

The third level of needs is the love and belongingness needs. As human beings are social, they cannot survive on their own and need others and they create circumstances in which they can interact with other individuals. The hunger for being loved, having intimate relationships, and feeling a sense of belonging to someone or a group are the needs that the individual strives for to progress to the next level in the hierarchical needs. (Maslow, 1943). In the organizational context, having a sense of belonging and maintaining positive social relations with other individuals in the workplace are the needs that concern individuals. Without having these, the individual may feel alone and strive to satisfy these needs and this may affect his motivation.

The next level is one of the higher needs of human beings, which is esteem needs. It includes the approval of the actions of an individual while continuing his life by the other individuals around him and the respect of the individuals for him. Esteem needs include firm and high assessment of one's self, self-respect, self-esteem, and esteem of others (Maslow, 1943). Self-esteem which is also known as internal esteem contains the need for confidence, power, freedom, respect, and success. On the other hand, esteem for others, in other words, external esteem, involves status, reputation, appreciation, and attention (Langton et al., 2015).

The last and the highest level of need according to Maslow (1943) is the need for self-actualization. Self-actualization involves one's self-realization of potential and the development of it and it varies from person to person and can be observed in different forms. Individuals who have experienced this need means that they have understood their full potential. (Dinibütün, 2012, p. 134). As it is the highest of all needs, it can become the major need that underlies all behaviors and it prevails itself only if all other needs have been met (Heckhausen & Heckhausen, 2008, p. 56).

2.7.1.2 Modified Need Hierarchy model. This model is also known as the ERG model which was developed by Alderfer in 1969 as an alternative to Maslow's hierarchical needs model (Alderfer, 1989). This model reduced five levels of hierarchical needs into three levels which are based on the basic needs of human existence, relatedness and growth.

Existence involves the satisfaction of needs such as hunger, existence, salary, and working conditions. They are basic needs that include physical and economical needs. Necessities such as food and shelter cover physical needs, while factors such as reward, status, and working conditions cover material needs. This classification corresponds to Maslow's physiological and security needs (Ivancevich, Konopaske & Matteson, 2013, p. 117).

Relatedness is concerned with the needs that are related to the social environment and the relationships of the individuals which covers Maslow's hierarchical needs of love, belongingness, and social (Dinibütün, 2012, p. 135). Individuals desire to be accepted and long for being a member of a society or a group, and they want to be loved and respected by them. Interacting with other individuals, and creating interpersonal bonds are the activities that make individuals happier and feel more valuable.

The last need that is proposed in this model is the growth needs. This need includes the individual's need for self-realization in society similar to what Maslow proposed. Self-esteem refers to the need to struggle, seek information, obtain, control, build confidence, be independent, feel competent, and produce things effectively. Self-actualization refers to self-development which is related to achieving one's goals and developing one's personality (Alderfer, 1989).

Alderfer, like Maslow, believes that as the lower-level needs are met, individuals can proceed from existence requirements to relatedness needs to development needs. The aspect that Alderfer disagrees with Maslow is that these needs are more of in a continuum than a hierarchical order. At any given time, more than one need may be triggered. In contrast to Maslow's hypothesis, Alderfer's findings imply that lower-level wants do not have to be met before a higher-level need develops as a prime motivator (Dinibütün, 2012, p. 135).

2.7.1.3 Two-factor theory. The two-factor theory also known as the motivation-hygiene theory, which is extended from Maslow and Alderfer's models, was developed by Herzberg. It considers the needs of the individual as the primary source of motivation for work through two factors; motivation and hygiene. According to this theory, hygiene factors, also labeled as dissatisfiers, are external conditions such as salary, and quality of relationships with peers and administrators.

On the other hand, motivation factors, in other words, satisfiers are intrinsic motivators such as feeling satisfied by performing the job, a sense of achievement and having the opportunity for self-actualization. Motivation factors are a natural part of the job and they result in positive feelings to it as they meet the need for growth and self-actualization (Alshmemri, Shahwan-Akl & Maude, 2017, p. 13).

Both hygiene factors and motivation factors need to exist together so that the individuals feel motivated in the workplace (Ivancevic, Konopaske & Matteson, 2103, p. 118). Proper care given to the hygiene factors is likely to help avoid dissatisfaction, however, it will not develop a positive attitude or willingness to work on one's own (Dinibütün, 2012). Therefore, motivation factors that motivate employees need to be put into action.

According to Herzberg (1959), the opposite of satisfaction is not dissatisfaction, and eliminating dissatisfying factors from the job does not validate the job as satisfying (Langdon et al., 2015). Therefore, it has been suggested to highlight factors that are related to the job itself or the outcomes of the job in order to motivate individuals in the workplace.

2.7.1.4 Achievement motivation theory. This theory was introduced by McClelland, which suggests that motivation begins to gain value for people as a result of learning and individuals learn many needs from the culture (Ivancevich, Konopaske & Matteson, 2013). There are three basic needs that are learned from the culture, the need for achievement, the need for affiliation, and the need for power. These three needs are parallel to Maslow's self-actualization, esteem, and love needs.

The need for achievement is the motivation to be successful by setting goals and having standards. The need for success means that people meet their needs thanks to the knowledge and skills they acquired through their interactions with the members of the society they live in. The need for power is the need to be in power so that others cannot act in a different manner. Individuals with power motives make an effort to increase the effect they have and have the desire to be influential in the community they live in without hesitating to engage in power struggles with community members when they have the opportunity. The need for affiliation is the desire for having intimate and friendly relationships with others. The lack of these sorts of relationships affects individuals in undesired ways (Langdon et al., 2015).

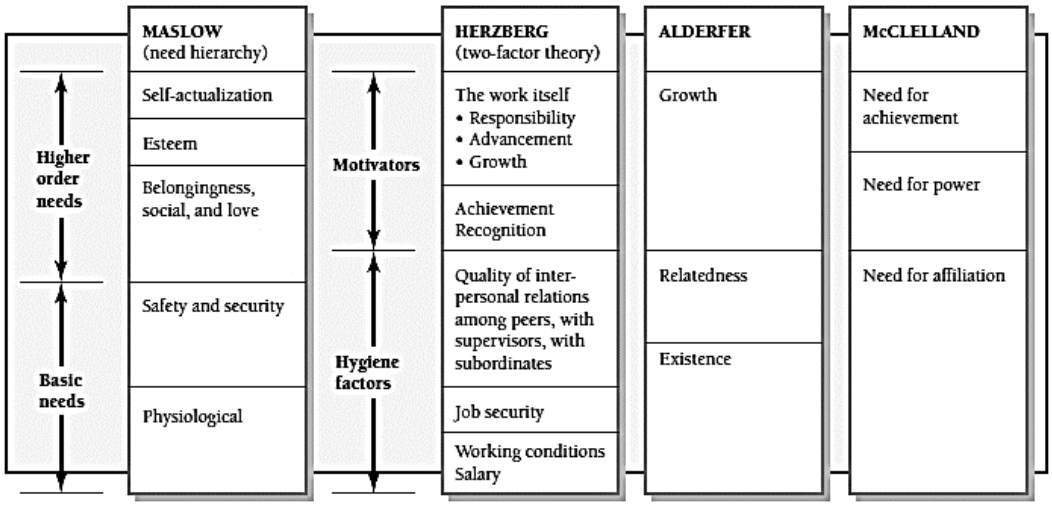

Figure 4. Comparison Chart of Motivational Content Theories (Ivancevich, Konopaske & Matteson, 2013).

2.7.1.5 Self-determination theory (SDT). This theory proposes that motivation is what invigorates an individual to act and how these actions are regulated in different aspects of an individual's life (Deci & Ryan, 2015, p. 485). Self-determination theory (SDT) identifies the causes of motivation and also how extrinsic rewards influence intrinsic motivation. It had been long believed that intrinsic factors are independent of extrinsic factors in terms of motivation. However, SDT suggests that extrinsic rewards or outcomes decrease intrinsic motivation for performing a task (Langton et al., 2015, p. 151). When an individual is paid for work, the intrinsic satisfaction that he would receive for willingness to do the job dimishes.

SDT categorizes motivation into two types, autonomous and controlled motivation. Autonomous motivation is very similar to the concepts that define intrinsic and extrinsic motivation in other studies (Scholl, 1998; Ryan & Deci, 2000a; Hall & Goetz, 2013 p. 66). Intrinsic motivation is distinctive to all individuals and refers to internal rewards such as having joy or satisfaction. On the other hand, extrinsic motivation is the extrinsic reward an individual obtains after performing an action or avoiding punishment (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2010, p. 23). Individuals can have more self-determination in carrying out a certain task if the social environment fulfills the following basic human needs: autonomy, competence, and relatedness (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2010; Deci & Ryan, 2018).

Ryan and Deci (2000b) classify extrinsic motivation into four types: external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation, and integrated regulation

ranging from external to more internal focus If the social circumstances in which individuals are engaged, fulfill their basic psychological needs, they create the right developmental structure upon which an active, assimilative, and integrated nature might emerge. Heavy control, challenges, and a lack of connectivity, on the other hand, interfere with the natural fulfillment and organizing tendencies, resulting in not only a lack of effort and responsibility but also discomfort and psychological disorders (Ryan & Deci, 2000b, p. 76). Therefore, this theory claims that when individuals' demands for competence, connection, and autonomy are met, they may become self-determined and consequently motivated.

2.7.2 Process theories. The Content Theories are primarily concerned with the needs and motives that drive behavior and they are mostly focused on what drives individuals to do certain actions. The main focus of Process Theories is to understand how an individual motivates one's self and how one can be motivated to reach those goals (Kassabgy, Boraie & Schmidt, 2001, p. 214; Badubi, 2017, p. 47).

***2.7.2.1 Expectancy theory*.** Expectancy theory has been associated with Vroom (1964) and it is based on the question of what factors influence an individual's motivation to invest in the personal effort to complete activities that benefit the work. According to this theory, personal beliefs and values and the appeal of the outcomes of the task are related to the degree of performance (Dinibütün, 2012). The primary focus of the theory is three components: expectancy, instrumentality, and valence.

Expectancy is the idea that making an effort is directly related to performance which reveals the effort-performance relationship. Individuals are motivated only if they can see a relationship between the exertion of effort and their performance. On the other hand, Instrumentality is the relationship between the rewards and the performance which is the possibility attributed by the individual that achieving a certain performance generates different outcomes. Valence is directly related to the relationship between the rewards and personal goals as perceived by the individual. The degree to which individuals view a result as good, neutral, or negative is referred to as valence. Positive valent outcomes are highly desired outcomes whereas negatively valent outcomes are undesirable results. Pay raises and cuts, praise and criticism, recognition and rejection, promotions, and demotions are all examples of positive and negative valent outcomes in the workplace (Langdon, et al., 2015).

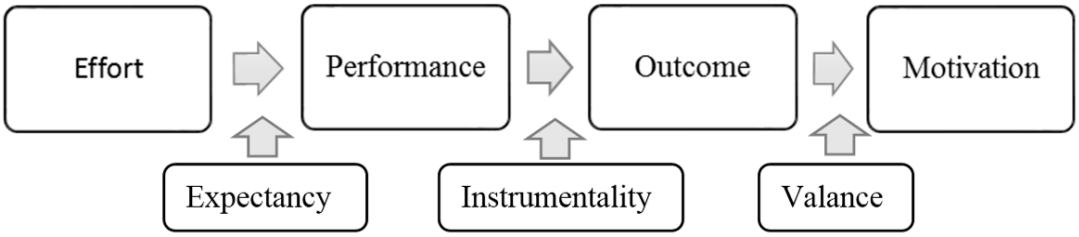

Figure 5. Flowchart of Vroom's Expectancy Theory (adapted from Vroom, 1964).

2.7.2.2 Goal-Setting theory. According to this theory, which is developed by Locke, an individual's intention to work for a goal is the primary source of motivation to work. Having predetermined and sensible goals determine the individual's actions and especially the task performance at work (Locke, 1991, p. 18).

The degree of effort exerted is determined by the balance of desired goal difficulty and the depth of the person's devotion to achieving the goal. Individuals who set goals and deadlines to finish a task are more likely to accomplish their goals better than the ones without having solid goals and similarly, individuals with challenging goals, perform better than the ones with less challenging goals (Dinibütün, 2012).

2.7.2.3 Equity theory. According to equity theory, motivation is influenced by the results that an individual obtains from his actions by comparing these with other individuals' results and actions. Individuals' reactions to the results they receive from others are influenced by both their value for those outcomes and the circumstances surrounding their delivery. When individuals perceive that there is an unfair situation or treatment in the workplace, tension may arise within the organization and among its members. It should be noted that individuals are more motivated to act in conditions they consider fair (Adams, 1965, p. 283). It is every individual's expectation to be treated equally in an organization.

There are four important concepts in this theory: person, comparison other, inputs and outputs. Person refers to the individual who perceives the equity which is the source of motivation. Comparison other is the other individual that the Person compares himself to for the results and action. Inputs are skills and characteristics that Person has including experience and age. Finally, outputs are the results that Person obtains from performing the job such as recognition and salary (Ivancevich,

Konopaske & Matteson, 2013). Maintaining a fair balance in the distribution of rewards within the organization is important in terms of eliminating the negative working environment or perceived inequity that can be caused by hostility, hatred, and excessive ambition.

