

MODERATING ROLE OF EMOTION EXPRESSION BETWEEN FRAGILE AND
SECURE SELF-ESTEEM ON SELF-REGULATION UNDER EGO-THREAT

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THREAT MANIPULATION**

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ABSTRACT

MODERATING ROLE OF EMOTION EXPRESSION BETWEEN SECURE AND FRAGILE SELF-ESTEEM AND SELF-REGULATION UNDER EGO-THREAT

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Low self-esteem is commonly seen as the cause of negative outcomes though recent work has demonstrated that high self-esteem can also lead many negative outcomes including self-regulation failure under certain conditions. Especially those with fragile high self-esteem (vs. secure high self-esteem) tend to show poor self-regulation if they experience ego-threat. However, it has been left unexplored whether or not the capacity to self-regulate change when individuals who are experiencing ego threat are given an opportunity to express their emotions.

Moreover, it is unknown how the effects of emotion expression would differ among those with secure vs. fragile self-esteem. The current thesis aims to examine the moderating role of emotion expression between individuals with high vs. low global self-esteem, and those with secure and fragile self-esteem, and self-regulation under ego-threat manipulation. The method was presented in detail. The results showed that self-esteem and emotion expression were not related to self-regulation.

However, among individuals who expressed their emotions, self-esteem stability was not associated with self-regulation failure, whereas for those who did not express their emotions, self-esteem stability predicted self-regulation failure. Explanatory analyses revealed that gender differences are critical factor on the relationship

between self-esteem and emotional expression. Men with low self-esteem had less self-regulation failure than men with high self-esteem when they express their emotions under ego-threat manipulation. However, self-esteem and emotion expression were not related to self-regulation failure. The implication of findings as well as the contribution of the study to the current work in ego threat and self-regulation were discussed.

Keywords: self-regulation, self-esteem, emotional expression, ego-threat



ÖZ

EGO TEHDİDİ ALTINDA DUYGULARIN DIŞAVURUMUNUN KIRILGAN VE GÜVENLİ BENLİK SAYGISI ARASINDAKİ İLİŞKİDE DÜZENLEYİCİ ROLÜ

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Düşük benlik saygısı genellikle olumsuz sonuçların nedeni olarak görülmektedir, ancak son çalışmalar yüksek benlik saygısının belirli koşullar altında benlik düzenleme başarısızlığı da dâhil olmak üzere birçok olumsuz sonuca yol açabileceğini gösterdi. Özellikle kırılğan yüksek benlik saygısına sahip olanlar (güvenli yüksek benlik saygısına kıyasla), ego tehdidi yaşarlarsa benlik düzenlemesinde başarısızlık gösterme eğilimindedirler. Bununla birlikte, ego tehdidi yaşayan bireylere duygularını ifade etme fırsatı verildiğinde, benlik düzenleme kapasitesinin değişip değişmeyeceği henüz keşfedilmemiştir. Dahası, benlik saygısı kırılğan ya da güvenli olanlarda duygu ifadesinin etkilerinin nasıl farklılaşacağı bilinmemektedir. Bu tez, genel benlik saygısı yüksek ve düşük olan bireylerin (güvenli ve kırılğan benlik saygısı düzeyinde) benlik düzenleme başarılarını duygu ifadesinin düzenleyici rolü bağlamında ego tehdidi manipölasyonu altında incelemeyi amaçlamaktadır. Yöntem detaylı bir şekilde sunulmuştur. Sonuçlar, benlik saygısı ve duygu ifadesinin benlik düzenleme ile ilişkili olmadığını gösterdi. Bununla birlikte, duygularını ifade eden bireylerde benlik saygısı sabitliği, benlik düzenleme başarısızlığı ile ilişkilendirilmezken, duygularını ifade etmeyenler için

benlik saygısı sabitliđi benlik d zenleme bařarıszlıđını yordamaktadır. A ıklayıcı analizler, benlik saygısı ile duygusal ifade arasındaki iliřkide cinsiyet farklılıklarının kritik bir fakt r olduđunu ortaya koymuřtur. Benlik saygısı d ř k olan erkekler, duygularını ego tehdidi manip lasyonu altında ifade ettiklerinde, y ksek benlik saygısı olan erkeklerden daha az benlik d zenleme bařarıszlıđına sahipti. Ancak benlik saygısı ve duygu ifadesi benlik d zenleme bařarıszlıđı ile iliřkili deđildi. Bulguların anlamı ve  alıřmanın ego tehdidi ve benlik d zenleme konusundaki mevcut literat re katkısı tartıřıldı.

Anahtar Kelimeler: benlik d zenlemesi, benlik saygısı, duyguların dıřavurumu, ego tehdidi

To all procrastinators



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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

RSS	The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale
CSWS	The Contingencies of Self-Worth Scale
RSSS	The Rosenberg's Self-Esteem Stability Scale
SR	Self-Regulation



CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Why do we set high goals to reach for ourselves? Is it best to know when we will give up, or do we have to continue in every condition? All of these and similar questions leap to our minds from time to time. To find an answer to these questions, firstly, we have to know why sometimes we set much higher, unrealistic standards or much lower standards than we can do. In this study, this question will be examined in terms of self-esteem types. Recent studies suggest that individuals with high self-esteem know their abilities better than those with low self-esteem (e.g., Vazire & Carlson, 2010). Second, we need to know if our standards change based on given feedback. What happens when we face negative feedback or the feedback threatens our self? The second aim of the study is to find the effect of ego-threat on self-regulation. Lastly, does our mood reduce the impact of ego threat? Does it facilitate the self-regulation process or not? Past work has shown that positive emotions have an effect on successful self-regulation (e.g., Fishbach & Labroo, 2007; Wagner & Heatherton, 2014). However, it has been left unexamined if letting individual express their emotions (vs. having no opportunity given to express emotion) has an effect on self-regulation. Moreover, it is unknown if the effect of emotional expression differs among those with high vs. low self-esteem, stable vs. unstable self-esteem, fragile vs. secure self-esteem. The present study aims to address these questions.

There exist many definitions of self-regulation. However, in simple terms, it refers to as an ability or a capacity to achieve goals. More specifically, (1) it contains the steps of setting a goal according to one's abilities/capacities, (2) monitoring his/her behaviors and adjusting them to reach these goals, and lastly, (3) maintaining these behaviors until the goal is reached (Ozhiganova, 2018). During these three processes, self-regulation ability is affected by various factors such as the level of self-esteem, absence or presence of the previous task, complexity of prior tasks, mood, and whether or not the person experiences ego-threat. In this context, self-esteem is the chief factor affecting self-regulation. While the relationship between self-regulation and self-esteem is extensively investigated in the past studies, the effect of implicit and explicit self-esteem has been rarely addressed. Although recent studies suggested that individuals with high self-esteem are more successful in self-regulation than those with low self-esteem (Baumeister, Heatherton, & Dice, 1993), the type of self-esteem seems to make a difference. The conflict between explicit and implicit self-esteem has been shown to have an effect on self-regulation, and this relationship is also affected by various factors such as ego-threat (e.g. Baumeister, Heatherton, & Tice, 1993; Lambird & Mann, 2006). The positive correlation between high self-esteem and successful self-regulation changes when the individuals are exposed to ego-threat. Ego-threat reduces the success of self-regulation especially among those with high self-esteem. However, the effect of ego threat can change based on various types of self-esteem, such as fragile vs secure self-esteem (Lambird & Mann, 2006). For instance, after being exposed to an ego-threat condition, individuals with fragile high self-esteem exhibit more failure on self-regulation than individuals with secure high self-esteem (Lambird & Mann, 2006). To examine the effect of ego-threat, however, it is important to understand the effect of emotion expression. As it has been

demonstrated, ego-threat increases negative mood and in connection with this, negative emotions reduce the self-regulation ability (Wagner & Heatherton, 2014). Because it is thought that expression of negative emotions can reduce the effect of ego-threat by reducing negative emotions (Cameron & Overall, 2018; Takagi & Ohira, 2004), it can be expected that emotional expression may moderate the effect of ego-threat on self-regulation.

In sum, main objective of this thesis is to investigate the effect of emotional expression on self-regulation after ego-threat manipulation in the context of different types of self-esteem, namely, high vs. low global explicit self-esteem, stable vs. unstable self-esteem, and contingent vs. uncontingent self-esteem. In the following sections, first, a review of the theoretical framework will be presented, and then the main constructs of the study, namely self-regulation, the types of self-esteem, ego-threat, and emotional expression will be elaborated. Finally, the hypotheses of the current study will be presented.

1.1. Self-Regulation

Self-regulation has been studied in almost all areas of psychology from developmental, clinical, organizational, personality to social psychology mainly using emotional or motivational perspective (Baumeister, 1993; Ferrari, Stevens, Legler & Jason, 2012; Wagner, Hoppmann, Ram, & Gerstorf, 2015). Therefore, self-regulation has various definitions. One of these definitions illustrates that self-regulation is an adaptive process that leads to adjustment of the behaviors according to social and situational

demands (Baumeister & Vohs, 2007). However, goal-directed behaviors, called self-regulation, are frequently confused with self-control. The differences between self-control and self-regulation are also essential. Whereas self-control mostly contains repressed unwanted behaviors, self-regulation includes more processes and components. These components can be summarized as determining standards of thoughts, feelings, or actions and monitoring them, trying to reach these standards or changing the standards for reducing differences between actual state and standards, and lastly having sufficient capacity for dealing with obstacles (Hofmann, Schmeichel, & Baddeley, 2012).

When the self-regulation components are considered, standards, monitoring the self, willpower, and motivation are required for self-regulation (Baumeister & Vohs, 2007). In many theories, determining the standards and monitoring the behaviors or self are common. Because willpower represents the required source to adjust behavior, it can be considered as another common component of self-regulation.

Summarized components of self-regulation have an impact on determining success or failure of self-regulation. The factors that affect self-regulation will be introduced in the following section.

1.1.1. Predictors of Self-Regulation

Several steps indicate self-regulation success. For a successful self-regulation, firstly, individuals monitor and mentally represent their thought, feeling, or behavior standards. Secondly, they strive to reduce discrepancies between actual situations and their standards. Lastly, sufficient capacity is required to achieve these standards (Hofmann, Schmeichel, & Baddeley, 2012). Various factors determine the success or failure of self-regulation, such as self-esteem, uncertainty and existence of alternative tasks, mood, ego-threat and ego-depletion.

The first factor that affects self-regulation is self-esteem. Studies showed that whereas high self-esteem is an indicator of self-regulation success, low self-esteem is associated with self-regulation failure (Baumeister, Heatherton, & Dice, 1993; Lambird & Mann, 2006). In a different context, a recent study that examined internet use as a self-regulation indicator revealed that individuals with high self-esteem showed less problematic internet and also, high self-control was found to be associated with less problematic internet use (Mei, Yau, Chai, Guo, & Potenza, 2016). Therefore, it can be concluded that self-esteem has a critical effect on self-regulation. Further, academic procrastination, which can be considered a part of self-regulation standards, exhibits negative relationships with low self-esteem (Zhang et al., 2018).

Secondly, uncertainty and existence of alternative goals present various effects on self-regulation. If the alternative goal is salient, self-regulation success is affected by uncertainty or certainty. Uncertainty causes poor self-regulation, and individuals choose alternative goals even if these are contradictory to their goals. In contrast, certainty improves self-regulation performance (Light, Rios, & DeMarre, 2018). Further, the impact of self-uncertainty on self-regulation in tasks is related to self-esteem types. Briefly, if the participants expect that the result of the task will predict their qualities which are important sources for high self-esteem (academic success and relationship quality), their self-regulation performance was higher in the self-uncertainty condition. In contrast, if they expect that the result of the task will not predict their qualities which are related to sources for self-esteem, their self-regulation performance was weak in the self-uncertainty condition (Yang et al. 2019). To understand the effect of self-uncertainty, self-esteem should be considered. In this context, the relationship between self-uncertainty and self-regulation can change because low self-esteem is associated with an uncertain self-concept, and they experience difficulties in finding alternative resources (Baumeister, 1993). In the current study, emotion expression can be seen as an alternative target by the participants in the control group. For this reason, it is important to understand the effect of alternative goals on the self-regulation in order to interpret its effect.

Thirdly, emotions are considered to be an essential factor that affects self-regulation success. Past studies suggest that negative emotions have a powerful impact on self-regulation failure (Wagner & Heatherton, 2014). Besides, the relationship between self-regulation and positive affect is also examined and it is found that positive affect

positively predicted self-regulation (Diehl, Semegon, & Schwarzer, 2006). If the negative affect is reduced or replaced with a positive mood, self-regulation have been shown to improve (Tice, Baumeister, Shmueli, & Muraven, 2007). Moreover, when the participants think their resources are limited, induction of positive emotions counteracts the impact of limited resources, thus self-regulation improves (Tice, Baumeister, Shmueli, & Muraven, 2007). However, impractical efforts to achieve the appropriate mood, such as giving more priority to affect regulation, harm the self-regulation process (Baumeister & Heatherton, 1996).

Furthermore, ego-threat plays a critical role on self-regulation in individuals with high self-esteem or fragile self-esteem. Ego-threat impairs the relationship between high self-esteem and self-regulation (Baumeister, Heatherton, & Tice, 1993). The researchers (Lambird & Mann, 2006) found that when individuals with high self-esteem face an ego-threat, their self-regulation success was weak in comparison with individuals who don't face an ego threat. The same pattern was also observed in individuals with defensive high self-esteem. High self-presentation bias and implicit self-esteem were used as indicators of defensive high self-esteem, and the relationship between high defensive self-esteem and self-regulation was weak under the manipulation of ego-threat (Lambird & Mann, 2006).

Ego depletion is one of the most controversial topics about the self-regulation process. Some researchers support that ego is a limited resource, and that it can be depleted after effortful tasks (Baumeister & Vohs, 2007; Vohs & Heatherton, 2000). Besides, a study exhibits that people fail in the second task, after the task causes ego-depletion, but they improve their performance on the third task. In other words, ego-depletion is not the only reason for the failure of the self-regulation process, but also their concern about whether their resources will be sufficient for the future tasks is another important factor (Muraven, Shmueli, & Burkley, 2006). On the other hand, positive emotions diminish the effect of ego-depletion (Tice, Baumeister, Shmueli, & Muraven, 2007), supporting the role of positive emotions in self-regulation. Contrary to what was put forward by the researchers who suggest that ego is a limited resource, a study suggests that ego-depletion is affected when people think that their ego is a limited resource. Briefly, if they think willpower is a limited resource or the researchers want them to think that, they show the ego-depletion effect (Job, Dweck, & Walton, 2010).

