ACADEMIC PROCRASTINATION AND ACADEMIC PERFECTIONISM AS PREDICTORS OF SELF-FORGIVENESS

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ABSTRACT

ACADEMIC PROCRASTINATION AND ACADEMIC PERFECTIONISM AS PREDICTORS OF SELF-FORGIVENESS

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The purpose of this study is to investigate the predictive roles of academic procrastination and academic perfectionism on self-forgiveness levels of Turkish undergraduate students. The sample composed of 568 participants (242 male, 326 female). They were from different faculties of Middle East Technical University and their age varied between 18 and 25. In the study, Turkish versions of Academic Perfectionism Scale, Procrastination Assessment Scale – Students, Heartland Forgiveness Scale, and Demographic Information Questionnaire were administered to participants. Multiple regression analysis was conducted. It was found that academic perfectionism and academic procrastination significantly and negatively predicted self-forgiveness and 55% of the variance $(R^2 = .55, F_{(2;567)} = 345.03, p < .01)$ in self-forgiveness can be accounted for by the linear combination of academic perfectionism and academic procrastination. Therefore, it can be concluded that the more severe the academic procrastination and the academic perfectionism, the less likely the individual would be to

self-forgive. In addition, academic perfectionism was found to be a better

contributor to the model than academic procrastination. A relationship between

the predictor variables, academic procrastination and academic perfectionism was

observed, suggesting that on higher levels of perfectionism, tending to

procrastinate is more likely. Results regarding gender differences among study

variables revealed that there were no significant differences between males and

females in terms of academic perfectionism academic procrastination and self-

forgiveness. In the light of these findings, there will be implications for counselors

and future research developing programs to handle self-forgiveness process and

reduce both academic procrastination and academic perfectionism.

Keywords: Self-forgiveness, Academic Procrastination, Academic Perfectionism

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KENDİNİ AFFETMENİN YORDAYICILARI OLARAK AKADEMİK ERTELEME VE AKADEMİK MÜKEMMELİYETÇİLİK

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Bu çalışmanın amacı, akademik erteleme ve akademik mükemmeliyetçiliğin Türk lisans öğrencilerinin kendini affetme düzeyindeki yordayıcı rolünü araştırmaktır. Örneklem 568 katılımcıdan (242 erkek, 326 kadın) oluşmuştur. Katılımcılar, Ankara'da bulunan Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi'nin farklı fakültelerinde okuyan ve yaşları 18 ile 25 arasında değişen öğrencilerden oluşmaktadır. Araştırmada, Erteleme Davranışı Değerlendirme Ölçeği ve Heartland Affetme Ölçeği'nin Türkçe formları ile Türkçe olarak geliştirilen Akademik Mükemmeliyetçilik Ölçeği ve Demografik Bilgi Anketi katılımcılara uygulanmıştır. Veriler çoklu regresyon analizi ile değerlendirilmiştir. Sonuçlara göre, akademik mükemmeliyetçiliğin ve akademik ertelemenin kendini affetmeyi anlamlı ve negatif bir sekilde yordadıkları birlikte varyansın %55'ini ve

 $(R^2=.55,\ F_{(2;567)}=345.03,\ p<.01)$ açıkladıkları bulunmuştur. Bu nedenle, akademik erteleme ve akademik mükemmeliyetçilik ne kadar şiddetliyse, bireyin kendini affetme olasılığının o kadar düşük olacağı söylenebilir. Ayrıca, akademik mükemmeliyetçilik, akademik ertelemeye göre modele daha iyi katkıda bulunmuştur. Yordayıcı değişkenler, akademik erteleme ve akademik mükemmeliyetçilik arasında pozitif bir ilişki saptanmıştır. Bu ilişki yüksek düzeylerde mükemmeliyetçilikte erteleme eğiliminin daha olası olduğuna işaret etmektedir. Çalışma değişkenleri arasında cinsiyet farklılıklarına ilişkin yapılan değerlendirmede, akademik mükemmeliyetçilik, akademik erteleme ve kendini affetme açısından kadınlar ve erkekler arasında anlamlı bir fark bulunmamıştır. Bu bulguların kendini affetme sürecini ele alacak ve hem akademik erteleme hem de akademik mükemmeliyetçiliği azaltmak için programlar geliştirecek gelecek araştırmalara ve danışmanlara katkısı olacağı düşünülmektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Kendini Affetme, Akademik Erteleme, Akademik Mükemmeliyetçilik

To Evren and Venüs...