When inequity is perceived by an individual in the organization, the individual can take certain actions. The individual can change inputs, change outcomes, distort perceptions of self, distort perceptions of others, choose a different referent, or leave the field (Robbins & Judge, 2013, p. 221).

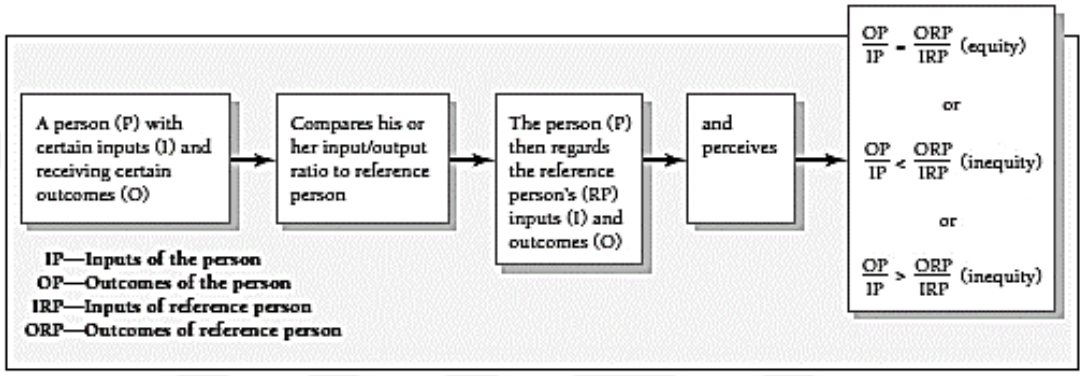

Figure 6. Flowchart of Equity Theory (Ivancevich, Konopaske & Matteson, 2013).

2.7.2.3 Reinforcement theory. Unlike cognitive approaches such as Goal theory, Reinforcement theory has a behavioristic approach which suggests that reinforcement is the main motivator for behavior. This theory is based completely on what happens when an individual performs a task by ignoring the intrinsic condition of the individual (Ivancevich, Konopaske & Matteson, 2013). In other words, if positive results are achieved, the behaviors will be repeated more in the future, on the other hand, if negative and undesirable results are achieved, the behaviors will be repeated less in the future.

Operant conditioning is the most applicable aspect of reinforcement theory as it assumes that individuals learn to act in a certain way in order to obtain the desired result or to avoid an unwanted outcome. As Skinner (2013) suggests when a reaction and specific circumstances occur at the same time, the responding individual's response changes and this increases the likelihood that similar responses will occur again (p. 110).

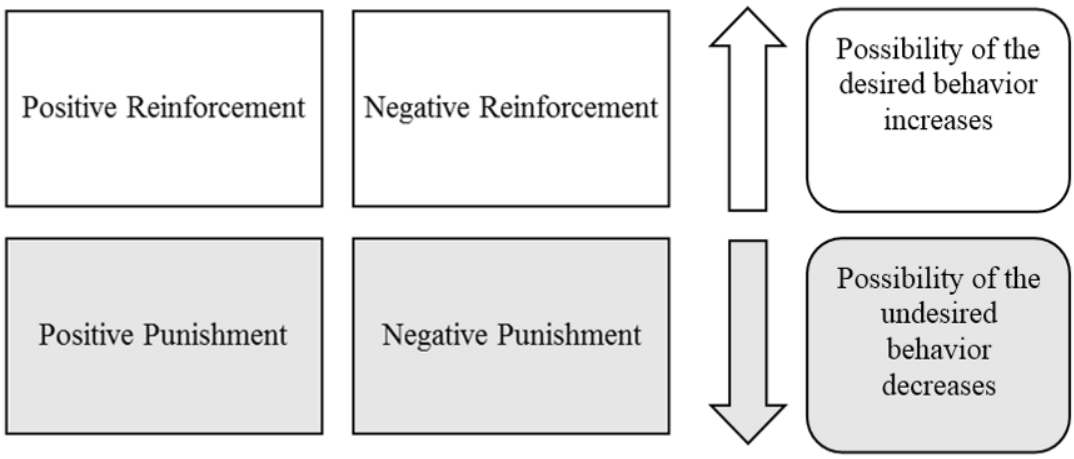

Figure 7. Flowchart of Reinforcement Theory (Skinner, 2013).

To understand the differences and similarities among the process theories, a comparison chart is provided below in Figure 8.

		Process Theories		
Main Idea	Adam's Equity Theory	Vroom's Expectancy Theory /Model	Locke's Goal Theory	Skinner's Reinforcement Theory
1. Inputs **2. Understanding the process of motivation** **3. Equity** **4. Efforts to perform** **5. Emotions** **6. Find why**	1. Inputs (Effort on work)	1. Valence	1. Goal setting (Mastery on goals)	1. Positive Reinforcement 2. Negative Reinforcement
1. Outputs **2. Individuals' choices and preferences v/s rewards and accomplishments** **3. Inequality** **4. Expectance of reward** **5. Respect the emotions** **6. Find how**	2. Outputs (Reward for work)	2. Instrumentality 3. Expectancy	2. Performance	3. Punishment 4. Extinction
1. Higher order needs **2. Existence needs** **3. Dissatisfiers (Hygiene Factors or Extrinsic Factors** **4. Needs for affiliation**	5. Physiological needs 4. Safety needs 3. Social needs	3. Existence 2. Relatedness	7. Interpersonal relations 6. Company policies and administrative practices 8. Working conditions 9. Supervision status 10. Job security 11. Pay benefits	4. Avoidance motives 3. Affiliate motives
1. Lower order needs **2. Related and growth needs** **3. Satisfiers (Motivation Factors or Intrinsic Factors)** **4. Needs for achievement and power**	2. Esteem needs 1. Self actualization needs	1. Growth	5. Opportunity for growth and advancement 4. Responsibility 3. Recognition 2. Working itself 1. Achievement	2. Power motives 1. Achievement motives
Main Idea	Maslow's Hierarchy of needs Theory	Alderfer's Modified Need Hierarchy Theory	Herzberg's Two Factor Theory	McClelland's Achievement Motivation Theory
		Content Theories		

Figure 8. Comparison Chart of Process and Content Theories (Sahito & Vaisanen, 2017).

2.8 Work motivation

Work motivation is described as a person's desire to put up high amounts of effort toward organizational objectives in exchange for the opportunity to meet some personal needs and the basic question to determine it is “what do people want from their jobs” (Lu, 1999, p. 63). As motivation has been categorized in a dichotomy by many researchers (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Sansone & Harackiewicz, 2000; Hennessey, 2015), work motivation also has two types based on this dichotomy: intrinsic and extrinsic. There have also been many theories that approach work motivation from different perspectives as hierarchical needs (Maslow, 1943), modified needs (Alderfer, 1989), two-factors (Herzberg, 1959), achievement (McClelland, 1961), and self-determination (Deci & Ryan, 2015). Moreover, other theories approached work motivation from its primary sources (Vroom, 1964; Locke, 1991; Skinner, 2013).

In the general sense, the simple enjoyment and pleasure obtained from working characterize intrinsic process motivation. Extrinsic incentives and financial benefits are used to motivate people. Positive affirmation of qualities, skills, and values drive external motivation. Goal motivation is driven by a strong need for a feeling of purpose in the workplace, whereas self-concept internalization motivation is driven by a desire to overcome problems and reinforcement (Barbuto & Xu, 2000, p. 5). Individuals who have powerful intrinsic motivations including self-actualization and self-development will be severely influenced by the absence of control at work. Likewise, individuals who hold extrinsic work motivations including salary and working conditions are more likely to stress about their job’s demands (Lu, 1999, p. 63). Therefore, it can be concluded that work motivators affect an individual’s performance at work.

2.9 Motivation in education

When individuals are motivated, they are more passionate about achieving their goals and objectives or completing them satisfactorily (Erkaya, 2012). Instructors' motivation is essential since student motivation appears to be linked to teachers’ job satisfaction. Instructors' motivation emerges both from internal and external influences or a combination of the two. In general, most instructors are passionately motivated when they first start teaching, however, that desire might fade

with time, and some teachers may even switch careers. Becoming an instructor is not just an occupation but it is the result of experiences and explorations about what is motivating to teach (Knight, 2002, p. 2). Therefore, administrators need to do their best to assist instructors in maintaining or increasing their motivation over time.

2.9.1 Teacher motivation. Being a teacher is considered to be one of the most respected and rewarding professions, however, it is one of the most challenging and demanding ones as it requires multilevel skills, and flexibility (Troesch & Bauer, 2020, p. 2). Therefore, having a high motivational level and maintaining it is quite important for teachers so that they can satisfy their needs. According to the literature, human needs are investigated by different researchers such as Maslow and Herzberg and they categorized human needs as higher and lower. Maslow proposes satisfying lower needs such as pay which leads an individual to satisfy higher needs such as self-actualization. Herzberg similarly suggests gratification of lower needs; however, satisfaction can truly be achieved by high-level needs (Sylvia & Hutchinson, 1985, p. 842). Therefore, having a pay raise which is considered a lower need for both researchers, cannot lead to motivation on its own and other needs should also be satisfied.

It is important for administrators and teachers to be aware of and make use of the motivators such as the *satisfiers* in Herzberg's theory to maintain motivational levels. Administrators should involve instructors in policy-making decisions so that they feel satisfied when they perform their jobs (Coleman & Glover, 2010, p. 78). In this way, instructors can develop a sense of belonging, which is one of Maslow's hierarchical needs, and this influences their motivation levels, therefore, their work performance.

The teaching profession has certain motivational characteristics. Dörnyei and Ushioda (2010) explain these as having distinguished intrinsic components, contextual constituents which are related to organizational requirements and limitations, lifelong career processes which have a temporal axis, and fragility which refers to the susceptibility to negative influences (p. 160). Internal and environmental factors that impede instructors from completely enjoying the intrinsic joys of their chosen profession have steadily challenged the benefits of working an intrinsically rewarding job, which may satisfy one's high-level psychological needs. These

concerns should be addressed early in the teacher training process, in order to better equip teachers with the techniques they will need to cope with the inevitable obstacles they will confront and protect their own motivation.

Other researchers such as Sinclair (2008) defined teacher motivation in three aspects: attraction, retention, and concentration (p. 80). These aspects deal with the actions that the teachers engage in or are attracted to, how long they can be engaged in these actions, and the intensity of their engagement in these actions. In other words, these motivating factors for teachers determine the future career of the teachers, their employment, and retention in the profession.

According to Kızıltepe's (2008) research, the most prominent motivators for teachers are their work environments, such as the organizational culture, self-esteem, feeling of community, and connections with coworkers (p. 518). Moreover, students are the other leading factor that motivates teachers. If the quality of the teacher-student relationship is higher, the motivation level of teachers increases. On the other hand, if such a relationship has low quality, then it can become a cause of demotivation (Vandenberghe & Huberman, 1999, p. 3). Therefore, teacher motivation should be approached in a broader sense as both intrinsic and extrinsic motivators are intertwined with each other and there are many factors that determine teacher motivation.

2.9.2. ESL/EFL teacher motivation. In the previous section, motivation was discussed in a general sense, and ESL and EFL teacher motivation was researched in a limited way when compared to teacher motivation. The studies on language teacher motivation have recently gained more attention when compared to teacher motivation (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2010, p. 176). Language teachers work in a different aspect of teaching which requires all skills to be involved and in need of constant self-improvement to adapt to the developments in the field from initial teacher education to obtaining certain diplomas and certificates such as DELTA, CELTA, and TESOL (Leung, 2009, p. 51). Regarding these, language teachers, similar to teachers in general, need to be motivated intrinsically or extrinsically to pursue their jobs with satisfaction.

Dörnyei and Ushioda (2010) summarized language teacher motivation in four categories: intrinsic, extrinsic, temporal, and demotivators (p. 178). Intrinsic factors

include the inner desire to teach, convey knowledge to the learners, and service to society. Extrinsic factors are the social contextual factors that are categorized into two: micro and macro level. The former refers to school-based factors such as school leadership, and the latter refers to systemic factors such as the image of teachers imposed by society. Temporal factors are the motivators for teachers to pursue teaching as a lifelong career such as attending training programs. Demotivators are negative influences on teacher motivation which are high levels of stress, limited autonomy, boredom, and lack of having solid career goals.

Language teacher motivation has also been studied with different aspects as well. Kubanyiova (2009) categorized language teacher motivation into three categories: positive attitude toward teaching, psychological needs, and the educational process itself (p. 318-319). Considering EFL or ESL as an efficient career is a positive attitude toward language teaching. Psychological needs are the intrinsic needs an individual has to satisfy such as fulfilling the desire to be appreciated or respected by others. The educational process itself is another motivator which is to convey the knowledge to learners and observe their learning process.

To wrap up, parallel to teacher motivation, ESL or EFL teacher motivation should be studied with a more comprehensive perspective since it requires lifelong learning and a training cycle that requires more than a single type of motivation. It requires not only intrinsic motivators such as being rewarding but also extrinsic motivators such as a high salary. All needs that are mentioned above in terms of motivating ESL/EFL teachers should also be considered.

2.10 Recent Studies

Some studies which were investigated in the world and Turkey are presented in this section.