Lastly, some demographic characteristics such as age and gender, and many motivational factors such as misregulation, attention control, and transcendence have a critical role in the self-regulation process. Studies showed that women are slightly better than men in terms of self-control (Mei et al., 2016; Baumeister & Vohs, 2012). In the literature, age presents conflicting findings on self-control. While older people seem to be better at self-control than younger people, the relation between self-control and positive outcomes is better for younger people (Baumeister & Vohs, 2012). On the other hand, older age has been found to be related to low self-esteem (Wagner, Hoppmann, Ram, & Gerstorf, 2015). The relation between low self-esteem and self-

regulation may raise questions about the mediator role of low self-esteem in the relationship between older age and self-regulation.

1.2. Self-Esteem

Self-esteem refers to the person's feelings, evaluations, attributed worth about themselves (Brown, 1998). Firstly, low self-esteem refers to negative feelings about the person's own self, such as hate, dissatisfaction, etc., whereas high self-esteem refers to positive emotions about themselves, such as love, satisfaction, etc. Secondly, self-evaluations include their thoughts about their abilities. For example, a person can think that their abilities in social skills are good, but bad on academic topics. In this case, their social self-esteem is high, but their academic self-esteem is low. Lastly, feelings of self-worth are affected by their experiences. For example, high self-esteem is associated with success, promotions, gains, but low self-esteem is associated with failure, demotions, or losses (e.g. Brown, 1998; Baumeister, Campbell, Krueger, & Vohs, 2003; Kuster, Orth & Meier, 2013)

In many cultures, whereas high self-esteem is seen as favorable and desirable, low self-esteem is seen as unfavorable and undesirable. For instance, some studies emphasized negative consequences of low self-esteem, such as problematic internet use (Mei et al., 2016), socializing problems, and eating disorders (Raykos, McEvoy & Fursland, 2016). Also, low self-esteem is found to be related to friendship jealousy as a part of poor emotional regulation (Kim, Parker, & Walker Marciano, 2017). In addition, the positive consequences of high self-esteem were found to be linked with

job satisfaction and job success (Kuster, Orth & Meier, 2013). Moreover, high self-esteem is better than low self-esteem in terms of successful self-regulation due to people with high self-esteem being able to decide whenever they will quit the task (Baumeister, Campbell, Krueger, & Vohs, 2003). Similarly, while high grandiose narcissism with high self-esteem is related to better emotional regulation, high vulnerable narcissism with low self-esteem is relevant to poor emotional regulation (Zhang, Luo, Zhao, Zhang, & Wang, 2017).

Recent studies have focus more on potentially negative consequences of high self-esteem, especially fragile high self-esteem, rather positive effect of explicit high self-esteem. For instance, high self-esteem was found to be related to happiness, but to examine this relationship, there is a need for more studies. Besides, the relationship between high self-esteem, job performance, and school success are not reliable. For this reason, longitudinal studies are recommended (Baumeister, Campbell, Krueger, & Vohs, 2003). Furthermore, aggression is found to be related to both high and low self-esteem in children. Notably, the feeling of being threatened or disrupted by others triggers aggression in the context of high self-esteem (Diamantopoulou, Rydell & Henricsson, 2008). As opposed to traditional explanations, aggression and violence are related to threatened high self-esteem (Baumeister, Smart, & Boden, 1996).

To sum up, the effects of high and low self-esteem lead to different results. The definitions of fragile and secure self-esteem gain more importance when it comes to reaching a conclusion about these contradictory results.

1.2.1. Fragile and Secure Self-Esteem

The effects of high self-esteem and low self-esteem have presented contradictory findings. These findings lead us to think about different types of self-esteem. Cognitive-experiential self-theory suggests that information processing includes two parallel models (Epstein, 1994). Supported by the dual-model process, two different self-esteem forms are defined. While explicit self-esteem refers to deliberate and conscious self-evaluations, implicit self-esteem is described as unintended and unconscious self-evaluations (Jordan, Whitfield, & Zeigler-Hill, 2007). More importantly, implicit self-esteem affects the relationship between explicit self-esteem and academic competence, family support, and virtue. In other words, while explicit self-esteem is positively correlated with academic competence when implicit self-esteem is high, this relationship changes when there is an incoherence between implicit and explicit self-esteem (Maroiu, Maricutoiu, & Sava, 2016).

The differentiation between explicit and implicit self-esteem sheds light on uncertain findings on high and low self-esteem and introduces new concepts like fragile and secure self-esteem. Past studies presented that fragile self-esteem is related to defensive, contingent, unstable self-esteem, and the inconsistency between explicit and implicit self-esteem. On the contrary, secure self-esteem is about genuine, accurate, non-contingent, stable self-esteem, and the coherence between implicit and explicit self-esteem (Kernis, 2003). For instance, fragile and secure self-esteem may have different effects on the relationship between alcohol use and aggression (Zeigler-

Hill, Dahlen, & Madson, 2017). When the problems of alcohol use and aggression are thought as a regulation problem, it is possible to expect a difference between effect of secure and fragile self-esteem on self-regulation.

In addition, the effects of high self-esteem under the manipulation of ego-threat can be examined in terms of fragile or secure high self-esteem. In terms of negative reactions to ego threat, individuals with fragile self-esteem respond more negatively than those with secure self-esteem (Borton, Oakes & Lengieza, 2017). Moreover, while individuals with fragile high self-esteem display more verbal defensiveness, those with secure self-esteem and low self-esteem display less verbal defensiveness (Kernis, Lakey & Heppner, 2008). These differences also reveal that high and low self-esteem categories aren't enough to understand the effect of self-esteem on self-regulation under ego-threat. For instance, while high self-esteem under ego-threat does not lead to poor self-regulation, high defensive self-esteem (as a part of fragile self-esteem) leads to poor self-regulation under the manipulation of ego-threat (Lambird & Mann, 2006). Thus, individuals with fragile and secure self-esteem present different performances on self-regulation when they face ego-threats. As mentioned in previous studies, this study expects that fragile self-esteem will be associated with self-regulation failure under the ego-threat manipulation. In this context, the effects of ego-threat will be examined in the following section.

1.3. Ego-Threat

The concept of ego-threat has various definitions due to multiple different descriptions of ego. There are numerous descriptions of ego in dictionaries such as a conscious, thinking and feeling object, an exaggerated self-esteem, an inflated self-worth, an entire self, or a person's self-image or self-esteem. Hence, the operational definition of ego-threat should be clear (Leary, Terry, Allen, & Tate, 2009). In light of these definitions, the meaning of ego-threat varies from researcher to researcher. To understand the effects of ego-threat, the results should be considered based on the operational definition. In the literature, self-regulation studies create ego-threat by using the methods of choking under pressure (Baumeister, Heatherton, & Tice, 1993), giving false feedback (Baumeister, Heatherton, & Tice, 1993; Lambird & Mann, 2006). Apart from self-regulation studies, social exclusion (Burson, Crocker, & Mischkowski, 2012), self-esteem threat (van Dellen, Campbell, Hoyle, & Bradfield, 2011), public threat (Goldschmied & Vira, 2019), or emotional distress (Hart, Richardson, & Tortoriello, 2018) are other methods to create ego-threat.

Past work has shown that ego-threat may lead to aggression (Bond, Ruaro, & Wingrove, 2006), poor self-regulation, or more mistakes on the tasks. When participants face social exclusion as a type of ego-threat, individuals with fragile self-esteem react more negatively than those with secure self-esteem (Borton, Oakes, & Lengieza, 2017). On the other hand, the reactions of narcissistic people (ones with extremely high self-esteem) are related to less aggressive but more assertive reactions to ego-threat (Hart, Richardson, & Tortoriello, 2018). Similarly, people with high narcissistic qualities and low self-clarity reacted with more aggressive emotions after

an ego-threat manipulation than those with low narcissistic qualities and high self-clarity (Stucke & Sporer, 2002). People who have opposing degrees of narcissism and self-clarity can be considered to have fragile self-esteem. The responses that are given to ego-threat affect the performance. For example, a non-clinical narcissistic sample revealed that after ego-threat manipulation, their willingness to perform the task was greater (Nevicka, Baas, & Velden, 2015). In this relationship, less aggressive but more assertive reactions can affect the willingness to perform. Moreover, if individuals process negative feedback more rationally, instead of the experiential process, their negative mood is decreased, but their self-control fails (Schmeichel, Caskey, & Hicks, 2015).

The effects of ego-threat may change according to the environment. For instance, in a study, players exhibited poor performance after the ego-threat manipulation in unfamiliar areas compared to those in the familiar areas (Goldschmied & Vira, 2018). The literature supported that self-awareness is related to self-esteem and people with lower self-awareness determine unrealistic standards against themselves (Cheng, Govorun, & Chartrand, 2012). Thus, self-awareness can be considered as a factor that affects successful self-regulation. For example, in the familiar area, it is possible that players are aware of their opportunities. For this reason, ego-threat can present negative effects in the unfamiliar territory. Also, self-defeating behavior that occurs when faced with an ego-threat causes poor self-regulation performance (Baumeister, 1997).

High self-esteem leads to successful self-regulation; however, ego-threat impacts this relationship negatively. In the real-life experimental design, soldiers with high self-esteem who received negative feedback from their leaders as a form of ego-threat performed poor self-regulation compared to those with low self-esteem (Smith, Norrell, & Saint, 1996). Similarly, high self-esteem has been found to be related to poor self-regulation when ego-threat is created with false feedback (Baumeister, Heatherton, & Tice, 1993). Furthermore, another study that gave negative feedback on an unrelated task showed that self-esteem is not the only factor needed to understand the role of ego-threat, but also secure and fragile self-esteem types are other required factors. In that study, fragile self-esteem was found to be related to poor self-regulation under ego-threat manipulation (Lambird & Mann, 2006).

In this thesis, ego-threat is considered as a critical factor impairing successful self-regulation especially in the context of fragile (vs. secure) self-esteem.

1.3.1. The Role of Emotion Expression on Ego-Threat

Does ego-threat affect self-regulation, in every condition? Past findings support that individuals engage with various regulatory methods such as compensating, resisting, and breaking (vanDellen, Campbell, Hoyle, & Bradfield, 2011). As supported in this study, compensating includes external attributions for failure, increased aggression, and positive self-evaluations. In contrast, breaking involves internal attributions for failure, decreased aggression, and negative self-evaluations. On the other hand, resisting includes neutral self-evaluations, no change in aggression, and equal external

and internal attributions. According to findings, while low self-esteem mostly engages with breaking strategies after ego-threat, high self-esteem tries to minimize the effect of ego-threat.

Recent studies have demonstrated that value affirmation can also help for coping with ego-threat (Burson, Crocker, & Mischkowski, 2012). Affirming self-transcendent values such as honesty, integrity, and forgiveness, are more capable of dealing with ego-threat than affirming self-enhancement values such as maintaining one's status.

For fragile self-esteem, other useful methods for overcoming ego-threat are described as suppressing negative thoughts, punishing oneself for having intrusive thoughts, and reducing the importance and validity of the task (Borton, Crimmins, Ashby, & Ruddiman, 2012). However, because of the adverse effect of suppression, expression was considered to be better. Moreover, expression of thoughts and emotions can be a useful method for reducing the importance and validity of the task for self-esteem. For example, the questions that were asked to the participants about difficulty or reliability of the task ensured the expression opportunity in terms of coping with negative effects of ego-threat. For this reason, this study mainly aims to examine if emotional expression serves as coping mechanism with ego-threat.

Emotional expression is defined as reflecting emotional experience or communicative experience with verbal or non-verbal observable behaviors (Kennedy-Moore, &

Watson, 2001). Emotions can facilitate or reduce self-regulation failure (Forgas, Baumeister & Tice, 2009). Contradictory effects on this issue stem from differences between positive and negative moods.

Success and failure on self-regulation vary from positive mood to negative mood (Wagner & Heatherton, 2014). While positive mood is seen as related to self-regulation success, negative mood is considered as related to self-regulation failure. For instance, the performance of happy people on self-control was better than unhappy people, especially in the absence of an alternative goal (Fishbach & Labroo, 2007). On the other hand, bad moods increase self-defeating behaviors and risk-taking, and thus, self-regulation is impaired (Leith & Baumeister, 1996).

In addition to the effects of emotions on self-regulation, emotional expression presents direct and indirect impacts on this issue. When indirect effects are considered, emotional expression difficulties affect sexual risk behavior in couples (Rizor, Callands, Desrosiers, & Kershaw, 2017). On the other hand, gender differences in self-regulation are explained by emotional expression differences between boys and girls (Veijalainen, Reunamo, & Heikkilä, 2019). According to this study, there is a relationship between their self-regulation and their emotional expressions in early childhood. However, the literature does not present a cause-effect relation on this issue. For this reason, understanding the effect of emotional expression on the ego-threat is essential.

As mentioned before, ego threat increases the ego-depletion (Schmeichel, Caskey, & Hicks, 2015) and thus, exhibits an effect on self-regulation failure via ego-depletion. However, a positive mood also reduces ego-depletion and improves self-regulation (Tice, Baumeister, Shmueli, & Muraven, 2007). As shown in previous work, ego-threat manipulation increases negative mood (Stucke & Sporer, 2002). For reducing the negative mood, several methods are suggested in the literature, such as emotional expression and shifting attention via drawing (Smolarski, Leone, & Robbins, 2015). While expression of happiness has more impact on reducing negative mood, expression of current feelings has less impact than expression of happiness.

In the light of these findings, positive mood, and positive emotion expression improve self-regulation. However, to examine the expression of feelings after ego-threat manipulation can contribute to better understanding the role of ego-threat in self-regulation. Thus, the objective of this study is to investigate if expressing emotions serves to mitigate the negative effects of ego-threat, especially for people with different level of global, secure, or fragile self-esteem.

1.4. Current Study

As presented above that self-esteem is related to self-regulation. However, this relationship is strongly moderated by the type of self-esteem (fragile vs. secure, high vs. low), emotional expression, and ego threat. Firstly, as reviewed above, high and low self-esteem are the critical indicator for self-regulation success. In this context, the effect of low and high self-esteem examined in terms of self-regulation.