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background to the Study

Research on self-forgiveness have been increasing day by day due to its relations with people's psychological and mental health benefits (Brown, 2003), as well as the effects on several other psychological difficulties (Thompson et al., 2005; Maltby, Macaskill, & Day, 2001). With this increased interest in self-forgiveness, researchers made various explanations for this term in the literature.

To comprehend self-forgiveness deeply, it is important to investigate the concept of forgiveness first. Forgiveness has different definitions in the literature. Maltby and his colleagues (2001) defined forgiveness as overcoming the painful situations of negative life circumstances in interpersonal relationships. For Benson (1992) forgiveness is the power to release the things that an individual has to the offender and to stop the rumination of the hurtful event. Sells and Hargrave (1998) stated that in order to develop positive or neutral feelings to reach forgiveness one should discharge negative feelings first. Among these definitions, Enright (1996) defined forgiveness as an intention to release one's resentment and negative judgment toward the offender. According to Enright, Freedman and Rique (1998), forgiveness is a conscious and intentional attempt to shift the negative emotions to positive ones.

Most of the research in this area have focused on forgiveness of others and there are few explanations and studies on self-forgiveness in the related literature. When

examined in detail, Horsbrugh (1974) defined self-forgiveness as a change in the thought of self-hatred and self-contempt after a painful experience. Bauer et al. (1992) assumed that when people realize that making mistakes are in human nature and transgressions are normal for all human beings, self-forgiveness occurs. Mills (1995) asserted that self-forgiveness is an important component for sustaining a positive self-image.

Webb, Bumgarner, Conway-Williams, Dangel, and Hall (2017) assumed that there are five distinctive components of genuine self-forgiveness, which are, reconciliation with the self, acceptance of all imperfections of the self, responsibility for wrongdoing, connection with the human community and a sincere effort to change in the future. Hall and Fincham (2005) also stated that self-forgiveness cannot occur without appreciating oneself, accepting personal responsibility and being ready to account for wrongdoing.

Self-forgiveness is a conscious process and needs willpower to shift one's own negative feelings to a positive and constructive relationship with self. It also requires a commitment to change by reconciliating with self and accepting the self (Webb et al., 2017).

Empirical research on self-forgiveness are relatively new in the field of psychology. Among these studies, some of them were conducted to explore the process of self-forgiveness. They concluded that self-forgiveness is related with social-cognitive, behavioral, and emotional reactions toward oneself and requires to shift in these areas (Bauer et al., 1992; Ingersoll-Dayton & Krause, 2005). Namely, Ingersoll-Dayton and Krause (2005) pointed out that to improve self-forgiveness, it is essential to lessen the severity of transgression and learn lessons from mistakes. Moreover, the most important component of self-forgiveness process is accepting the self genuinely (Bauer et al., 1992). These results are

consistent with self-forgiveness models of Enright (1996), Hall and Fincham (2005) and Luskin (2002).

In one of the studies examining self-forgiveness, it was found that active coping skills, having social support and high self-empathy make self-forgiveness process easier. Conversely, results showed that when developing self-forgiveness, higher guiltiness feelings, higher sense of worthlessness, self-blaming and rumination lead to difficulties (Yamhure-Thompson, Robinson, Michael, & Snyder, 1998).

When considered the associations between self-forgiveness and other variables, there are different topics about self. While Fisher and Exline (2006) found negative relationship with shame and guilt, Hall and Fincham (2005) asserted the relation with conciliatory behaviors. Moreover, Macaskill, Maltby and Day (2002) found the healing effect of empathy and Hall and Fincham (2008) explained the link between self-forgiveness and attribution style. Lastly, self-oriented perfectionism (McCann, 2009) and personality (Butzen, 2009) were explored related with self-forgiveness. As a result, it can be hypothesized that self-forgiveness is an essential variable not only in increasing mental and psychological health but also in understanding human nature and its mechanism.

