THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEARNED RESOURCEFULNESS

AND

CONFLICT BEHAVIORS

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This is to certify that we have read this thesis and in our opinion it is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a thesis for the degree of Master of Science.

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**ABSTRACT**


**THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEARNED RESOURCEFULNESS**
**AND**
**CONFLICT BEHAVIORS**



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The purpose of the present study was to investigate the relationships of learned resourcefulness and conflict behaviors of university students.

The sample of the study consisted of 393 (253 females, 140 males) volunteered undergraduate students from Faculty of Education in Middle East Technical University in Ankara. The data were gathered by administering two instruments, namely Rosenbaum's Self-Control Schedule (SCS) and Conflict Behaviors Questionnaire (CBQ).

The results of MANOVA employed to CBQ scores revealed significant main effects for learned resourcefulness groups and gender. The interaction effect of gender and learned resourcefulness levels was not significant. The results of ANOVA yielded a significant difference between high and low learned resourcefulness groups in collaborating behavior, indicating that, as compared to low resourceful group, high resourceful group reported higher usage of collaborating behavior in conflict situations. Findings also seemed to suggest that, in conflict situations, those in the high resourcefulness group tended to use compromising behaviors more than those

in low resourcefulness group. No significant difference was found in any of the other conflict behaviors as a function of learned resourcefulness.

# ÖZ

## ÖĞRENİLMİŞ GÜÇLÜLÜK ve ÇATIŞMA DAVRANIŞLARI ARASINDAKİ İLİŞKİ

Öztürk, Seval

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Haziran 2006, 66 sayfa

Bu çalışmanın amacı üniversite öğrencilerinin öğrenilmiş güçlülük düzeyleri ile çatışma davranışları arasındaki ilişkileri incelemektir.

Çalışmanın örneklemi Ankara ilinde Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesinden 393 (253 kız, 140 erkek) gönüllü öğrenciden oluşmaktadır. Veriler, Rosenbaum'un Kendini Değerlendirme Ölçeği (KDÖ) ve Çatışma Davranışları Ölçeği (ÇDÖ)'nin uygulanmasıyla elde edilmiştir.

Öğrencilerin çatışma çözme davranışları puanlarına uygulanan çok yönlü varyans analizi sonuçları, öğrenilmiş güçlülük grubu temel etkisi ile cinsiyet temel etkisinin istatistiksel olarak anlamlı olduğunu göstermiştir. Cinsiyet ve öğrenilmiş güçlülük etkileşimi anlamlı bulunmamıştır. Varyans analizi sonuçları, "işbirliği" davranışında yüksek ve düşük öğrenilmiş güçlülük grupları arasındaki anlamlı fark bulunduğunu; yüksek öğrenilmiş güçlülük grubunun "işbirliği" davranışı puanlarının düşük gruba göre anlamlı düzeyde daha yüksek olduğunu göstermiştir. Sonuçlar, ayrıca, bu iki grup arasındaki farkın "uzlaşma" davranışında da bulunduğuna işaret eder görünmektedir. Araştırmada diğer çatışma davranışlarının hiçbirinde öğrenilmiş güçlülük açısından anlamlı farklılıklar bulunmamıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Öğrenilmiş Güçlülük, çatışma çözme, çatışma davranışları, üniversite öğrencileri.

*To my family*

# ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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# CHAPTER I

# INTRODUCTION

## 1.1 Background to the Study

Interpersonal conflict has long been considered as an inevitable feature of every human relationship. Earlier belief that the conflict is evil and therefore eliminated from the relationship changed into its positive contributions to the relationship with the studies of several researchers (Blake & Mouton, 1964; Deutsch, 1973; Thomas, 1976). It is now widely accepted that conflict may have constructive and destructive outcomes for the relationship depending on its management; that is, not the conflict but how to manage conflict became the focus of the conflict studies (e.g., Arrington, 1987; Boardman & Horowitz, 1994, Chance & Chance, 1998; Johnson & Johnson, 1996; Mayer, 2000).

In the conflict literature, the study of Blake and Mouton (1964) were the first to formalize a framework for managing conflict in organizational settings. They developed the Dual Concern Model which was composed of five basic styles of conflict management characterizing an individual's behavior in a conflict situation. The model consisted of two dimensions that have the greatest effect on ways people work: concern for production and concern for people. Based on this model, Thomas (1976) conceptualized two analytically independent dimensions of (a) assertiveness (the attempt to satisfy one's own concerns) and (b) cooperativeness (the attempt to satisfy concerns of others) that can be applied to dyadic relationships. According to Thomas' model, the degree of importance of goals (assertiveness) and relationship (cooperativeness) determines the five conflict handling behaviors of competing, avoiding, accommodating, compromising and collaborating. His illustration of these behaviors based on these dimensions was presented in Figure 1.1.

1

```
Assertive ↑        •Competitive              •Collaborative
                    (Domination)              (Integration)


Party's desire
to satisfy                        •Compromise
Own concern                        (Sharing)



                   •Avoidant                 •Accommodative
                    (Neglect)                 (Appeasement)
               ↓

  Unassertive

        Uncooperative ◄──────────► Cooperative

              Party's desire to satisfy
                  Other's concern
```
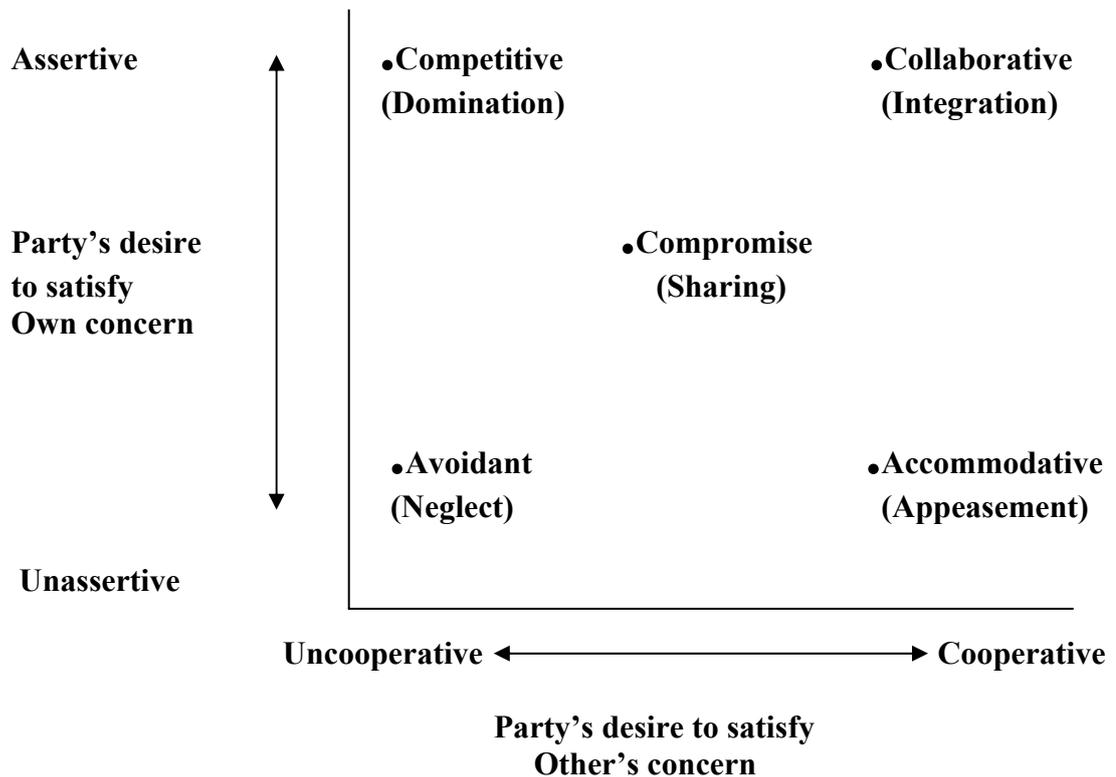
Figure 1.1 Five Conflict Handling Orientations (Thomas, 1976).


As shown in the figure, competing is assertive and uncooperative; collaborating is assertive and cooperative; compromising is intermediate in both cooperativeness and assertiveness; avoiding is unassertive and uncooperative; and accommodating is unassertive and uncooperative. In other words, competing is associated with high concern for self and low concern for the other party; collaborating with high concern for self and other; compromising with intermediate concern for self and other; avoiding with low concern for self and other; and accommodating with low concern for self and high concern for the other party. Competing forces one's viewpoint at the expense of others'; collaborating seeks effective problem solving activities, so that all parties can achieve a mutually satisfying conclusion to the dispute; compromising searches for a middle ground solution; avoiding involves withdrawal from conflict situations; and accommodating entails scarifying one's own needs for the sake of another. The constructive or destructive courses of conflict largely depend on which of these behaviors is employed (Thomas, 1976).

According to Thomas (1976), what makes conflict destructive or constructive depends on the way people handle it. He mentioned that conflict is often part of a process of testing and assessing oneself and may be enjoyable as one experiences the pleasure for using one's capacities fully and actively. He also added that, in a conflict situation, individuals face with different considerations, different frame of references and different insights that produce more comprehensive view, encourage creativity and trigger change. Thomas further argued that interpersonal conflict results in constructive outcomes cause the decline of egocentrism and improve the ability to cooperate with others.

Several theorists made some valuable contribution regarding the role of constructive conflict management behaviors in individuals' personal and social development. For example, Laursen and Collins (1994) argued that conflicts that involve constructive engagement stimulate positive adaptation and it is associated with advanced adolescent ego-identity and social skills. Chance and Chance (1998) mentioned that constructive way of handling conflict produces a creative tension that allows those confronting the conflict to grow intellectually and psychologically. Constructive conflict resolution skills were also considered as an important manifestation of adolescents' and young adults' overall adjustment (Colsman & Wulfert, 2002). On the other hand, unresolved or ineffectively managed conflict results in frustration, disaffection, dissolution and eventually harms the relationship (Deutsch, 1973; Rubin, 1994; Thomas, 1976). In addition, destructive conflict imply pettiness, jealousy, feelings of unfairness and a frustrating lack of control over one's life and environment. People involved in a destructive conflict reveal some symptomatic behavioral patterns such as threat, anger, withdrawal, violence and turning into physically ill (Chance & Chance, 1998).

Several studies conducted in school settings generally demonstrated that destructive conflict resolution resulted in long-term damages in many aspects of students' lives. For example, inappropriate conflict resolution skills were found to be associated with a variety of maladaptive behaviors including fighting, violence, isolation, cigarette smoking, drinking and marijuana use in schools (Colsman & Wulfert, 2002; Frank, Tuer, & Jacobson, 1990; Unger, Sussman, & Dent, 2003). Conflict management

problems were found to trigger psychological distress, academic difficulties, detachment from school, and lower grades, self concept and self-esteem problems (Connolly & Konarski, 1994). Results indicated that adolescents demonstrating the greatest levels of compromise in conflicts with peers also reported the most positive self-esteem (Cooper & Cooper, 1992). Destructive conflict behaviors were also found to be associated with the problems in romantic relationship among students (Creasey & Hesson-McInnis, 2001; Creasey, Kershaw, & Boston, 1999; Martin, 1990).

In conflict literature, another line of study emphasized the relationship between conflict behaviors and some personality characteristics (Lulofs & Cahn, 2000). Several theorists, in their review, have already mentioned that individual's conflict behaviors are affected by attributions to the causes of conflict, locus of control, perceived self efficacy, self control ability to recognize and generate alternative options for resolution, learned habits and skills, and behavior patterns of coping (Boardman & Horowitz, 1994; Deutsch, 1994; Fisher, 1964; Rubin, 1994; Thomas, 1976). As mentioned by Canary, Cupach, and Messman (1995), individuals asses the underlying causes for the conflict, asses their own ability and then act in ways consistent with these assessments. The results of the some empirical studies also supported these views and yielded that, conflict behaviors were associated with some personality traits such as agreeableness (Graziano, Jansen-Campbell, & Hair, 1996), neuroticism (Bolger & Zuckerman, 1995), individual's ability to cope with stress (Mayer, 2000), trait aggressiveness (Kiewitz & Weaver, 2001), attributions (Sillars, Pike, Jones, Redmond, 1983), and emotional intelligence (Jordan & Troth, 2004).