Nevertheless, the success of self-regulation may be affected by secure and fragile types of self-esteem. For this reason, the effect of secure and fragile types of self-esteem has also been investigated in terms of self-regulation. In this study, following Kernis' (2003) arguments secure self-esteem will refer to stable and/or non-contingent self-esteem, whereas fragile self-esteem will refer to unstable and/or contingent self-esteem. Past studies have mainly showed that fragile high self-esteem is related to self-regulation failure after ego-threat manipulation and this relation occurs due to the increasing level of negative emotions. However, fragile and secure low self-esteem and emotional expression need to be examined. The current study aims to examine the effect of self-esteem on self-regulation based on secure and fragile self-esteem in the presence of ego-threat and to understand the moderator role of emotional expression. For this reason, the main purpose of this study is to investigate the moderator role of emotion expression on the relationship between secure and fragile self-esteem and self-regulation under ego-threat manipulation.

Based on the reviewed studies above and conceptual arguments, following hypotheses are formed under the ego-threat condition.

Hypothesis 1. Higher levels of self-esteem would be negatively related to self-regulation failure than lower levels of self-esteem.

Hypothesis 2. Higher levels of secure self-esteem would negatively predict self-regulation failure than fragile self-esteem.

Hypothesis 3. Those with fragile self-esteem would show less self-regulation failure if they receive an opportunity to express their emotions as compared to those who do not have an opportunity for emotion expression.



CHAPTER 2

METHOD

2.1. Participants

The data was collected via the METU SONA system and social media. Participants were chosen from university students, and they participated voluntarily. Participants were limited as university students because, as mentioned in the literature, younger people have relatively worse self-control ability than older people (Baumeister & Vohs, 2012). The current study was conducted with 515 participants. Participants' mean age was 21.9. Of participants, 12 did not indicate their gender and so their genders were assigned randomly. In the total, gender was not equal in the sample due to the participation of 149 (28.9%) males and 366 (71.1%) females. Descriptive statistics showed that 31 participants had coded themselves as high-school student. However, it is thought that they chose their last graduation level since they also indicated the university they were study at. Thus, they counted as undergraduate student. Education status of participants was two years higher education degree (n = 20, 4%) undergraduate (n = 446, 88.1%), Master's Degree (n = 29, 5.7%) and PhD (n = 11, 2.2%). Demographic characteristics of sample were summarized in the Table 2.1.

Table 2.1. Descriptive Characteristics of Sample

	N	Percentage	Mean	Range
Age			21.9	18-50
Gender				
Female	366	71.1%		
Male	149	28.9%		
Education				
Higher Education (2 years) Programs	20	4%		
Undergraduate Programs	446	88.1%		
Master's Programs	29	5.7%		
PhD Programs	11	2.2%		
Income				
Low Income	61	12.1%		
Lower-middle Income	114	22.6%		
Middle Income	248	49.2%		
Upper-middle Income	77	15.3%		
High Income	4	0.8%		

Note. In the total, analysis conducted with 515 participants.

2.2. Materials

2.2.1 Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale

Rosenberg Self Esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1965) was used to determine participants' global (explicit) self-esteem levels. The scale contains 10-items that measure global self-worth with positive and negative feelings about the self. Five items refer to negative feelings (e.g., At times I think I am no good at all.) about self, and five items refer to positive feelings (e.g., On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.) about self. Each item was estimated with 4-point Likert format (1 = very wrong, 2 = wrong, 3 = true, 4 = very true). Negative items were reversed and higher scores demonstrate high self-esteem. This scale is adapted to Turkish by Çuhadaroglu (1986). The reliability score was determined as .89 in this study.

2.2.2. The Contingencies of Self-Worth Scale

This scale, which was developed by Crocker, Luhtanen, Cooper, and Bouvrette (2003), is used to determine whether participants' self-esteem depends on any condition or not, that refers to fragile (conditional) self-esteem. Thus, conditional self-esteem was evaluated as a part of fragile self-esteem. CSWS includes 7 subscales (academic competence, family support, others' approval, competition, appearance, God's love, and virtue) and 35 items. In the current study, 3 subscales (others' approval, academic competence, and appearance) and corresponding 14 items used. Others' approval subscale (4 items) measures whether self-esteem is structured depending on the desire to get approval from others (e.g., "I do not care if other people have a negative opinion about me.", "I cannot respect myself if others do not respect me."). Academic competence subscale (5 items) measures whether self-esteem is constructed depending on the importance of academic competence

(e.g., “My opinion about myself is not tied to how well I do in school.”, “Doing well in school gives me a sense of self-respect.”). Lastly, appearance subscale (4 items) measures whether self-esteem is formed based on variables related to physical appearance (e.g., “When I think I look attractive, I feel good about myself.”, “My self-esteem is unrelated to how I feel about the way my body looks.”). Each item was estimated with a 7-point Likert format (ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree). Higher scores demonstrate higher contingent (fragile) self-esteem.

This scale was translated and adapted to Turkish by Çetin, Akın, and Eroğlu (2011). Cronbach’s alphas were .88 for appearance, .82 for others’ approval, and .86 for academic competence in the original study. In the current study, Cronbach’s alphas were .76 for appearance, .74 for others’ approval, and .74 for academic competence. Overall reliability was .84.

2.2.3. Rosenberg’s Self-Esteem Stability Scale (RSSS)

This scale (Rosenberg, 1989) was used to determine the degree of self-esteem fluctuations. Thus, unstable self-esteem was evaluated as a part of fragile self-esteem. The RSSS includes 5 items as 3 statements (e.g., I feel that nothing or almost nothing can change the opinion I currently hold of myself.) and 2 direct questions (e.g. Does your opinion of yourself tend to change a good deal or does it always continue to remain the same?) about the fluctuation of self-esteem. Three of them were evaluated with a 4-point Likert format (ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 4 = strongly agree). Two items were evaluated with 4 options (a-changes a great deal, b-changes somewhat, c-changes very little, d-does not change at all) indicating frequency according to the question. Higher scores demonstrate higher stability

(secure) in self-esteem. The scale was translated and adapted to Turkish by Göncü and Sümer (2011). The reliability score was determined as .80 in this study.

2.2.4. Mental Rotation Test to Induce Ego-Threat

A mental rotation task was used to create ego-threat for all participants. For this reason, five objects were presented to participants and were asked to estimate the rotation of each shape in different directions. In four of the five questions, the figure was asked which form was rotated, and one question was asked which form was different from the first figure. After participants were asked to answer these questions as quickly as possible, they were given a score that was reported to be calculated according to their performance in this task, but the score was randomly assigned. The participants were told that the average of the other people who participated in this task was 52.6 out of 100. At the end of the task, all the scores given to the participants were below the average (ranging from 47 to 49).

In the literature, giving negative feedback about participants' performance, creativity or their success is a common method used to create an ego-threat (e.g., Baumeister, Heatherton, & Tice, 1993; Lambird & Mann, 2006; Smith, Norrel, & Saint, 1996). In order to check ego-threat manipulation, the participants were asked how they felt about the score of mental rotation task at the end of experiment. The manipulation check question was given at the end of the experiment because if given after the ego-threat it could create an emotion-expressive effect.

2.2.5. Manipulation of Emotional Expression

For testing the effect of emotional expression on self-regulation, after ego-threat condition, the experimental group was expected to express their opinion and emotions. For ensuring the emotional expressions of participants, the experimental group was answered a series of questions. The participants who were randomly assigned to the experimental group were asked questions about their opinions of difficulty of the task, understandability of the instruction. They also rated the intensity of their current feelings (ranging from 1 = not very intense to 5 = very intense), match rate of the expected score and obtained a score from mental rotation test and what is the reason of differences between the expected score and the obtained score. The literature on the responses to ego-threat (Baumeister, 1996, p: 30-36) showed that people use different strategies called avoidance strategies and interpretive strategies to protect their self-esteem. Whereas avoidance strategies include shifting attention from threatening stimulus to peripheral stimulus or recall happy memories, interpretive strategies include creating counterargument, thinking that test was flawed, and results were inconclusive and arguing. For ensuring these strategies to the experimental group, we tried to form questions that cover these strategies. The participants were randomly assigned to the control group, unlike the experimental group, answered 5 different general culture questions. These questions that are unrelated to emotion expression were selected from the questions that would be relatively easy for everyone (e.g., Where is the capital of Turkey?).

2.2.6. Measurement of Self-Regulation

In the literature (Baumeister, Heatherton, & Tice, 1993; Lambird & Mann, 2006), self-regulation scores determined via video games. In these studies, participants were

asked to determine an expected score from a computer game in the lab, and the difference between expected scores and actual scores used as a self-regulation score. In the current study, for measuring self-regulation, a series of tasks that are quite similar to the Stroop task (Stroop, 1935) designed. Through this task, similar to computer games, it would be possible to see the score that participants expected to receive and their actual scores on the computer.

Before the actual task, to ensure learning the task, trial tasks were presented and explained what they will do. After the trial part, participants were asked to indicate how many correct answers in 20 questions on the actual task. Each task contained 5 different names of colors that are written congruent ink with the name of the color or incongruent with the name of the color (e.g., “red” is written with red ink in the congruent example or written with blue ink in the incongruent example). In each task, participants were asked to calculate how many names are congruent with the ink of written color and how many names are incongruent with the ink of written color. If the number of congruent ones was higher than incongruent ones, they were asked to select the option “Z” within 4 seconds on the screen. Also, if the number of congruent ones was lower than incongruent ones, they were asked to select the option “X” within 4 seconds on the screen. Time limit was determined as 4 seconds in order to reduce ceiling effect.

For creating a self-regulation score, the absolute value of the difference between the number of actual correct answers and the number of determined correct answers by participants calculated. Lower scores refer to low self-regulation failure or high self-regulation ability, and vice versa. In the current study, this method adapted from past

studies (Baumeister, Heatherton, & Tice, 1993; Lambird & Mann, 2006; Smith, Norrel, & Saint, 1996).

2.3. Procedure

Before the data collection process, the ethical committee approval was taken from METU UEAM (Human Participants Ethics Committee). At the beginning of the study, participants read the informed consent form, and they stated whether they agreed to participate voluntarily or not. In the informed consent form, the aim of the study was presented as the effect of several psychological factors on the relationship between eye-hand coordination and vision perception. The real aim was covered. After the informed consent form, participants were asked whether they were color blind or not. Color-blind participants were excluded from the study. After this step, all participants filled the Rosenberg Self Esteem Scale (RSE), The Contingencies of Self Worth Scale (CSW), and the Rosenberg's Self-Esteem Stability Scale (RSSS).

Then, they solved the mental rotation task. Participants were told that according to their performance, they were given a score from the task. For creating ego threat condition, all participants were given randomly assigned score (ranging from 47 to 49) that was below the general mean that was determined randomly as 52,6. After the ego threat condition, participants were randomly assigned to experimental and control groups. Participants who were in the experimental group answered a series of questions about their emotions and thoughts to ensure express their emotions. Participants who were in the control group answered a series of questions about general knowledge. Thus, they did not express their emotions. After this manipulation, participants attended the Stroop task trial.

Stroop task trial was formed three steps. In the first step, participants have presented an example from an actual task without time-limited. In this part, they were only calculated whether the names of color were congruent with the ink of written color or not. If the number of corresponding ones is more than the number of incongruent, they were asked to press the “Z” option on the screen. If the number of corresponding ones is less than the number of incongruent, they were asked to press the “X” option on the screen. In the second step, participants did the same thing within 4 seconds, and the time table was visible for them. In the last step, the only difference that time table was hidden from participants. After 4 seconds, if the participants did not give any answer to the question, the page automatically skipped the next page or the next task as the same with the original task. Thus, all answers are collected within 4 seconds for each task. To answer above 4 seconds was blocked by the system.

After the Stroop task trial part, participants guessed how many of the 20 questions they could do correctly. Then, participants started the actual task, and after that, they filled demographic information form. At the end of the study, participants were asked their opinion about the study to determine anything are disturbing them or contribute to the study. Also, the real aim of the study was asked to evaluate their awareness. Finally, participants were asked if the score, which was given after the mental rotation task, made them feel bad. If they felt bad, they also rated the degree of their feeling ranging from 0 = not bad to 3 = very bad. If they did not feel bad, they were excluded from the study due to manipulation of ego threat did not work. Lastly, the debriefing form was presented and explained the real aim of the study.

2.4. Data Analytical Plan

For examining if ego-threat manipulation works, ANOVA was used. For testing this effect, participants who did not feel bad about their score were coded as “1,” and participants who felt bad about their score were coded as the range of 2 (feeling a little bad) – 4 (feeling very bad). If there was a significant difference between groups, participants who did not feel bad excluded from the study due to manipulation does not work.

For testing the hypothesis of the study, two different hierarchical regression analyses were used. In the first step, gender were entered into the model, and the next step, self-esteem and self-esteem stability were included in the model as a first-order (main) effects. The last step was contained emotional expression condition as a moderator effect. For adding the emotional expression into the model, dummy coding was used. The presence of emotional expression was coded as 0, and the absence of emotional expression was coded as 1. The same steps applied for self-esteem contingency.

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS

Before the hypothesis testing, the data set was cleaned and checked via IBM SPSS and Jamovi. Firstly, descriptive statistics of the data were examined to make sure of the accuracy of the data entered. For this reason, the mean, standard deviations, and minimum-maximum values of the variables were controlled. Secondly, the missing values were scanned, and it was revealed that 12 participants did not indicate their gender, and their genders were assigned randomly not to lose participants. Finally, participants were eliminated due to incomplete progress (173 participants) and color blindness (11 participants). Thus, the data set was found appropriate for hypothesis testing, and analyses were conducted with 515 participants.

Before the hypotheses testing, in order to understand whether the ego-threat manipulation is working or not, ANOVA conducted between manipulation check question (participants' feeling after ego-threat manipulation) and self-regulation failure score. Analysis revealed that there were no significant differences among variables ($F(3,497) = 1.168, p = .321$). For this reason, participants who did not feel bad about their mental rotation score remained in the data.

In the following steps, self-regulation failure measures were prepared for the analysis. The absolute value of the difference between their predictions and correct

responses were used as self-regulation failure score on the basis of how far they are away from their goals. Thus, higher scores refer to higher self-regulation failure.

3.1. Descriptive Statistics

Mean and standard deviations of main variables were presented at the table 3.1.

Men had higher self-esteem stability ($M = 2.34$, $SD = .61$) than women ($M = 2.22$, $SD = .57$, $F = (1,513) = 3.99$, $p = .046$). Women, however, had higher self-esteem contingency ($M = 4.23$, $SD = .64$) than men ($M = 4.09$, $SD = .69$, $F = (1,513) = 4.40$, $p = .036$). Apart from these, no other gender differences were significant on the main analysis.

