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MEASURE OF MOTIVATIONS FOR EXTRINSIC EMOTION REGULATION

"It's Part of My Responsibility to Help": Developing a Measure of Motivations for Extrinsic
Emotion Regulation

by

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Honors Thesis

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Abstract

Previous research in the field of emotion regulation has largely focused on the ways in which we regulate our own emotions, but not as much work has been done to examine the processes by which we regulate the emotions of others. The current research aims to develop a measure of motivations for engaging in extrinsic emotion regulation (EER), with a focus on why we attempt to down-regulate negative emotional experiences of those around us. Study 1 used narrative responses to formulate and validate a qualitative coding schema for categorizing motives for engaging in EER. The wide variety of EER motivations identified in Study 1 were used to inform a self-report measure of what motives people tend to use in everyday life. Study 2 involved an exploratory factor analysis of the preliminary Extrinsic Emotion Regulation Motives Scale (EERMS) that revealed four distinct, underlying factors for engaging in EER. Overall, there are a wide variety of motivations for regulating the emotions of others in daily life. Future research plans include revising the coding schema to improve inter-rater reliability, conduct a confirmatory factor analysis of the EERMS, and assess how an individual’s tendency to use certain EER motives impacts their social and mental well-being.

Keywords: interpersonal emotion regulation, qualitative coding, factor analysis, motivation, social interactions

“It’s Part of My Responsibility to Help”: Developing a Measure of Motivations for Extrinsic
Emotion Regulation

Introduction

Imagine you are in math class with your friend and the professor hands back the exams from the previous week, and the grades are dismal. Most of the emotion regulation literature has focused on what happens when we get a bad grade – we may feel sad because we expected to do better, or we may feel angry because we think the professor makes the exams too difficult. To make ourselves feel better, we might try to engage in one of the strategies posited by Gross (1998) in the Process Model of Emotion Regulation. For example, we might try to suppress our feelings as to not reveal our bad grade to our peers, or we might try to reappraise the situation by telling ourselves we could’ve studied more and next time we’ll do better. But what happens when our friend receives the bad grade and is upset, and emotion regulation becomes an *interpersonal*, rather than *intrapersonal*, process?

Growing interest in the field of interpersonal emotion regulation has aimed to illustrate how emotion regulation functions in social interactions (Gross, 2013). Efforts to develop a better understanding of interpersonal emotion regulation has largely been due to Zaki and Williams’ (2013) interpersonal emotion regulation framework, which distinguishes not only between intra- and interpersonal emotion regulation processes, but also *intrinsic* and *extrinsic* emotion regulation. In their proposed framework, *intrinsic* emotion regulation refers to an individual’s attempt to regulate their own emotional experience by initiating social contact, while *extrinsic* emotion regulation refers to when a person attempts to regulate another person’s emotions through social contact (Zaki & Williams, 2013). The current paper will be specifically focusing on the concept of extrinsic emotion regulation and how it has and hasn’t been studied.

Zaki and Williams argue that, although psychological research has been examining aspects of extrinsic emotion regulation (EER) for decades (e.g., prosocial behaviors, empathy, social support), little research has been done to examine how all of these socioemotional processes interact through one framework (2013). Research has shown that positive interpersonal relationships are dependent on one’s ability to effectively regulate both their own emotions as well as the emotions of others, and that people with higher competence in regard to others’ emotions are more likely to regulate the emotions of others (Nozaki, 2015). Extrinsic emotion regulation also resembles other interpersonal processes, such as social support (Marroquin, 2011). Hoffman and colleagues (2016) note that interpersonal emotion regulation is a much narrower construct than social support, as it only encompasses those emotion regulation processes that occur in an interpersonal context, while social support more broadly refers to the exchange of resources between a provider and a recipient (Hoffman, 2014; Shumaker & Brownell, 1984).

When engaging in extrinsic emotion regulation, individuals also employ a number of behaviors to achieve their regulatory goal that usually come in the form of prosocial behaviors, such as emotional or practical support (Zaki & Williams, 2013). However, previous studies have also examined the strategies people use when regulating the emotions of others. Niven and colleagues (2009) developed a theoretical classification of interpersonal affect regulation strategies, identifying both cognitive and behavioral strategies that aimed to either engage in or divert attention away from a situation, with the intent of improving or worsening the target’s affect. Williams (2007) also presented a theoretical framework for understanding the strategies used to manage the negative emotions of others called the Interpersonal Emotion Management (IEM) theory. The IEM strategies include situation modification, attentional deployment,

cognitive change, and modulating the emotional response, mirroring Gross’ (1998) Process Model of Emotion Regulation, save situation selection since a regulator cannot choose the emotion-eliciting situation for the target (2007).