Based on the suggestions of theory and research, it can be concluded that conflict is a frustrating and stress evoking situation and to handle this situation constructively or engaging in constructive conflict behaviors require a kind of self-control on the part of the individual involved in conflict. Several studies investigating the relationships between conflict behaviors and some self-control related concepts have been conducted and the results consistently yielded significant associations between constructive conflict behaviors and these concepts such as locus of control (Alexander, 2003), self-efficacy (O'Connel & Malinckrodt, 2000; Vera, Shin,

Montgomery, Mildner & Speight, 2004), and self-monitoring (Warech, Smiter, Reilly, Milsap, & Reilly, 1998). All these findings supported the view that individuals when they are in conflict with others either control their emotions and/or cognitions and choose constructive strategies or loose their control and engage in destructive strategies. In other words, self-control related characteristics seem to be the determinants of engaging constructive or destructive conflict behaviors. Among these concepts, learned resourcefulness, as being one of the self-control concepts and simply referring to a learned behavioral repertoire for coping with stressful events, is also expected to be related with conflict behaviors of the individuals.

Learned resourcefulness as a concept was first used by Meichenbaum (1977) in conjunction with his stress inoculation program in which he trained individuals in the use of different skills and behaviors to self-control their behavior for coping with stressful events. He found that people who have acquired these skills developed a sense of "learned resourcefulness", the belief that they can deal with manageable levels of stress.

Rosenbaum (1980) has applied the term learned resourcefulness to describe:

"an acquired repertoire of behaviors and skills (mostly cognitive) by which a person self-regulates internal responses such as, emotions, cognitions or pain that interfere with the smooth execution of a desired behavior" (p.111).

According to Rosenbaum (1980) self-control responses are (a) cued by any internal event (e.g. pain, anxiety) that disrupts effective performance of a target behavior and (b) directed at reducing the interference caused by those events. He further suggested that his concept might include the following four main self control behaviors: (a) the use of cognitions and self-instructions to control emotional and physiological responses, (b) the application of the problem-solving strategies (planning, problem definition, evaluating alternatives and anticipating consequences), (c) the ability to delay immediate gratification, and (d) perceived self-efficacy, a general belief in the one's ability to self-regulate internal events.

Rosenbaum (1980) developed the Self-Control Schedule (SCS) to assess one's

tendency to employ self-control strategies in daily life. High scores obtained from SCS indicate assertive responds to frustration, taking action in the face of difficulties and experience of failure, having more task oriented thoughts, attributing success to their own effort and abilities, and producing more positive self evaluations whereas low scores on SCS indicate more negative self evaluations, fewer task oriented thoughts, and attributions to chance for success and attributions to lack of personal ability for failure.

Several theoretical arguments have been made regarding the similarities and differences between learned resourcefulness and other self-control concepts. Within this context, Rosenbaum (1983) proposed that the conceptualization of learned resourcefulness was based on the cognitive-behavioral literature on self-control and self-regulation (Bandura, 1977; Kanfer, 1977; Kanfer, & Hagerman, 1981; Meichenbaum, 1977). However, Rosenbaum and Palmon (1984) argued that these two models focused on the motivational part of the self-regulation process whereas learned resourcefulness deals with cognitive-behavioral skills that an individual might use to control or regulate internal events. For this reason, learned resourcefulness was considered as the complementary part of these models and they proposed that the concepts self-regulation and self-control can be used synonymously.

Rosenbaum (1983) also noted that the concept of learned resourcefulness might be considered as an anti-thesis of the concept of learned helplessness at certain points. According to Rosenbaum, the learned helplessness model (Abramson, Seligman, & Teasdale, 1978; Seligman, 1975) focuses on subjects' perceived control over external events whereas self-control models developed by behavior therapists (Bandura, 1977; Kanfer & Hagerman, 1981; Meichenbaum, 1977) focus on subjects' perceived control over their own behavior. Both helplessness and self-control behaviors are assumed to be triggered by situations in which a well established response fails to produce an expected outcome. However, at this point the similarity ends.

In the lights of theory and research, learned resourcefulness which was proposed as a behavioral repertoire to self-regulate internal events has also been considered as an

accessible coping skill that people use in a stressful situation. Actually, Folkman (1984) emphasized the importance of regulation of internal events to keep them from interfering with problem-focused forms of coping. On the basis of Kanfer's (1977) self regulation model and coping theory (Folkman, 1984; Folkman, & Lazarus, 1985, 1986, Folkman, & Lazarus, 1988; Lazarus, 1993), Rosenbaum and Ben-Ari-Smira (1986) proposed that self-control behavior is a process that consists of three phases: (a) representational phase, (b) self-evaluation phase, (c) action phase. In the representational phase, the individual experiences a disruption of ongoing behaviors, plans, and expectations. Than the disruption trigger automatic thoughts and emotional responses such as anxiety. In the self evaluation phase, the individual evaluates consciously the meaning of his or her initial automatic reaction to a disruption. In other words, the individual engages in what Lazarus and Folkman (1985) calls primary or secondary appraisals. In primary appraisal, a person evaluates whether disruption is threatening. If the disruption is not threatening, self-control behavior not arises. However, if person feels threatened, secondary appraisal is triggered and individual begins to evaluate his coping resources and concludes that he can minimize the negative effect of disruption, then he engages in coping, the action phase of self-regulatory process. According to Rosenbaum and Ben-Ari-Smira (1986), learned resourcefulness of a person has little effect on representational phase. In other words, learned resourcefulness has no influence individual's initial emotional response to a stressor, or on his primary appraisal. In fact, learned resourcefulness affects action phase of coping as a learned skill for cope better with stressful event.

Some studies have been conducted to examine the relationships between learned resourcefulness and the concepts that were suggested as relevant. For example, Rosenbaum and Palmon (1984) investigated helplessness and resourcefulness in coping with epilepsy. The results of the study demonstrated that high-resourceful subjects were significantly less depressed and anxious and coped better with their disability than did the low-resourceful subjects. However, high-resourceful and low-resourceful epileptics equally showed low levels of emotional adjustment. Regardless of the severity level of the epilepsy, high-resourceful epileptics maintained a stronger belief in their control over their health. Accordingly, the

difference between high and low resourceful individual was in how they coped with undesirable events and not in how they experienced these events. Additionally, high resourceful subjects did not differ from low resourceful subjects in their sensitivity to pain. They were different only in tolerating the pain and coping effectively with the stressful event.

Gintner, West and Zarski (1988) investigated the differences in coping behaviors of resourceful individuals as a function of situational factors. They utilized a similar method to previous coping research (Folkman and Lazarus, 1985) in which coping responses and adaptation status were assessed during a controllable phase (i.e., preparing for an exam) and an uncontrollable phase (i.e., waiting for results). It was found that during both controllable and uncontrollable phases of stressor, high resourceful individuals reported less stress symptomatology. Findings supported that although high resourceful and low resourceful individuals experience environmental demands as comparably aversive, high resourceful individuals' demonstrated greater tolerance and less symptomatology. Moreover, high resourceful individuals, as expected, employed more problem focused coping in controllable phase (preparation week). Gintner et.al., also suggested that future research is need to test whether this findings replicable for other controllable stressors, such as interpersonal conflict that demand assertion.

To conclude, in the lights of theory and research on both conflict and learned resourcefulness literature outlined above, it can be argued that there are some similarities between the skills required for constructive conflict behaviors and learned resourcefulness. Since constructive conflict behaviors are found to be strongly associated with some self-control related concepts that involve emotional and cognitive skills, learned resourcefulness which was proposed as a behavioral repertoire to self-regulate internal events may also be considered as an accessible coping skill that people use in a stressful situation like conflict. When the components of effective conflict behaviors and learned resourcefulness are considered, the similarities in some skills such as delay of gratification, problem solving, self efficacy, use of cognitions become apparent. It can then be expected that those who have higher level of learned resourcefulness engage in more constructive

conflict behaviors than those have low level of learned resourcefulness.

## 1.2 Purpose of the Study

Purpose of the present study is to examine the relationship between learned resourcefulness levels and conflict resolution strategies of male and female university students. Thus, the study will focus on the following research question:

- Are there any significant differences in conflict resolution strategies of male and female university students as a function of their learned resourcefulness?

## 1.3 Significance of the Study

Although there are many studies carried out separately on learned resourcefulness and conflict resolution strategies, no research has been found investigating the relationship between these two concepts, both in Turkish literature and abroad. Therefore, investigating this relationship may make some contributions to our understanding of the conflict resolution styles of Turkish university students in relation to their learned resourcefulness levels. The present study may also inspire other researchers to carry out further studies on this issue by filling out the gap that could not be covered in the present study.

The present research may also provide significant signals for understanding the role of learned resourcefulness in conflict behaviors and may help university counseling staff to gain further insight in planning appropriate training programs for students to manage conflict effectively. As it was proposed, learned resourcefulness is a behavioral repertoire providing a basis for coping with stressful situations and is learned through modeling and training (Rosenbaum, 1983); and, more precisely, this repertoire is developed through all kinds of learning (Rosenbaum & Palmon, 1984). Based on this propositions, it can be expected that the integration of learned resourcefulness skills to conflict training programs may not only enrich the content of the training programs but also give a light to counseling staff to assist students to develop self-management strategies which contribute effective conflict management behaviors. Conflict training programs covering learned resourcefulness skills may

help students to control their internal events that interfere with the execution of desired behaviors in stressful situations.

## 1.4 Definition of Terms

*Learned resourcefulness:* Learned resourcefulness is an acquired behaviors and skills (mostly cognitive) by which a person self-regulates internal responses (such as emotions, cognitions or pain) that interfere with the smooth execution of a desired behavior (Rosenbaum, Ben-Ari, 1985).

*Conflict:* Thomas (1976) defined conflict as "…the process which begins when one party perceives that the other has frustrated, or is about to frustrate, some concern of his" (p. 891).

*Conflict Handling Behaviors:* Thomas (1976) identified the following five conflict handling behaviors.

*Competing* is associated with high concern for self and low concern for the other party including forcing one's viewpoint at the expense of others'.

*Collaborating* is linked with high concern for self and other including seeking effective problem solving activities, so that all parties can achieve a mutually satisfying conclusion to the dispute.

*Compromising* is associated with intermediate concern for self and other including searching for a middle ground solution.

*Avoiding* is linked with low concern for self and other involving withdrawal from conflict situations.

*Accommodating* is associated with low concern for self and high concern for the other party involving scarifying one's own needs for the sake of another.

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## 1.5. Limitations

The present study has some limitations that should be addressed. First, self-report nature of data might limit our understanding of students' actual level of learned resourcefulness and their actual conflict behaviors. Second, the sample included only the students in Faculty of Education in METU. Therefore, the results of the study cannot be generalized neither to the other students in METU nor to the students from other universities.

**CHAPTER II**


**REVIEW OF LITERATURE**


This chapter includes both the theory and research relevant to the concepts of conflict resolution and learned resourcefulness.

## 2.1 Theories of Conflict

Conflict has many definitions from different perspectives. In the literature, the concept of "conflict" has been defined at the intrapersonal, interpersonal, and international levels. In the present study conflict is defined as the process involving at least two individuals.

At the interpersonal level, several definitions of conflict have been proposed by the researchers over the years. Within this context, one of the earliest definitions referred conflict as a situation of competition in which the disputants are aware of incompatibility of potential or future position (Boulding, 1964).

According to Deutsch (1973), conflict exists when the action of one person attempting to reach his/her goals prevent, block, or interfere with the actions of another person attempting to reach his or her goals. Deutsch (1994) then proposed one of the broadest definitions of conflict as "incompatible response tendencies" between individuals.

Hocker and Wilmot (1991) describe conflict as "an expressed struggle between at least two interdependent parties who perceive incompatible goals, scarce rewards, and interference with the other party in achieving their goals" (p. 23).

According to Boardman and Horowitz (1994), conflict can occur when there is any incompatibility of behaviors, cognitions (including goals), and affect among individuals and groups.