2.10.1 Recent studies about conflict management styles. As expressed in detail in the previous parts, conflicts are an indispensable part of educational institutions, and identifying conflict management styles poses invaluable data for teachers and administrators. Teachers deal with conflicting situations with their peers by using conflict management styles, which may or may not provide them with the necessary solutions to manage these conflicts. Several studies have been done to

investigate the conflict management styles of administrators and teachers from primary schools to tertiary level institutions to find out about these styles' relations to other variables. However, most of the studies done in the world focused on teachers not specifically language teachers which indicates a lack of research on this group of teachers (Alzahrani, 2013; Boucher, 2013; Bennagen & Ye, 2016; Kassim, Manaf, Abdullah, Osman, & Salahudin, 2018; Akhtar & Hassan, 2021).

To begin with, a study conducted by Akhtar and Hassan (2021) aimed to investigate the effect of conflict management styles of Pakistani university teachers in constructing commitment with their institutions by adopting a cross-sectional study. The study was participated by 400 university teachers employed in both public and private universities. Purposeful sampling was adopted and the data was collected over a year. Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory-II (ROCI-II) (Rahim, 1983) was used to identify the conflict management strategies of the teachers, and an organizational commitment questionnaire was given to determine the commitment levels. According to the findings, teachers who had higher scores on integrating, obliging, and compromising styles tended to have a stronger commitment to their organization. Dominating and avoiding styles were found to be as non-significant predictors of organizational commitment. This study has highlighted some significant factors in how to manage the conflicts within the university better for university teachers and administrators. Although this study reveals valuable data for identifying the conflict management styles of university teachers, it only measured and identified the conflict management styles between teachers and their supervisors. This study could have yielded different results if teacher-to-subordinate and teacher-to-peer conflict management styles were investigated.

Another study by Alzahrani (2013) examined the perceived conflict management styles among Saudi and American university teachers as well as the relationship between conflict management styles and job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and their tendency to leave the job. Random sampling was used and 300 faculty members participated in the study from Al-Bada University and Florida Atlantic University. Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was implemented to investigate whether or not there are differences between American and Saudi university teachers in terms of their conflict management styles. The main factor was nationality, and Rahim's (1983) five conflict management styles were made use of as

dependent variables. Moreover, Pearson's correlation was implemented to identify if there is a statistically significant relationship between the conflict management styles and the other above-mentioned variables. Findings revealed that the most perceived style was dominating for both groups, integrating was the least preferred style which is considered the most effective style in managing conflicts. The result of the study also showed that the level of significance was 0.05 for both variations which means there was no statistically significant difference. As the sample used for this study is limited, it does not provide generalizable data in order to identify the conflict management styles of university teachers who have different nationalities.

The research by Bennagen and Ye (2016) examined the correlation between the teacher's demographics and their conflict management styles at Damrongrachanusorn School in Thailand. Convenience sampling was used and 84 teachers who worked at that school participated in the study. Thomas and Kilmann's (2008) conflict management styles questionnaire was used and the data were analyzed using descriptive statistics and Pearson's Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient. The results indicated that teachers who were less than 49 years old with a bachelor's degree and at least ten years of teaching experience outnumbered the others. The most common conflict management style turned out to be compromising, accommodating, and collaborating, however, avoiding and dominating were perceived as very occasional. Moreover, according to different variables such as age and educational background, accommodating and compromising were classified as common. Lastly, the study revealed that there was no significant relationship between teachers' demographic details and their conflict management styles. Although this research was conducted with a limited number of participants, it poses significant results as a case study in terms of the relationship between teachers' conflict management styles and their demographics. Had this study been conducted with more participants coming from different educational backgrounds and institutions, it would reveal different results.

In a different study, Boucher (2013) investigated the conflict management styles of elementary school principals in South Carolina and the relationship between these perceived conflict management styles and school climate with a mixed-method research design using Rahim's (1983) ROCI-II form B. This form is used only to measure the conflict management styles between a teacher or administrator with their

subordinates so that how administrators' conflict management styles affect the school's administrative climate could be determined. From the South Carolina report cards, eight indicators were implemented to measure school climate. 176 principals participated in the survey to gather quantitative data and 7 of them participated in the semi-structured interviews to collect qualitative data. Descriptive statistics and Spearman's rho statistics were made use of to analyze quantitative data. For the analysis of these data, the researcher transcribed the interviews and analyzed them. According to the results, principles preferred the integrating conflict management style the most and there was no significant relationship present between their conflict management styles and school climate indicators. This study only examined the school principles' conflict management styles and their possible influence on the school climate. However, in order to understand the school climate in a more comprehensible way, Rahim's (1983) ROCI-II scale form C could also have been implemented in order to identify the conflict management styles between teachers and teachers as that could bear different results. The reason for that is the number of teachers working at a school is more than the principals which is a factor affecting the school climate.

Another study by Kassim, Manaf, Abdullah, Osman, and Salahudin (2018) attempted to identify the conflict management styles of public university teachers and their relation to job satisfaction by adopting a quantitative research design. The random sample was 300 Malaysian academicians from different universities in Malaysia. The data were gathered through a self-administered questionnaire by Rahim's (1983) ROCI-II form B which measures conflicts between the individual and his subordinates. The data were analyzed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) and Partial Least Squares - Structural Equation Modelling (PLS-SEM). Conflict management styles were hypothesized by their positive and negative relationship to job satisfaction. The results supported the hypothesis and showed that more than one conflict management styles such as integrating, obliging, and compromising were positively significant with job satisfaction. On the other hand, the dominating and avoiding styles were revealed to be negatively related to it. This study revealed significant results on conflict management styles and job satisfaction. However, this study could produce different results if it was conducted in a different

context as cultural differences change the perception of the individuals regarding their conflict management styles (Kim & Leung, 2000, p. 235).

2.10.2 Recent studies about conflict management styles in Turkey. Apart from the studies conducted in the world which investigated conflict management styles of teachers in general, there have been many studies done regarding conflict management styles in Turkey as well. The settings of the studies vary from K12 to the university level. However, similar to the studies done abroad, there are not many studies focusing on EFL or ESL teachers, they mostly investigated the teachers, administrators, and principals' conflict management styles. Therefore, conflict management styles of language teachers have been a neglected area in the literature. Valuable data have been found in the light of these studies and conflict management styles of Turkish teachers and administrators have been revealed in relation to different variables (Şahin, 2007; Uysal, 2012; Köz, 2016; Uğur, 2018; Yüksel, 2020).

To start with, Uysal (2012) conducted a study to investigate what kind of conflicts teachers experience and which conflict management styles they implement by adopting descriptive research. The setting is Istanbul, the most densely populated city in Turkey, and the participants are private and public elementary school teachers. The sample of the study consists of 367 teachers who were randomly selected and employed at fifteen different schools. The researcher used three different scales; a personal information form, a questionnaire related to a conflict situation, and a conflict management strategy scale which were adapted from Özgan's (2006) study. The findings of the study revealed that teachers are in conflict with their peers and there are dominating and avoiding styles implemented by the teachers for the conflicts. According to the results, conflict management styles depend on gender; male teachers prefer avoiding, accommodating, and negotiating more than female teachers. Moreover, the results also show that the more experience a teacher has, the more they prefer to implement accommodating, dominating, negotiation, and integration. An interesting finding indicates that the total number of teachers at schools affects the conflict management styles of teachers. The higher the total number of teachers, the more dominating style is preferred. Lastly, when experiencing a conflict, the majority of teachers assume that the other party's, which is generally other teachers, motivation levels are higher than theirs. This study shed a

light on the conflict management styles of Turkish teachers in the elementary school context which is a limitation as different findings can be reached if the same study were conducted at a tertiary-level educational institution.

A study investigated by Şahin (2007) identified the relationship between interpersonal communication skills and conflict management strategies of primary school administrators. The design of the study was quantitative and random sampling was implemented for the study; 90 school principals and 486 elementary school teachers participated in the study. The researcher developed a three-part scale to identify the demographics, communication skills, and conflict management styles after reviewing the literature and pilot testing it after expertise approval. ANOVA was used to determine the correlations between the variables. The results of this study revealed that the interpersonal communication skills of the administrators were identified as high in the eyes of both administrators and the teachers, however, administrators' personal views on their own interpersonal skills were higher than the teachers. For the conflict management styles of administrators, the findings show that administrators implement compromising more than dominating and avoiding styles. Lastly, the researcher conducted a multiple regression analysis to assess the strength of the relationship between the variables and concluded that for identifying the preferred conflict management strategy, interpersonal communication skills are a significant variable. This study was limited to school administrators' conflict management styles perceived by the teachers, therefore no teachers, including language teachers were a part of this study.

Another study by Uğur (2018) investigated whether there is a relationship between the organizational power of the managers and the perceptions of elementary and secondary school teachers' conflict management styles for their managers. A quantitative research design was implemented and the sample consisted of 381 participants. Organizational Power Sources Scale was used to measure the power levels of the managers and ROCI-II form A was employed to identify the conflict management styles of the managers. The survey data were analyzed by using SPPS and frequency, mean and percentage scores gathered from the scales were analyzed. To assess the significance of the differences between mean scores, independent sample t-tests were used, and to identify the level of prediction of the variables, multiple regression analysis was used and it revealed that the significance is .05.

According to the obtained results, the power sources managers had from the perception of teachers could predict the conflict management levels of the managers. The integrating style was found to be the most prominent and dominating was the least perceived conflict management style of the managers. This study shed a light on the perceived conflict management styles of the managers, however, the setting was elementary and secondary schools in a city in Turkey. Moreover, language teachers did not participate in the study. There could have been different results if language teachers were also involved in a study similar to this.

In a different ad study, Köz (2016) investigated the principles stated conflict management styles and identified conflict management styles in a phenomenological research design with purely qualitative data gathering tools with a maximum variation sampling. The participants were 14 elementary and secondary school principals from different public and private schools based in Istanbul. The data were gathered through face-to-face interviews and the researcher analyzed the data using content and descriptive analysis. According to the results, conflict management styles preferred by school principals differ according to certain variables such as the school type, level, and concern levels. Private school and public school principals' conflict management styles differ significantly; in private schools, they tend to be more compromising and integrating, whereas public school principals have more dominating styles. As this is a purely qualitative design, it could have been supported by quantitative data to increase the reliability of the study. Moreover, teachers didn't participate in the study, the only participants were the school principals.

One last study carried out by Yüksel (2020) examined the conflict management styles of school principals in terms of teacher motivation. The purpose of this study is to find out which conflict management styles administrators prefer in resolving conflicts and whether this influences the teachers' motivational levels. This study was conducted using both quantitative and qualitative research designs. The sample of the study was 2096 teachers and 76 school administrators in Aydın, Turkey. ROCI-II forms A and B and teacher motivation open-ended questionnaire forms were implemented to identify the conflict management styles of the teachers and the administrators. 84 teachers participated in the qualitative part of the research. Nonparametric tests and descriptive and content analysis methods were used to analyze the data gathered from the research. Findings revealed that teachers

perceived the conflict management style of administrators was integration, however, administrators identified themselves with the compromising style. In terms of motivation, it was revealed that teachers were intrinsically more motivated and their motivation levels improved by the principal's integrating and compromising styles, however, dominating and avoiding styles decreased their motivation levels. This study was one of the studies that was close to what the researcher wanted to explore. However, this study only focused on the conflict management styles between supervisors and subordinates, and language teachers were excluded from the sample as there were not enough language teachers to gather data from the setting.

2.10.3 Recent studies about teacher motivation. As explained in the previous parts, motivation is one of the most important factors in teaching. There are many aspects of motivation such as the types of it and factors affecting it. Several studies have been done to investigate the motivation levels of teachers and there have been fewer studies on language teacher motivation. These studies either explored the motivation levels of teachers only or explored them with different variables. Therefore, English language teacher motivation has been a neglected area in the literature (Yau, 2010; Tsutsumi, 2014; Syamananda, 2017; Pourtoussi, Ghanizadeh & Mousavi, 2018; Stężycka & Etherington, 2020).

One of the studies on language teachers' motivation was conducted by Yau (2010) to explore the motivation of ESL teachers who worked in private English language schools and public universities in New Zealand. The aim of the study was to understand the prime factors that affect teacher motivation and the measures to be implemented by teachers and by the organizations they are employed at to maintain and increase teacher motivation. The study employed mixed-method research and both quantitative and qualitative data were gathered through 72 surveys with 7 journal entries and three interviews. According to the findings, intrinsic factors were more essential than extrinsic ones in terms of motivating teachers. These factors include guiding learners to learn English, engaging in professional development activities, and personal joy. On the other hand, management procedures and work autonomy also had an important role in terms of extrinsic motivation. Moreover, work autonomy and job security were found to be demotivators for teachers. This study contributed to the field by conducting research not only on teachers in the

general sense but also on English language teachers. The sample explored the language school teachers' motivation levels; however, every country has its own policies and standards for language schools. Therefore, this study could have yielded different results if it were conducted in a different country.

In a different context, Tsutsumi (2014) explored university English teachers' career backgrounds, work satisfaction levels, and the values they have in their teaching careers. The aim of the study was to investigate the factors that improve and affect teachers who are employed at a university. This study was conducted through a quantitative research design by implementing surveys to identify teachers' daily experiences and career experiences. The participants were 12 teachers employed in different universities around Japan. The findings revealed that EFL teachers who worked at universities were inclined to look for more intrinsic needs including autonomy, self-development, and observing learners' English development. It was also found that intrinsic motivation is a predominant source of motivation. In terms of extrinsic factors, teachers sought job security the most. As the sample of this study was limited to 12 teachers, it would reveal different results if it were conducted with a larger sample.