Academic procrastination is one of the common problems especially among undergraduate students. It is assumed as an undesirable trait that students deal with in different degrees. Wadkins (1999) indicated that procrastination is a barrier to academic achievement because it decreases the quality as well as the quantity of work. He also asserted that it is a maladaptive behavior and should be overcomed to achieve any of the desired goals.

There are lots of definitions of academic procrastination, but all of them emphasize the delay component. For instance, Ferrari and Tice (2000) defined the term as spending less time for practicing before an upcoming task whereas Ferrari, Johnson and McCown (1995) defined it as a tendency to delay a task or sometimes

a decision intentionally. Especially among university students (Burka & Yuen, 2009; Ellis & Knaus, 1979; Solomon & Rothblum, 1984), studies showed high prevalence in academic setting (Harriot & Ferrari, 1996).

Clayton (2000) explained the purpose of procrastination as making an individual's life more pleasant. But conversely it usually ends up with more stress, disorganization and failure. Knaus (2002) explained this situation as "tomorrow syndrome" which is a common thought between procrastinators which implies doing the specific task later would be a better choice. Ferrari (1991a) presented procrastination as a personality trait while Ellis and Knaus (1979) explored it as a habit or the result of irrational thoughts.

One of the researchers who focused on the study habits of students to assess their academic procrastination levels reported that poor study skills, work habits and motivation play important roles for procrastinating (Brown, 1983). Burka and Yuen (2009) asserted that academic procrastination may have numerous possible reasons. Evaluation anxiety, difficulty of decision making, disobedience against control, lack of assertion, fear for the results of success, task aversiveness perception and extremely perfectionistic standards about competency are some of those reasons. Furthermore, Kanus (2001) indicated that one's inner stimuli like fear of failure, indifference, laziness, passive aggressiveness, impulse control difficulties, self-doubts, low frustration tolerance, task boredom and rebellion are the mediators of excessive procrastination.

Most of the research in literature on academic procrastination has focused on the negative side of it. But in some situations, it is proposed that dealing with procrastination may be beneficial (Choi & Moran, 2009). Chu and Choi (2005), for example, reported that some students benefit from working under time pressure and intentionally choose to procrastinate. Additionally, Ferrari and Tice (2000) explained the term as a form of self-handicapping behavior. In some cases, it is

hypothesized that it could be beneficial to deal with protecting the threatened self-esteem (Ferrari, 1991a). According to Pychyl, Lee, Thibodeau and Blunt (2000), procrastinating some aversive tasks and doing some enjoyable activities instead of that, some people feel good. Some other researchers indicated that in short term, procrastination is a way to regulate negative emotions (Tice & Baumeister, 1997).

Tice and Baumeister (1997) however, declared that dealing with procrastination may provide short term pleasure and regulation whereas in the long term, it causes more stress and illness. Therefore, specifically the university population go for help to counselors and they complain about how they feel badly because of their procrastination habits. Thus, procrastination is usually linked with negative outcomes especially decreasing academic performance (Steel, 2007; Steel, 2002), low self-confidence and decreased long-term learning in academic domain (Ferrari, 1991b; Wadkins, 1999). It also has negative cognitive and affective outcomes like anxiety (Stöber & Joormann, 2001), tendency to using irrational belief strategies (Beswick, Rothblum, & Mann, 1988), negative mental health outcomes (Ferrari & Scher, 2000) and negative physical health outcomes (Tice & Baumeister, 1997).