According to Chance and Chance (1998), some of the common reasons for conflict may be differences in values and belief systems, disagreements over personal or organizational goals, and the means to actualize these purposes, a lack of information or disinformation, and finally, disagreements over how to meet basic needs.

In the literature, there are many attempts to understand conflict phenomena. Among them, the conceptualization of Thomas (1976) has been considered as one of the comprehensive one. Largely based on the model of Blake and Mouton (1964), he reinterpreted and synthesized the conflict literature and explained conflict by process and structural models.

Thomas (1976), in explaining the process model of conflict, defined dyadic conflict as "…the process which begins when one party perceives that the other has frustrated, or is about to frustrate, some concern of his" (p. 891). The process model underlined the dynamics involved in conflict episodes. This model described five main events within an episode from the viewpoint of one of the parties: frustration, conceptualization, behavior, other's reaction, and outcome. In the process model, each conflict event or episode was considered to be shaped by the results of previous conflict and continued in the future depending on the outcome of the conflicting issue.

Thomas (1976) illustrated this model as it is demonstrated in Figure 2.1. As shown in the figure, a conflict begins when one party is frustrated. Then the party conceptualizes the situation. The conceptualization of the situation includes two elements of (a) defining the issue which includes three dimensions of egocentricity, insight into underlying concerns, and the size of the issue and (b) salient alternatives which determines the party's view of the conflict of interest between himself and the other party. Based on this conceptualization, the party engages in one of the five conflict behaviors that were presented in Chapter I, Figure 1.1 (p. 2). The other party

reacts to this behavior. The interaction between the parties leads to some outcomes. As a result of the outcome, the conflict may continue, diffuse to other issue or ended (Thomas, 1976).
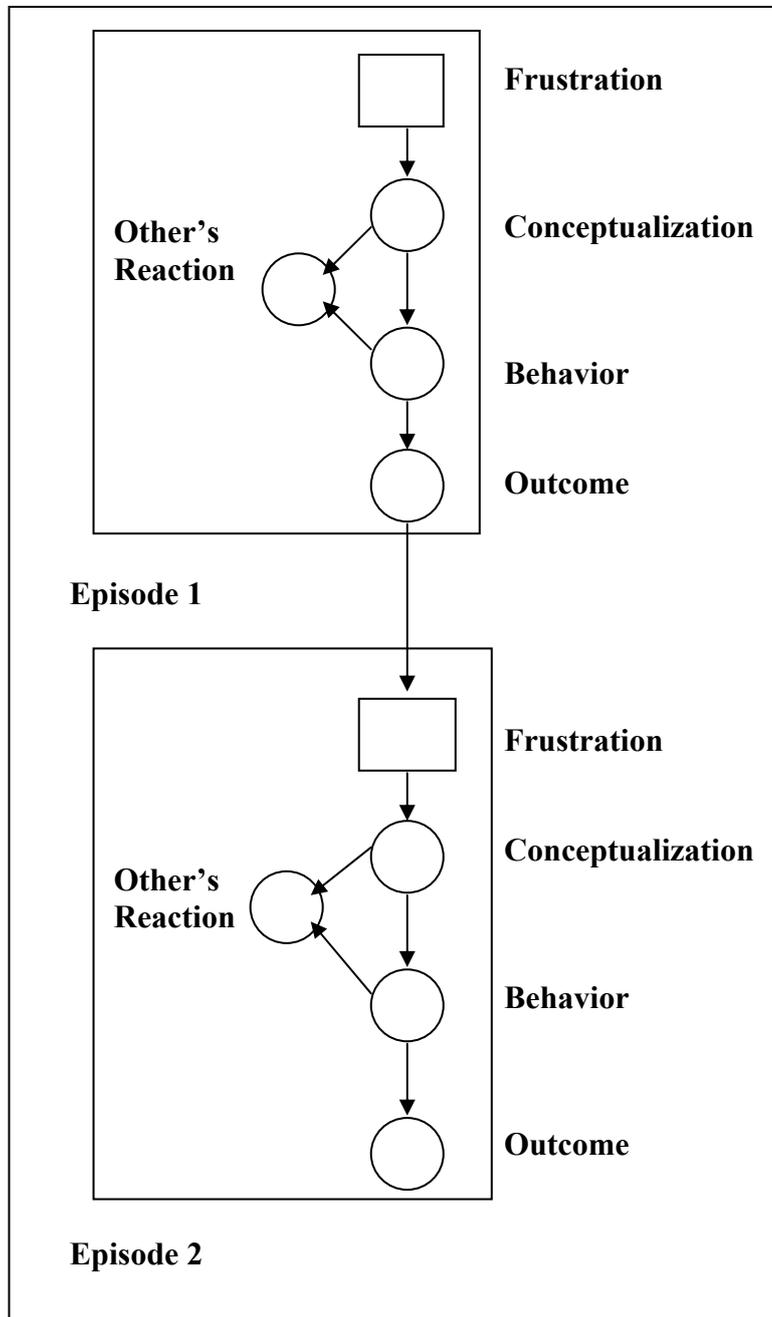
Figure 2.1 Process Model of Conflict Episodes (Thomas, 1976).

On the other hand, the structural model of conflict examines the relationship between

two parties through identifying the underlying conditions which shape the parties' behavior. The conflict behavior of two parties is shaped by four types of structural variables. These variables are, behavioral dispositions which stem from motives and abilities of parties, social pressures, and responds of parties to the conflict incentives in the situation and rules, and procedures that constrain parties' behavior and third party intervention (Thomas, 1976).
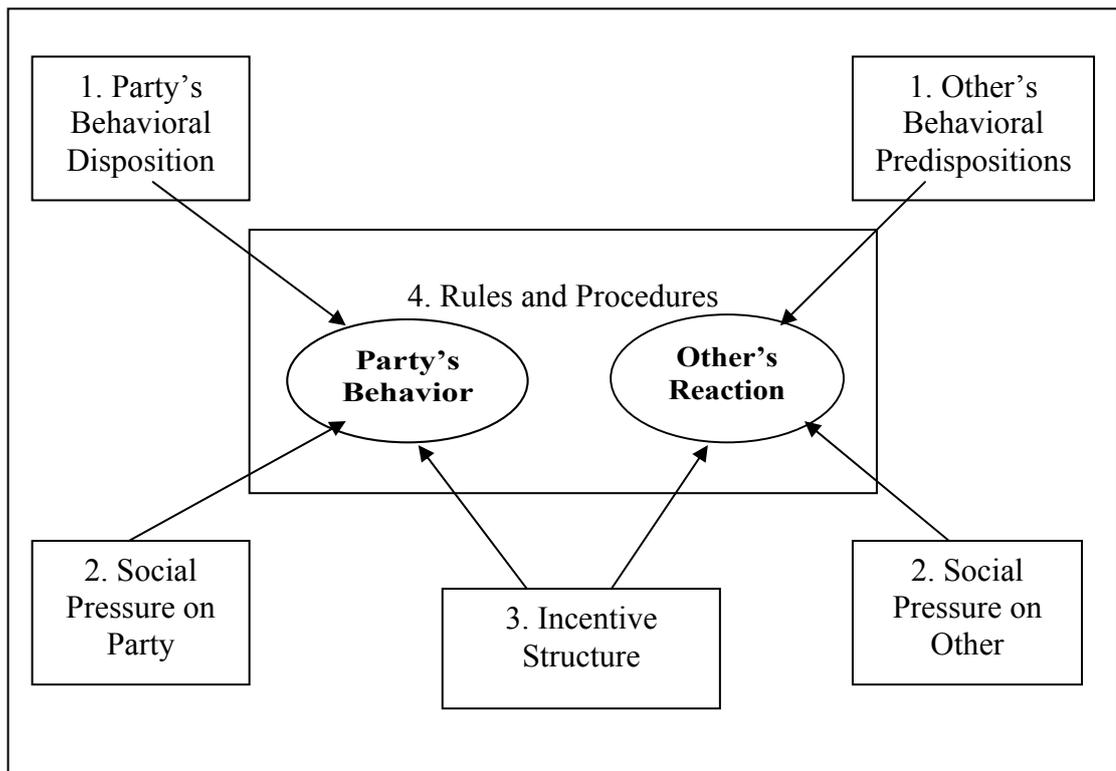


Figure 2.2 Structural Model of Conflict (Thomas, 1976).

Thomas (1976) mentioned that even though these two models appear to be different, they complement each other. Both models explain the underlying variables of conflict episode. Process model tends to be useful in managing an ongoing conflict and coping with crises, structural model on the other hand, proposes long-run enhancements in relationship.

### 2.1.1. Conceptualizations of Conflict Behaviors

In the conflict literature, several terms have been used to describe the behaviors that the individuals engage in the process of conflict. Although Thomas's (1976) used the term "conflict handling behaviors" to describe these behaviors, several others used some other terms such as conflict management, conflict resolution, conflict styles, tactics, etc. The definitions of these concepts were presented in the following paragraphs.

Sweeney and Carruthers (1996) used the term conflict resolution and defined it as the process used by parties in conflict to reach a settlement. Hocker and Wilmot (1991) explained conflict style as a patterned response to conflict involving the repeated use of the same tactics to resolve disputes. Conflict management, as it was defined by Campbell (2003), is a form of disciplined communication built on a process that facilitates speaking and listening skills, a problem-solving component, an expanded understanding of an issue, and the achievement of closure. According to Girard and Koch (1996), conflict management describes processes to resolve conflict without destruction. They define one of these processes as negotiation; a voluntary process of problem solving or bargaining between disputing parties.

Besides these conceptualizations, some differences are observed in the classifications of conflict behaviors both at the interpersonal and organizational levels. In classifying organizational conflict, Putnam and Wilson (1982) proposed three dimensions: nonconfrontation, solution-orientation, and control. They mentioned that a person uses nonconfontation prefers to avoid or withdraw from conflict situation. Solution-orientation style requires parties' participation to find a solution by integrating both parties' needs. Finally, control style indicates satisfaction of a person's needs and his/her tendency to take control of other's. Rahim (1985; Rahim & Magner, 1995) described two dimensions (concern for self and concern for other) with five approaches (dominating, avoiding, obliging, integrating and compromising). Rubin (1994), classified conflict management strategies as domination (where one side tries to force on the other through physical or psychological means), capitulation (where one side unilaterally yields apparent

victory to the other), inaction (one side does nothing or so it appears), withdrawal (one side refuses to participating in the conflict), negotiation (two or more parties create a mutually acceptable agreement) and, third party intervention (where an individual or party distinguishable from the conflicting parties imposes itself in an attempt to move them toward agreement). Johnson and Johnson (1995) categorized two orientations (the value of personal goals and the value of the relationship) and five basic strategies (problem-solving negotiations, smoothing, forcing or win-lose negotiations, comprising, and withdrawing) that may be used to manage conflict.

The examination of all these conceptualizations indicates that although there are some differences in emphasis, the theoretical bases are similar to and emerged from the theory of Blake and Mouton (1964). As being the pioneers to formalize a framework for managing organizational conflict, their Dual Concern Model is inspired by many theorists.

As being another major contributor to the development of conflict resolution theory, Morton Deutsch (1973) analyzed the cooperative and competitive aspects of conflict in-group processes. Deutsch (1973) developed Social Interdependence Theory and claimed that individual's conflict management style can be classified as cooperative and competitive strategies. Cooperative strategy includes collaboration to achieve mutual goals creating constructive outcomes whereas competitive strategy includes working against each other to achieve an exclusive goal resulting in destructive outcomes.

As being the theoretical bases of the present study, Thomas's (1976) model is presented here in detail. Based on Blake and Mouton's orientations and he described the five conflict handling behaviors which were presented in detail in the Introduction chapter of this study as Competing, Accommodating, Compromising, Collaborating, and Avoiding. In his model these behaviors were based on two orientations: party's desire to satisfy own concern and party's desire to satisfy other's concern. In other words, in this model, an individual's conflict handling behaviors are identified as a function of two analytically independent dimensions of (a) assertiveness (the attempt to satisfy one's own concerns) and (b) cooperativeness (the

attempt to satisfy concerns of others). The degree of importance of goals and relationship determines the conflict handling behaviors.