Another research by Pourtoussi, Ghanizadeh, and Mousavi (2018) explored teacher motivation in Iran with Iranian EFL teachers. The purpose of the study was to identify what factors determine teachers' motivations and the outcomes of their motivation and demotivation. The participants of the study consisted of 16 Iranian EFL teachers who were teaching at an international university. The study was based on an exploratory research design and the data were collected through open-ended questions, interviews, journal entries, and diary notes. All the data were analyzed using MAXQDA. According to the results, the determinants of motivation were found to have two factors: job-related and current environment. The consequences, on the other hand, were found to have three categories: physical, behavioral, and attitudinal. Moreover, the findings indicated that most of the determiners and consequences were external. The participants of the study consisted of female teachers only who were teaching at the same institution. This study could have yielded different results if it included male teachers as well.

Additionally, similar research was done by Syamananda (2017) to explore the actors that motivate and demotivate EFL teachers in Thailand. The study has a

mixed-method design and the participants were 70 Thai EFL teachers who were working at the same state university. The data were collected through open-ended and close-ended questionnaires. To find out the EFL teachers' motivation, responses were compared and the results indicated that teachers ranked interpersonal relationships with students and other teachers the most along with conveying their knowledge to students and providing service to society. The demotivators were mostly extrinsic which included heavy workloads and unsatisfactory salaries. In this study, the age, gender, or educational levels of the teachers were not included. Therefore, the results could be different if they were analyzed as different variables for identifying teacher motivation.

A parallel study was done by Stężycka and Etherington (2020) to investigate the teacher motivation of Polish secondary school EFL teachers. The aim of the research was to identify the motivating and demotivating factors of teacher motivation. The study implemented a mixed-method research design and the participants of the study consisted of 37 Polish secondary school EFL teachers who were employed at state schools. The data were collected through a close-ended questionnaire and interviews. The results were analyzed with descriptive statistics and content analysis. The results revealed that teachers were mostly motivated by both intrinsic and extrinsic factors including imparting knowledge, self-satisfaction, working environment, and work benefits. However, the least motivating factors were external recognition and service to society Furthermore, their motivation level was moderate and the most demotivating factors were workload, limited professional development opportunities, and unsatisfactory salary. This study was conducted with state school teachers only and it could have produced different results with private school EFL teachers.

2.10.4 Recent studies about teacher motivation in Turkey. This section includes the recent studies conducted in Turkey on teacher motivation and language teacher motivation which were measured in relation to different variables (Kızıltepe, 2008; Erkaya, 2012; Sözen, 2015; Yılmaz, 2017; İpek and Kanatlar, 2018).

To begin with, a study by Yılmaz (2017) investigated the motivation levels of in-service English teachers. The purpose of the study is to explore the motivation levels of in-service English teachers in Turkey in relation to different variables

including age, gender, teaching experience, place of work, and training courses. The sample consisted of 130 in-service English teachers and the data were collected by two scales: INSET course participation survey and the motivation to teach scale. In order to identify the relationship between the variable, T-test and ANOVA were implemented. According to the findings, female and state school English teachers were intrinsically motivated to teach and financial reasons could prevent teachers from attending training. This study shed a light on in-service English teachers' motivation levels in the light of the teacher training courses they attend.

Another study by İpek and Kanatlar (2018) explored the factors that affect English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers' motivation levels. The aim of this study was to investigate what factors influence the motivation of EFL teachers. The design of the study was qualitative with the use of purposeful sampling. The participants were 117 EFL teachers who were working at a state university in Turkey and they were asked to note down and describe the factors that affect their motivation. The data were analyzed with content analysis and the themes that emerged were then categorized. The findings indicated that EFL teachers' motivation was affected by different factors such as the workplace atmosphere, the workplace itself, and interpersonal relations with colleagues and students. The limitation of this study is that the participants were from only a single state university where the work environment and conditions are different from private ones. Different settings and working conditions would give a different and broader idea of the factors that motivate and demotivate EFL teachers working in preparatory programs.

A study done by Erkaya (2012) explored Turkish EFL teachers' motivational factors as it has been a neglected area. The aim of this study was to explore the factors that motivate EFL teachers who work in a preparatory program of a state university with a case study. The participants of the study were 8 teachers who worked at the same university and snowball sampling was used. Data were collected through unstructured interviews. Content analysis was implemented to analyze the data. The result indicated that the teachers were more intrinsically motivated and they described six ways to improve their motivation: working atmosphere and conditions, relationships with colleagues, classes, salary, fringe benefits, administration, and students. The most prominent factor that motivated teachers was having supportive colleagues. This study could be done in a different setting such as

a private university and a comparison can be made to find out if there were any differences.

Kızıltepe (2008) aimed to find out the motivating and demotivating factors that teachers perceive in Turkey. The purpose of the study was to identify the sources of motivational factors of state university teachers. The participants of the study were 300 teachers and they were asked two open-ended questions related to motivation and demotivation. Content analysis was used to analyze the data. The results revealed four factors for motivation including students, teaching career, social status and principles, and five factors for demotivation: students, finances, structural and physical characteristics, research, and working conditions. The main source of motivation and demotivation was students. This study presents valuable data in terms of finding motivational factors for university teachers. Different results could be reached if the same study were conducted at a private university.

Sözen (2015) compared the intrinsic and extrinsic motivators that affect English language teachers in primary and secondary state schools in Turkey. The participants were 79 English language teachers from state schools. A mixed-method research design was implemented and a questionnaire consisting of 80 close-ended questions and 18 semi-structured interviews were used to collect data. The quantitative data were analyzed using SPSS and qualitative data were analyzed using content analysis. The findings revealed that communication of knowledge was found to be an intrinsic factor and relationships with students and colleagues were identified as extrinsic factors. Extrinsic factors related to students, parents, colleagues, and administrators, external recognition, physical working conditions, school management and policies, autonomy, workload and working schedule, teaching conditions, job security, career prospects, training, and low salary were identified as demoting factors for EFL teachers. Lastly, the present levels of motivation of EFL teachers were low. Similar research can be adapted and conducted to identify private school English language teachers' intrinsic and extrinsic motivation levels.

2.11 Conclusion

The review of the literature shows that the number of studies on conflict management styles of language teachers in relation to their motivation levels is

limited in number. This research study, thus, has significance due to the fact that it explores the ELPP instructors' perceived conflict management styles and whether or not these styles influence their perceived motivation in Turkey where more research is required to be conducted. This mixed-method design contributes to the field by providing quantitative and qualitative data on the perceived conflict management styles of language teachers in relation to their perceived motivation.

Chapter 3
Methodology

This chapter demonstrates sufficient and appropriate data regarding the methodology of the study. The setting and the participants were described comprehensively, and data collection procedures and tools were presented by explaining all the stages and rationale. This chapter explains the procedures that were used to complete the research. Below is a detailed explanation of the participants, the setting, and the tools used to gather data from the participants. The validity and reliability of the tools, as well as the data-collecting processes and analysis of the data gathered from the participants, are also addressed. The aim of this research is to answer the following questions:

1) What are the ELPP instructors' overall perceptions of conflict management styles?
2) Do teachers' perceived conflict management styles differ significantly based on the following demographic features:
    a) Gender
    b) Age
    c) Education level
    d) Professional seniority
3) What are the ELPP instructors' overall perceptions of work motivation?
4) Do teachers' perceived work motivation differ significantly based on the following demographic features:
    a) Gender
    b) Age

c) Education level
d) Professional seniority

5) Is there any relationship between the conflict management styles of the ELPP instructors and their work motivation?

3.1 Research Design

The purpose of the present research was to investigate the language teachers' overall perceptions of conflict management styles and their effect on their work motivation. An explanatory mixed-method design was employed to have a better and more comprehensive understanding of the research problem by using both quantitative and qualitative data (Creswell, 2011, p. 535). For the quantitative part of the study, the ROCI-II Form C questionnaire (Rahim, 1983) was implemented to find out about English teachers' perceived conflict management styles with peers, and the teacher motivation questionnaire based on Kassagby et al's (2001) was implemented to investigate the work motivation of English teachers. The qualitative part of the study included a reflection form with open-ended questions that were implemented to understand the relationship between conflict management styles and work motivation.

In this study, an explanatory sequential design was employed to gather data as first collecting quantitative data and then collecting qualitative data provide results that help to draw a general picture of the research phenomenon (Creswell, 2011, p. 542). Therefore, quantitative data may provide generalizable results, and qualitative data may help to clarify, expand or describe the general picture of the research problem.

In the first part of the study, quantitative data will be collected from ELPP teachers at a private university to identify the perceived conflict management styles of the teachers and their work motivation. In the second part of the study, qualitative data will be gathered as a follow-up to the first part of the study to support explaining whether there is a relationship between the perceived conflict management styles of teachers and their work motivation (Creswell & Creswell, 2018, p. 187).

3.2 Setting

This current study will be conducted at a private university's ELPP in Istanbul. The main aim of the ELPP is to deliver English language education to EFL students and to equip them with the language skills needed for the English medium instruction departments. English preparatory programs at universities provide students with the necessary language skills including both receptive and productive skills which fulfill students' needs for their higher education academic studies. These programs offer classes for two academic terms in which students can improve their English levels from A1 to B2 level. According to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) levels, A1 refers to the beginner level, A2 refers to the elementary level, B1 refers to the intermediate level, and B2 refers to the upper-intermediate level (Council of Europe, 2022).

At the start of each academic year students who enroll in the university sit at an English placement test which aims to place students in different levels ranging from A1 to B2 depending on the scores they receive. Each level delivers 20 hours of English per week and each level is completed in eight weeks. In terms of assessing students in each level, there is a mid-term exam which is held in week five and there is an achievement test held in week eight, and students are assessed on all skills. Depending on the grades that the students receive from the mid-term quiz, achievement test, and the other assessment components such as participation, attendance, and online study grades, students either pass successfully to the upper level or repeat the same level. Once the students successfully finish the B2 level, they start their undergraduate programs in different departments.

The instructors at ELPP teach every skill a minimum of 16 and up to 24 hours a week. The instructors who teach 16 hours are the ones who do not prefer to teach extra hours. The instructors are not required to be present on the premises before or after their teaching hours, they can come on time for their class and leave after they finish teaching. Every instructor is to complete one professional development activity that they prefer according to their interests every academic year. These activities are not funded by the institution; however, some funded opportunities may arise through collaborations with different institutions. Each teacher also benefits from fringe benefits that the university provides such as private health insurance and lunch cards.

At the end of every term, each instructor is given a week off and all teachers have six weeks of paid holiday during the summer.

Additionally, ELPP is composed of different units namely, level coordinators, the assessment unit, and teacher development center. Level coordinators are responsible for executing each component of the curriculum as well as mid-term assessment. They hold weekly meetings and share the flow and the teaching objectives of each week. The assessment unit is responsible for preparing and executing the achievement test according to the level objectives. The teacher development center provides support and guidance to ELPP instructors and organizes various teacher development workshops and activities. Members of all these units have reduced hours of teaching and have the same fringe benefits mentioned above.

3.2.1 Participants. The participants consisted of 85 ELPP instructors from the above-mentioned private university. According to the demographic information, 76.6 % were female and 23.5% of the participants were male. The age range of the participants was as follows; 2.4% was between the ages 55-64, 17.6% of participants were aged between 25-34, 23.5% was between 45-54, and the most densely populated group was the ages between 35-44 with 56.5%. As for their educational background, 38.8% holds BA degrees and 61.2% holds MA degrees. According to the obtained percentages, 10.6% of the participants had between 0-5 years of experience, similarly, 10.6% had 6-10 years of experience, 38.8% had 11-15 years and 40% of the participants had 16 years or more experience. The distribution of the demographic information of the participants is shown in detail in Table 1 below.

Table 1

Distribution of Demographics

		n	%
Gender	Female	65	76.5
	Male	20	23.5
Age	25-34 years	15	17.6
	35-44 years	48	56.5
	45-54 years	20	23.5
	55-64 years	2	2.4
Eductaion	B.A. Degree	33	38.8
	M.A. Degree	52	61.2
Years of Experience Teaching	0-5 years	9	10.6
	6-10 years	9	10.6
	11-15 years	33	38.8
	16 or more	34	40.0
Total		85	100.0

3.3 Data Collection

This part will present the data collection procedures in detail including the data collection instruments, data analysis, reliability, and validity of the present study.

3.3.1 Data collection procedures. As this is a mixed-method design study, it employs both quantitative and qualitative data collection. Prior to the data collection, ethical factors were carefully considered to ensure that the study did not breach any ethical issues or cause harm or damage to any parties (Matthews & Ross, 2010, p. 111). Consequently, the Ethics Board Committee and the Head of the English Preparatory Program of the university were contacted and the necessary permissions were obtained to conduct the study (see Appendix A). The participants will be informed that they had the right to withdraw from the study at any time, that their names would be kept anonymous, and that they would be assigned pseudonyms (see Appendix C).

To begin with, the quantitative data will be gathered at the beginning of the 2021-2022 spring semester, and quantitative data will be collected in the middle of the same semester. As mentioned before, data will be collected in two parts. First, demographic questions, ROCI-II Form C Questionnaire (Rahim, 1983), and Teacher

Motivation Questionnaire (Kassagby et al., 2001) will be sent online to the participants (see Appendix D and E). All the responses will be entered and then explained.