Research on procrastination is mostly based on the cognitive aspect of it. Scholars mostly aim to examine the reasons of procrastination which students consciously choose in spite of its negative results. Results showed that cognitive variables like self-esteem and self-efficacy have associations with procrastination (Ferrari, 1991b; Seo, 2008). Namely, Burka and Yuen (2009) explained the term as an inner strategy that serves an individual to protect his / her self-esteem. Ferrari, Parker, and Ware (1992) also pointed out the relationship between procrastination and self-efficacy. They indicated that higher levels of procrastination are significantly associated with lower levels of self-efficacy. Additionally, numerous researchers studying self-esteem and self-efficacy found relations between high

procrastination, low self-esteem and low self-efficacy levels (Beck, Koons, & Milgrim, 2000; Ferrari, 1994; Sirois, 2004).

According to the author's knowledge, in the present literature, there are only two studies which have examined the association between self-forgiveness and academic procrastination. One of them showed that self-forgiveness can be used as a coping strategy to deal with negative emotions which are related with procrastination. Thus, it may improve the performance of students for future tasks (Wohl, Pychyl, & Bennett, 2010). The other study, which is unique in Turkey demonstrated that self-forgiveness partially mediates the relationship between procrastination and positive affect (Uzun, Ferrari & Le Blanc, 2018). In sum, procrastination can be named as a form of self-regulatory failure and is seen as a harmful phenomenon especially for academic domain. So, focusing more on procrastination treatment programs for counselors is a need to explore the association between self-forgiveness and procrastination and it would be fundamental for psychological health-care professionals.

Perfectionism has lots of definitions and studies in literature. Some researchers pointed out its positive outcomes while some others examined the negative ones. According to Frost, Marten, Lahart, and Rosenblate (1990), having unrealistic concerns over making mistakes is the major characteristic of perfectionism. Shafran and Mansell (2001) pointed out its negative construct which comprises excessively high expectations of oneself or of others. According to Anshel and Mansouri (2005), perfectionism is a trait which effects an individual's behavior about the life circumstances.

Hamachek (1978) emphasized the distinction between "normal" and "neurotic" perfectionism. He defined normal or adaptive perfectionists as the people who set high standards for themselves and feel successful when those standards are met. Conversely, he elaborated on neurotic or maladaptive perfectionists as the people

who set high standards but feel themselves as never meeting their own high standards even if they succeed. He reported that neurotic perfectionists usually have all-or-nothing thinking which is an irrational belief that leads them to assume less-than-perfect quality of work as a failure. Burns (1980) also mentioned the usage of black-and-white thinking of perfectionistic people to evaluate their experiences.

Scholars found that because of continuing their work with an extensive effort which is higher than is required by the task, perfectionistic people often face with exhaustion. Also, this effort does not satisfy them for a long time (Burns, 1980; Missildine, 1963; Pacht, 1984). In Missildine's (1963) point of view, when a true mastery effort is revealed, it is accompanied by satisfaction and positive self-esteem and called a mastery-focused behavior. But if the effort results with thinking not good enough then neurotic perfectionistic thinking arises, and it blocks satisfaction.

To clarify the reasons of perfectionism, numerous studies have been conducted. Some researchers have focused on the cognitive side of perfectionism like rumination over one's mistakes and inabilities (Frost & Henderson, 1991) while others have emphasized the ideal self-schema at work of perfectionistic individuals (Hewitt & Genest, 1990). Besides, Ferrari (1995) asserted that perfectionist people have more automatic thoughts about perfectionistic themes like failure to reach perfection in the past or future.

In a theoretical point of view, researchers suggested different models to explore perfectionism. The Social Expectations Model (Hamachek, 1978; Missildine, 1963) explained the developing process in order to gain parental approval whereas The Social Learning Model (Bandura, 1986) emphasized on the learning behavior of children which means learning by observing and imitating the behavior of others. The Social Reaction Model (Flett, Hewitt, Oliver, & Macdonald, 2002)

assumed that perfectionism is developed as a response to social circumstances and hard family conditions. Flett and his colleagues (2002) assumed that perfectionism can be related with having overly anxious parents who direct their children to focus on their faults and negative outcomes of situations rather than their achievements.