According to this model, competing linked with high concern for self and low concern for other including forcing behavior. Individuals can be viewed as a battler since he/she only concentrates on winning. Avoiding occurs when an individual shows a low concern for self and low concern for relationship containing withdrawal, ignorance or isolation. The person who chose this approach may see the conflict as evil over which there is no control. People often choose this style when they do not want to be irritated about the problem. Accommodating is linked with low concern for self and high concern for other including smoothing. Accommodating may be used in order to prevent possible damages on relationship. The person who uses this approach does not explain his/her own needs and act in a way that only satisfies other's needs. In collaborating, person has high concern for self and other. He/she perceives conflict as a neutral part of human interactions. This person attempts to resolve the conflict in a more creative way and he/she can be viewed as an integrative problem solver. Individual attempts to find solution that satisfies the both parties' needs. Compromising occurs when the person has moderate concern for self and for other. Compromising involves the parties in a conflict giving up something and keeping something. In fact, this behavior includes a middle ground solution including assertiveness and cooperativeness. It tends to be closely related accommodating and collaborating rather than avoiding and competing. In this situation, parties do not necessarily search for underlying needs as in collaboration; they only deal with what people want (Thomas, 1976).

In conclusion, according to theoretical perspective, achieving his/her goals and maintaining relationship with the other person affects individual's conflict handling behaviors. The importance of personal goals and relationship produces different types of conflict behaviors. According to Deutsch (1994), a constructive conflict resolution is similar to an effective cooperative process whereas a destructive process is similar to a competitive interaction process.

Thomas (1976) and Deutsch (1994) grouped some factors that influence conflict

management. The factors that were described by Deutsch were; nature of the issue, situational constrains, and individual traits and characteristics.

*Nature of the issue* involved in conflict might affect conflict management strategies. This includes the content of issue such as, whether the conflict is over resources, beliefs, values, or the nature of the relationship, type of issue, size of issue, and the rigidity of issue. Type of issue includes certain types of issue that are less constructive than others; they lead the participants to define the conflict as win-lose conflict. "Power or control over the other", "having higher status than the other" are such kinds of win-lose definition of conflict. Issue size also affects conflict management strategies. For example, small conflicts are easier to resolve constructively than large ones (Deutsch, 1994; Fisher, 1964). Conflict size can be small for a party who believes both parties can win and conflict size can be large for a party who believes one party will lose if the other wins. Issue rigidity can be defined as, the perceived lack of satisfactory alternatives or substitutes for fulfilling the interests of conflict parties.

*Situational Constrains* includes history of the relationship, the social environment and structural power differences. For example one party is more advantaged if has greater power to control of the conflict situation. The history of the relationship also affects conflict resolution. Since a person's previous beliefs and attitudes about other party affects his/her conflict management style. In addition, social norms, expectations, rules and values affect a person's conflict management style

*Individual Traits and Characteristics* have long been found to be related to conflict behaviors. According to Compas (1987), interpersonal conflict resolution requires extensive repertoire of some cognitive skills. These contain awareness, recognition of outcomes, understanding of causation and ability to respond dynamically and effectively to conflict by selecting and utilizing appropriate strategies.

In the literature, several attempts have been made to examine the relationships between these factors and conflict behaviors of individuals. However, individuals' traits and characteristics seemed to be the one which have been emphasized at the

interpersonal level. Following part summarizes the research on these factors that influence individuals' preferences of conflict behaviors.

**2.1.2. Research on Conflict Behaviors**

Gender as an individual characteristic has been considered as an important variable in conflict literature. In most of the studies, it has been used as a mediating variable. However, the evidence regarding its role in conflict resolution styles is rather mixed. For example, Sorenson and Hawkins (1995) found that in conflict situations females tend to use cooperative or accommodative strategies and males tend to use competitive strategy. The study of Messman and Mikasel (2000) showed that women report using more integrative and accommodative style. However, women and men did not differ in their competition styles. On the other hand, Duane (1989) pointed out that, males and females did not differ in their use of collaborative and competitive styles. Korabik, Baril, and Watson (1993) suggested that gender has no effect on conflict resolution style. Korabik et al. used experimental methods on their sample of 196 part-time evening MBA students. One of their methods was lab observation, which yielded no differences in conflict resolution styles of males and females.

A vast amount of research has been conducted on the relationship between conflict behaviors and some personality factors. For example, Utley, Richardson, and Pilkington (1989) examined: (a) the relationship between personality measures and conflict styles and (b) the consistency of conflict response style across target persons. 153 college students evaluated five different conflict responses as to the frequency with which they used them in interaction with a professor, a parent, and a friend. They completed the Personality Research Form, a measure of a variety of personality needs. Results showed that achievement, nurturance, endurance, and social desirability were related to an integrating conflict response; dominance and understanding were related to dominating. Results of the study also demonstrated that conflict response style changed across target persons, i.e., students used more dominating strategy with their parents whereas used more integrating strategy with their professors and friends. In general, the results of this study pointed out that both

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personality and the importance of the target individual were important in understanding responses to the interpersonal conflict.

Earnest & McCaslin (1994), conducted a study to examine the relationships of conflict management styles and the personality type preferences of District Directors in the Cooperative Extension Service's North Central Region. Results indicated that district directors who favored the introvert, intuitive and perceiving personality type preferences were more apt to use the integrating conflict management style than those who had extravert, sensing, and judging personality type preferences. The thinking/feeling personality type preferences did not affect the choice of conflict management styles.

Individuals' personality dispositions have also been examined in relation to their conflict management choices. For example, Kiewitz and Weaver (2001) found that high trait aggressive individuals generally displayed more hostile tendencies in their perceptions of interpersonal conflicts than low trait-aggressive individuals. Moreover, high trait-aggressive males were found to be the most extreme in reporting aggressive thoughts and actions. They reported the most destructive conflict resolution style including violent behaviors.

Agreeableness and neuroticism were also found to be associated with conflict behaviors. Graziano, Jensen-Campbell, and Hair (1996), by considering agreeableness as the most related dimension of interpersonal relationships and patterns of conflict resolution, conducted a study to examine the link between agreeableness and patterns of conflict resolution in a sample of 263 university students. Results indicated that although high or low agreeableness did not differ in the evaluation of negotiation and disengagement tactics, low agreeableness was found to be more pronounced in evaluation of destructive tactics. Moreover, high agreeable individuals perceived less conflict interactions with others, liked them more, and rated them more positively than did low agreeable individuals. On the other hand, low agreeable partners elicited more conflict from their partners than did high agreeable partners. Researchers made the following suggestions regarding agreeableness: Because agreeableness may reflect internalized tendencies in the

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regulation of anger and frustration, agreeable people are better able to control anger, emotional self-regulation and cope better with negative affect in situations involving frustration (Calkins, 1994; as cited in Graziano, Jensen-Campbell, & Hair, 1996). Moreover, agreeable people are highly motivated to maintain positive relations with other people and this motive system may encourage them to generate positive perceptions and attributions to otherwise-provocative behavior. These attributions may induce the agreeable person to respond to the conflict with less negative affect, to select more constructive conflict resolution styles and to generate a more constructive pattern of oppositions during conflict than low agreeable person (Graziano, Jensen-Campbell, & Hair, 1996).

A research on neuroticism seemed to provide an additional support to these findings. Bolger and Zuckerman (1995) examined the relationship between neuroticism, interpersonal conflicts and coping with conflicts with a 14-day daily diary study of 94 university students. Findings demonstrated that, compared to low-neuroticism participants, high-neuroticism participants experienced more daily interpersonal conflicts and were more likely to react to them with anger and depression.

Dispositional measures such as self-monitoring and emotional intelligence were also examined in relation to conflict behaviors. Warech, Smiter, Reilly, Milsap, and Reilly (1998) found that high self-monitoring people were more likely to resolve conflict by engaging in collaboration and compromise. Jordan and Troth's (2004) study demonstrated a positive relation between emotional intelligence and collaborative methods of conflict resolution.

There are some studies investigating the relation between self efficacy, self-control and conflict management styles. Vera, Shin, Montgomery, Mildner, and Speight (2004) examined the associations and predictors of conflict resolution style in a sample of 178 seventh and eighth graders from an inner city public elementary school. The findings asserted that self efficacy and self-control were the significant predictors of constructive conflict resolution style (e.g., integrating style).

Similarly, O'Connel and Malinckrodt (2000) investigated the relationships among

attachment, self efficacy, perspective taking and conflict resolution. Participants of this study were 124 parents selected from university housing units, elementary schools and parent education classes. Research findings showed that self efficacy and perspective taking were associated with compromising and integrating style of conflict resolution.

Attribution and locus of control were among the characteristics which have been studied in relation to conflict resolution styles. For example, Sillars, Pike, Jones, and Redmond (1983) found that individual attributions in a conflict determined the strategies to deal with the conflict, and external locus of control discouraged the use of integrative strategies and affected the outcome of conflict (as cited in, Alexander, 2003). Similarly, Alexander (2003) conducted a study to investigate the relationship between locus of control and conflict management. He investigated the locus of control and conflict management style of 1000 local church staff. Results yielded significant correlations between participants' locus of control orientations and conflict management styles indicating that participants who were high on external locus of control used avoidance style to resolve their conflicts.

Bailey and Ellerman-Bull (1998) also conducted a study to examine young male offenders' conflict resolution styles and their attributions to the cause of conflict. Their study included 58 mid-adolescent males in detention and 38 older adolescent males on probation. Research results showed that young offenders who attributed the cause of conflict to internal events tended to adopt more compromising strategies whereas young offenders who attributed the cause of conflict to external events used more aggressive strategies. Results also suggest that probationers were less physically aggressive strategies than detainees.

In the light of these theoretical perspectives, it can be concluded that effective conflict management occurs when each party collaborates and creates solutions that meet the needs of all parties involved in conflict. The most constructive conflict resolution strategy is collaboration and found to be associated with personality characteristics and skills, including self-control, problem solving skills, self efficacy, and internal locus of control. Based on these findings, it can be expected that learned

resourcefulness might have an effect on individuals' preferences of engaging some conflict handling behaviors.

As stated in the Introduction Chapter, learned resourcefulness was defined as an acquired repertoire of behaviors and skills (mostly cognitive) by which a person self-regulates internal responses such as, emotions, cognitions or pain that interfere with the smooth execution of a desired behavior (Rosenbaum, Ben-Ari, 1985). According to Rosenbaum (1983), learned resourcefulness was based on the cognitive-behavioral literature on self-control and self-regulation (such as Bandura, 1977; Kanfer, 1977; Kanfer, and Hagerman, 1981; and Meichenbaum, 1977). Following part of the present study introduces the relationship between learned resourcefulness and self regulation.

## 2.2. The Conceptualization of Learned Resourcefulness

Kanfer (1977) explained the self-regulation process by three distinct stages: self-monitoring, self-regulation, and self-reinforcement stages. The self-monitoring stage involves deliberate and careful attendance to one's own behavior. The second stage, termed as self-regulation consists of a comparison between the information acquired from self-monitoring and the person's standards for that given behavior. The self-reinforcement stage refers to the individuals' reactions to the information obtained from self-evaluation process. The major function of self-reinforcement stage is motivational. Accordingly, Kanfer and Hagerman (1981) claimed that self-regulation begins with the individual's belief that he or she has the control for the given behavior.

According to Bandura (1977, 1993), human behavior occurs as a result of the interaction of cognitive, behavioral and situational factors. He conceptualized the term "self-efficacy" as one of the cognitive structures that directs behavior. He claimed that all behavioral change is interfered through changes in the self-efficacy. He also noted that expectation alone will not produce desired performance if the component capabilities, which might be considered as the behavioral repertoire, are lacking.