In the second part, qualitative data will be obtained from a fewer number of participants as an "in-depth picture diminishes with the addition of each new individual" (Creswell, 2011, p. 209). For this reason, 16 participants volunteered to fill in the reflection form. Open-ended questions were provided to the participants via email and Google forms and they sent their responses to the researcher.

3.3.2 Data collection instruments. In this study, data collection instruments consisted of three parts; which are the ROCI-II Form C Questionnaire, the Teacher Motivation Questionnaire, and teacher reflections. Before the employment of the questionnaires, the necessary permission was obtained from the researchers (See Appendices A and B).

3.3.2.1 ROCI-II questionnaire. For this research, first, Rahim's Organizational Conflict Inventory-II form C (ROCI-II) (Rahim, 1983) is employed to obtain the overall perceptions of ELPP instructors on conflict management styles and whether these differ significantly according to professional seniority.

The questionnaire consists of 28 items that identify five conflict management styles with peers. These five conflict management styles are collaborating (7 items), accommodating (6 items), competing (5 items), avoiding (6 items), and compromising (4 items). The questionnaire was based on a 5-point-Likert scale ranging from 'strongly disagree" (1) to 'strongly agree' (5). Teachers' overall perceptions about conflict management styles will be obtained following this questionnaire (See Appendix D).

3.3.2.2 Teacher work motivation questionnaire. A different questionnaire is used to collect data regarding work motivation. Kassagby et al.'s (2001) motivation questionnaire will be delivered to the ELPP instructors to identify their overall perceptions of work motivation. There are 36 items asking participants to rate them on a 5 -point-Likert scale ranging from 'strongly disagree" (1) to 'strongly agree (5). According to Kassagby et al.'s (2001) factor analysis, this questionnaire identifies 5 motivational factors namely, need for affiliation (12 items), extrinsic motivators (6

items), need for autonomy and self-determination (5 items), intrinsic motivators (4 items), and institutional support (8 items) (See Appendix E).

3.3.2.3 Teacher reflection forms. One of the methods used to obtain data regarding participants' perceptions about a certain issue is reflections. Reflection is a useful tool for describing unique and unexpected perceptions (Rich, 2015, p. 86). For this study, to understand the relationship between conflict management styles and work motivation, participants were provided with a reflection form to express their perceptions about conflict management and work motivation. The participants who responded to the questionnaire were asked an additional question on whether they would like to participate in the second part of the study by filling in a reflection form.

The form consists of 4 questions that are related to the questionnaire items and research questions regarding conflict management and work motivation. The purpose of the first question is to identify the years of teaching experience of ELPP teachers, the second question tries to investigate how ELPP teachers handle a conflicting situation, the third question is aimed at finding the motivating factors for ELPP teachers, and the last question intends to find out whether the conflict has an impact on the work motivation of ELPP teachers (see Appendix F).

3.3.3 Data analysis procedure. Data will be analyzed in two stages. Initially, the data that were collected quantitatively were analyzed by using SPSS v26.0. Descriptive statistics such as frequency, percentage, arithmetic mean, standard deviation, minimum and maximum were used in the analysis of the data. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, one of the normality distribution tests, was applied in the analysis of the data, and parametric tests were used as a result of the analysis. In the comparison of the means of two independent groups, independent sample t-test from parametric tests, one-way analysis of variance (One-Way ANOVA) in the average comparison of more than 2 independent groups, Levene test for homogeneity of variance in the ANOVA test and variance for group differences Tukey HSD were used if homogeneity of variance was provided ($p \geq 0.05$), and Tamhane multiple comparison tests were used if variance homogeneity was not provided ($p < 0.05$). Pearson correlation coefficient was calculated in the analysis of the relationship direction and significance of the scale scores. Cronbach's alpha coefficient was used

in the reliability analysis of the scales. All test results were evaluated at the 0.05 significance level.

In the second stage, the qualitative data acquired from the ELPP teachers' reflection forms were analyzed using content analysis to identify indicated characteristics of the data (Ary, Jacobs & Sorensen, 2010, p. 457). The analysis was performed on Microsoft Excel. The codes emerged from the content analysis and they were organized into themes that correspond to the research questions.

3.3.4 Reliability and validity. Reliability and validity are the backbones of both qualitative and quantitative research Before the study, certain measures will be employed to guarantee that the data are reliable and valid, and to fulfill these aims, the data collection procedures will be implemented appropriately.

For quantitative research, reliability is considered as the degree of consistency of a measurement to be replicable for reaching similar results (Ary et al., 2010, p. 236). On the other hand, validity refers to the creation of solid evidence to show that the measurement interpretation, which are the scores concerning the idea or constructs that the scale is supposed to assess, corresponds to its intended application (Creswell, 2011, p. 159). For qualitative research, reliability and validity transform into four different criteria namely; credibility, conformability, dependability, and transferability (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 219).

To guarantee that both quantitative and qualitative data collection instruments are reliable and valid, previously employed scales were adapted and used from other studies (Rahim, 1983; Kasagby et al., 2001; Yau, 2010; Boucher, 2013; Sözen, 2015; Bennagen & Ye, 2016; Kassim et al., 2018). According to the reliability scores, it is seen that Cronbach's alpha coefficient range is (.789-.865) for the conflict management styles of teachers scale and (.625-.920) for the teacher work motivation scale. As a result, these applied scales measure the desired phenomenon well and are reliable which can be seen in Table 2:

Table 2

Reliability Analysis of Conflict Management Styles of Teachers and Teacher Work Motivation Scales

	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
Conflict Management Styles of Teachers	.865	28
Collaborating style	.850	7
Accommodating style	.836	6
Competing style	.831	5
Avoiding style	.797	6
Compromising style	.789	4
Teacher Work Motivation	.920	36
Need for affiliation	.824	12
Extrinsic motivation	.625	6
Need for autonomy	.712	6
Intrinsic motivators	.686	4
Institutional support	.698	9

The open-ended questions in the reflection form were adapted from the previously mentioned studies' interview questions. Some questions were eliminated as they were not appropriate for the present study. Moreover, the researcher also consulted an expert's opinion when adapting the open-ended questions to ensure the reliability of the qualitative data.

3.4 Limitations

Certain limitations are to be taken into account for this present study. To start with, the sample size could be a limitation as 85 participants participated in the study. As a consequence, the results may not be efficient enough to generalize.

Another limitation could be the setting as the teachers who participated in the study were employed at the same institution in the same city. If different teachers from different schools and cities participated in the study, different results may have been yielded.

Moreover, since the researcher is also employed at the same institution as the participants of this study, it could pose a threat to external validity since the objectivity of the study could be impacted.

Lastly, observation could be carried out to observe teachers in action while they were working together to increase reliability and validity. Due to time contraints and the role of the researcher, observtaions could not be done.

Chapter 4
Results

4.1 Overview

The results gathered from the questionnaire and the teacher reflections which were participated by the ELPP instructors from a non-profit university in Istanbul are presented in this chapter with the aim of investigating the conflict management styles and motivation perceptions and levels of the participants and a possible relationship between them. Furthermore, the results related to demographics are displayed with the primary focus on whether there is a change in ELLP instructors' professional seniority and their conflict management styles. Quantitative and qualitative data findings are introduced sequentially in this part.

4.2 Quantitative Data Analysis

The quantitative results obtained from the survey which were administered to investigate the conflict management styles of teachers and teacher work motivation are described in this section. Two questionnaires were implemented to gather data; ROCI-II Form C questionnaire (Rahim, 1983) and the Teacher Motivation Questionnaire (Kassagby et al., 2001). Along with this, whether instructors' conflict management styles differ significantly according to their professional seniority was explored to find out a correlation. The data were analyzed through SPSS v26 and various descriptive statistics such as Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, frequency tests, T-test, One-Way ANOVA, Pearson Correlation and Cronbach's alpha have been implemented for in-depth analysis. In the descriptive statistics, age groups were categorized into two major groups; below and above age 45 as the total number of these groups outnumbered the others. In addition, years of experience was categorized into three major groups. The reason for that is 0-5 and 6-10 years of

experience groups were merged as there were equal number of particiapants from these groups.

4.2.1 Descriptive statistics of conflict management styles of teachers and teacher work motivation scales. The analysis of the descriptive statistics of Conflict Management Styles of Teachers and Teacher Work Motivation scales and their five factors such as Collaborating Style and Need for Affiliation were described. The results of the analysis are displayed in Table 3:

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics of Conflict Management Styles of Teachers and Teacher Work Motivation Scales

	N	$\bar{X}$	*SD*	*Min.*	*Max.*
Conflict Management Styles of Teachers	85	3.63	.46	1	5
Collaborating Style	85	4.41	.57	1	5
Accommodating Style	85	3.46	.72	1	5
Competing Style	85	2.69	.85	1	5
Avoiding Style	85	3.40	.83	1	5
Compromising Style	85	4.05	.74	1	5
Teacher Work Motivation	85	4.50	.37	1	5
Need for Affiliation	85	4.44	.44	1	5
Extrinsic Motivation	85	4.36	.45	1	5
Need for Autonomy	85	4.69	.37	1	5
Intrinsic Motivators	85	4.42	.51	1	5
Institutional Support	85	4.65	.36	1	5

When the descriptive statistics of teachers' conflict management styles of teachers and teacher work motivation scale sub-dimensions were evaluated in the study, it was found that the average score of collaborating style among the dimensions of conflict management styles of teachers was 4.41 with an *SD* of .57 (*N*=85, $\bar{X}$=3.63, *SD*=.57 min=1, *max.*=5*)*, the average score of accommodating style was found as 3.46 (*N*=85, $\bar{X}$=3.46, *SD*=.72, *min*=1, *max.*=5*)*, the average score of competing style was 2.69 (*N*=85, $\bar{X}$=2.69, *SD*=.85, *min*=1, *max.*=5, the average score of avoiding style was found as 3.40 (*N*=85, $\bar{X}$=3.40, *SD*=.83, *min*=1, *max.*=5), and finally the average score of compromising style was 4.05 (*N*=85, $\bar{X}$=4.05, *SD*=.724,

min=1, *max.*=5), and the overall average score of conflict management styles of teachers was observed as 3.63 (*N*=85, X̄=3.63, *SD*=.46, *min*=1, *max.*=5).

From the teacher work motivation dimensions, the mean score of need for affiliation was found as 4.44 (*N*=85, X̄=4.44, *SD*=.44, *min*=1, *max.*=5), the mean extrinsic motivation score was 4.36 (*N*=85, X̄=4.36, *SD*=.45, *min*=1, *max.*=5). Moreover, the mean need for autonomy score is 4.69 (*N*=85, X̄=4.69, *SD*=.37, *min*=1, *max.*=5), the intrinsic motivators mean score is 4.42 (*N*=85, X̄=4.42, *SD*=.51, *min*=1, *max.*=5), and lastly the Institutional support mean score is 4.65 (*N*=85, X̄=4.65, *SD*=.36, *min*=1, *max.*=5), and the overall mean score of teacher work motivation is 4.50 (*N*=85, X̄=4.50, *SD*=.37, *min*=1, *max.*=5).

Based on the normality distribution analysis of Conflict Management Styles of Teachers and Teacher Work Motivation scales analysis, further results were obtained which are given in Table 4 below:

Table 4

Normality Distribution of Conflict Management Styles of Teachers and Teacher Work Motivation Scales

Scales	Kolmogorov-Smirnov			Skewness	Kurtosis
	Statistic	df	p		
Conflict Management Styles of Teachers	.105	85	.022	-.642	1.030
Collaborating style	.149	85	.000	-1.343	1.370
Accommodating style	.093	85	.069*	-.201	.398
Competing style	.104	85	.024	-.101	-.626
Avoiding style	.072	85	.200*	.079	-.843
Compromising style	.118	85	.005	-1.092	1.203
Teacher Work Motivation	.144	85	.000	-1.068	.740
Need for affiliation	.148	85	.000	-1.000	.308
Extrinsic motivation	.143	85	.000	-.703	.964
Need for autonomy	.201	85	.000	-1.369	1.567
Intrinsic motivators	.194	85	.000	-1.404	1.861
Institutional support	.172	85	.000	-1.526	1.231

*p>0.05

In the study, when the normality distribution of teachers' conflict management styles of teachers and teacher work motivation scale scores were evaluated with the Kolmogorov Smirnov test; except for the accommodating style and avoiding style

scores, the data did not show normal distribution (p<0.05). However, since the values of Kurtosis and Skewness, which are the other assumptions of the normal distribution, are between ±2, although the scores do not show a normal distribution, it was accepted that the data belonging to the scores of the dependent variables were normally distributed.

4.2.2 Descriptive statistics of conflict management styles of teachers. In the study, conflict management styles of teachers and sub-dimension average scores were evaluated by independent sample t-test according to the demographic variables.