After numerous studies they had done, Flett and Hewitt published their Multidimensional Perfectionism Theory. In their theory there are three dimensions which are Self-Oriented Perfectionism (SOP), Other-Oriented Perfectionism (OOP) and Socially Prescribed Perfectionism (SPP). People high in self-oriented perfectionism expect perfection from themselves and they have high-standard expectations to avoid failure and reach perfection. People high in other-oriented perfectionism expect perfectionism from others around them, they have irrational expectations for others, and they are overly critical of others' work. Lastly, people high in socially prescribed perfectionism maintain unrealistic beliefs about others' expectation. They believe that others are expecting perfection from them (Hewitt & Flett, 1991b).

According to Hewitt and Flett (1991b), self-oriented perfectionism is similar to adaptive perfectionism and it reflects an intrinsic motivation to achieve goals. They have better time management skills; higher levels of problem-solving skills and they do not have much concern over mistakes. On the other hand, socially-prescribed perfectionism is related with extrinsic motivation. They usually tend to hide the things they see as failure and work hard to present themselves as perfect to others (Besser, Flett, & Hewitt, 2004) Thus, they have higher depression and anxiety levels and poorer academic achievement at school (Nepon, Flett, Hewitt & Molnar, 2011). Socially prescribed perfectionism is associated with numerous negative outcomes and is considered as maladaptive. In a study it was found that socially prescribed perfectionism is negatively correlated with self-esteem, self-control and achievement motivation whereas is positively

correlated with depression, suicidal ideation, feelings of shame, and anxiety (Klibert, Langhinrichsen-Rohling, & Saito, 2005).

As is mentioned above, adaptive form of perfectionism can encourage students to attain their goals and full potential, whereas maladaptive form of it is associated with lots of negative results. Scholars have found positive associations between perfectionism and anxiety (Flett, Hewitt, & Dyck, 1989), psychological symptoms and suicide risk (Chang, 1998; Rice, Ashby, & Slaney, 1998), depression (Hewitt & Flett, 1991a; Rice et al., 1998) and eating disorders (Fairburn, Shafran, & Cooper, 1999). Furthermore, research examining the relationship between perfectionism academic achievement indicated that and maladaptive perfectionism negatively affects academic achievement (Arthur & Hayward, 1997; Ram, 2005) while adaptive perfectionism affects it positively (Flett, Sawatzky, & Hewitt, 1995). Lastly, results of some research indicated that rumination, worry, social anxiety and self-doubt are positively correlated with perfectionism (Nepon et al., 2011) while self-acceptance is correlated negatively (Chang, 2006).

When focused on the academic aspect of perfectionism, it can be considered that it is a common problem among students especially in undergraduate and graduate programs because of their high evaluative requirements. They consist of barrage of tests, assignments and exams which push students to compete with others. Thus, in university education there are two main problems occurring about evaluation called academic perfectionism and self-handicapping. Many of the students tend to put perfectionistic and excessively high standards for themselves while some others deal with the situation by self-handicapping strategies like procrastination. Consequently, students feel extremely disappointed and end up with self-criticizing when they fail to reach their high goals (Kearns, Forbes, Gardiner, & Marshall, 2008). In the light of all these statements, academic perfectionism can

be explained as defining difficult academic goals to accomplish in a way of a rigid and unrealistic achievement expectation (Odacı, Kalkan, & Çıkrıkçı, 2017).

Based on the definitions of Hewitt and Flett (1991b) about perfectionism, no matter if it is an academic perfectionism or a non-academic perfectionism, it can be easily seen that blaming is the common factor among the three types of perfectionisms. Self-oriented perfectionists often blame themselves when they don't reach their goals, while other-oriented perfectionists and socially prescribed perfectionists often blame and resent others (Winter, 2005). According to Bradfield and Aquino (1999), blaming level is a predictor for the intention to have revenge or to forgive. Besides, Simon and Simon (1990) explained self-blame as one of the steps of achieving self-forgiveness. Taking these findings into account, it can be hypothesized that there is a relationship between perfectionism and self-forgiveness because all three types of perfectionists struggle with blame.

According to Somov (2010), if people achieve to think in a way that they are perfectly imperfect because of the human nature, then blaming themselves for situations would be inessential. Admitting this imperfection reality would be good enough to start the self-forgiveness process especially for perfectionists.