On the basis of Bandura's (1977) and Kanfer's (1977) self regulation models, Mischel (1984) developed a process of delay of gratification in children (as cited in Rosenbaum & Ben-Ari-Smira, 1986). In line with Mischel's (1984) model, Rosenbaum and Ben-Ari-Smira (1986) developed "process regulating cognitions" (PRC). The PRC are cognitive repertoires that function particularly to regulate the process by which individuals self regulate their behavior. These repertoires contain the ability to monitor events, to attribute causality to what has happened, and to develop expectancies for the future. The four assumptions underlying the self-control model as follows: (a) human behavior is goal directed, (b) self-control behavior is called for when individuals encounter obstacles in the smooth execution of goal directed behavior, (c) self-control behavior is always associated with certain PRC, and (d) there are multiple and interactive factors that influence PRC and the self-control behavior. Figure 2.1 represents the associations among factors that reciprocally determine self regulatory behavior.
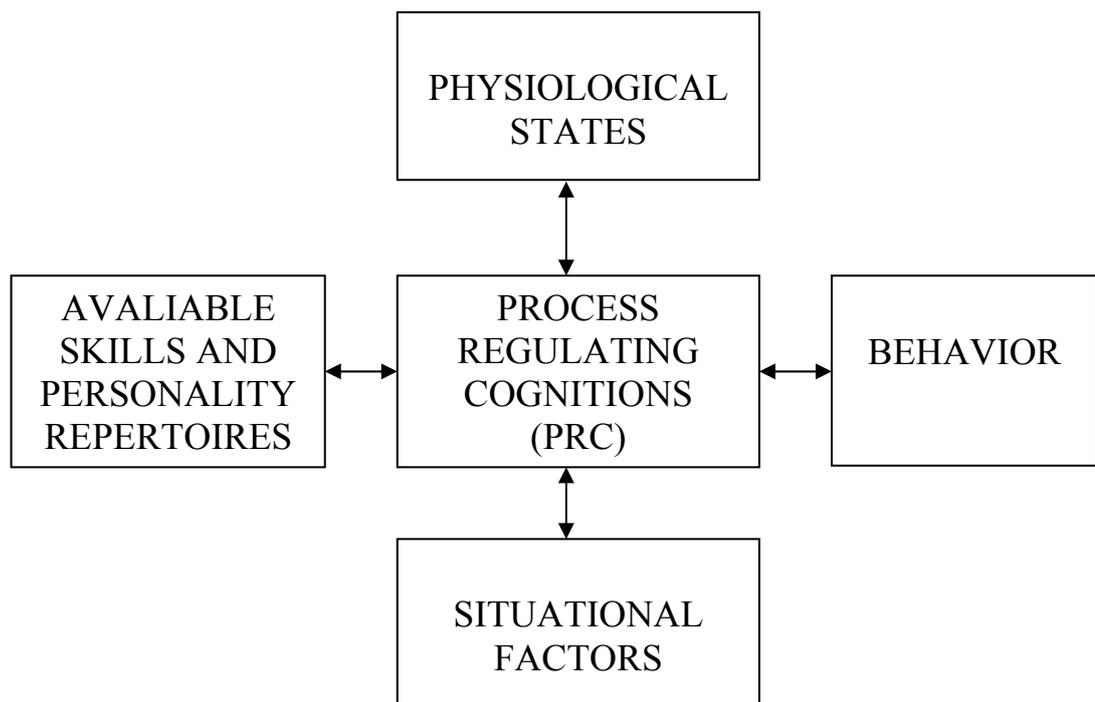


Figure 2.3. Schematic representation of the interactions among factors that reciprocally determine self-control behavior (Rosenbaum & Ben-Ari-Smira, 1986).

Situational variables determine whether individuals abandon any attempt to reach their goal or whether they search for new, more rewarding goals depending on the kind of feedback received. Situational variables also determine how much pressure will be put on the person at a given time. Excessive demands may lead to cognitions that are not conductive of self-control behavior (Rosenbaum & Ben-Ari-Smira, 1986)

Rosenbaum and Ben-Ari-Smira (1986) argued that personality repertoires in the execution of self-control behavior are due to the constant interaction with the social and physical environment of the person. A personality repertoire is a set of well-learned behaviors, cognitions and affects. It influences the way a particular individual will respond to his social and physical environment, and at the same time it is modified by the person who reacts to disruptive changes in one's life, how he evaluates their effect on his well-being, how he assesses his ability to cope with them, and how he plans to self-control his behavior in the light of these changes. Personality variables are also hypothesized to influence the person's belief in his ability to control the outcome of his behavior. Rosenbaum and Ben-Ari-Smira (1986) added that although people have the necessary skills to cope with possible situational demands, they would not apply these skills unless they think that they are efficacious in applying these skills. In other words, high resourceful people would be certainly to possess higher levels of self-efficacy and to persist longer in coping.

Rosenbaum and Ben-Ari-Smira (1986) investigated this model with hemodialysis patients who have restrictions to fluid intake. The dialysis patients face with a dilemma that requires self-control behavior in terms of following required fluid diet involved in thirst or abusing the fluid diet involved in health deteriorates. In this study, patients' delay of gratification skill and self efficacy expectations are important aspects as personality variables, PRC and situational factors of self regulatory process. Results showed that high resourceful dialysis patients adhered more closely to fluid intake restrictions than did low resourceful patients. That is, high resourceful subjects were more capable of adopting health related behaviors. Findings also suggested that patient's perceived self efficacy significantly correlated with success in fluid compliance. The efficacious patients, who believed that they were successful in the past in keeping up fluid intake restrictions, were highly

successful. Because of their attributions on past performance determined their future performance, patient's self efficacy affected their success. Overall, Rosenbaum's self-control model suggested that cognitive process that foster self-control behavior are affected by situational, physiological and personality variables.

### 2.2.1. Research on Learned Resourcefulness

Several studies have been carried out to examine the relationship between learned resourcefulness and some self-control related concepts. In developing the learned resourcefulness construct, Rosenbaum and Ben-Ari (1985) conducted a study to test the role of self-control process in the development and generalization of learned helplessness. In this study, subjects were divided into two groups based on their resourcefulness scores. High and low resourceful subjects were randomly assigned to one of the three experimental conditions according to the type of feedback they received. These feedback conditions were; non-contingent success, non-contingent failure, and no feedback groups. After assigning groups, subjects were tested to access their natural abilities to become a good psychotherapist. Non-contingent failure group received 80% negative feedback and 20% positive feedback from the experimenter whereas non-contingent success group received 80% positive feedback and 20% negative feedback for their choice on possible therapist response from A to D for given trials. Subjects from no feedback condition group did not receive any feedback from the experimenter. After the experiment, subjects were asked to check 15 self-referent statements whether their response "correct" or not. Results demonstrated that, in self-referent statements, high resourceful subjects checked fewer negative statements during non-contingent failure condition and more positive self statements during non-contingent success condition as compared with low resourceful subjects. Moreover, high resourceful subjects were more generous than low resourceful subjects in rewarding themselves for success whereas low resourceful subjects used more negative self statements for failure than high resourceful subjects. In the same study, subjects also asked to solve two insoluble puzzles. After the puzzle task, subjects evaluated their motivation to perform best on each puzzle, how much helplessness they felt on each puzzle, and their causal attributions regarding their performance on each task. Results of second study

showed that low resourceful subjects searched mainly for causes for their failures but not their success while high resourceful subjects checked statements that indicate reasons for their success but not their failure. Moreover, low resourceful subjects explained their success by chance while high resourceful subjects explained their success by their efforts and ability.

Studies supported the view that high resourceful people are skillful to deal with stressful events more constructively and effectively than low resourceful people. Rosenbaum (1990) hypothesized that highly resourceful persons would not be affected by the environmental and cognitive factors that cause depression. Learned resourcefulness constituted a collection of self-help skills that include self-control, problem solving, and a belief in one's ability to cope effectively with adversity (Rosenbaum, 1990; cited in Zauszniewski, Chung, Chang, & Krafcik, 2002)

There are some studies investigating the relationship between learned resourcefulness and depression.  For example, Simons, Lutsman, Wetzel, and Murphy (1985) randomly assigned 35 depressed outpatients to cognitive-behavioral therapy or treatment with an antidepressant. Results indicated that high-resourceful patients entering cognitive-behavioral therapy responded better than low-resourceful patients. In contrast, subjects with low initial scores on the SCS responded better to pharmacotherapy than the subjects with high SCS scores. The investigators stated that resourceful individuals may be good candidates for cognitive-behavioral therapy as they already have most of the skills that a cognitive-behavior therapist suggests to a client to understand and alter his or her feelings and behaviors. Burns, Rude, Simons, Bates, and Thase (1994) replicated this study but the results showed that high-resourceful individuals experienced somewhat recovery from depression. This effect appeared to be quiet modest and was present only among the more severely depressed patients. On the other hand, McWhirter (1997) investigated the relationships of loneliness, learned resourcefulness and self esteem with a sample of 625 college students. Findings revealed that learned resourcefulness significantly predicted social loneliness. However, the result of the study conducted by Edwards and Riordan (1994) showed that despite of the adverse conditions of poverty and sociopolitical oppression, the majority of South African Blacks did not exhibit

helplessness or low self esteem, in contrast, these black people were found to have higher levels of personal resourcefulness than the whites.

Studies have also been carried out to understand the role of learned resourcefulness in attending some training programs that require personal control and achievement. For instance, Kennett and Ackerman (1995) examined the effect of learned resourcefulness skills in attending a weight loss self-control program. Results indicated that low resourceful women were more likely to drop out of the self-control program than high resourceful women. Although both high and low resourceful women who completed the program lost the same amount of weight, only the high resourceful subjects continued to lose weight at follow up. In contrast, the low resourceful women regained the lost weight. Kennett (1994) studied the effect of learned resourcefulness skills to perseverance on an academic self-management program. Results revealed that students who dropped out of the self-management program scored low on SCS. In other words, high-resourceful people were more likely to persist, try hard, use effective problem solving strategies, think positively, set goals, and achieve their goals despite of the difficulties and challenges. Similarly, Kennett and Stedwill (1996) examined the effect of learned resourcefulness on workshop attendance with university students. At different times, students attended a workshop on academic self management skills. As the previous research pointed out, low resourceful students were found to be more likely to drop out from the study than high resourceful students.

Learned resourcefulness has also been investigated in relation to some addictive behaviors. Carey and Carey (1990) found that low-resourceful individuals reported higher levels of alcohol consumption than high-resourceful individuals. The findings did not reveal any significant difference between ex-smokers and current smokers in terms of learned resourcefulness. In another study (Wulfert, Block, Santa-Ana, Rodriguez, & Colsman, 2002), high school students were offered a monetary incentive for participating in research. They were given a choice between a smaller fee immediately and a larger fee one week later. Compared the students who delayed gratification, those who chose the immediate fee showed more self-regulatory deficits. They showed greater involvement with cigarettes, alcohol, and marijuana,

had a poorer self-concept and underperformed academically.

To conclude, both theory and research suggested that learned resourcefulness is an available skill for coping effectively with stressful events. Considering that conflict is one of the stressful events and unavoidable part of people's life, a relationship can be expected between learned resourcefulness and conflict behaviors. More specifically, it can be hypothized that those who were high in learned resourcefulness might be expected to engage in more constructive conflict behaviors. Although no research has been found examining this relationship, both conflict and learned resourcefulness theories seem to suggest that learned resourcefulness might affect the preferences of conflict behaviors of the individuals.

## 2.3. Studies in Turkey

In Turkish literature, although there are many studies investigating the effect of conflict resolution training programs in schools (Beidoğlu, 2001; Çoban, 2002; Koruklu, 1998), there are few studies specifically investigating the relationship between conflict behaviors and some self related concepts.

Studies concerning conflict resolution training programs generally showed, for example, that communication skills training was effective in changing conflict behaviors (Özgit, 1991); in improving collaborating and compromising but decreasing competing behaviors (Beidoğlu, 2001; Çoban, 2002 Kavalcı, 2001). The result of a study (Koruklu, 1998) also showed that peer mediating programs improved constructive conflict resolution styles.