This results revealed that females had lower level of self-esteem and self-esteem stability than males. On the contrary, females have higher level of self-esteem contingency and self-regulation failure than males.

Bivariate correlations of main variables, and descriptive statistics for age, gender, self-esteem, stable self-esteem and contingent self-esteem were summarized at the Table 3.2. When the data was split on the basis of emotional expression, still correlations for self-regulation failure were insignificant.

Table 3.2. Descriptive statistics, and correlation between the main variables in the study

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Gender	—					
Age	.027	—				
Self-Esteem	.040	.063	—			
Contingent Self-Esteem	-.092*	-.080	-.367***	—		
Stability	.088*	.123**	.405***	-.369***	—	
Self-Regulation Failure	-.025	.007	-.003	-.038	.025	—
Mean		21.9	2.92	4.19	2.26	4.38
SD		3.67	0.53	0.65	0.58	3.09

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

3.2. Hypotheses Testing

In order to assess the relationship between self-regulation failure, self-esteem, stability of self-esteem, contingency of self-esteem, gender, and emotional expression, two different hierarchical regression analyses were conducted. In this context, emotional expression was examined as moderator. In the first analysis, gender was entered in the first step of regression as a control variable. In the second step, main effects of self-esteem, self-esteem stability, and emotional expression were entered. Then, two-way interaction terms between these main predictors and emotion expression as the moderator variable were entered. Finally, three way interactions between self-esteem, self-esteem stability, and moderator variable were entered in the last step.

The results from the final step were given in Table 3.2. Results revealed that, men and women did not significantly differ on self-regulation failure ($F(1,513) = .324, p = .569$). In addition, main variables ($F(4,510) = .377, p = .825$), and two-way interactions between main variables and moderator variable ($F(9,505) = .577, p = .816$) and three-way interactions among variables ($F(11,503) = .550, p = .869$) did not significantly differ on self-regulation failure with the exception of the interaction between stability and self-esteem was very close to significant effect on self-regulation failure ($\beta = -.094, p = .093$).

The interaction between self-esteem stability and emotional expression on self-regulation failure was significant ($\beta = .13, p = .030$). As shown in Figure 1, for individuals who expressed their emotions, stability of self-esteem was not associated with self-regulation failure ($b = -0.42, SE = 0.37, p = 0.26$), whereas for those who did not express their emotions, self-esteem stability positively predicted individuals' self-regulation failure scores ($b = 0.69, SE = 0.35, p = 0.04$) under ego-threat manipulation.

Interaction between Self-Esteem Stability and Self-Regulation Failure

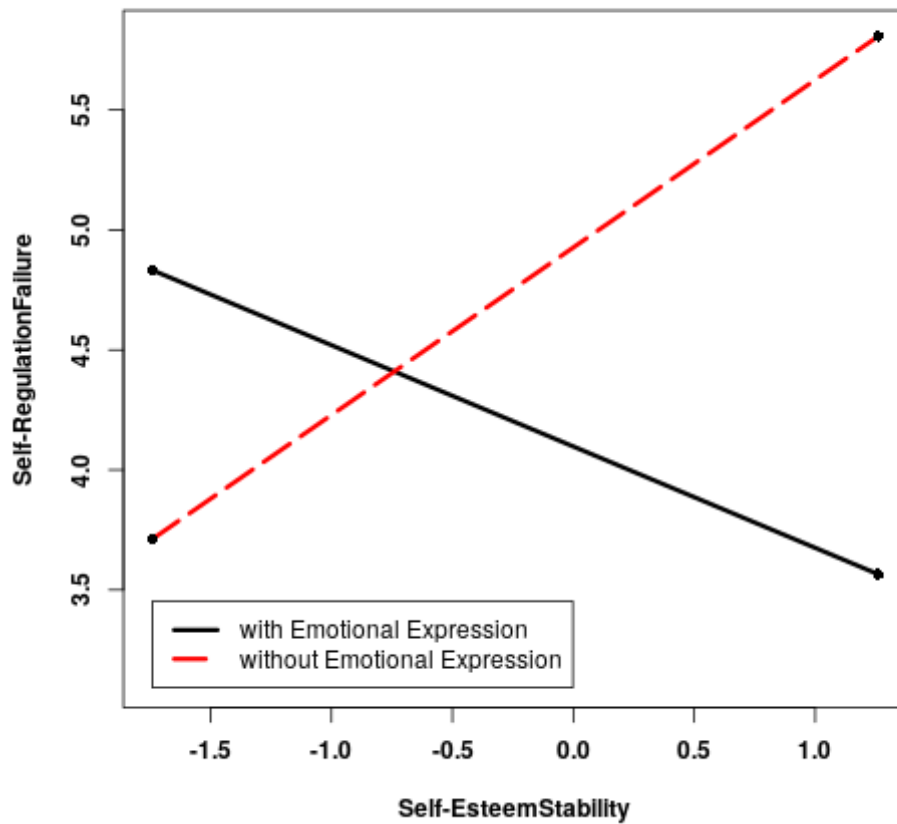


Figure 1. The interaction between self-esteem stability and emotion expression in predicting self-regulation failure

In conclusion, individuals with higher self-esteem stability were associated with higher self-regulation failure when they were not given an opportunity to express their emotions. To better understand the interaction effects, a series of ANOVA with mean split dichotomous variables (predictors) on self-regulation was conducted and the results were given in the exploratory analyses section.

Table 3.2. Hierarchical Regression Analysis in Predicting Self-Regulation: Emotion Expression as Moderator Variable

Variable	Step 4			
	<i>SE(B)</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Gender	.302	-.027	-.617	.537
Emotion Expression (m)	.390	.134	2.138	.033
Self Esteem	.335	-.063	-1.088	.277
Self-Esteem Stability (t)	.257	.026	.537	.591
t X Self Esteem	.425	-.090	-1.663	.097
Self Esteem X m	.685	-.025	-.430	.667
t X m	.518	.137	2.170	.030
t X Self-Esteem X m	.875	.012	.207	.836

Note. m = Emotion Expression; t = Self-Esteem Stability; Self-Esteem, Self-Esteem Stability, and Emotion Expression were centered at their means.

In the second analysis, gender was entered in the first step of regression as a control variable. In the second step, self-esteem, contingent self-esteem, and emotion expression as main variables were entered. Then, two-way interactions between independent variables and moderator variable were entered. Finally, three way interactions between self-esteem, contingent self-esteem, and moderator variable were entered in the last step.

The results were summarized in the Table 3.3. According to results, men and women did not significantly differ on self-regulation failure ($F(1,513) = .324, p = .569$). In addition this, main variables ($F(4,510) = .633, p = .639$), and two-way interactions between main variables and moderator variable ($F(7,507) = .388, p = .909$) and

three-way interactions among variables ($F(8,506) = .396, p = .923$) did not significantly differ on self-regulation failure under ego-threat manipulation.

Table 3.3. Hierarchical Regression Analysis in Predicting Self-Regulation Failure: Emotion Expression as Moderator Variable

Variable	<i>Step 4</i>			
	<i>SE(B)</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Gender	.304	-.030	-.671	.502
Emotion Expression (m)	.304	.065	1.329	.185
Self Esteem Contingency (t)	.225	-.047	-.989	.323
Self Esteem	.284	-.017	-.346	.729
Self Esteem x m	.573	-.012	-.250	.803
t x m	.450	-.020	-.407	.684
t x Self Esteem	.372	-.006	-.126	.900
t x Self Esteem x m	.748	.033	.674	.501

Note. m = Emotion Expression; t = Self-Esteem Contingency. All variables were centered at their means.

3.2.1 Exploratory Analysis

The primary analysis results showed that there is an interaction effect between self-esteem stability and emotion expression. However, gender differences have been ignored in the regression analysis. In order to understand the trend between the effect of gender, self-esteem, self-esteem stability, self-esteem contingency, emotional expression and their interactions on self-regulation, Factorial ANOVA was conducted. For conducting ANOVA, continuous independent variables were transformed into categorical variables via median-split. Thus, all independent variables had two levels as low and high.

In order to understand the trend, 2 (with expression, without expression) x 2 (low stable self-esteem, high stable self-esteem) x 2 (low self-esteem, high self-esteem) Factorial ANOVA was conducted. Although the main effect of self-esteem has not presented a significant impact on self-regulation failure ($F(1,507) = 0.271, p = 0.602, \eta^2p = 0.001$), high self-esteem has a higher means of self-regulation failure according to low self-esteem ($MD = -.149, SE = .285, t(507) = -0.521, p = .602$). The results were presented at the Table 3.2.1.

Table 3.2.1. ANOVA Results for the interaction between self-esteem, self-esteem stability and emotional expression on self-regulation failure under ego-threat manipulation

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p	η^2p
Self Esteem	2.5891	1	2.5891	0.27185	0.602	0.001
Self Esteem Stability (t)	0.0205	1	0.0205	0.00215	0.963	0.000
Emotion Expression (m)	11.1917	1	11.1917	1.17508	0.279	0.002
Self Esteem x t	23.1033	1	23.1033	2.42575	0.120	0.005
Self Esteem x m	9.0867	1	9.0867	0.95406	0.329	0.002
t x m	36.4478	1	36.4478	3.82686	0.051	0.007
Self Esteem x t x m	6.1011	1	6.1011	0.64059	0.424	0.001
Residuals	4828.7681	507	9.5242			

Note. m = Emotion Expression; t = Self-Esteem Stability

The interaction effect between emotion expression, self-esteem stability and self-esteem did not significantly predict self-regulation failure ($F(1,507) = .640, p = .424, \eta^2p = .001$). However, the interaction effect between emotion expression and self-esteem stability was provided partial significant effect ($F(1,507) = 3.826, p = .051, \eta^2p = .007$) on self-regulation failure under ego-threat manipulation. The post-hoc analysis revealed that individuals with higher stability who express their emotions got lower scores on self-regulation failure than those who do not express their emotions ($MD = -.868, SE = .421, t(507) = -2.062, p = .040$). Descriptive statistics were presented at the Table 3.2.2.

Table 3.2.2 Descriptive Statiscs for the Interaction between Emotion Expression and Self-Esteem Stability on Self-Regulation Failure

Variables				
Emotion Expression	Self-Esteem Stability	M	SD	N
with	Low	4.525	.274	132
	High	3.980	.314	102
without	Low	4.276	.272	150
	High	4.848	.280	131

Note. M = mean, SD = Standard Deviation, N = Sample Size Higher scores refer to higher level of self-regulation failure

In conclusion, individuals with higher self-esteem stability make less self-regulation failure when they express their emotions than those who did not express their emotions under ego-threat manipulation. When data were split based on gender, the interaction between self-esteem and self-esteem stability ($F(1,141) = 5.010, p = .027, \eta^2p = .034$) and the interaction between emotional expression and self-esteem ($F(1,141) = 3.967, p = .048, \eta^2p = .027$) were significant for male participants. Also, the interaction between self-esteem, emotion expression, and self-esteem stability

was not significant for female participants ($F(1,358) = .353, p = .553, \eta^2p = .001$).

The results are summarized at the Table 3.2.3.

Table 3.2.3. ANOVA Results for the Effect of Self Esteem, Self Esteem Stability and Emotion Expression on Self-Regulation based on Gender Differences

Variables	Sum of Square	df	Mean Square	F	p	η^2p
Gender: Women						
Self-Esteem	.027	1	.027	.003	.959	.000
Self-Esteem Stability (t)	1.088	1	1.088	.109	.741	.000
Emotion Expression (m)	7.720	1	7.720	.773	.380	.002
Self-Esteem X t	3.217	1	3.217	.322	.571	.001
Self-Esteem X m	.001	1	.001	.000	.991	.000
m X t	18.818	1	18.818	1.885	.171	.005
Self-Esteem X t X m	3.521	1	3.521	.353	.553	.001
Residuals	3573.546	358	9.982			
Gender: Men						
Self-Esteem	7.850	1	7.850	.931	.336	.007
Self-Esteem Stability (t)	7.850	1	7.850	.931	.336	.007
Emotion Expression (m)	4.964	1	4.964	.589	.444	.004
Self-Esteem X t	42.252	1	42.252	5.010	.027	.034
Self-Esteem X m	33.457	1	33.457	3.967	.048	.027
m X t	19.116	1	19.116	2.266	.134	.016
Self-Esteem X t X m	3.043	1	3.043	.361	.549	.003
Residual	1189.241	141	8.434			

Note. t = Self-Esteem Stability, m = Emotion Expression

Post-hoc analysis showed that males with less self-esteem stability got lower self-regulation failure scores than those with more self-esteem stability in the low self-esteem group ($MD = -1.603, SE = .707, t(141) = -2.267, p = .025$). In addition to this, males with low self-esteem got lower scores on self-regulation failure than male with high self-esteem in the less self-esteem stability group ($MD = -1.603, SE = .70, t(141) = -2.287, p = .024$). Descriptive statistics were presented in the Table 3.2.4.

Table 3.2.4. Descriptive Statistics for the Interaction between Self-Esteem and Self-Esteem Stability on the Self-Regulation Failure for Male Participants

Variables				
Self-Esteem	Self Esteem Stability	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>
Low	Low	3.314	.428	47
	High	4.917	.562	27
High	Low	4.917	.555	28
	High	4.279	.441	47

Note. *M* = mean, *SD* = Standard Deviation, *N* = Sample Size. Higher scores refer to higher level of self-regulation failure

In the comparison on the basis of gender, the interaction between self-esteem and emotional expression was significant ($F(1,141) = 3.967, p = .048, \eta^2p = .026$) for male participants. Post-hoc analysis showed that males with low self-esteem got lower scores on self-regulation failure than those with high self-esteem when they express their emotions ($MD = -1.479, SE = .708, t(141) = -2.088, p = .039$) under ego-threat manipulation. In addition to this, males who express their emotions got lower scores on self-regulation failure than those who did not express their emotions in the low self-esteem group ($MD = -1.380, SE = .70, t(141) = -1.953, p = .053$).