When perfectionism and self-forgiveness associations are taken into account, there are only few studies to show the relations between them empirically. Research usually examined the forgiveness of others and perfectionism relationship.

One of these studies was conducted by Bugay (2010). She aimed to investigate the predicting roles of social-cognitive reactions like locus of control, rumination and socially prescribed perfectionism, emotional reactions like shame and guilt, behavioral reactions like conciliatory behaviors and reactions on self-forgiveness. Results indicated that rumination, shame, socially prescribed perfectionism and conciliatory behaviors of others are the important predictors of self-forgiveness.

On the other hand, McCann (2009) explored the association between perfectionism and self-forgiveness as well as forgiveness of others. Specifically, his intention was to elucidate the link between shame, transgression, perfectionism, pride and forgiveness for both self and others. Results showed that self-oriented perfectionism mediates the relationship between transgression and self-forgiveness and has a negative correlation with self-forgiveness. As a result, findings revealed that putting high standards for the self was a barrier in the process of self-forgiveness.

In sum, there isn't still enough empirical research to elaborate on self-forgiveness process deeply. But, according to previous research, its impacts on health and well-being areas like sustaining a positive self-image (Mills, 1995), increasing conciliatory behaviors (Hall & Fincham, 2005), decreasing guiltiness, sense of worthlessness, self-blame, rumination (Yamhure-Thompson et al., 1998), and shame (Fisher & Exline, 2006) show its importance definitely.

On the other hand, studies concerning about academic procrastination and/or academic perfectionism indicated numerous negative mental and physical health outcomes as mentioned above. For instance, higher levels of procrastination were found to be related with higher levels of anxiety (Stöber & Joormann, 2001); negative emotions like stress and illness (Tice & Baumeister, 1997) whereas lower levels of self-esteem and self-efficacy (Ferrari, 1991a; Ferrari, 1991b; Seo, 2008). Furthermore, perfectionism research showed positive associations with depression, anxiety (Nepon et. al, 2011); shame (Klibert et. al, 2005) and self-blame (Hewitt & Flett, 1991b) whereas negative associations with self-esteem, self-control and achievement motivation (Klibert et. al, 2005).

Because of the improving effects of self-forgiveness on mental and psychological health of individuals, studying this term with academic procrastination and academic perfectionism may results in benefits on improving academic lives of university students. Thus, the aim of this study is to prosper self-forgiveness knowledge among Turkish undergraduate students by elaborating on the relationship between academic procrastination and academic perfectionism.

1.2. Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to investigate the predictive roles of academic procrastination and academic perfectionism on self-forgiveness among university students.

1.3. Research Question

Based on the description above, the following research question served to guide the study.

To what extent academic procrastination and academic perfectionism predict the self-forgiveness levels of university students?

1.4. Significance of the Study

According to the author's knowledge, this study is one of the first attempts to investigate predictive value of academic procrastination on self-forgiveness with the association of academic perfectionism in Turkey.

According to the literature, theorists and researchers have given more attention on forgiveness of others than forgiveness of self. Forgiveness research has been advancing day by day, but this growth has traditionally focused on forgiving other people. In fact, general conceptualization of forgiveness is not enough to explain

self-forgiveness due to its nature. Self-forgiveness is different from general forgiveness because both the offender and the offended is oneself and it is impossible to avoid the self. Thus, self-forgiveness is a new and modestly studied psychological phenomenon and there is still lack of well-developed and empirically-supported psychological theories on self-forgiveness and the potential facilitators of self-forgiveness process. Examining self-forgiveness apart from general forgiveness seems to be an essential need for the field both to understand the role of it on improving health and well-being and to provide efficient self-forgiveness treatment for individuals. By the help of this study, it is expected to expand the limited literature about self-forgiveness associated variables and contribute to theoretical knowledge by increasing the general knowledge about potential factors that play roles in it.