While it is known that people engage in EER in certain context and have specific strategies for doing so, not as much research has been done to examine the reasons why we do it. The interpersonal emotion regulation framework proposed by Zaki and Williams (2013) also distinguishes between response-dependent and response-independent processes within emotion regulation, explaining how the prosocial behaviors related to EER may be representative of the “other-oriented” motivations. With “other-oriented” motives, the success of the regulator’s attempt is dependent on the feedback from the target indicating that they have successfully regulated the target’s emotions. Using the bad grade example, our regulatory attempt can only be deemed successful if our friend tells us they feel better. Response-independent processes, on the other hand, involve regulatory goals that do not depend on feedback from the target in order to be fulfilled. For example, it has been suggested that the act of engaging in prosocial behavior makes us feel better, and therefore the perception that we have effectively regulated our friend’s emotions is enough to fulfill our goal.

Furthermore, a study by Netzer et al. (2015) suggested that we have both hedonic and instrumental goals when regulating the emotions of others. They predicted that if people were aware that certain emotions in others could be personally benefit them, they would be more inclined to try to increase that emotion in the other person and would choose to expose them to stimuli that would elicit this emotion, even it had negative consequences for the other person involved. While previous research on interpersonal emotion regulation has primarily focused on the hedonic goals (e.g., regulating your friend’s negative emotions to make them feel better),

Netzer and colleagues provided evidence to show that we also motivated by instrumental goals we may have when engaging in EER (e.g., regulating your friend’s negative emotions because their emotions prevent you from getting work done), even if these instrumental benefits come at a hedonic cost to the regulatory target.

Much of the literature on EER as well as why people do it has been grounded in occupational literature. For example, Little and colleagues (2011) developed their Interpersonal Emotion Management Scale (IEMS) using Williams’ (2007) IEM framework to measure the types of strategies people report using when engaging in EER in the workplace. Understanding how to effectively manage the emotions of others in the workplace has important implications for customer service, organization, work performance, teamwork, and leadership relationships (Little et al., 2011). Niven (2016) proposed a framework for understanding the reasons why engage in extrinsic emotion regulation at work, positing that people choose to regulate the emotions of others based on autonomy (intrinsic vs. extrinsic), relatedness (prosocial vs. egoistic), and competence (performance- vs. pleasure-oriented). The purpose of this framework was to identify how motives influences the types of emotions we elicit in others, what strategies we use, and how effective interpersonal emotion regulation is in professional organizations. However, little research has been done to understand what motivates people to engage in EER outside of the workplace and in everyday life.

Based what previous research regarding EER has addressed and given that the motivations for EER are likely to affect what kind of regulatory action is taken and what strategies are used to regulate others’ emotions, the current research aims to investigate what types of motivation people have for engaging in EER in their daily lives. Given that previous research has established that (1) extrinsic emotion regulation occurs in contexts outside of the workplace

(Zaki & Williams, 2013), and (2) the reasons why people engage in EER have certain meanings and they influence the direction, path, and effects of emotion regulation attempts (Niven, 2016), it is crucial that we develop a better understanding of how extrinsic emotion regulation works in everyday life, outside of a controlled setting. Specifically, how do the reasons why we regulate others’ emotions affect not only our relationships with others, but also our own personal well-being?

In order to understand the social and psychological implications of motivations for EER, we must first elaborate on the possible reasons why people engage in this process. In Study 1, narrative responses were coded using emergent coding techniques to develop a qualitative coding schema that identifies various reasons why people engage in EER. Narrative responses were transformed into items for a self-report measure of EER motives in Study 2. Because the current study is exploratory in nature, I do not offer any specific predictions. However, I will argue that individuals will report a range of EER motives that cannot be adequately captured in any existing theoretical framework.

Study 1 - Methods

Study 1a – Narrative Coding

100 participants were recruited through Amazon’s Mechanical Turk, but only the responses of 85 workers (49.4% female; 21.2% non-white, $M = 33.65$ years) were used in analyses due to inappropriate responses or failure to follow directions, as determined at the discretion of the first author. Participants were compensated with a \$4.00 for their participation.

Participants were first asked about how often they felt responsible for altering another person’s emotions, specifically looking at times where they tried to up-regulate positive emotions or down-regulate negative emotions (i.e., “In the past month, how often did you

attempt to make other people feel better or somehow manage their negative emotions?”, Very rarely – Almost always). Then, participants completed an event reconstruction task that prompted them to describe a time when they had to regulate the negative emotions of another person. Participants were presented with open-ended questions asking them the strategies they used to regulate this other person’s emotions, and most critical to the current research, they were asked why they regulate that person’s emotions. Participants completed either two (sample 1) or three (sample 2) event reconstruction tasks. Additionally, participants were asked to complete a battery of self-report measures assessing related constructs regarding emotional competencies, various aspects of their well-being, and demographic information.