4.2.2.1 Descriptive statistics of conflict management styles of teachers in terms of gender. Conflict management styles of teachers and sub-dimension average scores were evaluated by independent sample t-test according to gender of the teachers. The findings are shown below in Table 5:

Table 5

Comparison of Conflict Management Styles of Teachers Scale Scores by Gender with Independent Sample T-Test

	Gender				t	Levene statistic (F)	df	p
	Female (n=65)		Male (n=20)					
	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD				
Conflict Management Styles of Teachers	3.63	.42	3.63	.60	-.050	.286	83	.961
Collaborating style	4.46	.52	4.22	.68	1.681	.215	83	.097
Accommodating style	3.42	.67	3.58	.87	-.882	.245	83	.380
Competing style	2.72	.86	2.57	.82	.704	.599	83	.484
Avoiding style	3.28	.81	3.77	.81	-2.343	.913	83	.022*
Compromising style	4.13	.63	3.81	.99	1.686	.064	83	.095

Independent sample t test, *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001

It was found that male teachers' average score of avoiding style from conflict management styles of teachers ($\bar{X}$ =3.77, *SD*=0.81) is significantly higher than the average score of female teachers (t(83): -2.343, p:0.022, p<0.05). On the other hand, the mean score of the other dimensions of conflict management styles of teachers did not differ significantly between the genders of the teachers (p>0.05).

4.2.2.2 Descriptive statistics of conflict management styles of teachers in terms of age group. Conflict management styles of teachers and sub-dimension average scores were evaluated by independent sample t-test according to the age group of the teachers. The findings are displayed below in Table 6:

Table 6

Comparison of Conflict Management Styles of Teachers Scale Scores by Age group with Independent Sample T-Test

	Age				t	Levene statistic (F)	df	p
	Below 45 (n=63)		45 and above (n=22)					
	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD				
Conflict Management Styles of Teachers	3.60	.45	3.70	.50	-.883	.308	83	.380
Collaborating style	4.41	.60	4.38	.49	.224	.530	83	.823
Accommodating style	3.40	.73	3.62	.69	-1.231	.984	83	.222
Competing style	2.57	.83	3.03	.81	-2.237	.953	83	.028*
Avoiding style	3.39	.81	3.42	.91	-.184	.339	83	.855
Compromising style	4.10	.70	3.91	.84	1.064	.231	83	.290

Independent sample t test, *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001

In the study, when the average scores of conflict management styles of teachers and sub-dimensions were evaluated by independent sample t-test according to the age groups of the teachers, it is revealed that the average score competing style among the conflict management styles of teachers ($\bar{X}$ =3.03, *SD*=0.81) aged 45 and over is significantly higher than the average score of the teachers under the age of 45 ($\bar{X}$ =2.57, *SD*=0.83) (t(83)= -2.237, p:0.028, p<0.05). However, the mean score of the other dimensions of conflict management styles of teachers did not differ significantly between teachers' age groups (p>0.05).

4.2.2.3 Descriptive statistics of conflict management styles of teachers in terms of educational level. Conflict management styles of teachers and sub-dimension average scores were evaluated by independent sample t-test according to the educational levels of the teachers. The findings are displayed below in Table 7:

Table 7

Comparison of Conflict Management Styles of Teachers Scale Scores according to Education Levels with Independent Sample t-Test

	Education				t	Levene statistic (F)	df	p
	BA. Degree (n=33)		MA. Degree (n=52)					
	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD				
Table 8 (cont.d)								
Conflict Management Styles of Teachers	3.64	.38	3.62	.51	.212	.597	83	.833
Collaborating style	4.45	.52	4.38	.60	.502	.751	83	.617
Accommodating style	3.41	.65	3.49	.77	-.453	.636	83	.652
Competing style	2.78	.72	2.63	.92	.819	.153	83	.415
Avoiding style	3.38	.80	3.41	.86	-.152	.775	83	.879
Compromising style	4.05	.63	4.05	.80	.001	.304	83	.999

Independent sample t test, *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001

The results indicated that when the average scores of conflict management styles of teachers and sub-dimensions were evaluated by independent sample t-test according to the education levels of the teachers, the mean scores of the conflict management styles of teachers and the sub-dimension did not differ significantly between the education levels (p>0.05).

4.2.2.4 Descriptive statistics of conflict management styles of teachers in terms of professional seniority. Conflict management styles of teachers and sub-dimension average scores were evaluated by independent sample t-test according to the professional seniority of the teachers. The findings are displayed below in Table 8:

Table 8

Comparison of Conflict Management Styles of Teachers Scale Scores with One-Way Analysis of Variance Test by Professional Seniority

	Years of Experience Teaching						F (2, 82)	Levene statistic (p)	p
	Below 10 years (n=18)		11-15 years (n=33)		Above 15 years (n=34)				
	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD			
Conflict Management Styles of Teachers	3.61	.34	3.62	.59	3.65	.38	.065	.141	.937
Collaborating style	4.42	.42	4.47	.68	4.34	.53	.418	.406	.660
Accommodating style	3.40	.60	3.36	.84	3.59	.66	.929	.519	.399
Competing style	2.82	.83	2.48	.94	2.81	.75	1.554	.621	.218
Avoiding style	3.18	.77	3.53	.85	3.39	.84	1.035	.646	.360
Compromising style	4.13	.52	4.08	.85	3.99	.73	.253	.286	.777

One-Way ANOVA Test, *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001

The results showed that when the mean scores of conflict management styles of teachers and sub-dimensions were evaluated with a one-way analysis of variance (One-way ANOVA) test according to the experience period of the teachers, there was no significant difference between the mean score of conflict management styles of teachers and the sub-dimension professional seniority (p>0.05).

4.2.3 Descriptive statistics of teacher work motivation. In the study, the work motivation of teachers and sub-dimension average scores were evaluated by independent sample t-test according to the demographic variables.

4.2.3.1 Descriptive statistics of work motivation of teachers in terms of gender. The study investigated the teacher work motivation and sub-dimensions average score according to gender. The results are displayed in Table 9 below:

Table 9

Comparison of Teacher Work Motivation Scale Scores by Gender with Independent Sample t-Test

	Gender				t	Levene statistic (F)	df	p
	Female (n=65)		Male (n=20)					
	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD				
Teacher Work Motivation	4.56	.32	4.31	.44	2.330	.042	25.71	.028*
Need for affiliation	4.51	.40	4.19	.49	2.982	.080	83	.004**
Extrinsic motivation	4.42	.43	4.20	.49	1.896	.367	83	.061
Need for autonomy	4.73	.36	4.56	.39	1.785	.658	83	.078
Intrinsic motivators	4.46	.43	4.31	.72	.855	.009	23.40	.401
Institutional support	4.70	.27	4.48	.52	1.762	.000	22.33	.092

Independent sample t test, *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001

As it is presented in Table X that the average score of female teachers' need for affiliation dimension from the teacher work motivation scale ($\bar{X}$ =4.51, SD=0.40) is significantly higher than the average score of male teachers ($\bar{X}$ =4.19, SD=0.49) (t(83): 2.982, p: 0.004, p<0.01). Moreover, it is concluded that the teacher work motivation score of female teachers ($\bar{X}$ =4.56, SD=0.32) is significantly higher than the average score of male teachers ($\bar{X}$=4.31, SD=0.44) (t(25.71): 2.330, p:0.028, p< 0.05). On the other hand, the mean score of the other dimensions of the teacher work motivation scale did not differ significantly between the genders of the teachers (p>0.05).

4.2.3.2 Descriptive statistics of work motivation of teachers in terms of age group. The study investigated the teacher work motivation and sub-dimensions average score according to the age group of the teachers. The findings are presented in Table 10 below:

Table 10

Comparison of Teacher Work Motivation Scale Scores by Age Groups with Independent Sample t-Test

	Age				t	Levene statistic (F)	df	p
	Below 45 (n=63)		45 and above (n=22)					
	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD				
Teacher Work Motivation	4.48	.37	4.56	.35	-.879	.194	83	.382
Need for affiliation	4.42	.45	4.48	.42	-.539	.119	83	.591
Extrinsic motivation	4.36	.43	4.37	.52	-.078	.538	83	.938
Need for autonomy	4.66	.39	4.77	.32	-1.273	.223	83	.206
Intrinsic motivators	4.39	.52	4.51	.50	-.929	.500	83	.356
Institutional support	4.63	.38	4.71	.29	-.915	.335	83	.363

Independent sample t test, *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001

The findings indicated that when teacher work motivation and sub-dimension mean scores were assessed by independent sample t-test according to teachers' age groups, teacher work motivation and sub-dimension mean scores did not differ significantly between age groups (p>0.05).

4.2.3.3 Descriptive statistics of work motivation of teachers in terms of education levels. The study explored the teacher work motivation and sub-dimensions average score according to the education levels of the teachers. The findings are presented in Table 11 below:

Table 11

Comparison of Teacher Work Motivation Scale Scores According to Education Levels with Independent Sample t-Test

	Education				t	Levene statistic (F)	df	p
	BA. Degree (n=33)		MA. Degree (n=52)					
	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD				
Teacher Work Motivation	4.50	.37	4.50	.37	-.026	.757	83	.979
Need for affiliation	4.43	.41	4.44	.46	-.132	.578	83	.895
Extrinsic motivation	4.42	.45	4.33	.45	.969	.943	83	.335
Need for autonomy	4.68	.35	4.69	.39	-.088	.928	83	.930
Intrinsic motivators	4.41	.42	4.43	.57	-.205	.323	83	.838
Institutional support	4.63	.44	4.66	.30	-.288	.159	83	.774

Independent sample t test, *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001

When teacher work motivation and sub-dimension mean scores were evaluated by independent sample t-test according to teachers' education levels, teacher work motivation and sub-dimension mean scores did not show a significant difference between education levels (p>0.05).

4.2.3.4 Descriptive statistics of work motivation of teachers in terms of professional seniority. The study examined the teacher work motivation and sub-dimensions average scores according to the professional seniority of the teachers. The findings are offered in Table 12 below:

Table 12

Comparison of Teacher Work Motivation Scale Scores for Professional Seniority with One-Way ANOVA Analysis

	Experience						F (2, 82)	Levene statistic (p)	p
	Below 10 years (n=18)		11-15 years (n=33)		Above 15 years (n=34)				
	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD			
Teacher Work Motivation	4.60	.30	4.50	.35	4.46	.41	.907	.698	.408
Need for affiliation	4.53	.39	4.41	.45	4.41	.46	.528	.991	.592
Extrinsic motivation	4.57	.40	4.35	.39	4.27	.50	2.836	.608	.064
Need for autonomy	4.75	.38	4.67	.35	4.67	.40	.333	.926	.718
Intrinsic motivators	4.43	.36	4.47	.46	4.38	.63	.281	.109	.756
Institutional support	4.73	.27	4.66	.33	4.59	.42	.899	.380	.411

One-Way ANOVA Test, *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001

In the study, when teacher work motivation and sub-dimension mean scores were evaluated with a one-way analysis of variance test according to teachers' working time, there was no significant difference between teacher work motivation and sub-dimension mean score (p>0.05).

4.2.4 The correlation between conflict management styles of teachers and teacher work motivation. The other research question aimed at the study was to explore whether there was a relationship between the conflict management styles of teachers and their teacher work motivation. To obtain results for this correlation Pearson Correlation test was made use of. The results of the analysis are presented below in Table 13:

Table 13

Correlation Analysis of the Relationship Between Conflict Management Styles of Teacher and Teacher Work Motivation Scale Scores

		Conflict Management Styles of Teachers	Collaborating style	Accommodating style	Competing style	Avoiding style	Compromising style	Teacher Work Motivation	Need for affiliation	Extrinsic motivation	Need for autonomy	Intrinsic motivators	Institutional support
Conflict Management Styles of Teachers	r	1											
	p												
Collaborating style	r	**.620*****	1										
	p	**<.001**											
Accommodating style	r	**.800*****	**.261***	1									
	p	**<.001**	**.016**										
Competing style	r	**.476*****	.197	.199	1								
	p	**<.001**	.071	.068									
Avoiding style	r	**.616*****	.019	**.609*****	**-**.025	1							
	p	**<.001**	.862	**<.001**	.822								
Compromising style	r	**.661*****	**.676*****	**.384*****	.138	.137	1						
	p	**<.001**	**<.001**	**<.001**	.207	.211							
Teacher Work Motivation	r	.147	**.250***	.061	**.221***	-.141	.140	1					
	p	.179	**.021**	.580	**.042**	.197	.201						
Need for affiliation	r	.140	**.277***	.089	.198	-.194	.153	**.932*****	1				
	p	.201	**.010**	.417	.069	.075	.162	**<.001**					
Extrinsic motivation	r	.091	.144	-.035	**.299****	-.135	.056	**.787*****	**.665*****	1			
	p	.406	.189	.753	**.005**	.217	.610	**<.001**	**<.001**				
Need for autonomy	r	.210	**.295****	.109	.210	-.038	.128	**.783*****	**.660*****	**.508*****	1		
	p	.053	**.006**	.319	.054	.727	.241	**<.001**	**<.001**	**<.001**			
Intrinsic motivators	r	.058	.080	.057	.059	-.044	.052	**.776*****	**.648*****	**.538*****	**.649*****	1	
	p	.600	.468	.605	.591	.687	.637	**<.001**	**<.001**	**<.001**	**<.001**		
Institutional support	r	.132	**.223***	.035	.142	-.085	.166	**.854*****	**.749*****	**.618*****	**.579*****	**.539*****	1
	p	.229	**.040**	.748	.195	.439	.128	**<.001**	**<.001**	**<.001**	**<.001**	**<.001**	

Pearson correlation, *p<.05, **p<.01

When the relationship between the conflict management styles of teachers and teacher work motivation levels in the study was evaluated with the Pearson correlation test, it was found that the conflict management styles of teachers' score and its sub-dimensions collaborating style (r: .620, p<.001), accommodating style (r: .800, p<.001), competing style (r: .476, p<.001), avoiding style (r: .616, p<.001) and compromising style (r: .661, p<.001) there is a positive, strong and significant correlation. However, no significant correlation was found between the conflict management styles of teachers' scores and teacher work motivation and its sub-dimensions (p>.05).