However, the descriptive studies on conflict handling behaviors are rather limited in Turkey. For example, Tezer (1996), examined the differences in conflict handling behaviors (forcing, avoiding, accommodating, compromising, and collaborating) toward spouses and supervisors with a sample of 71 married individuals who were subordinates working as full-time employees in different organizations. Results of the study indicated that the conflict behaviors of the individuals appeared as a hierarchy in their relationships with their spouses and supervisors, from

compromising as the most dominant style to competition as the least preferred style toward both their spouses and supervisors. However, she found no differences between each of the five conflict handling behaviors in terms of two types relationships. On the other hand, sex differences were found, indicating that women tend to behave competitively toward their spouses, whereas men behave competitively toward their immediate supervisors. Tezer (1999) examined the functionality of conflict behaviors and its relationship with popularity among university students. 267 undergraduate university students evaluate (a) the extent to which individuals accomplish their goals via conflict behavior and (b) the preference for becoming friends with these individuals in light of their conflict behavior. The students responded to a questionnaire after reading a story about a five person group and their conflict behaviors. The results revealed that students evaluated collaborating and compromising as more goal-oriented behaviors whereas competing behavior was the least preferred behavior. Compromising was found to be the most preferred behavior regarding their friendship preferences. Overall, research finding indicated that compromising behavior was the most successful behavior both in accomplishing goals and in establishing interpersonal relationships. Tezer (2001) also examined the differences in five conflict behaviors and their relationships to popularity among 127 college students. Results revealed that the students engaged in more avoiding and compromising behaviors while perceiving more forcing behavior in others. Moreover, it was found that the unpopular group engaged in more compromising behavior and perceived more forcing behavior in others when compared with the popular group. Tezer and Demir (2001) examined the difference between males and females in relation to conflict behaviors toward same-sex and opposite-sex peers. This study conducted with a sample of 501 undergraduate university students. Results showed that males reported more competing behavior toward same-sex peers than toward opposite-sex peers and more avoiding behavior toward opposite-sex peers than toward same-sex peers. Males, compared to females, reported more accommodating behavior toward both same-sex and opposite-sex peers.

Based on all these findings regarding conflict handling behaviors defined in the present study, it can generally be concluded that compromising, collaborating, and to

some extend accommodating were found to be constructive behaviors whereas forcing or competing and avoiding were evaluated as destructive behaviors in Turkish samples. These findings were supported by the most of the studies carried out in different countries.

In Turkey, learned resourcefulness was investigated in relation to several variables such as coping and depression (Siva, 1991, Uçman, 1990; Yılmaz, 1993), locus of control (Dağ, 1992; Demirci, 1998; Mizrahi, 1993), wellbeing (Cenkseven, 2004), social adaptation (Sarıcı, 1999), institutionalized adolescents (Boyraz, 2002), causal attributions (Yıldız, 1997), academic stress and academic performance (Akgün, 2003, 2004; Sarı, 2004).

Siva (1991) investigated the relationships of ways of coping, learned resourcefulness, and depression in infertility and reported a negative relationship between depression and learned resourcefulness. Individuals, who scored higher on SCS had lower depressive symptoms. Uçman (1990) examined the relationship between coping and psychological disorders in working women and found a negative correlation between learned resourcefulness and depression. Similarly, Yılmaz (1993) conducted a study to examine the relationships of stress levels, psychopathology, and coping behaviors of university students. Results revealed a significant negative correlation between stress levels and learned resourcefulness levels of the students.

Dağ (1992) examined the relationships of locus of control, learned resourcefulness, and psychological symptoms and reported that internal locus of control had a positive relationship with high learned resourcefulness. He also found that locus of control and learned resourcefulness separately affected psychological symptoms. Similarly, Demirci (1998) carried out a research on psychometric properties of need for cognition inventory and found positive relationships among high need for cognition, internal locus of control, and high learned resourcefulness. Mizrahi (1993) investigated the effects of trait anxiety, health locus of control orientation, pain duration, and severity on learned resourcefulness. Results showed that individuals with low trait anxiety, internal locus of control, low pain intensity, and high

commitment level employed a high range of self control, cognitive strategies that result in high resourcefulness.

Cenkseven (2004) investigated the relationships of university students' subjective and psychological well-being, their level of extraversion, neurouticism, locus of control, learned resourcefulness, socio-economic status, gender, health situations, satisfaction experienced in social interactions, recreation activities and academic situations. Findings indicated that people who had a high level of learned resourcefulness and internal locus of control reported to have better subjective and psychological well-being.

In the area of social adaptation, Sarıcı (1999) found a significant relationship between learned resourcefulness and social adaptation. In her study, high resourcefulness was found to be significantly related with higher levels of social adaptation. Boyraz (2002) investigated the differences in learned resourcefulness of institutionalized and non-institutionalized adolescents. She reported significant differences in the level of learned resourcefulness of institutionalized and non-institutionalized adolescents in favor of non-institutionalized adolescents. The results also indicated a significant interaction effect of gender and institutionalization. Accordingly, non-institutionalized male adolescents are more resourceful than the institutionalized males.

Yıldız (1997) examined the relationship between learned resourcefulness and causal attributions to successful and unsuccessful situations. She found that high resourceful individuals attributed success to their own effort and abilities whereas low resourceful individuals attributed success to chance or luck.

Learned resourcefulness has also been investigated in relation to academic stress and performance. Akgün and Ciarrochi (2003) reported that academic stress was negatively related with academic performance and this negative association was moderated by learned resourcefulness. In other words, high academic stress adversely impacted the grades of low resourceful students but had no effect on high resourceful students. Akgün (2004) also examined the effects of exam situation and

learned resourcefulness on coping responses. Results revealed that highly resourceful students had higher self efficacy expectancies,  used more problem focused coping, more positive reappraisal, were more likely to seek social support, and less likely to use escape-avoidance strategies during the stages of an examination situation. Sarı (2004) found that the students who had scholarship and high GPAs, scored higher in SCS than the students who did not have scholarship and the students who had low GPAs. However, the results did not indicate any significant difference in learned resourcefulness levels of the students in terms of gender, place of residence, romantic relationship status, and parents' marital status.

To conclude, all these studies carried out in Turkey on learned resourcefulness seemed to be supported by the results of the studies conducted in different cultures. In other words, the findings in the Turkish literature are parallel to findings of learned resourcefulness theorists (Rosenbaum & Ben-Ari, 1985; Rosenbaum & Ben-Ari-Smira, 1986; Rosenbaum & Palmon, 1984) indicating the positive contribution of learned resourcefulness to some self-control relevant characteristics of the individuals.

# CHAPTER III

## METHOD

The methodological procedures of the study are presented in this chapter. The major topics are the sampling, the data collection instruments, the data collection procedure and the data analysis techniques, respectively. The selection procedures and the demographic characteristics of the students are presented in the sampling section. The data collection instruments were introduced in the second section. In the third section, the data collection procedure was explained. Finally, the fourth section presents the statistical techniques used in analyzing the data.

### 3.1. Sample

The sample of the study included 393 (253 females, 140 males) volunteered undergraduate students from the Departments of Faculty of Education in Middle East Technical University. The distribution of the students by gender and departments was presented in Table 3.1.1.

Table 3.1.1. The Distribution of the Students by Gender and Departments

| Department | Female | Male | Total |
|------------|--------|------|-------|
| FLE | 122 | 36 | 158 |
| CEIT | 13 | 36 | 49 |
| ESE | 45 | 27 | 72 |
| EME | 17 | 7 | 24 |
| SUNY | 8 | 2 | 10 |
| ECE | 30 | 2 | 32 |
| PHED | 8 | 18 | 26 |
| CHED | 10 | 12 | 22 |
| Total | 253 | 140 | 393 |

The age of the students ranged from 17 to 27 with the mean of 20.11 (SD = 1.67).

## 3.2. Data Collection Instruments

The data were gathered by administering two instruments. Conflict Behaviors Questionnaire (CBQ) was used to measure the conflict handling behaviors and The Self Control Schedule (SCS) was used to measure learned resourcefulness of the students.

### 3.2.1. Conflict Behaviors Questionnaire

Conflict Behaviors Questionnaire (CBQ) was adapted by Tezer (1986) based on the definitions of Thomas (1976). The questionnaire consists of five statements representing five conflict behaviors of competing, avoiding, accommodating, compromising, and collaborating described by Thomas (1976). In the studies carried out in Turkey, these behaviors have been identified as basic modes of behavior in various conflict situations in different types of relationships by using different response set such as choosing one of the behaviors in marital relationships (Tezer, 1986), ranking the behaviors in marital and supervisory relationships (Tezer, 1996), and measuring the behaviors in Likert type scaling in friendships (Tezer, 1999, 2001; Tezer & Demir, 2001). In the present study, participants were asked to rate their behaviors on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 'very little' to 5 'a lot'. Five different scores were calculated for each of the conflict behaviors of the students.

### 3.2.2. Self Control Schedule (SCS)

Self Control Schedule (SCS) was originally developed by Rosenbaum (1980) for the purpose of assessing individual tendencies to exert self control methods to resolve behavioral problems. The SCS is a self-report instrument which covers the following content areas: (a) use of cognitions and self-instructions to cope with emotional and physiological responses, (b) application of problem solving strategies (e.g. planning, problem definition, evaluating alternatives, and preparing for consequences), (c) ability to delay immediate gratification, and (d) a general belief in one's ability to self-regulate internal events.

The original version of SCS consists of 36 Likert-type items with a 6-point scale. For each item participants indicate the degree to which the statement describes their behavior, ranging from extremely descriptive to extremely nondescriptive with no neutral response alternative. A higher composite score indicates greater resourcefulness (Rosenbaum, 1980). The possible score range of the original scale is between +108 and -108 where 11 items are scored in a reverse order (Rosenbaum & Palmon, 1984)

The reliability of the schedule was established in a number of studies involving more than 600 subjects (Rosenbaum, 1980). Test-retest reliability with 4 weeks interval indicated that the SCS was fairly stable over time (r = .96). An alpha coefficient computed on six different samples ranged from .78 to .86, indicating a high internal consistency among items.

In the United States, Redden, Tucker, and Young, (1983) administered the SCS to a sample of 1000 undergraduates and obtained an alpha reliability of .82. As for the validity evidence, same researchers conducted factor analytic and correlational studies. Factor analysis yielded six factors which were named as planful behavior, mood control, and control of unwanted thoughts, pain control, impulse control and delay of immediate gratification. These factors corresponded to the content areas that were previously pointed out by Rosenbaum (1980). In correlational study, researchers found that the Self Control Schedule (SCS) and Croskey's Measure of Communication Apprehension were significantly but moderately and negatively correlated (r = -.37, p < .001). Richards (1985) also reported a significant relationship between SCS and Rotter's Locus of Control Scale (r = -.37, p = .002) and Manifest Anxiety Scale (r = -.56, p = .001).

The Self Control Schedule (SCS) was translated and adapted to Turkish by Siva (1991). She also developed a new scoring system with a 5-point Likert scale in which the highest and the lowest possible total score changed between 36 and 180, higher scores indicating high resourcefulness.

Dağ (1991) and Siva (1991) carried out the reliability and validity studies of SCS for the Turkish population. In Siva's (1991) study, Cronbach alpha coefficient was found as .79 with a sample of 100 subjects. Following Siva (1991), Dağ (1991) reported a Cronbach alpha reliability of .79 with a sample of 532 subjects, and a test-retest correlation of .80, with a sample of 99 subjects. Dağ (1991) also reported two types of validity evidence for the Turkish version of SCS. He reported a criterion related validity coefficient of -.29 between the SCS and Rotter's Locus of Control Scale. The results of factor analysis yielded 12 factors with eigen values greater than 1, accounting for the 58.2% of the total variance.

In a more recent study, Boyraz (2002) reported a Cronbach alpha coefficient of .78 and correlation coefficient of -.24 between SCS and Rotter's Locus of Control Scale which were very similar to previous ones reported by Dağ (1991) and Siva (1991), revealing a satisfactory evidence of reliability and validity for the SCS.

## 3.1. The Reliability and Validity of the SCS for the Sample of the Present Study

In the present study, the results of factor analysis yielded 10 factors with eigen values greater than 1, accounting for the 58.4% of the total variance. The Cronbach alpha coefficient was found as .80, indicating a satisfactory reliability evidence for the SCS. Overall, these findings seemed to be similar to the results of the previous studies and provide satisfactory evidence for the reliability and validity of the SCS for the sample of the present study.