Participants’ responses to why they regulated a target’s negative emotions were analyzed to identify recurrent themes or reasons why participants decided to engage in extrinsic emotion regulation (EER). Thematic analyses of the responses led to the development of emergent codes, meaning they evolved from concepts, actions, or meanings in the data and are different from a priori or “predetermined” codes (Stuckey, 2015). These codes were organized into major thematic categories that reflected a wide variety of motivations for engaging in EER, such as obligation, compassion, and reciprocation. Although there was some variability in the frequency of certain themes across the responses, all of the codes and thematic categories were represented in multiple participant responses.

Three trained coders independently coded the narrative responses using a spreadsheet and established agreement on the coding guide developed by the first author and the meaning of each code. Because participants completed either two or three event reconstruction tasks, coders analyzed a total of 179 narrative responses, with each response being assigned one or more codes (range = 1-3 codes). Disagreement among coders was resolved by ruling in favor of the majority

coding (i.e., if two coders assigned “compassion” to a response but the third coder assigned “obligation”, “compassion” would be ultimately used in analysis).

Study 1b – Narrative Coding Replication

150 participants were recruited through Amazon’s Mechanical Turk, but only the responses of 138 workers (51.1% female; 34.5% non-white; $M = 33.58$ years) were used in analyses due to inappropriate responses or failure to follow directions, as determined at the discretion of the first author. Participants were compensated \$2.00 for their participation.

Similar to Study 1a, participants were asked about how often they felt responsible for regulating another person’s emotions, specifically looking at times where they up-regulated positive emotions and down-regulated negative emotions. Participants then completed an event reconstruction task that prompted them to describe a time when they had to regulate the negative emotions of another person. While Study 1a asked about both strategies used and the reasons why they regulated another’s negative emotions, Study 1b primarily focused on *why*, targeting the motives behind engaging in EER in these situations. In this study, participants were asked to make notes about three separate occasions where they regulated the negative emotions of someone else but were randomly assigned to complete one of these three events to reduce the workload of the participant. In addition to the open-ended questions, participants were also asked to complete a battery of questionnaires to gather demographic information.

Participant responses as to why they regulated a target’s negative emotion were first analyzed by myself using the coding categories developed in Study 1a. The purpose of this was to validate the original coding schema and to confirm that the themes and codes that emerged in Study 1a were also apparent in a novel sample. Although there was some variability in the

frequency of certain themes across the responses, all of the codes and thematic categories were represented in multiple participant responses.

A new set of three trained coders independently coded the narrative responses using a spreadsheet and established agreement on the coding guide developed by the first author in Study 1a and the meaning of each code. Coders analyzed a total of 138 narratives, and disagreement among coders was resolved by ruling in favor of the majority coding.

Study 1 - Results

In total, there were five overarching thematic categories and eleven specific codes that were used to identify different types of motivations for engaging in EER. The thematic categories and specific codes are listed in Table 1 along with definitions and examples of each. After responses had been coded by the three independent coders, I determined the interrater reliability for each type of motivation by calculating the kappa score for each pair of coders and then averaging the scores together (see: Table 2). Overall, there was a great deal of range in the reliability of the motivation codes assigned by the coders across the two samples. For example, the interrater agreement for codes referring to “reciprocation” was highly reliable due to the similar kappa scores ($k_{1a} = 0.81$, $k_{1b} = 0.64$), but the interrater agreement for “available resources” was highly unreliable because of the wide range of the kappa scores ($k_{1a} = 0.44$, $k_{1b} = 0.19$).

Table 1: Thematic categories and specific codes for motivations for engaging in extrinsic emotion regulation.

<i>Motives for Extrinsic Emotion Regulation</i>	<i>Definition</i>
Obligation and Responsibility	Regulator indicates that they are obligated to (have to) regulate NE of target because of role or relationship to target
Reciprocation	

<i>Indebtedness (one-time or one-way)</i>	Returning a favor; Regulator is repaying the target for previous NE regulation done to them (specific past occasion is referenced or target repeatedly helps regulator in past, e.g. "they always help me so I should help them" mentality)
<i>Recurrent reciprocation</i>	Back-and-forth reciprocity; Regulator and target switch off on regulatory goals (repeatedly helping the other with NE regulation)
<i>Anticipated reciprocation</i>	Regulator expects reciprocation of NE regulation from the target in the future
<i>“Golden Rule” reciprocation</i>	Regulator would want someone to help them if they were in that situation or referencing a time where they wish someone helped them
Experienced Distress	
<i>Target distress</i>	Goal is to reduce NE of target, doesn't like seeing the target experience NE (e.g. judgments or statements about target's NE)
<i>Others’ distress</i>	Goal is to reduce NE of others around target and the target; preventative measures taken to ensure others are not affected by the target's NE
<i>Personal distress</i>	Goal is to reduce, prevent, or avoid NE/sustain or increase PE of regulator; cites personal affective state (e.g. experiencing distress, upset)
Compassion	Reduce the NE of target because they care about/love them, express love/empathy, or they like helping others
Cognitive Change	
<i>Rationalization</i>	Encouraging cognitive change; believes that the target should not be experiencing their current level of NE or is disagreeing with target's NE
<i>Available Resources</i>	Regulator has the resources/knowledge/ability to properly regulate the target's NE