Collaborating style from conflict management styles of teachers dimensions and need for affiliation from teacher work motivation dimensions (r: .277, p<.01), need for autonomy (r: .295, p<.01), institutional support (r: .223), p<.05) and teacher work motivation overall score (r: .250, p<.05) there is a positive, weak and significant correlation.

There was a positive, weak, and significant correlation between the conflict management styles of teachers' dimensions; competing style, and teacher work motivation dimensions; extrinsic motivation (r: .299, p<.01) and teacher work general score (r: .221, p<.05) which means that there is a significant relationship. In addition, there is a positive, strong, and significant correlation between the general teacher work motivation score and its sub-dimensions.

4.3 Qualitative Data Analysis

The qualitative part of the study was conducted with ELPP instructors who volunteered to fill in the teacher reflection forms. The themes and sub-themes that emerged as the outcomes of the content analysis are displayed in Table 14 below.

Table 14

The Emerging Themes Based on Instructors' Perceptions

Themes	Sub Themes
Perceptions about Conflict Management Styles	Collaboration Avoiding confrontation Seeking help Compromising
Perceptions about Work Motivation	High-order needs and Motivators Basic Needs and Hygiene Factors Demotivators
Perceptions about the Effect of Conflict on Work Motivation	Solving the conflict Ignoring the Conflict Degree of conflict

4.3.1 Teachers' perceptions of conflict management styles. The ELPP instructors who volunteered to provide more information by filling in the teacher reflection forms were asked questions to acquire their perceptions of conflict management styles. The themes that emerged from their reflections appeared to be parallel to Rahim's (1985) conflict management styles. The ELPP instructors expressed how they handle conflicts and their perceptions were corroborated with the sub-themes that are specified in the following part.

4.3.1.1 Collaboration. When asked about how ELPP instructors handled conflicts, most of them stated that collaborating with the conflicting party was the most preferred way. The following extracts from the reflection forms support this finding:

> […] I share it politely at that moment, listen to them as well if they would like to share something, and try to find a midway (Instructor, Reflection data, June 1st, 2022).

> […] If I believe that my colleague is a cooperative person, in other words, someone I can talk to, I might bring up the issue to find a middle ground (Instructor, Reflection data, June 1st, 2022).

> […] If it happens for some exceptional reasons, reaching an agreement and showing empathy are the best ways to survive I guess (Instructor, Reflection data, June 1st, 2022).

4.3.1.2 Avoiding confrontation. When asked about how ELPP instructors handled conflicts, another preferred style is avoiding especially if the conflicting party has more seniority. This finding is supported in the followings extracts from the reflections:

> […] I am a meek and mild-mannered person. I avoid conflict and confrontation at all cost, even to the point that I may be taken advantage of. I usually concede to the opposing side (Instructor, Reflection data, June 1st, 2022).

> […] I usually try to avoid confrontation and do not find it easy to have an argument with people, especially with my colleagues (Instructor, Reflection data, June 1st, 2022).

> […] I might avoid confrontation depending on the seniority of the person in terms of age and experience (Instructor, Reflection data, June 1st, 2022).

4.3.1.3 Seeking help. Another way of handling conflict for ELPP instructors revealed as to be seeking help from peers or supervisors, especially if one of the conflicting parties is concerned about not being able to cooperate with the other, and the support of this finding is given in the extracts given below:

> […] In case it happens, either I suggest carrying the issue to a coordinator or someone who has more authority (Instructor, Reflection data, June 1st, 2022).

> […] try to compromise by suggesting possible solutions to the problem. If we can't compromise at all, I may ask help from relative parties in my institution (Instructor, Reflection data, June 1st, 2022).

> […] I will create space to be understood and share my concerns with 1 or 2 colleagues that I trust, know that they will not be judgmental (Instructor, Reflection data, June 1st, 2022).

4.3.1.4 Compromising. As for handling conflict when asked, ELPP instructors expressed that compromising can also be applied when they encounter a conflict with peers. The following extracts provided below support this finding.

> […] If possible I try to compromise, if giving or doing what the other person wants helps me to avoid conflict, I go down that path (Instructor, Reflection data, June 1st, 2022).

> […] She wouldn't back down at all, so in the end I just rolled my eyes and relented, life is too short I guess. So I suppose I put up a little resistance and then give in (Instructor, Reflection data, June 1st, 2022).

> […] I see that his/her idea is ok for me, I don't take the discussion any further and agree with him/her. If I don't agree with the idea I don't prefer to be pushy (Instructor, Reflection data, June 1st, 2022).

4.3.2 Teachers' perceptions of work motivation. The other theme that arose from the reflection forms was teachers' perceptions of work motivation. According to the responses, the significance of motivators and demotivators was highlighted and they are categorized as high order needs and motivators, basic needs and hygiene factors, and demotivators. The summary of each category is provided in the following section.

4.3.2.1 High-order needs and motivators. ELPP instructors pointed out that seeing students' progress, social interaction and communication, professional support, flexibility, and freedom, being respected and appreciated, and having a sense of belonging are the factors that affect teachers' work motivation. The following extracts support these findings:

> […] The biggest motivation for me is the look in the eye of a student who has internalized the target learning point and made a strong connection with it to his/her prior knowledge (Instructor, Reflection data, June 1st, 2022).

> […] Teaching is not merely a transfer of knowledge and skills because it has a 'social aspect' that helps establishment of social interaction,

communication, and quality time with students. Obviously, these motivate the teacher to spend more time in class (Instructor, Reflection data, June 1st, 2022).

[…] Being appreciated and supported to develop ourselves (Instructor, Reflection data, June 1st, 2022).

[…] Teachers' biggest motivation I guess is to be appreciated. Job satisfaction is more important than money in our profession I guess (Instructor, Reflection data, June 1st, 2022).

[…] Being respected and supported by the admiration and my co-workers affects how I teach (Instructor, Reflection data, June 1st, 2022).

4.3.2.2 Basic needs and hygiene factors. The other motivational factors that ELPP instructors stated were related to basic needs and hygiene factors and these were expressed as having a humanistic approach by the management, cooperative colleagues, financial satisfaction, work environment, and work conditions. The evidence to support these findings is shown in these extracts:

[…] Additionally, when my employer and management have a humanistic approach, I tend to feel more valued and connected to my workplace (Instructor, Reflection data, June 1st, 2022).

[…] Having the chance to work with cooperative colleagues like we have here really helps both widen horizons and assist as first aid kits in situations of emergency. This also applies to the higher admin who always prioritize us (Instructor, Reflection data, June 1st, 2022).

[…] Money is quite a bit motivating factor. Money is important in and of itself, but it also shows how much you are valued (Instructor, Reflection data, June 1st, 2022).

[…] Most motivating: A structure that works efficiently, transparency, support from the management and colleagues, a safe work environment

> to express yourself professionally (Instructor, Reflection data, June 1st, 2022).
>
> […] Working hours (both at home and at school), students' motivation and the class being in a harmony, the relationship between the colleagues and administration and the amount of care the institution provides in addition to financial support (Instructor, Reflection data, June 1st, 2022).

4.3.2.3 Demotivators. ELPP instructors expressed the motivating factors for them and if those factors do not exist or cannot be met, they feel demotivated. Additionally, they also listed the demotivating factors which affect their work motivation and these are lack of reward for performance, insufficient salary, and conflicting work environment. The following extracts support the findings:

> […] if there's no reward for efficient performance and lack of appreciation; this may lead to demotivation (Instructor, Reflection data, June 1st, 2022).
>
> […] Least motivating: Salary, payments, hourly rates, unfair raise, not being able to meet your needs as much as you would/could before, benefits. It would also be very demotivating if there was no teach and go (Instructor, Reflection data, June 1st, 2022).
>
> […] conflicting working environment, lack of communication between people, and mobbing. Those factors often disrupt the smooth flow of the work. As a result, people may feel frustrated when they are unable to complete their tasks and they may lose their motivation (Instructor, Reflection data, June 1st, 2022).

4.3.3 Perceptions about the effect of conflict on work motivation. The perceptions of ELPP instructors on how a conflict would affect their work motivation depends on whether the conflict can be solved, or ignored and the degree of it. These are presented in the next section in detail.

4.3.3.1 Solving the conflict. ELPP instructors mostly believed that conflicts can be solved, and it mostly depends on the institutions' dynamics. For these

instructors, the institution that they work for has a positive atmosphere for solving conflicts. Therefore, conflicts may not affect their motivation. The following extracts support these viewpoints:

> […] At (this institution)- not at all. But I worked at a school in the past where I just wasn't at all happy, and couldn't wait for the year to end so I could quit (Instructor, Reflection data, June 1st, 2022).

> […] At (this institution), I think it is really hard not to find a solution to a problem with a colleague as we work in an environment with certain unwritten but established rules of culture: no one interferes with the other's job. If you face a conflict with someone, it's probably going to end up at the terrace with a chit-chat and a cup of coffee (Instructor, Reflection data, June 1st, 2022).

> […] I have never had a major conflict with a colleague in a workplace. I would try to solve the problem (Instructor, Reflection data, June 1st, 2022).

4.3.3.2 Ignoring the conflict. Another sub-theme emerged from ELPP instructors' reflection forms about how conflicts affect motivation is that some teachers prefer to ignore the conflicts, which is a way of keeping up their motivation. Below are some extracts which support this finding:

> […] Sometimes, perhaps even often (with me at least) a colleague is blissfully ignorant of the existence of conflict. I rarely share my feelings about particular issues at I am not happy with. I just accept it and move on (Instructor, Reflection data, June 1st, 2022).

> […] You may prefer staying away from that person for a while or you may be able to ignore that person/conflict and in that case, I don't believe your motivation would be affected much (Instructor, Reflection data, June 1st, 2022).

4.3.3.3 Degree of conflict. The final sub-theme that emerged from how conflicts affect motivation is the degree of conflicts. ELPP instructors highlighted

that their work motivation can be affected depending on whom they have a conflict with and how serious the conflict is. The support of this finding is given in the following extracts:

> […] If that colleague was also my office mate and the conflict remained unresolved, yes, it would definitely be affected. If that colleague was not a very close friend and he/she were just a partner that I share a class with, then it would not affect my motivation. If that colleague was my coordinator or director, it would affect my work motivation. (Instructor, Reflection data, June 1st, 2022).

> […] I think it depends on who you have the conflict with. If you have a close relationship with that person, if you share the same office or classroom, it would be difficult to stay motivated for a period of time to go to your workplace in case of a serious conflict. Otherwise, you may prefer staying away from that person for a while or you may be able to ignore that person/conflict and in that case, I don't believe your motivation would be affected much. (Instructor, Reflection data, June 1st, 2022).

Chapter 5
Discussion and Conclusions

5.1 Discussion of Findings for Research Questions

The main aim of this study was to explore ELPP instructors' perceptions about conflict management styles, whether or not these styles differ according to demographic features such as age, gender, educational level and professional seniority, instructors' perceptions about work motivation, whether or not their work motivation differ according to demographic features such as age, gender, educational level and professional seniority, and whether there is any relationship between instructors' conflict management styles and their work motivation. In fulfillment of these aims, qualitative and quantitative methods were implemented to gather data from the participants. The following part investigates the results of the study by

examining each research question in depth, and the next parts continue with the conclusions and recommendations.

5.1.1 Discussion of findings of RQ 1. What are the ELPP instructors' overall perceptions of conflict management styles? The initial research question intended to explore the instructors' overall perceptions of conflict management styles. Instructors' conflict management styles were identified by examining the frequency analysis results. The instructors responded to Rahim's (1983) ROCI-II questionnaire which aims to identify five conflict management styles with peers such as collaborating, compromising, accommodating, competing, and avoiding. According to the results, the most common perceived conflict management style of instructors revealed as collaborating which was accompanied by compromising and accommodating, whereas the least common ones turned out to be avoiding and competing. These results were mostly aligned with the results of the previous studies done by Akhtar and Hassan (2021), Bennagen and Ye (2016), Boucher (2013), and Kassim et al. (2018). Collaborating was considered one of the most effective conflict management styles as Rahim (1985) emphasized collaborating or in other words, integrating is more operative than other styles as it employs the skills and information that all parties have in order to resolve the issues and effectively implement the solutions (p. 84). Moreover, dominating or in other words competing style was the least perceived style according to this current study which was also parallel with the results of Akhtar and Hassan (2021), Bennagen and Ye (2016), Kassim et al (2018), and Uğur (2018). The reason for this might be generally individuals employ dominating style when it is important to overcome assertive subordinates (Rahim, 2002), yet these studies focused either on teacher-to-teacher conflicts or teacher-to-administrator conflicts. Therefore, it can be thought that dominating style was observed less when both parties were equally powerful and administrators had efficient competence in performing their duties. However, this result was contradictory to Alzahrani's (2013) study in which the most common conflict management style was dominating and the least was integrating. The reason behind this difference may emerge from the participants of the studies as in Alzahrani's (2013) study, the participants' academic ranks ranged from instructor to full professor which was different from the current study and the other studies

mentioned above. As Drory and Ritov (1997) emphasized hierarchical levels of conflicting parties affect conflict style preferences; the higher that level is, the higher dominating style prevails. Therefore, it can be assumed that the higher rank the academics have, the more likely they assert their power over the lower-ranked faculty members which may result in having a more dominating style.