## 3.3. Data Collection Procedure

Conflict Behaviors Questionnaire (CBQ) and The Self Control Schedule (SCS) were administered to the students in classroom settings by the researcher in the fall semester of 2005. The purpose of the study was explained and the students were motivated to give genuine responses to the instruments. Student's anonymity and the confidentiality were guaranteed. The administration of the instruments took approximately 20 minutes.

## 3.4. Data Analysis Procedure

After data cleaning procedure, five students were excluded from the analysis due to several missing data. As a result, 393 out of 398 students were included to the analysis.

Learned resourcefulness levels of the students were identified by assigning students to high and low groups based on the median score (median = 121, mean = 120.27, SD = 15.690) obtained from the SCS. Students whose scores were above the median were considered as High Resourceful; students whose scores were below the median were evaluated as Low Resourceful individuals.

To investigate the differences among the five conflict handling behaviors (competing, avoiding, accommodating, compromising, collaborating) as a function of learned resourcefulness levels and gender, a 2 (gender) x 2 (high-low learned resourcefulness) MANOVA was employed to the Conflict Behaviors Questionnaire scores of the students.

These statistical analyses will be carried out by using related subprograms of SPSS 11.

# CHAPTER IV

# RESULTS

In this chapter, the findings related to the differences between five conflict behaviors and learned resourcefulness levels of male and female university students were presented.

## 4.1 Conflict Behaviors and Learned Resourcefulness Levels

For the purpose of investigating the differences between the conflict behaviors of male and female students as a function of their learned resourcefulness levels, a 2 (gender) x 2 (high-low learned resourcefulness groups) MANOVA was conducted on five conflict behaviors of the students.

The means and standard deviations of five conflict behaviors of male and female students with regard to their learned resourcefulness levels were presented in Table 4.1.1.

Table 4.1.1 Means and Standard Deviations of Five Conflict Behaviors of Male and Female Students in terms of Learned Resourcefulness Levels

| Learned Resourcefulness | Conflict Behaviors | Female | | Male | | Total | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | M | SD | M | SD | M | SD |
| Low Resourcefulness | Competing | 2.95 | 1.07 | 2.91 | 1.15 | 2.94 | 1.10 |
| | Avoiding | 2.70 | 1.10 | 2.70 | 1.04 | 2.70 | 1.07 |
| | Accommodating | 2.55 | 1.07 | 2.56 | 0.87 | 2.56 | 1.00 |
| | Compromising | 3.65 | 1.09 | 3.42 | 0.95 | 3.56 | 1.04 |
| | Collaborating | 3.08 | 1.22 | 2.69 | 1.09 | 2.93 | 1.19 |
| High Resourcefulness | Competing | 2.86 | 0.94 | 2.81 | 1.09 | 2.85 | 0.99 |
| | Avoiding | 2.53 | 1.03 | 2.83 | 1.13 | 2.63 | 1.07 |
| | Accommodating | 2.59 | 1.11 | 2.95 | 0.89 | 2.71 | 1.05 |
| | Compromising | 3.87 | 1.05 | 3.73 | 1.03 | 3.82 | 1.04 |
| | Collaborating | 3.26 | 1.09 | 3.25 | 0.97 | 3.26 | 1.05 |

As seen in the Table 4.1.1, in low resourcefulness group, the mean conflict behavior scores were 2.94 for competing, 2.70 for avoiding, 2.56 for accommodating, 3.56 for compromising, and 2.93 for collaborating. The standard deviations were 1.10, 1.07, 1.00, 1.04, and 1.19, respectively. In high resourcefulness group, the mean scores were 2.85 in competing, 2.63 in avoiding, 2.71 in accommodating, 3.82 in compromising, and 3.26 in collaborating. The standard deviations were 0.99, 1.07, 1.05, 1.04, and 1.05, respectively. In the present study, the highest score of SCS was 165, the lowest score was 77.

The results of MANOVA employed to the CBQ scores of the male and female students yielded a significant main effect for learned resourcefulness groups (Wilk's Lambda = .961, $F(5,385) = 3.11$, $p < .01$, $\eta 2 = .039$) and a significant main effect for gender (Wilk's Lambda = .969, $F(5,385) = 2.50$, $p < .05$, $\eta 2 = .031$ ). The

interaction effect of gender x learned resourcefulness levels was not significant (Wilk's Lambda = .985, F(5,385) = 1.153, p > .05, η2 = .015).

The results of MANOVA employed to the CBQ scores of the students are shown in the Table 4.1.2.

Table 4.1.2 The Results of the Multivariate Analysis of Variance Applied to CBQ Scores of Male and Female Students in terms of Learned Resourcefulness Groups

| Source | Dependent Variable | Type III Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Eta Sq. | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Corrected Model | Competing | 1.027 | 3 | .342 | .309 | .002 | .819 |
| | Avoiding | 4.186 | 3 | 1.395 | 1.218 | .009 | .303 |
| | Accommodating | 7.848 | 3 | 2.616 | 2.521 | .019 | .058 |
| | Compromising | 10.258 | 3 | 3.419 | 3.150 | .024 | .025 |
| | Collaborating | 17.920 | 3 | 5.973 | 4.782 | .036 | .003 |
| Intercept | Competing | 2978.862 | 1 | 2978.862 | 2691.797 | .874 | .000 |
| | Avoiding | 2586.885 | 1 | 2586.885 | 2258.915 | .853 | .000 |
| | Accommodating | 2542.559 | 1 | 2542.559 | 2450.259 | .863 | .000 |
| | Compromising | 4814.969 | 1 | 4814.969 | 4435.861 | .919 | .000 |
| | Collaborating | 3378.063 | 1 | 3378.063 | 2704.048 | .874 | .000 |
| Gender | Competing | .217 | 1 | .217 | .196 | .001 | .658 |
| | Avoiding | 2.060 | 1 | 2.060 | 1.799 | .005 | .181 |
| | Accommodating | 2.968 | 1 | 2.968 | 2.860 | .007 | .092 |
| | Compromising | 3.143 | 1 | 3.143 | 2.895 | .007 | .090 |
| | Collaborating | 3.579 | 1 | 3.579 | 2.865 | .007 | .091 |
| Learned Resourcefulness | Competing | .797 | 1 | .797 | .720 | .002 | .397 |
| | Avoiding | .042 | 1 | .042 | .037 | .000 | .849 |
| | Accommodating | 4.163 | 1 | 4.163 | 4.012 | .010 | .046 |
| | Compromising | 6.483 | 1 | 6.483 | 5.972 | .015 | .015 |
| | Collaborating | 12.643 | 1 | 12.643 | 10.120 | .025 | .002 |
| Gender * Learned Resourcefulness | Competing | .002 | 1 | .002 | .002 | .000 | .963 |
| | Avoiding | 1.901 | 1 | 1.901 | 1.660 | .004 | .198 |
| | Accommodating | 2.847 | 1 | 2.847 | 2.744 | .007 | .098 |
| | Compromising | .185 | 1 | .185 | .171 | .000 | .680 |
| | Collaborating | 3.229 | 1 | 3.229 | 2.584 | .007 | .109 |
| Error | Competing | 430.485 | 389 | 1.107 | | | |
| | Avoiding | 445.478 | 389 | 1.145 | | | |
| | Accommodating | 403.653 | 389 | 1.038 | | | |
| | Compromising | 422.246 | 389 | 1.085 | | | |
| | Collaborating | 485.963 | 389 | 1.249 | | | |
| Total | Competing | 3721.000 | 393 | | | | |
| | Avoiding | 3239.000 | 393 | | | | |
| | Accommodating | 3132.000 | 393 | | | | |
| | Compromising | 5775.000 | 393 | | | | |
| | Collaborating | 4254.000 | 393 | | | | |
| Corrected Total | Competing | 431.511 | 392 | | | | |
| | Avoiding | 449.664 | 392 | | | | |
| | Accommodating | 411.501 | 392 | | | | |
| | Compromising | 432.504 | 392 | | | | |
| | Collaborating | 503.883 | 392 | | | | |

Using the Bonferroni method, each ANOVA was tested at the .01 (dividing .05 by the number of dependent variable of 5) in order to control Type I error. The results yielded a significant difference between high and low learned resourcefulness groups in collaborating score (F (1,391) = 8.41, p < .01, $\eta2$ = .025), indicating that the collaborating score was significantly higher in high resourceful group than in low resourceful group, t(391) = 2.90, p < .01. No differences were found in any of the other conflict behaviors as a function of level of learned resourcefulness at the significant level set at .01.

# CHAPTER V

## DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter is devoted to the discussion of the results, their implications and recommendations for the further studies.

### 5.1. Discussion

The main purpose of the present study is to examine the relationships of learned resourcefulness and conflict behaviors of male and female university students. More specifically, present study investigated the differences in conflict behaviors of male and female university students as a function of their learned resourcefulness levels.

The results of MANOVA applied to the CBQ scores of male and female students yielded significant main effects for learned resourcefulness and gender but no significant interaction effect of gender x learned resourcefulness levels. However, ANOVA results yielded no significant gender differences as a function of learned resourcefulness. Conflict literature both in Turkey (e.g., Tezer, 1996; Tezer & Demir, 2001) and in other countries (Johnson & Johnson, 1996; Laursen & Collins, 1994; Messman & Mikasel, 2000; Sorenson and Hawkins, 1995) provides consistent findings regarding gender differences in conflict behaviors. On the other hand, the lack of gender differences in learned resourcefulness is rather consistent in the literature (e.g. Carey et.al, 1990; Rosenbaum et.al, 1986; Sarı, 2005; Zauszniewski et.al, 2002). In Rosenbaum's (1990; cited in Zauszniewski, Chung, Chang, & Krafcik, 2002) theory of learned resourcefulness, it was suggested that resourcefulness is not gender-dependent but learned throughout life in the context of one's environment. Based on these findings, it can be argued that the findings of the present study regarding gender differences in conflict behaviors and lack of

significant interaction effect between conflict behaviors and learned resourcefulness seemed to be supported with the findings accumulated from these two lines of studies.

In the present study, the results of the analyses of variances revealed a significant difference between high and low resourcefulness groups only in collaborating behavior. Although the significance level obtained for compromising ($p = .015$) was not accepted as significant, the results seemed to suggest the differences between high and low learned resourcefulness groups, indicating that those who were in high learned resourcefulness group also reported higher usage of compromising than those who were in low learned resourcefulness group.

Conflict is a stress evoking situation since it begins with the frustration of one's concern (Thomas, 1976). However, what constitutes the constructive or destructive nature of conflict largely depends on how it is handled during the process of conflict event. In the literature, compromising and collaborating behaviors were considered as the most constructive conflict behaviors (e.g., Deutsch, 1994; Johnson & Johnson, 1994; Thomas, 1976;). Constructive nature of these two behaviors largely stemmed from the definitions of these behaviors. As it was mentioned before, compromising behavior includes searching for a middle ground solution and indicates that one gives little and expects the other do the same. Collaborating is linked with high concern for self and other including seeking effective problem solving activities, so that all parties can achieve a mutually satisfying conclusion to the dispute. Although there are more similarities than differences, in the conceptualizations of these behaviors, problem solving seemed to be the most representative characteristic of collaborating. On the other hand, all the constructive conflict behaviors, including accommodation, seemed to have one common characteristics; the delay of gratification, which is also one of the component of learned resourcefulness.

Besides, as it was mentioned by most of the authors (Thomas, 1976; Deutsch, 1994) and supported by the results of several experimental studies (Johnson & Johnson, 1994; Laursen & Collins, 1994), constructive strategies require some communication skills such as listening, emphatic understanding, and problem solving. A vast amount

of research also yielded significant positive association between constructive conflict behaviors and some personality characteristics mostly related with self control such as agreeableness (Graziano, Jensen-Campbell, & Hair, 1996), self-monitoring (Warech, Smiter, Reilly, Milsap, & Reilly, 1998), emotional intelligence (Jordan & Troth, 2004), locus of control (Alexander, 2003), and self efficacy (O'Connel & Malinckrodt, 2000; Vera, Shin, Montgomery, Mildner, & Speight, 2004). All these skills and characteristics are also inherent in the conceptualization of learned resourcefulness.