<i>Motive code</i>	<i>Study 1a</i>	<i>Study 1b</i>
Obligation	.52	.70
Reciprocation	.81	.64
Target Distress	.38	.32
Personal distress	.68	.58
Others’ distress	.73	.60
Compassion	.65	.61
Rationalization	.33	.36
Available Resources	.44	.19

Table 2: Average kappa scores of each code calculated for each study. Kappa scores between 0.41 and 0.60 are considered moderate, between 0.61 and 0.80 are substantial, and between 0.81 and 1.00 are almost perfect.

On the other hand, the prevalence of motivation types was fairly consistent across the two studies, meaning codes appeared at relatively the same frequency in each sample. Prevalence was calculated by counting the number of times a particular motivation code was cited in the responses for each sample and then divided by the total number of codes cited in each sample. “Target distress” (Study 1a = 30.70%, Study 1b = 30.40%) and “Compassion” (Study 1a = 26.30%, Study 1b = 31.20%) were the most common themes identified in participant narratives. The prevalence of each type of motivation across the two studies can be found in Figure 1.

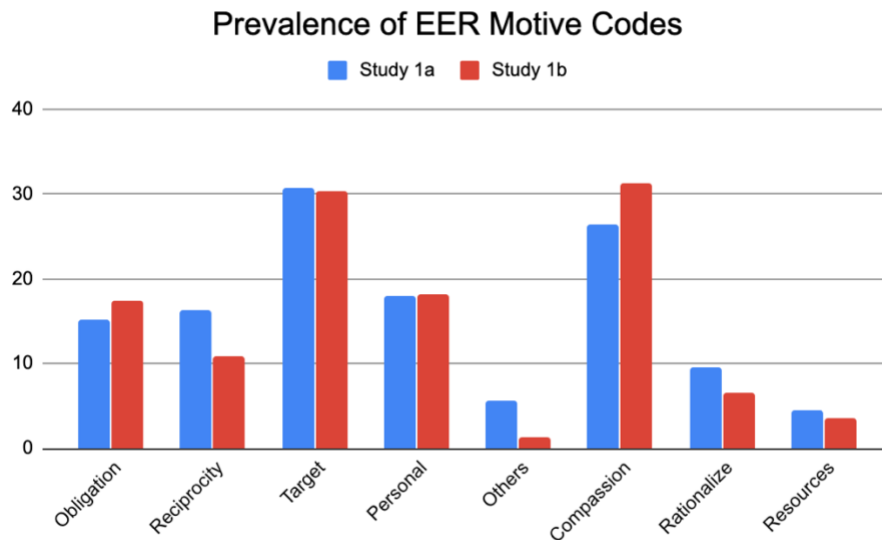


Figure 1: Prevalence (%) of motive codes across Studies 1a and 1b. Codes appeared consistently across the two studies, with Target Distress and Compassion appearing the most frequently.

Study 2 - Methods

200 participants (53% female; 28.2% non-white; $M = 35.01$ years) were recruited through Amazon’s Mechanical Turk and were compensated \$4.00 for their participation. Like Studies 1a

and 1b, participants were asked about how often they felt responsible for changing another person’s emotions, but instead of completing an event reconstruction task, participants were asked to complete a global questionnaire assessing their motivations for regulating the emotions of others. This “EER Motives” measure was developed by the first author based on participant narrative responses from Studies 1a and 1b in an attempt to most accurately capture this phenomenon through 34 self-report items. Example items include “I feel obligated to make others feel better,” and “I don’t like seeing others feel distressed”. Responses were on a Likert-type scale, ranging from 1 = “Strongly disagree”, 2 = “Moderately disagree”, 3 = “Slightly disagree”, 4 = “Slightly agree”, 5 = “Moderately agree”, 6 = “Strongly agree”.

Participants also completed a battery of assessments to measure related constructs and various aspects well-being, which can all be found in the appendix (e.g., empathic concern, emotion contagion, Machiavellianism, Big Five Personality index, social support towards others, social well-being, extrinsic emotion regulation strategies, emotional intelligence, psychological well-being, and physical well-being). Participants also completed questionnaires to gather demographic information.