Table 3.2.5. Descriptive Statistics for the Interaction between Self-Esteem and Emotion Expression on the Self-Regulation Failure for Male Participants

Variables				
Emotion Expression	Self-Esteem	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>
with	Low	3.425	.496	35
	High	4.904	.506	33
without	Low	4.806	.504	39
	High	4.292	.496	42

Note. *M* = mean, *SD* = Standard Deviation, *N* = Sample Size. Higher scores refer to higher level of self-regulation failure

In sum, individuals with secure self-esteem (high self-esteem stability) who express their emotions had less self-regulation failure than their counterparts who did not express their emotions. That is, individuals with secure self-esteem have higher self-regulation success when they expressed their emotions. In addition to level of self-esteem, gender also plays important role on individuals' self-regulation performance. For instance, men with fragile low self-esteem (less self-esteem stability and low self-esteem) had less self-regulation failure than men with secure low self-esteem (high self-esteem stability, but low self-esteem). Also, men with fragile low self-esteem had less self-regulation failure than men with fragile high self-esteem (low self-esteem stability and high self-esteem), suggesting that men with fragile self-esteem have poor performance on self-regulation under ego-threat manipulation. Lastly, the interaction between self-esteem and emotion expression revealed that men with low self-esteem had less self-regulation failure than men with high self-esteem when they express their emotions under ego-threat manipulation. The interaction effects were not significant for women.

CHAPTER 4

DISCUSSION

The aim of this study was to investigate the relationship between self-esteem and self-regulation under ego-threat manipulation. More specifically, it was hypothesized that individuals with high self-esteem would have less self-regulation failure under ego-threat manipulation than those with low self-esteem (H1). Another hypothesis was that individuals with secure self-esteem would have lower self-regulation failure under ego-threat manipulation than those with fragile self-esteem (H2). In this context, the moderator role of emotional expression was investigated on the relationship between types of self-esteem and self-regulation. For this reason, it was hypothesized that individuals with high fragile self-esteem was expected to have less self-regulation failure if they have an opportunity to express their emotions (H3). In this section, these findings, contributions, implications, and limitations of this study were discussed. Lastly, suggestions for future studies were presented.

4.1. Major Findings of Self-Esteem

Previous studies have documented that those with high global (explicit) self-esteem have better self-regulation skills than those with low self-esteem (e.g. (Baumeister, Heatherton, & Dice, 1993; Lambird & Mann, 2006). The results of this study did not replicate this finding since global self-esteem was not significantly related to self-

regulation performance used in the current study. Thus, Hypothesis 1 was not supported. Although the main effect of self-esteem has not presented a significant impact on self-regulation failure, high self-esteem has a higher means of self-regulation failure according to low self-esteem. Hence, it is concluded that high self-esteem tends to fail more in self-regulation tasks under ego threat manipulation. This trend supported the findings of a recent study (Lambird & Mann, 2006) showing that individuals with high self-esteem perform poorly in self-regulation failure. However, recent studies have mixed findings on the effect of high self-esteem types. As mentioned above, secure and fragile self-esteem present different effects on self-regulation under ego-threat manipulation. The reason why there is no difference between low and high self-esteem in terms of self-regulation failure is that having fragile or secure self-esteem can offer different effects. Another reason that affects the relationship between self-esteem and self-regulation may be gender differences. Although gender did not show differences in self-regulation failure, high and low self-esteem affected self-regulation failure in terms of gender differences. This trend suggests that males with high self-esteem have a tendency to self-regulation failure under ego-threat manipulation more than females with high self-esteem. On the contrary, females with low self-esteem have a tendency to self-regulation failure under ego-threat manipulation more than males with low self-esteem. To sum up, males with high self-esteem perform more self-regulation failures, whereas females with low self-esteem perform more self-regulation failures under ego-threat manipulation. These findings were parallel with the current literature in terms of high self-esteem. Ego-threat causes more self-regulation failure for people who have high self-esteem because individuals with high self-esteem can create unrealistic standards for themselves (Zeigler-Hill & Terry, 2007). In the literature, the

relationship between low self-esteem and self-regulation was not clear. The reason why females with low self-esteem perform more self-regulation failures than males may be studied in future studies.

4.2. Findings on Secure vs. Fragile Self-Esteem

Recent studies have shown that security (fragility) of self-esteem rather than high or low self-esteem is related with self-regulation (Lambird & Mann, 2006). Kernis (2003) proposed that the indicators of secure and fragile self-esteem as the basis of self-regulation. In this study, following Kernis' (2003) conceptualization stability and/or non-contingency of self-esteem were used as secure type of self-esteem, whereas non-stability and/or contingency were used as fragile type of self-esteem. Although there were no significant differences between secure and fragile self-esteem in terms of self-regulation, participants with stable (secure) self-esteem had higher scores on self-regulation failure than participants with non-stable (fragile) self-esteem under ego threat condition. This was an unexpected finding considering that past work suggests that people with fragile self-esteem would have more self-regulation failures under ego-threat manipulation. However, the effect of high and low self-esteem may impact the relationship between secure/fragile self-esteem and self-regulation. Although the interaction between self-esteem and self-esteem stability was insignificant, analyses revealed that people with fragile high self-esteem have higher scores on self-regulation failure than people with secure high self-esteem. In addition, people with secure low self-esteem have higher scores on self-regulation failure than people with fragile low self-esteem.

In sum, fragile high self-esteem people have more self-regulation failures, whereas secure low self-esteem makes people more self-regulation failures. These findings

were parallel with the current literature in terms of fragile high self-esteem. Ego-threat causes more failure on self-regulation for participants who have fragile self-esteem rather than participants who have secure self-esteem (Lambird & Mann, 2006). On the one hand, the literature suggested that rational thinking styles, rather than experiential thinking, are related to self-regulation failure (Schmeichel, Caskey, & Hicks, 2015). One of the reasons why people with secure low self-esteem have more self-regulation failures may be their differences between rational and experiential thinking styles. However, there is a need to examine the relationship between self-esteem and thinking processes in the literature.

Exploratory analyses revealed that the interaction between self-esteem and self-esteem stability was significant for male participants. Males with fragile low self-esteem have lower scores on self-regulation failure than those with secure low self-esteem. That is, secure low self-esteem makes more self-regulation failure than fragile low self-esteem under ego-threat manipulation for males. These differences can stem from the difference between experiential and rational thinking styles on the basis of gender. A recent study suggested that men are more inclined to rational thinking styles than women (Norris & Epstein, 2011). For this reason, secure high self-esteem can be related with more self-regulation failure for men when it is considered rational thinking is related to self-regulation failure.

4.3. Major Findings of Emotional Expression

In the light of the literature findings, it was expected that the effect of emotional expression will change the effect of interaction between self-esteem and secure self-esteem on the self-regulation failure. In the literature, there are no direct connections

about effect of emotional-expression, but there are findings which suggest the effect of negative emotions on the self-regulation (Wagner & Heatherton, 2014) and the effect of emotional expression on the regulation of mood (Smolarski, Leone, & Robbins, 2015). In the light of these findings, it was expected that emotional expression would decrease negative emotions and accordingly it would decrease self-regulation failure. Although three-way interaction was not significant, two-way interaction between secure self-esteem and emotional expression was significant. The results suggested that for individuals who expressed their emotions, self-esteem stability was not associated with self-regulation failure whereas for those who did not express their emotions, self-esteem stability positively predicted individuals' self-regulation failure.

Explanatory analysis supported that individuals with fragile self-esteem in emotional expression condition make more self-regulation failure than those in non-expression condition. The findings did not support Hypothesis 3. It was expected that people with fragile self-esteem would make less self-regulation failures in the emotional expression condition rather than non-expression condition. One of the reasons why expression of emotions did not affect the performance of fragile self-esteem may be different effects of high and low self-esteem in these connections. According to explanatory analysis, results supported that people with fragile high self-esteem make more self-regulation failures when they get a chance for expression of emotions. On the contrary, people with fragile low self-esteem make less self-regulation failures when they get a chance for expression of emotions. These differences may stem from the fact that emotional expression may lead to more experiential thinking for individuals with fragile low-esteem. On the other hand,

emotional expression may lead to more rational thinking for individuals with fragile high self-esteem. In regard of this idea, it is possible to say that emotional expression may serve for different aims. For instance, contrary to expectations, emotional expression can increase negative mood whereas expression of thoughts can decrease negative mood (Schmeichel, Caskey, & Hicks, 2015). In addition, it can cause more rational thinking due to questions that were referred to why their scores were lower than they thought. As mentioned in the literature, more rational thinking causes more self-regulation failures (Schmeichel, Caskey, & Hicks, 2015).

Gender differences can be another important reason. Exploratory analysis revealed that males with fragile self-esteem make less self-regulation failures than females with fragile self-esteem when they express their emotions. Males with secure self-esteem make more self-regulation failures than females with secure self-esteem. In general, both females and males with secure self-esteem make less self-regulation failures when they express their emotions. To sum up, emotion expression reduces the negative effect of ego-threat only for people with secure self-esteem.

4.4. Limitations of the Current Study and Suggestions for the Future Studies

The current study has quite a few limitations. Firstly, participants were recruited via convenience sampling method from university students. For this reason, the sample was neither random nor representative in terms of many critical demographic variables such as age, education status, and income. The number of male participants was relatively less than the number of female participants. Therefore, the findings of the current study should be replicated with a more represented sample for aims of generalizability and external validity.

Secondly, the methodology of the current study has considerable limitations. To create ego-threat, giving a negative feedback is a common method. However, in this study, there were participants who did not feel bad about their feedback. This can stem from several different reasons. One of this reason can be that they did not feel any threat for their self. However, the participants' self-regulation failure scores did not differ from each other according to the feelings they felt after the ego threat. The second reason can be that the “fake” scores provided for manipulation were very close to average scores. Therefore, the participants might not have perceived the feedback as negative as intended in the manipulation. Hence, it might not have created a necessary condition for ego-threat. Another reason can be that participants who indicated that they did not feel bad about their score could stem from different defensive mechanisms. Especially for participants with fragile high self-esteem, using defensive mechanisms was expected (Borton, Crimmins, Ashby, & Ruddiman, 2009). More importantly, although there were studies showing that ego-threat has an effect on self-regulation failure (Baumeister, Heatherton, & Tice, 1993; Lambird & Mann, 2006), this study should have examined this effect.

Thirdly, sample size analysis showed that it must be at least 553 participants. This current study was conducted with 515 participants. Although the sample size large enough on the basis of experimental studies, it could not meet the required sample size.

Another methodological problem was the measurement of self-regulation failure. According to recent studies (Baumeister, Heatherton, & Tice, 1993; Lambird &

Mann, 2006; Smith, Norrel, & Saint, 1996), determining a goal-score and trying to reach it were used as an indicator of self-regulation ability. However, using the Stroop-Task may have increased impulsive behaviors and it may have affected self-regulation abilities of participants. Furthermore, the whole process was conducted on an online survey system which is supported by mobile phones and computers. Using mobile phones, especially in this study, can make it difficult to see colors on the Stroop-Task due to different settings for screen brightness. Without a doubt, the current study which used online methods has been affected by environmental issues such as noise and lighting.

Lastly, emotion expression may have caused different effects contrary to expectations, where ego-threat may have caused such as increasing negative mood and reinforcing rational thinking. On the one hand, the questions that were asked to the control group may have caused a shift of attention from the ego-threat as a method reducing the effect of ego-threat. Also, it can be expected that the questions for asked emotion expression can cause value-affirmation. The literature finding supposed that value-affirmation is a method to cope with ego-threat (Burson, Crocker, & Mischkowski, 2012).

Future studies should be careful about methodological issues such as choosing a game that does not provoke impulsive behaviors and conduct the study in the lab environment. Furthermore, the differences between experiential and rational thinking process should be considered on the basis of self-esteem types and the effects of emotional expression.

4.5. Contributions and Strengths of the Current Study

As reviewed in the literature, a lot of studies which investigated the relationship between self-esteem and self-regulation can be found. In addition to this, studies which examine the effects of secure and fragile self-esteem on the self-regulation also exist in the literature. Also, these studies do not ignore the effect of ego-threat. However, to the best of author's knowledge, no studies have yet examined the effect of emotional expression on the self-regulation under the ego-threat manipulation. The primary aim of the current study was to take the first step in depicting the possible effects of emotional expression on the relation between self-esteem and self-regulation failure under the ego-threat manipulation.

The fact that this study combines both self-report method and experimental designs outside of the lab could also be considered as a point of strengths, in terms of opportunity to interpret causality in the obtained findings. The sample size was quite large compared to other experimental studies. This method can be used in other experimental studies especially for two-way interactions.

4.6. Conclusion

The main aim of this thesis was examine the role of emotional expression on the relationship between self-esteem and self-regulation failure. This study presents a few implications. Firstly, individuals with low or high self-esteem differ on self-regulation failure according to the differences of their indicated gender. On the other hand, self-esteem stability as a type of secure self-esteem plays a critical role on this relationship. Lastly, the effect of emotional expression is associated with self-regulation in the context of secure self-esteem.