Additionally, the present study may have some practical information about self-forgiveness process. Currently, there is few published research about it in Turkey among university students. Thus, conducting a study concerning about self-forgiveness among Turkish university students would be beneficial to understand and develop the concept in Turkish cultural context. Finally, scholars may conduct more reliable empirical studies in our culture by the help of knowing the characteristics of self-forgiveness process in Turkish culture.

One of the predictor variables of this study, academic procrastination, is a frequent behavioral problem especially related with personal distress and decreased well-being. To intervene with the problem of procrastination effectively, the behavior should be identified deeply to better address the treatment and prevention ideas. Therefore, in order to understand the mechanisms behind procrastination and its reasons within the student population, it is essential to study this variable. When the problem is well understood, then it may be easier to lower the levels of procrastination across university students.

The results of the present study may provide help for counselors to develop new programs which will decrease the negative effects of procrastination on students' academic achievement. Thus, it may be an important cue for the students who would like to reduce the power of procrastination in their academic life.

In the present literature, examining the relationship between academic procrastination and self-forgiveness, there exist only two studies, one is in United States and one is in Turkey. They both have explored the relationship between academic procrastination and self-forgiveness in terms of positive or negative affect without the academic perfectionism association. Relatively, there are numerous research on the relationship between academic procrastination and academic perfectionism, but little research has been conducted on self-forgiveness. So, there is a gap in knowledge about the predictive role of academic perfectionism associated with academic procrastination on self-forgiveness of university students and the proposed study is an effort to examine the relationship between these variables which has not been done to date.

Moreover, by providing a comprehensive description of a different characteristic of academic perfectionism, in terms of self-forgiveness and academic procrastination facets of it, the current study will also contribute to extend the existing literature on academic perfectionism. The results will provide practical implications that will be useful to design programs in order to better understand and differentiate adaptive from maladaptive aspects of academic perfectionism.

In addition, most of the studies on academic perfectionism have been done with the Turkish form of The Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale, which was developed by Frost and his colleagues (1990) and adapted to Turkish by Özbay and Taşdemir (2003). The Academic Perfectionism Scale (Odacı et al., 2017) which was used in this study is developed in Turkey with a Turkish sample and

may be a better scale to use for our own culture and will contribute to literature in the sense of improving the background of the scale.

Totally, the results of this study may make contribution to works of counselors and educators when intervening academic procrastination in individuals. For the recognition of the relationship between academic procrastination, academic perfectionism and self-forgiveness and its effects on university students are needed to be identified in terms of treatment. Therefore, providing individual and group counseling sessions for individuals who suffer from academic perfectionism and / or academic procrastination may help to increase self-forgiveness levels and reduce some of the negative consequences like negative appraisals and emotions, maladaptive coping strategies, malfunctioning interpersonal relationships, depression, self-blame and low self-esteem (Davis et al., 2015).

1.5. Definition of the Terms

The following operational terms will be used throughout the study:

Procrastination, is the act of purposefully delaying in completing tasks to the point of feeling subjective discomfort (Solomon & Rothblum, 1984).

Academic procrastination, is delaying completion of course assignments, test preparations and other academic responsibilities (Beck et al., 2000).

Academic achievement, is the grade scores of students which are taken from course success at the end of semester (Owens & Newbegin, 2001). In the present study cumulative GPA was evaluated as their academic achievement scores.

Forgiveness, is defined as "a willingness to abandon one's right to resentment, negative judgment, and indifferent behavior toward one who unjustly injured us,

while fostering the undeserved qualities of compassion, generosity, and even love toward him or her" (Enright, 1996, p.116).

Self-forgiveness, is defined as a "set of motivational changes whereby one becomes decreasingly motivated to avoid stimuli associated with the offence, decreasingly motivated to retaliate against the self and increasingly motivated to act benevolently toward the self" (Hall & Fincham, 2005, p. 622).

Perfectionism, is defined as a multidimensional construct which is characterized by striving to be faultless and putting excessively high standards for performance and also having a tendency to be overly critical for one's behavior (Flett & Hewitt, 2002).