In addition to these, the studies that were conducted in Turkey which shared the same setting as this study yielded mostly similar results. Uğur (2018) found that integrating was the most and dominating was the least preferred style of conflict management among EFL teachers. Similarly, Yüksel (2020) shared parallel results as in the eyes of the teachers, school principals employed integration or collaboration when they encountered conflicts. Köz (2016) likewise revealed that private school principals preferred problem-solving or in other words integrating style when dealing with conflicts. Instructors who participated in this current study also stated in their reflections that collaboration was the most applicable way to solve a conflict in this setting.

Furthermore, some instructors stated avoiding conflicts can also be another way of dealing with conflict. The reason for that might be the problems may seem insignificant to them and as Rahim (2002) emphasized the possible negative effects of confrontation exceeds the positive consequences of the solution when conflicts are avoided (p. 219). Similarly, instructors also expressed that compromise could also be employed if they wanted to avoid conflicts. Another group of instructors also specified that they would seek help from other colleagues and the administration when collaboration seems not possible at the time of the conflict. As the approach of this institution is highly humanistic in the eyes of the instructors, seeking help from others seems like a possible way of resolving any issues. Moreover, it was revealed that age and level of education did not have a significant effect on the conflict management styles of the instructors, collaboration was still perceived as the most common conflict management style whereas competing was the least.

Additionally, Uysal (2012) found that gender plays a role in identifying conflict management styles. Males mostly preferred avoiding, accommodating, and negotiating which was aligned with this current study's results. Male teachers preferred avoiding more than female teachers. The reason for this difference might

be the gender influences on conflict management styles as women are expected to be pleasant and helpful rather than careless (Folger, Poole & Stutman, 2021, p. 134).

As a result, it can be said that collaborating or integrating was the most preferred style of conflict management among ELPP instructors and male instructors preferred to avoid conflict more than female ELPP instructors. Therefore, it can be claimed that this study produced parallel results with the previously done studies and the results of this study contributed to the literature in terms of identifying conflict management styles of ELPP instructors.

5.1.2 Discussion of findings of RQ 2. Do teachers' perceived conflict management styles differ significantly based on their demograhic features? The second research question that this study targeted to explore was whether there was a difference in conflict management styles of instructors according to their demographic information. The frequency results revealed that collaborating, accommodating, and compromising were the most common styles, and competing was the least common style that instructors employed when dealing with conflict regardless of their years of experience in teaching English. There have not been many studies done regarding this difference in the literature. According to Rahim (1983, p. 370), role status and gender have a more significant influence on conflict management styles and these two variables were applied when developing the conflict management scale; ROCI.

Different studies focused on different variables such as basic demographics, organizational climate, and organizational position (Boucher, 2013; Uysal, 2012; Şahin, 2007; Bennagen & Ye, 2013) focused on age, education level and years of experience in their study which yielded similar results to this current study; there was no significant relationship between teachers' demographics and their conflict management styles. Both Bennagen and Ye (2013) and this study had similar settings as the studies were conducted in a single institution and had an almost identical number of participants. According to Gross and Guerrero (2000) integrating style is open for communication and promotes the exchange of information to find a creative solution to the issues. For individuals who work at the same institution and have experience of more than 10 years in teaching, concern for themselves and for others can be the optimum solution to any conflict since working in the same institution and

having dominating styles at the same time may lead to more conflicts in the future, which is not desirable for both parties. For the current study, it should be highlighted that teachers tend to work long years in the same institution, and having a collaborative work environment seems to be desired by the instructors therefore this desire could be reflected in their conflict management styles. Therefore, this study contributed to the literature by yielding similar results that professional seniority does not affect the conflict management styles of instructors.

5.1.3 Discussion of findings of RQ 3. What are the ELPP instructors' overall perceptions of work motivation? The other research question aimed at exploring the instructors' perceptions of work motivation. To start with, as the frequency results revealed, *Need for Autonomy* and *Institutional Support* were the highest motivators of the ELPP instructors. Deci and Ryan (2000) emphasized having a feeling of choice and a chance for autonomy boost motivation (p. 70) and therefore when the instructors were given a chance for freedom and to take initiative, they felt more motivated to work.

Moreover, according to the results, institutional support also had a significant influence on teacher motivation as well. When teachers were given effective guidance, clear rules, and procedures, receive positive feedback from the administrators, and work for a prestigious institution, they felt more motivated to teach (Kassabgy et al., 2001). These results are parallel with Yau (2010), Stężycka and Etherington (2020), and İpek and Kanatlar (2018). Instructors expressed their need for autonomy and professional support from the institution so that they could creatively teach and develop themselves in the field of language teaching. These results were in line with motivational content theories in which high-order needs (Maslow, 1943) and motivators (Herzberg, 1959; McClelland, 1961; Alderfer, 1969; Deci & Ryan, 2015) rank higher than basic needs and hygiene factors. When the higher-rank needs are satisfied, individuals feel more motivated.

5.1.4 Discussion of findings of RQ 3. Do teachers' perceived work motivation differ significantly based on demographic features? The next research question tartgetted to discover was whether there was a difference in teachers' perceived work motivation based on their demographic information. According to

the results, the teacher work motivation of female teachers was much higher than that of male ones and the need for affiliation was also higher for female instructors. The reason for this might be the gender differences as females tend to openly share their feeling more than males and are concerned with a friendly work environment more than males (Harris & Hartman, 2001, p. 31). In this setting, the total number of female instructors was higher than males which might mean that the relationships among female teachers were stronger. Therefore, they may seek affiliation more than men in the work environment. The other reason that female teacher work motivation was higher than males could be males being the only income of their family. Females might not feel the burden of earning the sole provider of the family and this might mean feeling less pressure and having higher work motivation levels. Furthermore, according to the ANOVA results, ELPP instructors' motivational levels did not differ significantly in terms of age, level of education and professional seniority. These results were similar to previously done studies (Yau, 2010; Tsutsumi, 2014; Stężycka & Etherington, 2020) except for the ones that either only included female participants (Pourtoussi et al., 2018) or did not include these variables (Syamananda, 2017).

Besides what motivates them, regardless of age, gender, education level and professional seniority, instructors expressed that lack of appreciation, insufficient salary, and conflicting work environment were the least motivating factors which meant when these factors exist, work motivation diminishes. Especially, salary was mentioned in almost all of the teacher reflections and the reason for that might be the financial conditions that the setting had. Although there was a high inflation rate in the country, this had not been reflected in the teachers' salaries yet. Therefore, the participants were concerned about their basic needs, one of which was salary, more than before when they participated in this study and this could be the reason that the quantitative results of the study did not support the qualitative data in terms of salary. In addition to this, these results are similar to Syamananda (2017), Yılmaz (2017), Kızıltepe (2008), and Stężycka and Etherington (2020) in terms of insufficient salary and recognition. These factors were considered basic needs and hygiene factors by motivational theorists (Maslow, 1943) and motivators (Herzberg, 1959; McClelland, 1961; Alderfer, 1969; Deci & Ryan, 2015). When these outputs exist, the motivation and performance levels of the individuals decrease (Adams, 1965).

5.1.5 Discussion of findings of RQ 5. Is there any relationship between the conflict management styles of the ELPP instructors and their work motivation?

The last research question aimed at investigating whether there is any relationship between the conflict management styles of ELPP instructors and their work motivation. According to the Pearson correlation results, collaborating style, which was the most common one among ELPP instructors, and in terms of teacher work motivation; need for autonomy, institutional support, and need for affiliation, there was a weak but positive correlation. These factors were the highest motivating factors for ELPP instructors. This means that instructors who had a collaborating style, were also motivated by being autonomous, having affiliation with students and colleagues, and receiving institutional support. As Deci and Ryan (2015) put forward in SDT, autonomy is related to intrinsic motivation. When individuals have collaborating style, they have a high concern for themselves and for others as well (Rahim, 1983) which might mean that they are intrinsically motivated to solve problems. In addition to this, the need for having relationships with others, which is in this context students and colleagues, it could be claimed that individuals who employed collaboration were motivated by positive reciprocal relationships. In this study, instructors stated that they tried to collaborate with the conflicting party, if it was not possible for the time being, they knew that they could solve any issue by having a chat during a break time sometime after the incident. Similarly, most instructors expressed seeking support from colleagues and administrators as a way of dealing with conflicts when it was impossible to reach the conflicting party. However, in most cases, instructors stated that their work motivation would not be affected by this type of peer-to-peer conflict. Therefore, it can be said that, in this context, the positive work environment influenced the way instructors solve conflicts and build constructive relationships, and having to know that conflicts could be solved, their work motivation was not affected negatively.

Moreover, competing style, which was the least preferred conflict management style of ELPP instructors, and extrinsic motivation, which ranked as one of the lowest factors for teacher work motivation in this study, also had a weak but positive correlation. This might indicate that instructors who preferred competing style when they encountered a conflict, considered extrinsic motivators such as being promoted or having a prestigious job title motivating. It can be said that these types of

instructors were more concerned with fulfilling their basic needs through instrumentality (Vroom, 1964) which meant their work performance and motivation were determined by the rewards. This might lead them to have a more assertive way of existing in the workplace since their concern is not others but only themselves (Rahim, 1983), and achieving the predetermined goals that they already had set for themselves. As there aren't many other studies to compare with this study's results, the results are context specific. One study which is similar to this study is Yüksel's (2020) which sought the possible relationship between school principals' conflict management styles and teacher motivation.

In brief, this study contributes to the literature by exploring the conflict management styles of instructors when they encounter conflicts with peers and their work motivation and the possible relationship between these two variables. It can be concluded that a positive workplace atmosphere affects instructors positively which may lead them to collaborate more and to be motivated intrinsically regardless of age, level of education, and professional seniority.

5.2 Pedagogical Implications

This study proposes some pedagogical implications to be directed to researchers, teachers, and administrators seeking to investigate English language teachers' conflict management styles and their work motivation. As mentioned previously, there has not been much research done to explore teacher-to-teacher conflict management styles and their effect on language teacher motivation. This present study is intended to fill the gap in the literature in terms of developing a broader understanding of how important conflict management and teacher motivation are for language teachers. The findings of this study may have implications in English language programs for the understanding of language teachers' conflict management styles in relation to motivation and may provide guidance for employing an efficient workplace atmosphere and increasing teacher motivation. Although they are not new constructs in the field of teaching, conflict management and motivation are still to be researched as conflicts are inevitable parts of institutions, and how they are seen and managed affect the whole workplace climate, just as how motivation affects individuals to perform at work.

The findings unveiled that among conflict management styles, collaborating was the most perceived one when solving conflicts among teachers, and dominating was the least perceived one. However, there was no relationship between professional seniority and conflict management types. In this respect, a collaborative work environment leads to a positive work atmosphere, and teachers and administrators who fail to maintain this kind of work environment should find ways to reach this goal. Moreover, teachers were motivated most when they have autonomy, affiliation, and support from the institution that they work for. Although some administrators might think that explicitly extrinsic factors such as higher salary or promotion could motivate teachers, teachers may need more intrinsic factors to feel more motivated. In addition to this, the findings also revealed that when teachers have a collaborative conflict management style, they look for autonomy, affiliation, and support from the institution as well. On the other hand, teachers who have dominating or competing styles are extrinsically motivated and they focus more on rewards rather than human relations which may impact the work atmosphere.

With respect to the points stated above, this research can be considered as one of the studies in which the relationship between language teachers' conflict management styles and their work motivation was examined for the benefit of both teachers and administrators to create a collaborative work atmosphere.

5.3 Conclusions

This present study contributes to the literature by exploring ELPP instructors' perceptions about conflict management styles, whether or not these styles differ accordingly to professional seniority, their perceptions about work motivation, and whether there is any relationship between instructors' conflict management styles and their work motivation. Based on the quantitative and qualitative results, the most perceived conflict management style was collaboration, and teachers were motivated when there was autonomy, affiliation, and institutional support. Moreover, professional seniority had no effect on conflict management styles. However, there was a positive but weak significance between collaborating style with autonomy, affiliation, and support from the institution, and dominating style also had a positive but weak relationship with extrinsic motivators.

To wrap up, the findings of the current study demonstrated that in a positive work environment, teachers perceived collaboration as the way to solve conflicts regardless of professional seniority, and these teachers were also motivated by flexibility and freedom, having relationships with students and administrators, and getting support from the institution. However, teachers who perceived dominating style felt motivated by extrinsic motivators. All these findings of this current study yielded results that were supportive of each other and this study provided data to the literature regarding conflict management styles and work motivation of English language teachers.

5.4 Recommendations for Further Research

This study offers some important recommendations for further research. First, this current study was conducted with the ELPP instructors in a private, non-profit university in Istanbul. Since the participants were from the same setting, more research can be done in different settings such as a public university with different participants to gather more reliable and valid results. Furthermore, the participants of this study have been working at the same institution for many years, so they may not have experience with other workplaces. Therefore, the perceptions of teachers on conflict management styles and motivation were only limited to this setting. Lastly, the study identified the conflict management styles and work motivation of ELPP instructors. Higher management could make use of this study as a tool for promoting effective conflict management styles among teachers and how they can increase teachers' work motivation levels. Regardless of the limitations stated above, this present study has contributed to the literature in terms of identifying the conflict management styles of language teachers and their work motivation.

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