Study 2 – Results

Thirty-four questions relating to motivations for extrinsic emotion regulation were factor analyzed using a parallel analysis with oblimin (oblique) rotation. A parallel analysis was used instead of a principal component analysis (PCA) because the purpose of a PCA is to extract the maximum variance from the data set by reducing a large number of variables by producing components, while a parallel analysis postulates that the data is affected by underlying common factors (Yong & Pearce, 2013). Parallel analysis-generated scree plot suggested that there were four factors, and the majority of the variance was explained by the first three factors.

Solutions for the two, three, and four factors were each examined using oblimin rotations of the factor loading matrix, meaning the factors are allowed to be correlated with one another during analysis. The four factor solution, which explained 49% of the variance, was preferred because of both theoretical and empirical reasons. First, the four factor solution derived previous theoretical support from the thematic categories found in the narrative responses of Studies 1a and 1b. Second, the four factor solution presented more acceptable fit statistics than the other two solutions, as determined by the Tucker-Lewis index and the RMSEA index adequacy tests. The initial RMSEA index for the four factor solution was 0.071, and although this is below 0.05, which is the ideal value for RMSEA indices, it is better than the two factor solution (RMSEA = 0.089) and the three factor solution (RMSEA = 0.08). The initial Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) for the four factor solution was 0.843, which is not above the standard value of 0.9, but it is more acceptable than the TLI for the two factor solution (TLI = 0.746) and the three factor solution (TLI = 0.798). For these reasons, I decided to use the four factor solution for the final solution, using the factor labels “Other-Oriented”, “Self-Oriented”, “Obligation”, and “Reciprocation”.

Before conducting the final four factor solution, a total of six items were eliminated because they failed to meet the minimum criteria of having a primary factor loading of .3 or above and no cross-loading of .3 or above. The items “I don’t want to be seen as a bad person,” “I have the knowledge to make them feel better,” and “I wanted them to realize they did not feel that way” did not load above .3 on any factor. The items “I am good at making others feel better” and “I understand how they feel because I have been in their situation before” had factor loadings between .3 and .4 on both Other-Oriented and Reciprocation.

For the final stage, a parallel analysis of the remaining 28 items, using an oblimin rotation, was conducted, with four factors explaining 53% of the variance. All items in this

analysis had primary loadings over .5 except for the item, “Their emotions make me feel bad too.” No items had cross-loadings above .3. The factor loading matrix for this final solution is presented in Table 3. Means, standard deviations, minimum, and maximum scores for each item are listed in Table 4.

Table 3: Factor analysis of the 28 items from the preliminary Extrinsic Emotion Regulation Motives Scale (EERMS). Significant loadings (> 0.30) are bolded.

	<i>Other-Oriented</i>	<i>Self-Oriented</i>	<i>Reciprocation</i>	<i>Obligation</i>
<i>I don't like seeing others feel distressed.</i>	0.65	0.23	0.16	-0.18
<i>Their distress is making me uncomfortable.</i>	-0.08	0.65	-0.01	0.05
<i>When other people are upset, it is harder for me to do what I want to do.</i>	-0.21	0.55	0.09	0.21
<i>I feel obligated to make others feel better.</i>	0.00	0.02	-0.02	0.81
<i>Helping others with their problems makes me feel good.</i>	0.57	0.05	0.25	-0.08
<i>I genuinely care about the well-being of others.</i>	0.83	-0.08	-0.09	-0.05
<i>Their emotions might negatively affect others around them.</i>	0.10	0.54	0.09	0.10
<i>Helping others is an important part of who I am.</i>	0.69	-0.10	0.06	0.06
<i>I would want someone to do the same for me in that situation.</i>	0.09	-0.03	0.82	-0.13
<i>I would hope they would make me feel better in the future.</i>	-0.08	0.03	0.74	0.08
<i>They have helped me in the past so I should help them now.</i>	0.04	-0.02	0.59	0.08
<i>Their emotions make me feel bad too.</i>	0.28	0.44	-0.10	0.12
<i>It makes my life easier when they are not upset.</i>	-0.06	0.58	0.12	0.29
<i>I always try to make others feel better when they are feeling down.</i>	0.59	-0.02	0.14	0.10
<i>I felt responsible for making them feel better.</i>	0.16	0.09	-0.04	0.64
<i>I knew they would help me if I were in their situation.</i>	0.14	-0.13	0.56	0.16
<i>I love and care about them.</i>	0.78	0.05	-0.07	0.08
<i>I want those around me to be happy.</i>	0.61	0.17	0.11	0.07
<i>I don't want to be around people experiencing negative emotions.</i>	-0.03	0.79	0.03	-0.06
<i>My life is easier when the people around me are not upset.</i>	0.10	0.67	-0.01	0.09
<i>Their emotions have a negative impact on me.</i>	0.00	0.78	-0.09	0.03