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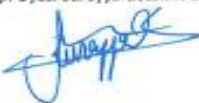
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APPENDICES

A. APPROVAL OF THE METU HUMAN SUBJECTS ETHICS COMMITTEE

UYGULAMALI ETİK ARAŞTIRMA MERKEZİ APPLIED ETHICS RESEARCH CENTER DÜNELİSPINAR BULVARI 06800 ÇANKAYA, ANKARA/TÜRKİYE T : +90 312 250 22 91 F : +90 312 250 79 00 e: iletir@metu.edu.tr Sayı: 28620916-y-419	 ORTA DOĞU TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ MIDDLE EAST TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY
21 KASIM 2019	
Konu: Değerlendirme Sonucu	
Gönderen: ODTÜ İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu (İABK)	
İlgi: İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu Başvurusu	
Sayın Dr. Öğretim Üyesi Başak Şahin ACAR	
Danışmanlığınızı yaptığınız Seda Merve ŞAHİN'in "Yüksek ve Düşük Benlik Saygısı Bağlamında Benlik Düzenlenmesi Üzerinde Duyguların Dışavurumunun Rolünün İncelenmesi" başlıklı araştırması İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu tarafından uygun görülmüş ve 399 ODTÜ 2019 protokol numarası ile onaylanmıştır.	
Saygılarımızla bilgilerinize sunarız.	
 Prof. Dr. Tolga CAN Üye	 Prof. Dr. Tolga GENÇÖZ Başkan
 Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Ali Emre TURGUT Üye	 Doç. Dr. Pınar KAYGAN Üye
 Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Müge GÜNDÜZ Üye	 Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Şerife SEVİNÇ Üye
	 Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Süreyya Özcan KABASAKAL Üye

**B. ROSENBERG SELF-ESTEEM SCALE / ROSENBERG BENLİK SAYGISI
ÖLÇEĞİ**

- 1) Kendimi en az diğer insanlar kadar değerli buluyorum.
a) Çok doğru b) Doğru c) Yanlış d) Çok yanlış
- 2) Bazı olumlu özelliklerim olduğunu düşünüyorum.
a) Çok doğru b) Doğru c) Yanlış d) Çok yanlış
- 3) Genelde kendimi başarısız bir kişi olarak görme eğilimindeyim.
a) Çok doğru b) Doğru c) Yanlış d) Çok yanlış
- 4) Ben de diğer insanların birçoğunun yapabildiği kadar bir şeyler yapabilirim.
a) Çok doğru b) Doğru c) Yanlış d) Çok yanlış
- 5) Kendimde gurur duyacak fazla bir şey bulamıyorum.
a) Çok doğru b) Doğru c) Yanlış d) Çok yanlış
- 6) Kendime karşı olumlu bir tutum içindeyim.
a) Çok doğru b) Doğru c) Yanlış d) Çok yanlış
- 7) Genel olarak kendimden memnunum.
a) Çok doğru b) Doğru c) Yanlış d) Çok yanlış
- 8) Kendime karşı daha fazla saygı duyabilmeyi isterdim.
a) Çok doğru b) Doğru c) Yanlış d) Çok yanlış
- 9) Bazen kesinlikle kendimin bir işe yaramadığımı düşünüyorum.
a) Çok doğru b) Doğru c) Yanlış d) Çok yanlış
- 10) Bazen kendimin hiç de yeterli bir insan olmadığımı düşünüyorum.
a) Çok doğru b) Doğru c) Yanlış d) Çok yanlış

**C. THE CONTINGENCIES OF SELF-WORTH SCALE / KOŞULLU BENLİK
SAYGISI ÖLÇEĞİ**

Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadeleri okuduktan sonra kendinizi değerlendirip sizin için en uygun seçeneğin karşısına çarpı (X) işareti koyunuz.		Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Bazen Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Bazen Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1	Çekici göründüğümü düşündüğümde, kendimi iyi hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Öz-saygım, bedenimin nasıl görüldüğü ile ilgili düşüncelerimle ilişkili değildir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Diğerleri bana saygı göstermezse ben de kendime saygı duyamam.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Kendim ile ilgili olumlu ya da olumsuz düşüncelerim, okuldaki performansıma bağlı değildir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Diğer insanların benim hakkındaki düşünceleriyle ilgilenmem.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	Kendime duyduğum saygı, yüzümün ne kadar çekici görüldüğünden etkilenir	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	Okulda başarılı olmak öz-saygımı artırır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	Çekici görünmediğimi düşünmem, öz-saygımı yitirmeme yol açar.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	Akademik performansımın yeterli olduğunu düşünmem, kendimi iyi hissetmemi sağlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	Diğerlerinin benim hakkındaki düşünceleri kendime yönelik düşüncelerimi etkilemez.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	Kendime gösterdiğim saygı akademik performansımdan etkilenir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	Öz-saygım, kendimi çekici görüp görmediğime bağlı değildir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	Akademik performansımın yeterli olmadığında, kendimi kötü hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	Öz-saygım, başkalarının benim hakkımdaki düşüncelerine bağlıdır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

**D. ROSENBERG'S SELF-ESTEEM STABILITY OF SELF-SCALE /
ROSENBERG BENLİK SAYGISI SABİTLİĞİ ÖLÇEĞİ**

1) Kendinizle ilgili düşünceleriniz büyük oranda değişiklik mi gösterir yoksa her zaman aynı mı kalır?

a) Büyük oranda değişir

b) Biraz değişir

c) Çok az değişir

d) Hiç değişmez

2) Bir gün kendinizle ilgili bir düşünceye sahipken başka bir gün bu düşüncenizin çok değiştiğini fark ettiğiniz olur mu?

a) Evet, bu hep olur.

b) Evet, bazen olur

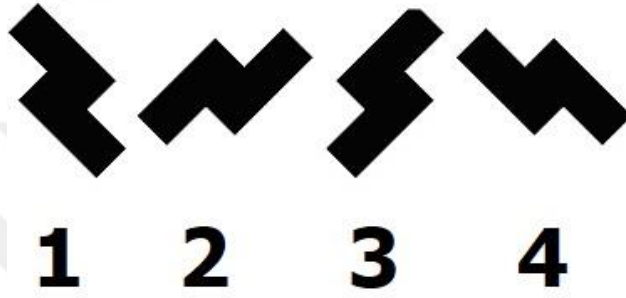
c) Evet, nadiren olur

d) Hayır, bu hiçbir zaman olmaz

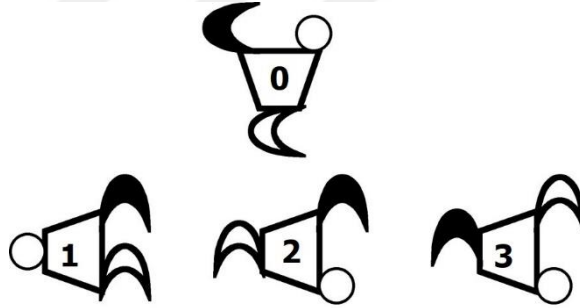
	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
Kendimle ilgili düşüncelerimin çok çabuk değişebildiğini fark ettim.	1	2	3	4
Bazı günler kendimi çok iyi tanıdığımı düşünürüm, bazen de kendimle ilgili çok az şey bildiğimi düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4
Kendimle ilgili şu anda düşündüklerimi hiçbir şeyin, ya da neredeyse hiçbir şeyin değiştiremeyeceğini düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4

E. MENTAL ROTATION TASK / MENTAL ROTASYON TESTİ

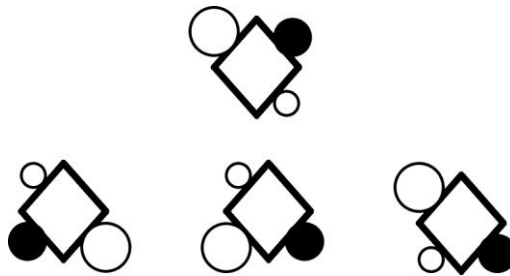
Aşağıda 4 farklı şekil verilmiştir. Bu şekillerden 3 tanesi, 1 şeklin farklı açılardan döndürülmüş halleridir. 1 tanesi ise farklı bir şekle aittir. Hangi numaralı şekil farklıdır?



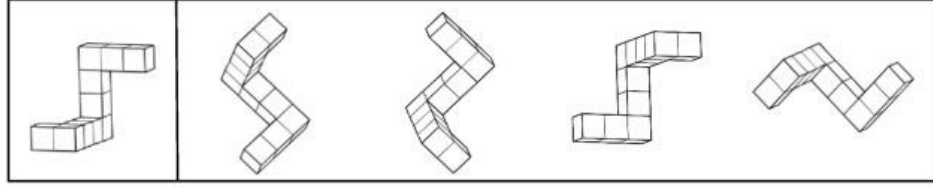
Aşağıda 4 farklı şekil verilmiştir. Kaç numaralı şekil 0 numaralı şeklin döndürülmüş hâlidir?



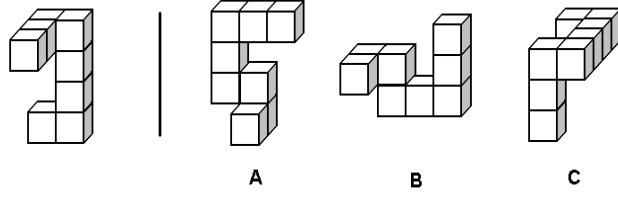
Aşağıda 4 farklı şekil verilmiştir. Kaç numaralı şekil 0 numaralı şeklin döndürülmüş hâlidir?



Aşağıda 5 farklı şekil verilmiştir. Kaç numaralı şekil ilk şeklin döndürülmüş hâlidir?



Aşağıda 4 farklı şekil verilmiştir. Kaç numaralı şekil ilk şeklin döndürülmüş hâlidir?



F. EMOTIONAL EXPRESSION / DUYGU DİŞAVURUMU

1) Verilen görev sizce ne kadar zordu?

Çok zordu - Zordu - Kolaydı - Çok Kolaydı

2) Verilen yönerge sizce ne kadar anlaşılırdı?

Hiç anlaşılır değildi – Yeterince anlaşılır değildi – Biraz anlaşılırdı – Anlaşılırdı

3) Aşağıda şu an hissedebileceklerinize ilişkin verilen ifadeleri hissettiğiniz yoğunluğa göre işaretleyiniz, lütfen.

	Hiç Yoğun Değil	Yoğun Değil	Kararsızım	Yoğun	Oldukça Yoğun
Mutluluk					
Üzüntü					
Öfke					
Şaşkınlık					
Heyecan					
Tiksinme					
Korku					
Utanç					

4) Testten almayı düşündüğünüz puan ile algortimada belirtilen aldığınız puan sizce ne kadar uyumluydu? Lütfen, aşağıdaki cetvel üzerinde imleci 0 (hiç uyumlu değildi) -100 (çok uyumluydu) arasında bir aralığa getirerek belirtiniz.

5) Eğer almayı düşündüğünüz puan ile aldığınız puan arasında fark varsa sizce bunun olası sebebi/sebepleri nelerdi? Lütfen aşağıya yazınız.

Kontrol Grubu Soruları:

1) Türkiye'nin başkenti neresidir?

a) İstanbul b) Ankara c) İzmir d) Çorum

2) Dünya'nın en büyük çölü hangisidir?

a) Sahra Çölü b) Gobi Çölü c) Patagonya Çölü d) Viktorya Çölü

3) Lütfen, nesneler ile mucitlerini eşleştiriniz.

	Thomas Edison	Alexander Fleming	Alexander Graham Bell	Louis Pasteur
Ampul				
Kuduz Aşısı				
Telefon				
Penisilin				

4) İkinci Dünya Savaşı kaç yılında bitmiştir?

1920 – 1940 – 1945 1960

5) TBMM kaç yılında açılmıştır?

G. SELF-REGULATION TASK / BENLİK DÜZENLEME GÖREVİ

Aşağıdaki kelimelerde kelimenin ifade ettiği renk ile yazıldığı renk uyumu çoğunluktaysa Z tuşuna, eğer değilse X tuşuna basınız.

KIRMIZI	MAVİ	YEŞİL	SARI	SİYAH
MAVİ	SARI	KIRMIZI	SİYAH	MOR
YEŞİL	KIRMIZI	SARI	SİYAH	MAVİ
SARI	YEŞİL	SİYAH	MOR	KIRMIZI
MOR	MAVİ	YEŞİL	KIRMIZI	SİYAH
MAVİ	MOR	YEŞİL	SARI	KIRMIZI
YEŞİL	SARI	SİYAH	MOR	KIRMIZI

YEŞİL	MAVİ	MOR	SARI	SİYAH
MOR	MAVİ	YEŞİL	KIRMIZI	SİYAH
MAVİ	SARI	YEŞİL	KIRMIZI	SİYAH



H. DEMOGRAPHIC FORM / DEMOGRAFİK BİLGİ FORMU

Lütfen aşağıdaki bilgileri doldurunuz.

1- Yaşınız:

2- Cinsiyetiniz:

3- Eğitim düzeyiniz:

4- Üniversite ve Bölümünüz:

5 – Gelir düzeyinizi nerede görüyorsunuz?

Alt Gelir, Orta Alt Gelir, Orta Gelir, Orta Üst Gelir, Üst Gelir

I. TURKISH SUMMARY / TRKE ZET

Neden ulařmak iin kendimize yksek hedefler koyuyoruz? Ne zaman vazgeeceęimizi bilmek en iyisi mi, yoksa her kořulda devam etmek zorunda mıyız? Bu ve benzeri sorular zaman zaman aklımıza gelir. Bu sorulara bir cevap bulmak iin ncelikle neden bazen yapabileceęimizden ok daha yksek, gereki olmayan hedefler veya yapabileceęimizden ok daha dřk hedefler belirledięimizi bilmeliyiz. Bu alıřmada bu soru benlik saygısı trleri aısından incelenecektir. Son zamanlarda yapılan arařtırmalar, yksek benlik saygısı olan bireylerin kapasitelerini dřk benlik saygısı olan bireylere gre daha iyi bildiklerini gstermektedir (rneęin, Vazire ve Carlson, 2010). İkinci olarak, hedeflerimizin verilen geri bildirime gre deęiřip deęiřmedięini bilmemiz gerekir. Olumsuz geri bildirimlerle karřılařtıęımızda veya aldığımız geri bildirim benlięimizi tehdit ettięinde ne olur? alıřmanın ikinci amacı, ego tehdidinin benlik dzenlemesi zerindeki etkisini bulmaktır. Son olarak, ruh halimiz ego tehdidinin etkisini azaltır mı? Benlik dzenlemesi srecini kolaylařtırıyor mu? Gemiř alıřmalar, olumlu duyguların bařarılı benlik dzenlemesi zerinde etkisi olduęunu gstermiřtir (rneęin, Fishbach ve Labroo, 2007; Wagner ve Heatherton, 2014). Bununla birlikte, bireyin duygularını ifade etmesine izin vermenin (duygularını ifade etme fırsatı verilmemesine karřın) benlięini dzenleme zerinde bir etkisinin olup olmadıęı incelenmemiřtir. Ek olarak, duygusal ifadenin etkisinin benlik saygısının yksek veya dřk olduęu, sabit ve dalgalı benlik saygısına sahip olanlar arasında, kırılgan ve gvenli benlik saygısına sahip kiřiler arasında farklı olup olmadıęı bilinmemektedir. Bu alıřma bu soruları

ele almayı amaçlamaktadır. Bu kapsamda benlik saygısı (güvenli ve kırılğan olmak üzere), ego tehdidi ve duyguların dışavurumu etkileri benlik düzenlemesi bağlamında sunulmuştur.

Benlik Düzenlemesi

Benlik düzenlemesi, gelişimsel psikoloji, klinik psikolojisi, örgütsel psikolojisi, kişilik psikolojisinden sosyal psikolojiye kadar psikolojinin hemen hemen tüm alanlarında esas olarak duygusal veya motivasyonel bakış açısıyla incelenmiştir (Baumeister, 1993; Ferrari, Stevens, Legler ve Jason, 2012; Wagner, Hoppmann, Ram, Ve Gerstrof, 2015). Bu nedenle birçok tanımı vardır. Bu tanımlardan birisine göre benlik düzenlemesi, sosyal ve durumsal istemlere bağlı olarak davranışlarımızı düzenlemeye yönelik olan uyumsal bir süreçtir (Baumeister & Vohs, 2007). Literatürde benlik düzenlemesini etkileyen birçok faktör sunulmuştur. Bunlar benlik saygısı, belirsizlik, alternatif görevlerin varlığı ve yokluğu, duygu durumu, ego tehdidi ve ego tükenmesi olarak sıralanabilir.