Learned resourcefulness is a set of cognitive and behavioral skills by which individuals deal more effectively with stressful events (Rosenbaum, 1980). Individuals, in dealing with stressful events use these skills and rely on their personality repertoires to respond to these events. Rosenbaum (1990; cited in Zauszniewski, Chung, Chang, & Krafcik, 2002) mentioned that learned resourcefulness is a collection of self-help skills that include self-control, problem solving, and a belief in one's ability to cope effectively with diversity. Number of studies indicated significant relationships of learned resourcefulness with some self-control related variables in the expected direction including learned helplessness (Rosenbaum & Ben-Ari, 1985), depression (Burns, Rude, Simons, Bates, & Thase, 1994), loneliness (McWhirter, 1997), and academic self-management (Kenneth, 1994).

Turkish studies on learned resourcefulness yielded similar results with the above mentioned ones. Many studies suggested that learned resourcefulness influences the effectiveness of dealing with stress (Yılmaz, 1993), academic performance and success (Akgün, 2003, 2004; Sarı, 2004); social adaptation (Sarıcı, 1999) and wellbeing (Cenkseven, 2004). All these studies seemed to suggest the characteristics of high resourceful individuals, as pointed out by Kenneth (1994), as being persistent, effective in using problem solving strategies and setting goals despite of the difficulties and challenges. Based on these conceptualizations, it can be argued that the skills that are required in high resourcefulness also refer the skills of constructive conflict strategies.

Although no study has been found investigating the relationship between learned resourcefulness and conflict behaviors, these two above mentioned lines of research seemed to provide a kind of support for the findings of the present study. It can be speculated that, in the sample of the present study, as compared to students in low resourcefulness group, students who were in high resourcefulness group seemed to have more problem solving skills and be able to delay the gratifications when they are faced with the conflict situation that requires self-control, leading them to exhibit collaborating behaviors accordingly.

## 5.2. Implications and Recommendations

Several implications and recommendations may be drawn from the findings of this study for counselors, educators, and researchers.

In the present study, learned resourcefulness was found to be related with constructive conflict behaviors. This result may provide valuable data for counselors and educators in the planning of conflict resolution training programs in schools. Since Rosenbaum (1990; cited in Zauszniewski, Chung, Chang, & Krafcik, 2002) suggests that people acquire resourcefulness skills through all kinds of learning throughout the life, counselors might also develop some learned resourcefulness training programs to teach problem solving skills and other self-control strategies to the students that they can apply not only in enhancing constructive conflict strategies but also in all other stressful situations.

Acquisition of learned resourcefulness skills might be possible through education if these skills are integrated into the curriculum. Since the application of resourcefulness skills are closely related with the individuals' beliefs of efficiency in applying these skills, counselors and educators might encourage the students to develop a belief in their ability to self-control their internal responses.

Further research is needed to provide an additional support regarding the relationship between conflict behaviors and some other self-control related concepts together with learned resourcefulness.

Present study should also be conducted with diverse samples from different socio-cultural environments, different samples from different ages such as schoolchildren, high school adolescents or adults and in various types of relationships such as same and opposite sex friendship, dating or marriage.

Finally, since self-report nature of the instruments used in the present study limit our understanding of adolescents' actual level of learned resourcefulness and actual conflict behavior, further research might use different methodologies other than self-report to examine the differences between conflict behaviors and learned resourcefulness.

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## APPENDIX A

### KİŞİSEL BİLGİ FORMU

İnsan ilişkilerinde kişilerin isteklerinin birbiriyle bağdaşmadığı durumların ortaya çıkması, yani kişilerarası anlaşmazlıklar kaçınılmazdır. Bu çalışma, üniversite öğrencilerinin kişilerarası ilişkilerini çeşitli yönleriyle incelemeye yöneliktir. Sizden istenen, bölümlerin başında bulunan yönergeleri dikkatle okuyarak yanıtlardan size uygun seçeneği işaretlemenizdir. Bu ankette doğru veya yanlış cevap yoktur. Önemli olan verdiğiniz cevabın sizi için doğru olmasıdır. Verdiğiniz yanıtlarda samimi olmanız ve tüm soruları yanıtlamanız, çalışmanın amacına ulaşması açısından büyük önem taşımaktadır. Verdiğiniz yanıtlar gizli tutulacak ve yalnız araştırma amacıyla kullanılacaktır.

Bu çalışma için ayırdığınız zaman ve katkılarınızdan dolayı şimdiden teşekkür ederim.

Seval Öztürk
ODTÜ Eğitim Bilimleri Bölümü
Psikolojik Danışma ve Rehberlik A.B.D.

KİŞİSEL BİLGİLER:

Cinsiyetiniz:  K ( )          E ( )

Yaşınız: .................

Sınıfınız:   1. Sınıf ( )   2. Sınıf ( )   3. Sınıf ( )   4. Sınıf ( )

Bölümünüz: ..................................

Son Dönem Akademik Ortalamanız: ....................

## ÇATIŞMA DAVRANIŞLARI ÖLÇEĞİ

**Aşağıdaki tabloda belirtilen ifadeleri dikkatlice okuyarak, günlük yaşamınızda karşılaştığınız anlaşmazlıklarda bu davranışlardan her birini ne derece sıklıkla gösterdiğinizi düşününüz ve sizin davranışınızı en iyi tanımlayan ifadeyi, aşağıdaki ölçeği dikkate alarak, her cümlenin sonunda yer alan kutucuğa (X) işareti koyarak belirtiniz.**

1 = Çok az

2 = Az

3 = Orta

4 = Fazla

5 = Çok fazla

|  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Kendi isteğimi kabul ettirinceye kadar tartışmayı sürdürürüm. |  |  |  |  |  |
| Tartışma çıkacak konuları hiç açmamaya çalışırım, açıldığı zaman konuyu değiştiririm. |  |  |  |  |  |
| Tam olarak onaylamasam bile karşımdakinin görüş ve isteklerini kabul ederim |  |  |  |  |  |
| Ben biraz taviz (ödün) veririm, karşımdakinin de isteklerinden biraz taviz vermesini isterim ve uzlaşacak bir orta yol bulmaya çalışırım. |  |  |  |  |  |
| Karşımdakini de isteklerinden vazgeçirecek ve ikimizi de mutlu edecek bir üçüncü yol bulmaya çalışırım. |  |  |  |  |  |

## ROSENBAUM ÖĞRENİLMİŞ GÜÇLÜLÜK ÖLÇEĞİ

**Aşağıda, kötü bir durum ya da olayla karşılaşıldığında kişilerin neler yapabileceğini anlatan 36 ifade vardır. Lütfen her maddeyi dikkatle okuyarak o maddede yer alan ifadenin size ne derece uygun olduğuna karar verin. Verdiğiniz karara göre aşağıdaki ölçeği dikkate alarak uygun olan kutucuğa (X) işareti koyunuz.**

1 = Hiç tanımlamıyor
2 = Biraz tanımlıyor
3 = İyi tanımlıyor
4 = Oldukça iyi tanımlıyor
5 = Çok iyi tanımlıyor

|  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Sıkıcı bir iş yaparken işin en az sıkıcı yanını ve bitirdiğimde elde edeceğim kazancı düşünürüm. |  |  |  |  |  |
| 2. Beni bunaltan bir iş yapmak zorunda olduğumda, bunaltımı nasıl yenebileceğimi hayal eder, düşünürüm. |  |  |  |  |  |
| 3. Duygularımı düşüncelerime göre değiştirebilirim. |  |  |  |  |  |
| 4. Sinirlilik ve gerginliğimi yardım almadan yenmek bana zor gelir. |  |  |  |  |  |
| 5. Kendimi bedbin (üzüntülü) hissettiğimde hoş olayları düşünmeye çalışırım. |  |  |  |  |  |
| 6. Geçmişte yaptığım hataları düşünmekten kendimi alamam. |  |  |  |  |  |
| 7. Güç bir sorunla karşılaştığımda düzenli bir biçimde çözüm yolları ararım. |  |  |  |  |  |
| 8. Birisi beni zorlarsa işimi daha çabuk yaparım. |  |  |  |  |  |
| 9. Zor bir karar vereceksem bütün bilgiler elimde olsa bile bu kararı ertelerim. |  |  |  |  |  |
| 10. Okuduğum şeye kendimi veremediğimi fark ettiğim zaman, dikkatimi toplamak için yollar ararım. |  |  |  |  |  |

| 1 = Hiç tanımlamıyor    2 = Biraz tanımlıyor<br>3 = İyi tanımlıyor    4 = Oldukça iyi tanımlıyor<br>5 = Çok iyi tanımlıyor | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 11.  Çalışmayı planladığımda, işimle ilgili olmayan her şeyi ortadan kaldırırım. | | | | | |
| 12.  Kötü bir huyumdan vazgeçmek istediğimde, bu huyumu devam ettiren nedir diye araştırırım. | | | | | |
| 13.  Beni sıkan bir düşünce karşısında, güzel şeyler düşünmeye çalışırım. | | | | | |
| 14.  Günde 2 paket sigara içiyor olsam, sigarayı bırakmak için muhtemelen başkasının yardımına ihtiyaç duyarım. | | | | | |
| 15.  Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde neşeli görünmeye çalışarak ruh halimi değiştiririm. | | | | | |
| 16.  Kendimi sinirli ve gergin hissettiğimde, sakinleştirici ilacım varsa bir tane alırım. | | | | | |
| 17.  Bedbin (üzüntülü) olduğumda, kendimi hoşlandığım şeylerle uğraşmaya zorlarım. | | | | | |
| 18.  Hemen yapabilecek durumda bile olsam, hoşlanmadığım işleri geciktiririm. | | | | | |
| 19.  Bazı kötü huylarımdan vazgeçebilmem için başkalarının yardımına ihtiyaç duyarım. | | | | | |
| 20.  Oturup belli bir işi yapmam güç geldiğinde, başlayabilmek için değişik yollar ararım. | | | | | |
| 21.  Beni kötümser yapsa da, gelecekte olabilecek bütün felaketleri düşünmekten kendimi alamam. | | | | | |
| 22.  Önce yapmam gereken işi bitirip, daha sonra gerçekten hoşlandığım işlere başlamayı tercih ederim. | | | | | |
| 23.  Bedenimin herhangi bir yerinde, ağrı hissettiğimde, bunu dert etmemeye çalışırım. | | | | | |
| 24.  Kötü bir huyumu yendiğimde kendime olan güvenim artar. | | | | | |
| 25.  Başarısızlıkla birlikte gelen kötü duyguları yenmek için, sık sık kendime bunun bir felaket olmadığını ve bir şeyler yapabileceğimi telkin ederim. | | | | | |
| 26.  Kendimi patlayacakmış gibi hissettiğimde, "dur, bir şey yapmadan önce düşün" derim. | | | | | |
| 27.  Birine çok öfkelensem bile davranışlarımı kontrol ederim. | | | | | |
| 28.  Genellikle bir karar vereceğim zaman, ani kararlar yerine, bütün ihtimalleri göz önüne alarak sonuca varmaya çalışırım. | | | | | |
| 29.  Acilen yapılması gereken şeyler olsa bile, önce yapmaktan hoşlandığım şeyleri yaparım. | | | | | |
| 30.  Önemli bir işi elimde olmayan nedenlerle geciktirdiğimde, kendi kendime sakin olmayı telkin ederim. | | | | | |
| 31.  Bedenimde bir ağrı hissettiğim zaman, ağrıdan başka şeyler düşünmeye çalışırım. | | | | | |
| 32.  Yapılacak çok şey olduğunda genellikle bir plan yaparım. | | | | | |
| 33.  Kısıtlı param olduğunda kendime bir bütçe yaparım. | | | | | |

| 34. | Bir iş yaparken dikkatim dağılırsa işi küçük bölümlere ayırırım. | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 35. | Sık sık beni rahatsız eden nahoş düşünceleri yenemediğim olur. | | | | |
| 36. | Aç olduğum halde, yemek yeme imkanım yoksa, ya açlığımı unutmaya ya da tok olduğumu düşünmeye çalışırım. | | | | |