<i>I feel like it is the right thing to do.</i>	0.57	-0.04	0.23	0.10
<i>It is in my best interest to reduce their negative emotions.</i>	0.12	0.59	-0.02	0.14
<i>I consider myself to be a compassionate person.</i>	0.72	-0.17	-0.01	0.10
<i>Their negative emotions stress me out.</i>	-0.03	0.81	-0.03	-0.07
<i>Their feelings are important to me.</i>	0.78	0.01	0.00	0.00
<i>I don’t want them to take out their negative feelings on me.</i>	-0.02	0.75	-0.05	-0.09
<i>My relationship to them makes me feel obligated to help them.</i>	-0.01	0.08	0.10	0.61

Table 4: Mean, standard deviation, minimum, and maximum values for each item on the preliminary Extrinsic Emotion Regulation Motives Scale (EERMS)

	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Minimum</i>	<i>Maximum</i>
<i>I don’t like seeing others feel distressed.</i>	5.89	1.205	1	7
<i>Their distress is making me uncomfortable.</i>	4.37	1.688	1	7
<i>When other people are upset, it is harder for me to do what I want to do.</i>	4.22	1.652	1	7
<i>I feel obligated to make others feel better.</i>	4.67	1.529	1	7
<i>Helping others with their problems makes me feel good.</i>	5.67	1.112	2	7
<i>I genuinely care about the well-being of others.</i>	5.98	1.066	2	7
<i>Their emotions might negatively affect others around them.</i>	4.80	1.532	1	7
<i>Helping others is an important part of who I am.</i>	5.69	1.108	3	7
<i>I would want someone to do the same for me in that situation.</i>	5.71	1.195	2	7
<i>I would hope they would make me feel better in the future.</i>	5.46	1.402	1	7
<i>They have helped me in the past so I should help them now.</i>	5.17	1.388	1	7
<i>Their emotions make me feel bad too.</i>	4.98	1.517	1	7
<i>It makes my life easier when they are not upset.</i>	4.96	1.563	1	7
<i>I always try to make others feel better when they are feeling down.</i>	5.56	1.174	2	7
<i>I felt responsible for making them feel better.</i>	4.64	1.595	1	7
<i>I knew they would help me if I were in their situation.</i>	5.26	1.264	1	7
<i>I love and care about them.</i>	6.09	1.099	2	7
<i>I want those around me to be happy.</i>	6.07	1.089	2	7
<i>I don’t want to be around people experiencing negative emotions.</i>	4.60	1.714	1	7
<i>My life is easier when the people around me are not upset.</i>	5.23	1.456	1	7

<i>Their emotions have a negative impact on me.</i>	4.47	1.644	1	7
<i>I feel like it is the right thing to do.</i>	5.92	1.064	2	7
<i>It is in my best interest to reduce their negative emotions.</i>	4.84	1.523	1	7
<i>I consider myself to be a compassionate person.</i>	5.72	1.183	2	7
<i>Their negative emotions stress me out.</i>	4.49	1.784	1	7
<i>Their feelings are important to me.</i>	5.91	1.104	2	7
<i>I don't want them to take out their negative feelings on me.</i>	4.40	1.811	1	7
<i>My relationship to them makes me feel obligated to help them..</i>	5.08	1.513	1	7

Factor correlations were also calculated for the four factor solution and are displayed in Table 5. Other-oriented and Reciprocation ($r = 0.46$), as well as Self-oriented and Obligation ($r = 0.40$) were positively correlated with each other, meaning as participants scored higher on one, they also scored higher on the other. Although one might expect there to be a negative correlation between Other-oriented and Self-oriented due to the nature of their items, but interestingly, there was no correlation between the two factors ($r = -0.05$). The slight trend in the negative direction, however, should be further investigated in future studies. There was also a lack of correlation between Self-oriented and Reciprocation ($r = 0.01$). The absence of relationships between these factors means that an individual can score high on one of these factors and it does not influence their score on the other – they can be high on both, low on both, or high on one factor and low on the other.

	Other-oriented	Self-oriented	Reciprocation	Obligation
Other-oriented	1	-0.05	0.46	0.22
Self-oriented	-0.05	1	0.01	0.40
Reciprocation	0.46	0.01	1	0.13
Obligation	0.22	0.40	0.13	1

Figure 5: Factor correlations for the final four factor solution. Other-oriented and Reciprocation, as well as Self-oriented and Obligation were positively correlated with each other, but there was a lack of a correlation between Other- and Self-oriented, as well as Self-oriented and Reciprocation.