Benlik saygısı, benlik düzenlemesini etkileyen başlıca faktörlerden birisidir. Literatürde sunulan bulgular, benlik saygısı yüksek olan bireylerin benlik düzenleme görevlerinde benlik saygısı düşük olan bireylere göre daha başarılı olduklarını göstermektedir (Baumeister, Heatherton, & Dice, 1993; Lambird & Mann, 2006). Belirsizlik ise benlik düzenlemesini etkileyen bir diğer faktördür. Bu bağlamda belirsizlik benlik düzenlemesini negatif yönde etkilerken, belirlilik durumu ise benlik düzenlemesini pozitif yönde etkilemektedir (Baumeister, Heatherton, & Dice, 1993; Lambird & Mann, 2006). Bir diğer önemli faktör ise duyguların dışavurumu olarak ele alınmaktadır. Bu konuda doğrudan çalışmalar yer almasa da pozitif duyguların

benlik düzenlemesi ile pozitif bir ilişkiye sahip olduğu, negatif duyguların ise benlik düzenlemesi ile negatif bir ilişkiye sahip olduğu belirtilmektedir (Diehl, Semegon, & Schwarzer, 2006). Duyguların dışavurumunun etkisi ise yarattığı duygulanım bağlamında incelenecektir. Bu tezi konusu olan faktörlerden biri olarak ego tehdidi de benlik düzenlemesini etkilemektedir. Benlik saygısı yüksek olan bireyler, ego tehdidi ile karşılaştıkları durumda normalde sergiledikleri performansın aksine benlik düzenleme görevinde başarısız olmaktadır (Lambird & Mann, 2006). Son olarak, ego tükenmesi bu bağlam içerisinde tartışmalı sonuçlar ortaya çıkarmaktadır. Egonun limitli bir kaynak olarak görülmesinin yanı sıra kaynakların yeterli olup olmayacağına dair düşünce süreçlerinin de benlik düzenlemesini etkilediği düşünülmektedir (Muraven, Shmueli, & Burkley, 2006).

Benlik Saygısı

Benlik saygısı, bireyin kendisi hakkında hislerini, değerlendirmelerini ve atıflarını içeren değerler bütünü olarak ele alınmaktadır (Brown, 1998). Birçok kültürde, kendimiz hakkında olumlu düşüncelere sahip olmak yani yüksek benlik saygısı istenilen bir özellik olarak görülürken kendimiz hakkında olumsuz düşüncelere ve değerlendirmelere sahip olmak yani düşük benlik saygısı arzu edilmeyen bir özellik olarak görülmektedir. Yüksek benlik saygısının olumlu özelliklerini sunan çalışmaların yanı sıra olumsuz yanlarını gösteren çalışmalar da son zamanlarda önem kazanmıştır. Özellikle tehdit edilmiş hissetmenin benlik saygısı yüksek olan bireylerde daha fazla öfkeye neden olduğu bulunmuştur (Diamantopoulou, Rydell & Henricsson, 2008). Bu kapsamda, açık ve örtük benlik saygısı arasındaki farklar dikkate alınmıştır.

Geçmiş çalışmalarda kırılğan benlik saygısı savunmacı, dalgalı ve koşula bağımlı benlik tipi olarak tanımlanmıştır. Ayrıca, açık ve örtük benlik saygısı arasında uyumsuzluk içermektedir. Aksine, güvenli benlik saygısı özgün, sabit, koşula bağı olmayan benlik tipi olarak tanımlanmıştır. Ek olarak, açık ve örtük benlik saygısı arasında uyumluluk vardır (Kernis, 2003). Bu bağlamda, benliğe yönelik tehditlerde kırılğan benlik saygısının daha negatif tepkiler verdiğini açığa çıkaran çalışmalar mevcuttur (Borton, Oakes & Lengieza, 2017). Benlik düzenlemesi üzerinde kırılğan ve güvenlik benlik saygısının etkileri incelenirken ego tehdidi göz ardı edilmemelidir.

Ego Tehdidi

Birçok farklı tanıma sahip olan ego tehdidi genellikle benliğimize, benlik saygımıza, benlik değerlerimize yönelik bir tehdit olarak ele alınmaktadır. Tanımı araştırmacılar arasında değişkenlik gösterdiği için işevuruk tanımının yapılması önemlidir. Geçmiş çalışmalarda ego tehdidi yaratmak için yanlış geribildirim vermek (Baumeister, Heatherton, & Tice, 1993; Lambird & Mann, 2006), sosyal dışlanma hissi yaratmak (Burson, Crocker, & Mischkowski, 2012), benlik saygısına yönelik tehdit sunmak (van Dellen, Campbell, Hoyle, & Bradfield, 2011) kullanılan yöntemler arasındadır. Bu çalışmada da yanlış geribildirim vererek ego tehdidi yaratılmıştır.

Duyguların Dışavurumunun Rolü

Ego tehdidi ile baş etme yolları olarak direnç, kırılma, dikkati kaydırma ve dengeleme geçmiş çalışmalarda sunulmuştur (vanDellen, Campbell, Hoyle, & Bradfield, 2011). Kullanılan baş etme yolları da benlik saygısı bağlamında değişkenlik göstermektedir. Kırılğan benlik saygısı için, ego tehdidinin üstesinden

gelmenin yararlı yöntemlerinden birkaçı, olumsuz düşünceleri bastırmak, müdahaleci düşüncelere sahip olduğu için kendini cezalandırmak ve görevin önemini ve geçerliliğini azaltmak olarak tanımlanmıştır (Borton, Crimmins, Ashby, & Ruddiman, 2012). Bununla birlikte, baskılamanın olumsuz etkisi nedeniyle dışavurmanın daha iyi olduğu düşünülmüştür. Ayrıca, düşünce ve duyguların ifade edilmesi, görevin benlik saygısı için önemini ve geçerliliğini azaltmakta yararlı bir yöntem olabilir. Örneğin, katılımcılara görevin zorluğu veya güvenilirliği hakkında sorulan sorular, ego tehdidinin olumsuz etkileriyle başa çıkma açısından ifade imkânı sağlamıştır. Bu nedenle, bu çalışma esas olarak duygusal dışavurumun ego-tehdidi ile başa çıkma mekanizması olup olmadığını incelemeyi amaçlamaktadır. Duyguların benlik düzenlemes üzerindeki etkilerinin yanı sıra duygusal dışavurum, bu konuda doğrudan ve dolaylı etkiler sunmaktadır. Dolaylı etkiler düşünüldüğünde, duygusal dışavurum zorlukları çiftlerde cinsel riskli davranışları etkiler (Rizor, Callands, Desrosiers ve Kershaw, 2017). Öte yandan, benlik düzenlemesindeki cinsiyet farklılıkları, erkekler ve kızlar arasındaki duygusal dışavurum farklılıkları ile açıklanmaktadır (Veijalainen, Reunamo ve Heikkilä, 2019). Bu araştırmaya göre erken çocukluk dönemindeki benlik düzenlemeleri ile duygusal dışavurumları arasında bir ilişki vardır. Ancak literatür bu konuda neden-sonuç ilişkisi sunmamaktadır. Bu nedenle, duygusal ifadenin ego tehdidi üzerindeki etkisini anlamak oldukça önemlidir.

Çalışmanın Hipotezleri

Yukarıda gözden geçirilen çalışmalara ve kavramsal argümanlara dayanarak, ego-tehdit koşulu altında aşağıdaki hipotezler oluşturulmuştur.

Hipotez 1. Daha yüksek benlik saygısı olanlar, daha düşük benlik saygısı olanlara göre, benlik düzenlemesi başarısızlığı ile olumsuz yönde ilişkili olacaktır.

Hipotez 2. Daha yüksek seviyelerde güvenli benlik saygısı, kırılabilir benlik saygısından ziyade benlik düzenlemesi başarısızlığını olumsuz bir şekilde öngörür.

Hipotez 3. Kırılabilir özgüvene sahip olanlar, duygularını ifade etme fırsatı bulamayanlara kıyasla, duygularını ifade etme fırsatı bulurlarsa daha az benlik düzenlemesi başarısızlığı gösterirler.

Yöntem

Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu'ndan izin alınarak veri toplanmaya başlanmıştır. Sosyal medya ve METU SONA sistemi aracılığıyla üniversite öğrencilerine ulaşılmış ve üniversite öğrencilerinin gönüllü katılımıyla 515 katılımcıya ulaşılmıştır. Katılımcıların 149'u erkek, 366'sı kadındır. Yaş ortalamaları 21.9 olarak belirlenmiştir ve 446 katılımcı lisans öğrencisidir.

Katılımcılar sırasıyla Rosenberg Benlik Saygısı Ölçeği (Rosenberg, 1965), Koşullu Özdeğer Ölçeği (Crocker, Luhtanen, Cooper, & Bouvrette, 2003) ve Benlik Saygısı Durağanlığı Ölçeğini (Rosenberg, 1989) içeren bir dizi soruyu yanıtlamışlardır. Bu testlerin ardından mental rotasyon testi kapsamında görsel soruları cevaplayarak testin sonunda hızlarına ve doğru cevaplarına bağlı oluşturulduğu belirtilen sahte bir puan almışlardır. Ortalamanın altında olduklarını belirten bu puan aracılığıyla ego tehdidi koşulu oluşturulmuştur. Hemen ardından deney grubunda olan katılımcılara duygularını ifade etme fırsatı veren sorular sorulurken (görevin zorluğu, o an hissettikleri, almayı bekledikleri puandan neden farklı puan aldıkları gibi), kontrol grubunda yer alan katılımcılara nötr sorular (Türkiye'nin başkenti, İkinci Dünya

Savaşının tarihi) sorulmuştur. Benlik düzenlemesi ölçümünü katılımcılara tanıtmak için bir deneme görevi sunulmuştur ve yapacakları adımlar anlatılmıştır. Benlik düzenlemesi ölçümü için Stroop görevine benzer şekilde oluşturulan düzenek sunulmuştur. Bu düzenekte 5 farklı renk ismi farklı renklerle yazılmıştır. Katılımcılardan, kendilerine sunulan farklı renklerle yazılmış renk isimlerinden (örneğin, mavi renkte yazılmış “kırmızı” ya da kırmızı renkte yazılmış “kırmızı”) uyumlu ve uyumsuz olanların kaç tane olduklarını hesaplamaları beklenmiştir. Bunun sonucunda, eğer uyumlu olanların sayısı fazla ise “Z” butonuna, eğer uyumsuz olanların sayısı fazla ise “X” butonuna 4 saniye içinde basmaları beklenmektedir. 4 saniye içerisinde cevaplanmayan sorular yanlış cevap olarak kabul edilmiştir. Katılımcılar, deneme aşamasından sonra asıl görevde kaç doğru yapacakların tahmin etmişlerdir. Sonuç olarak, benlik düzenleme skoru tahminleri ve gerçekte yaptıkları doğru sayısı arasındaki farkın mutlak değeri alınarak hesaplanmıştır.

Bulgular

Hipotez testinden önce, ego tehdidi manipülasyonunun işe yarayıp yaramadığını anlamak için, manipülasyon kontrol sorusu (katılımcıların ego-tehdidi manipülasyonundan sonraki hisleri) ile benlik düzenlemesinde başarısızlık puanı arasında ANOVA yapıldı. Analiz, değişkenler arasında anlamlı bir fark olmadığını ortaya çıkarmıştır ($F(3,497) = 1.168, p = .321$). Bu nedenle mental rotasyon puanları konusunda kendisini kötü hissetmeyen katılımcıların verileri de analizden çıkarılmamıştır. Betimsel analiz sonuçlarına göre erkeklerin (Ort. = 2.34, SS = .61) kadınlara göre (Ort. = 2.22, SS = .57) daha yüksek benlik saygısı sabitliği vardı ($F(1.513) = 3.99, p = .046$). Bununla birlikte, kadınlar (Ort. = 4.23, SS = .64),

erkeklerden (Ort. = 4.09, SS = .69) daha yüksek koşullu benlik saygısına sahipti ($F = (1.513) = 4.40, p = .036$). Bunların dışında, temel analizlerde cinsiyet farklılıkları istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bulgular sunmamıştır. Bu sonuçlar, kadınların erkeklerden daha düşük benlik saygısı ve benlik saygısı istikrarına sahip olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Aksine, kadınlar erkeklere göre daha yüksek koşullu benlik saygısına ve benlik düzenlemede başarısızlığa sahiptir.

Benlik düzenleme başarısızlığı, benlik saygısı, benlik saygısının sabitliği, koşullu benlik saygısı, cinsiyet ve duygusal dışavurum arasındaki ilişkiyi değerlendirmek için iki farklı hiyerarşik regresyon analizi yapılmıştır. Bu bağlamda duygusal dışavurum moderatör (düzenleyici) olarak incelenmiştir. İlk analizde cinsiyet, regresyonun ilk adımına kontrol değişkeni olarak girildi. İkinci adımda benlik saygısı, benlik saygısı sabitliği ve duygusal dışavurum temel etkileri girildi. Daha sonra, bu ana yordayıcılar arasındaki iki yönlü etkileşim terimleri ile moderatör değişken olarak duygusal dışavurum girilmiştir. Son olarak, son adımda benlik saygısı, benlik saygısı sabitliği ve moderatör değişkeni arasındaki üç yönlü etkileşimler analize girildi.