Overall, an exploratory factor analysis revealed that a four factor solution was the most appropriate, identifying four latent factors underlying the data: Other-oriented, Self-oriented, Reciprocation, and Obligation. Furthermore, these four factors reflect the original thematic categories developed in Study 1. The original 34 item scale was reduced to 28 items based on various criteria to improve the fit of the model. A confirmatory factor analysis is needed to validate the model derived from the EFA.

Discussion

While much of the emotion regulation literature to date has focused on forms of intrapersonal emotion regulation, in recent years there has been a growing field of interest in forms of interpersonal emotion regulation, specifically extrinsic emotion regulation. Extrinsic emotion regulation (EER) refers to the regulatory processes that occur between individuals in a social context and is known to be related to other emotion-related constructs such as empathy, prosocial behaviors, and emotional intelligence (Zaki & Williams, 2013; Nozaki, 2015). Although these constructs are related to EER, they do not fully capture the phenomena.

Niven (2017) outlined four key characteristics of extrinsic interpersonal emotion regulation in an attempt to establish a clear definition of this process. She presents EER as a (1) regulatory process, that (2) has an affective target state, is (3) a deliberate process, and (4) has a social target. The regulatory characteristic of EER is further specified as a goal-directed process, meaning that when individuals engage in this process, they do are motivated to do so with the intent of fulfilling some higher-order goal such as compassion, instrumentality, or emotional labor. Previous research suggests that people are motivated to engage in EER for hedonic reasons (e.g., wanting to make a significant other feel better after a tough day at work) or instrumental reasons (e.g., providing exceptional customer service to get a promotion), and

recent work by Niven (2016) has attempted to differentiate between the types of goals people may have when regulating the emotions of others in the workplace (Netzer et al., 2015). When reviewing the literature available on EER I came across the following dilemma: while research has been done on the goals that motivate us to engage in EER, the more extensive frameworks are often limited to workplace settings and do not adequately capture the wider range of motives people may experience in everyday life.

The current study sought to address this issue through the formation of a qualitative coding schema for narratives describing the reasons why people engage in EER (Study 1), in addition to the development of a scale for measuring the types of motives people tend to have when they regulate the emotions of others (Study 2). This exploratory study aimed to foster a more thorough understanding of EER by acknowledging the wide range of motivations people have for engaging in this interpersonal, regulatory process. A coding schema comprised of five thematic categories and eleven specific codes emerged from a sample of narrative responses and was further validated in a separate sample. Using examples from narrative responses, items for a self-report measure were assembled and were analyzed using an exploratory factor analysis, which revealed four underlying factors to assess what types of motives people have for engaging in EER. The factors identified by the exploratory factor analysis also reflect the original qualitative schema, providing further evidence for the existence of these motive categories.

There is significant existing research regarding the reasons why we might want to change the trajectory of our own emotions, and only recently has research started to investigate the reasons why we might want to interject into someone else’s emotional experience to change the way they feel (see review in Tamir, 2015; Niven, 2016). It is also known that intrapersonal emotion regulation has affective, cognitive, and social consequences, including possible links to

psychopathology and physical health (Gross, 2013). In order to understand how interpersonal extrinsic emotion regulation is related to these and other constructs, it is important to be aware of the reasons why we engage in this process even when it may have significant consequences for us. For example, repeatedly attempting to regulating the negative emotions of others may cause us to experience negative emotions based on theories of emotional contagion, but this may be prevented if we perceive our attempts to regulate their emotions as successful.

The goals and motivations we have for engaging in extrinsic emotion regulation may also influence the types of emotions we want to regulate in others, as well as the strategies we choose to employ in those situations (Niven, 2017). The EER motives scale developed in Study 2 can potentially be used to assess how peoples’ motive tendencies are related to the types of regulation strategies they would to use to regulate others’ emotions, as measured using scales such as the IEMS (Little et al., 2011). If an individual tends to have self-oriented motives, they may opt to use more response modulation strategies than cognitive change strategies; for example, if your lab partner is upset about their bad exam grade and is too distracted to work on your group project, you might tell them to “relax” or ask them to stop moping around so you can get your work done. When examining the types of emotions people want to regulate in others in relation to the types of motives they tend to have, someone who expresses other-oriented motives more frequently might be more likely to engage in EER when someone else is experiencing strong negative emotions because you care about how others feel. In order to investigate research questions such as these, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) must be conducted in order to ensure that the factor solution is a proper fit or if it should be modified before being included in future analyses.

There are certain limitations of this study need to be addressed. First, recruiting participants using Amazon’s MTurk may be considered somewhat problematic due to issues with bot responses or participants giving ingenuine responses. Due to the nature of this study, MTurk was the best option for recruiting participants because it allowed me to recruit a large sample necessary for the proper analyses at a relatively low cost, in addition to gathering a diverse and therefore more representative sample than if I had recruited from a small, liberal arts college campus or the community. Second, the inter-rater reliability of the coding schema was somewhat inconsistent, suggesting that the criteria used for the codes should be revised and reanalyzed in a future study to possibly improve the reliability of the codes. Further, codes with consistently low reliability (e.g. rationalization, available resources) should be further examined to determine if they would better fit under another existing category or need to be renamed. Lastly, the disproportionate number of items within each factor of the EERM scale should also be addressed. It is possible factors could be condensed by conducting a more rigorous analysis, such as requiring higher factor loadings (e.g., making the minimum loading 0.5) or eliminating items that sound repetitive.

By understanding why people regulate the emotions of others, we can better understand how the interpersonal emotion regulation processes occurring during social interactions impact our relationships with others. Further, this deeper understanding will also allow future research to address how our motives affect our social, mental, and physical well-being. The current investigation contributes to the growing research surrounding interpersonal emotion regulation by proposing that people have a wide variety of motives and goals when attempting to regulate the emotions of others.

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Appendix

A. Qualitative coding guide to identify motives for extrinsic emotion regulation

Thematic categories and specific codes	Criteria
<i>Obligation</i>	Regulator indicates that they are obligated to regulate the negative emotions of a target before of a role or their relationship to the target
<i>Reciprocation</i>	
<i>Indebtedness (one-time or one-way)</i>	Returning a favor to the target; the Regulator is repaying the target for previous regulation of negative emotions (e.g., specific instance is referenced or target has repeatedly helped the regulator in the past)
<i>Recurrent</i>	“Back and forth” reciprocity; Regulator and target switch between being the target of regulation or the regulator (i.e., repeatedly helping one another with negative emotions)
<i>Anticipated</i>	Regulator expects target to reciprocate negative emotion regulation in the future.
<i>Golden rule</i>	Regulator would want someone to help them if they were in that situation in the future or are referencing a time where they wished someone had helped them.
<i>Experienced distress</i>	
<i>Target distress</i>	Goal is to reduce the negative emotions of the target; Regulator doesn’t like seeing the target experience negative emotions.
<i>Personal distress</i>	Goal is to reduce, prevent, or avoid the experiencing negative emotions of the regulator; Regulator may also seek to increase their own positive emotions
<i>Others’ distress</i>	Goal is to reduce the negative emotions of others around the target; Preventative measures are taken to ensure others are not affected by the target’s emotions
<i>Compassion</i>	Regulator attempts to reduce the negative emotions of the target because they care about or love them; Regulator seeks to express love or empathy towards target; Regulator likes helping or wants to help others
<i>Cognitive change</i>	
<i>Rationalization</i>	Believes that the target should not be experiencing their current levels of negative

	emotions or disagrees with the target’s emotions
<i>Available resources</i>	Regulator has the resources, knowledge, or ability to properly regulate the target’s negative emotions.

B. Preliminary Extrinsic Emotion Regulation Motives Scale (EERMS)

Please read the following statements and then rate your (dis)agreement.

When I try to make others feel better, it is generally because...

1. I don’t like seeing others feel distressed.
2. Their distress is making me uncomfortable.
3. When other people are upset, it is harder for me to do what I want to do.
4. I feel obligated to make others feel better.
5. Helping others with their problems makes me feel good.
6. I genuinely care about the well-being of others.
7. Their emotions might negatively affect others around them.
8. Helping others is an important part of who I am.
9. I would want someone to do the same for me in that situation.
10. I would hope they would make me feel better in the future.
11. They have helped me in the past so I should help them now.
12. Their emotions make me feel bad too.
13. It makes my life easier when they are not upset.
14. I always try to make others feel better when they are feeling down.
15. I felt responsible for making them feel better.
16. I knew they would help me if I were in their situation.
17. I love and care about them.

18. I want those around me to be happy.
19. I don’t want to be around people experiencing negative emotions.
20. My life is easier when the people around me are not upset.
21. Their emotions have a negative impact on me.
22. I feel like it is the right thing to do.
23. It is in my best interest to reduce their negative emotions.
24. I consider myself to be an empathetic and compassionate person.
25. Their negative emotions stress me out.
26. Their feelings are important to me.
27. I don’t want them to take out their negative feelings on me.
28. My relationship to them makes me feel obligated to help them.

1 – “Strongly disagree”, 2 – “Disagree”, 3 – “Slightly disagree”, 4 – “Slightly agree”, 5 –
“Agree”, 6 – “Strongly agree”

Other-oriented = items 1, 5, 6, 8, 14, 17, 18, 22, 24, 26

Self-oriented = items 2, 3, 7, 12, 13, 19, 20, 21, 23, 25, 27

Reciprocation = items 9, 10, 11, 16

Obligation = items 4, 15, 28