Sonuçlar, kadın ve erkeklerin öz düzenleme başarısızlığı açısından anlamlı bir farklılık göstermediğini ortaya koymuştur ($F (1,513) = .324, p = .569$). Ek olarak, ana değişkenler ($F (4,510) = .377, p = .825$) ve ana değişkenler ile moderatör değişkeni arasındaki iki yönlü etkileşimler ($F (9,505) = .577, p = .816$) ve üç yönlü etkileşimler değişkenler arasında ($F (11,503) = .550, p = .869$) benlik düzenleme başarısızlığı bağlamında anlamlı bir farklılık görülmemiştir. Ancak, benlik saygısı sabitliği ve benlik saygısı arasındaki etkileşim benlik düzenleme başarısızlığı

üzerinde anlamlı etkiye çok yakın bir farklılık göstermektedir ($\beta = -.094, p = .093$). Benlik düzenleme başarısızlığına ilişkin benlik saygısı sabitliği ile duygusal dışavurum arasındaki etkileşim anlamlıydı ($\beta = .13, p = .030$). Duygularını ifade eden bireylerde benlik saygısının sabitliği benlik düzenleme başarısızlığı ile ilişkilendirilmezken ($b = -0.42, SE = 0.37, p = 0.26$) duygularını ifade etmeyenler için, benlik saygısı sabitliği, bireylerin ego tehdidi manipülasyonu altındaki benlik düzenleme başarısızlık puanlarını ($b = 0.69, SE = 0.35, p = 0.04$) pozitif olarak yordamaktadır. Sonuç olarak, daha yüksek benlik saygısı sabitliğine sahip bireyler, duygularını ifade etme fırsatı verilmediğinde daha yüksek benlik düzenlemesi başarısızlığı ile ilişkilendirilmiştir. Etkileşim sonuçlarını daha iyi anlamak için, ana değişkenler ortalama değerlerine göre ikiye (yüksek ve düşük) bölünerek kategorik değişkenlere sahip bir dizi ANOVA yürütüldü.

İkinci analizde cinsiyet, regresyonun ilk adımına kontrol değişkeni olarak girildi. İkinci adımda, ana değişkenler olarak benlik saygısı, koşullu benlik saygısı ve duygu ifadesi girilmiştir. Daha sonra bağımsız değişkenler ile moderatör değişken arasındaki iki yönlü etkileşim girildi. Son olarak, son adımda benlik saygısı, koşullu benlik saygısı ve moderatör değişken arasındaki üç yönlü etkileşim girildi. Elde edilen sonuçlara göre, kadın ve erkekler arasında benlik düzenlemesi başarısızlığı açısından istatistiksel olarak anlamlı farklılık görülmemiştir ($F(1,513) = .324, p = .569$). Buna ek olarak, ana değişkenler ($F(4,510) = .633, p = .639$) ve ana değişkenler ile moderatör değişkeni arasındaki iki yönlü etkileşimler ($F(7,507) = .388, p = .909$) ve üç yönlü değişkenler arası etkileşimler ($F(8,506) = .396, p = .923$), ego tehdidi manipülasyonu altında benlik düzenleme başarısızlığında önemli ölçüde istatistiksel olarak anlamlı farklılık göstermemiştir.

Cinsiyet, benlik saygısı, benlik saygısı sabitliği, koşullu benlik saygısı, duygusal dışavurum ve bu değişkenlerin etkileşimleri arasındaki etkinin benlik düzenlemesi üzerindeki etkisini anlamak için Faktöriyel ANOVA yapılmıştır. ANOVA'nın yürütülmesi için, sürekli bağımsız değişkenler, medyana göre bölme yoluyla kategorik değişkenlere dönüştürülmüştür. Böylece, tüm bağımsız değişkenler düşük ve yüksek olmak üzere iki seviyeye sahip olmuştur. Eğilimi anlamak için 2 (duygusal dışavurum ile duygusal dışavurum olmadan) x 2 (düşük benlik saygısı sabitliği, yüksek benlik saygısı sabitliği) x 2 (düşük benlik saygısı, yüksek benlik saygısı) Faktöriyel ANOVA yapılmıştır. Benlik saygısının temel etkisi, benlik düzenlemesi başarısızlığı üzerinde anlamlı bir etki göstermese de ($F(1,507) = 0,271$, $p = 0,602$, $\eta^2p = 0,001$), yüksek benlik saygısı olanlar, benlik saygısı düşük olan katılımcılara göre daha yüksek benlik düzenlemesi başarısızlığı ortalamasına sahiptir ($MD = -.149$, $SE = .285$, $t(507) = -0.521$, $p = .602$). Duygu dışavurumu, benlik saygısı sabitliği ve benlik saygısı arasındaki etkileşim etkisi, öz düzenleme başarısızlığını anlamlı olarak yordamadı ($F(1,507) = .640$, $p = .424$, $\eta^2p = .001$). Bununla birlikte, duygu dışavurumu ile benlik saygısı sabitliği arasındaki etkileşim etkisi, ego tehdidi manipülasyonu altında benlik düzenleme başarısızlığı üzerinde kısmi anlamlı etki ($F(1,507) = 3.826$, $p = .051$, $\eta^2p = .007$) sağlamıştır. Post-hoc analizi, benlik saygısı sabitliği yüksek olan bireylerin duygularını ifade etmeyenlere göre benlik düzenleme başarısızlığından daha düşük puan aldığını ortaya koymuştur ($MD = -.868$, $SE = .421$, $t(507) = -2.062$, $p = .040$). Sonuç olarak, benlik saygısı sabitliği daha yüksek olan bireyler, duygularını ifade ederken ego tehdidi manipülasyonu altında duygularını ifade etmeyenlere göre daha az benlik düzenlemesi başarısızlığı yaşamaktadır. Veriler cinsiyete göre bölündüğünde, benlik saygısı ile benlik saygısı sabitliği arasındaki etkileşim ($F(1,141) = 5.010$, $p = .027$,

$\eta^2p = .034$) ve duygusal dışavurum ile benlik saygısı arasındaki etkileşim ($F (1,141) = 3.967, p = .048, \eta^2p = .027$) erkek katılımcılar için istatistiksel olarak anlamlıdır. Ayrıca benlik saygısı, duygusal dışavurum ve benlik saygısı sabitliği arasındaki etkileşim kadın katılımcılar için istatistiksel olarak anlamlı değildir ($F (1,358) = .353, p = .553, \eta^2p = .001$). Post-hoc analizi, düşük benlik saygısı sabitliğine sahip erkeklerin, düşük benlik saygısı grubunda daha fazla benlik saygısı sabitliğine sahip olanlara göre daha düşük benlik düzenlemesi başarısızlık puanları aldığını göstermiştir ($MD = -1.603, SE = .707, t (141) = -2.267, p = .025$). Buna ek olarak, düşük benlik saygısı olan erkekler, daha düşük benlik saygısı sabitliği grubunda yüksek benlik saygısına sahip erkeklerden daha düşük benlik düzenleme başarısızlığı puanları almıştır ($MD = -1.603, SE = .70, t (141) = -2.287, p = .024$). Cinsiyete göre yapılan karşılaştırmada, erkek katılımcılar için benlik saygısı ile duygusal dışavurum arasındaki etkileşim istatistiksel olarak anlamlıydı ($F (1,141) = 3.967, p = .048, \eta^2p = .026$). Post-hoc analizinde, düşük benlik saygısı olan erkeklerin duygularını ifade ederken öz-saygıları yüksek olanlara göre benlik düzenlemesi başarısızlığı konusunda daha düşük puanlar aldığını göstermiştir ($MD = -1.479, SE = .708, t (141) = -2.088, p = .039$) ego tehdidi manipülasyonu altında. Buna ek olarak, duygularını ifade eden erkekler, benlik düzenleme başarısızlığından düşük benlik saygısı grubunda duygularını ifade etmeyenlere göre daha düşük puanlar almışlardır ($MD = -1.380, SE = .70, t (141) = -1.953, p = .053$).

Özetle, güvenli bir benlik saygısına sahip (yüksek benlik saygısı sabitliği) duygularını ifade eden bireyler, duygularını ifade etmeyen bireylere göre daha az benlik düzenleme başarısızlığı yaşadılar. Yani, güvenli bir benlik saygısına sahip bireyler, duygularını ifade ettiklerinde daha yüksek benlik düzenleme başarısına

sahiptirler. Benlik saygısı düzeyine ek olarak, cinsiyet de bireylerin benlik düzenleme performansında önemli bir rol oynar. Örneğin, kırılğan düşük benlik saygısına sahip erkekler (daha az benlik saygısı sabitliği ve düşük benlik saygısı), benlik saygısı düşük olan erkeklerden daha az benlik düzenleme başarısızlığına sahipti (yüksek benlik saygısı sabitliği, ancak düşük benlik saygısı). Ayrıca, kırılğan düşük benlik saygısına sahip erkeklerin, kırılğan yüksek benlik saygısına (düşük benlik saygısı sabitliği ve yüksek benlik saygısı) sahip erkeklerden daha az benlik düzenleme başarısızlığı vardı. Son olarak, benlik saygısı ve duygusal dışavurum arasındaki etkileşim, benlik saygısı düşük olan erkeklerin, duygularını ego tehdidi manipülasyonu altında ifade ederken, benlik saygısı yüksek olan erkeklerden daha az benlik düzenleme başarısızlığı yaşadığını ortaya koydu. Kadın katılımcılar için etkileşim etkileri istatistiksel olarak anlamlı değildi.

Tartışma

Bu çalışmanın amacı, ego tehdidi manipülasyonu altında benlik saygısı ve benlik düzenlemesi arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemektir. Daha spesifik olarak, yüksek benlik saygısı olan bireylerin, ego tehdidi manipülasyonu altında, benlik saygısı düşük olanlara (H1) göre daha az benlik düzenlemesi başarısızlığına sahip olacağı varsayılmıştır. Bir başka hipotez, güvenli benlik saygısına sahip bireylerin, ego tehdidi manipülasyonu altında, kırılğan benlik saygısı (H2) olanlara göre daha düşük benlik düzenleme başarısızlığına sahip olacağıdır. Bu bağlamda, benlik saygısı türleri ile benlik düzenlemesi arasındaki ilişkide duygusal dışavurumun moderatör rolü araştırılmıştır. Bu nedenle kırılğan benlik saygısı yüksek olan bireylerin duygularını ifade etme fırsatı bulurlarsa daha az benlik düzenlemesi başarısızlığına sahip olmaları beklendiği varsayılmıştır (H3).

Araştırma bulgularına göre H1 desteklenmemiştir. Benlik saygısının temel etkisi benlik düzenleme başarısızlığı üzerinde önemli bir etki göstermese de, yüksek benlik saygısı, düşük benlik saygısına göre daha yüksek benlik düzenleme başarısızlığına sahiptir. Bu nedenle, yüksek benlik saygısının, ego tehdidi manipülasyonu altında benlik düzenleme görevlerinde daha fazla başarısız olma eğiliminde olduğu sonucuna varılmıştır. Bu eğilim, yüksek benlik saygısı olan bireylerin benlik düzenleme başarısızlığında kötü performans sergilediğini gösteren yakın tarihli bir çalışmanın (Lambird ve Mann, 2006) bulgularını desteklemiştir. Bununla birlikte, son zamanlarda yapılan çalışmalarda, yüksek benlik saygısı türlerinin etkisi konusunda karışık bulgular vardır. Yukarıda bahsedildiği gibi, güvenli ve kırılgan benlik saygısı, ego tehdidi manipülasyonu altında benlik düzenleme üzerinde farklı etkiler sunar. Benlik düzenleme başarısızlığı açısından düşük ve yüksek benlik saygısı arasında fark olmamasının nedeni, kırılgan veya güvenli bir özgüvene sahip olmanın farklı etkiler sunabilmesidir. Benlik düzenleme açısından güvenli ve kırılgan benlik saygısı arasında anlamlı bir fark bulunmasa da, sabit (güvenli) benlik saygısına sahip katılımcılar, benlik düzenleme başarısızlığı konusunda dalgalı (kırılgan) benlik saygısına sahip katılımcılara göre daha yüksek puanlar elde etmiştir. Geçmişteki çalışmaların, kırılgan benlik saygısına sahip kişilerin ego tehdidi manipülasyonu altında daha fazla benlik düzenleme başarısızlığı yaşayacağını öne sürdüğü düşünüldüğünde bu beklenmedik bir bulguydu.

Mevcut çalışmanın sınırlılığı oldukça fazladır. İlk olarak, katılımcılar üniversite öğrencilerinden seçilmiştir. Bu nedenle, örneklem yaş, eğitim durumu ve gelir gibi birçok kritik demografik değişken açısından ne rastgele ne de temsili idi. İkinci olarak, mevcut çalışmanın yöntemi önemli sınırlamalara sahiptir. Ego tehdidi

oluşturmak için olumsuz geri bildirim vermek yaygın bir yöntemdir. Ancak bu çalışmada, geri bildirimleri konusunda kötü hissetmeyen katılımcılar vardı. Bunun olası nedenleri; manipülasyonun çalışmaması, katılımcıların ortalama yakın puan almaları ya da kırılğan benlik saygısı olan bireylerin savunma mekanizmaları olabilir. Diğer bir yöntemsel sorun ise Stroop görevi olabilir. Asıl amacından farklı olarak kullanılsa da katılımcıların dürtüsel davranışlarını tetiklemesi nedeniyle karıştırıcı bir etken sunmuş olabilir. İleride yapılacak çalışmalar, dürtüsel davranışları tetiklemeyen bir oyun seçimi gibi metodolojik konularda dikkatli olmalı ve çalışmayı laboratuvar ortamında yürütmelidir.

Literatürde incelendiği üzere benlik saygısı ile benlik düzenleme arasındaki ilişkiyi araştıran pek çok araştırma bulunmaktadır. Bununla birlikte, güvenli ve kırılğan benlik saygısının benlik düzenleme üzerindeki etkilerini inceleyen çalışmalar da literatürde bulunmaktadır. Ayrıca, bu çalışmalar ego tehdidinin etkisini de göz ardı etmemektedir. Bununla birlikte, yazarın bildiği kadarıyla, duygusal ifadenin ego tehdidi manipülasyonu altında öz düzenleme üzerindeki etkisini incelemiş bir çalışma henüz yoktur. Bu çalışmanın temel amacı, ego tehdidi manipülasyonu altında duygusal ifadenin benlik saygısı ve benlik düzenleme başarısızlığı arasındaki ilişkiye olası etkilerini tasvir etmek için ilk adımı atmaktır.

Bu tezin temel amacı, benlik saygısı ve benlik düzenlemesi başarısızlığı arasındaki ilişkide duygusal dışavurumun rolünü incelemektir. Bu çalışma birkaç çıkarım sunmaktadır. Birincisi, düşük veya yüksek benlik saygısı olan bireyler, belirtilen cinsiyetlerinin farklılıklarına göre benlik düzenleme başarısızlığı konusunda farklılık göstermektedir. Öte yandan, güvenli bir benlik saygısı türü olarak benlik saygısı

sabitliđi, bu iliřkide kritik bir rol oynar. Son olarak, duygusal ifadenin etkisi, güvenli benlik saygısı bađlamında benlik dñzenlemesi ile iliřkilidir.



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