Academic perfectionism, is defined as "the determination of difficult academic objectives for the individual to achieve in the direction of a rigid and unrealistic academic achievement expectation" (Odacı et al., 2017, p. 363).

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter presents the research literature which is most relevant to the purpose of this study. It includes seven sections. The first three section are devoted to the definitions, conceptualizations and research about self-forgiveness, academic procrastination and academic perfectionism. The fourth section reviews the association between self-forgiveness and academic procrastination, the fifth section examines the relationship between self-forgiveness and academic perfectionism. In sixth section academic procrastination and academic perfectionism relation was clarified and in the last section the theoretical framework of this study was presented.

2.1. Self-forgiveness

The concept of forgiveness has been investigated in recent years in social science. Especially, family therapists, clinical and social psychologists and psychological counselors indicated significant relationships between forgiveness and individuals' spiritual and mental well-being (Maltby et al., 2001). According to Thompson and Snyder (2003) forgiving frees one from a negative attachment by converting the negative value of the attachment to an either neutral or a positive value, thus weakening the attachment.

Forgiveness have different dimensions. It can be elaborated based on who is being forgiven: others or self. If the individual has negative reactions towards others and tries to forgive them, then it refers forgiveness of others. However, if having those negative reactions like anger, blame, and hatred toward oneself, it refers self-forgiveness (Bugay, Demir & Delevi, 2012). Basically, forgiveness is a coping strategy that improves health and psychological well-being. It is an emotion-focused coping strategy which involves reducing negative thoughts, and conversely increasing positive thoughts, emotions, motivations, and behaviors regarding oneself (Hall & Fincham, 2005).

Self-forgiveness requires repairing the damage of emotional distress of which people have like guilt, shame, anger, regret, and disappointment. This emotional distress causes in terms of people's own faults and their self-concept because of the perceived incongruity between their values and behavior (Mills, 1995).

Enright (1996) defined self-forgiveness as a will to quit self-resentment of one's own accepted objective wrong while encouraging compassion, generosity and love toward oneself. Similarly, Hall and Fincham (2005) have also pointed out self-love and taking responsibility when exploring self-forgiveness. They conceptualized the term as a set of motivational changes. These changes are decrease in motivation to avoid stimuli linked with the offense, to take revenge against the self like punishing self or engaging in self-destructive behaviors and increase in motivation to act benevolently toward the self. This conceptualization refers to interpersonal forgiveness and focuses on the modification of relationship-destructive responses with more constructive behaviors.

Enright (1996) also pointed out that taking responsibility for people's own actions causes pain, guilt and shame. He told that these are the main concepts of self-forgiveness and it cannot be possible without self-reconciliation. Developing self-reconciliation and self-compassion may be difficult. Because, due to the nature of

human beings, tendency to criticize oneself is higher than tendency to criticize others. Therefore, people forgive others easier than themselves. Additionally, self-respect is an important aspect of increasing self-forgiveness and shifting the thought from self-hatred and self-contempt to self-compassion, generosity and self-love is essential.

Hall and Fincham (2005) stated that an acceptance of wrongdoing and responsibility are the necessary elements of self-forgiveness. If not, it would be a pseudo self-forgiveness. Pseudo self-forgiveness occurs when an individual reports experiencing self-forgiveness but in reality, he/she disbelieves that anything was done wrongly. They mentioned that true self-forgiveness is a long and difficult process and requires self-examination, processing of the wrongdoing and the feelings that came up because of the wrongdoing. Thus, pseudo self-forgiveness would not produce the same affective, physical or psychological benefits as true self-forgiveness.

According to Berecz (1998), self-forgiveness means cutting off the connection with shame, embarrassment, ridicule, and humiliation related with previous failures and mistakes. Halling (1994) also described the term as appreciating all the parts of personality, including previously seemed as unacceptable parts of oneself. Flanigan (1997) defined four stages of self-forgiveness as 1) confronting oneself, 2) taking responsibility, 3) confessing the flaws, and 4) transformation. Conran (2006) evaluated self-forgiveness in another manner and he hypothesized that self-forgiveness can cause a decrease in using psychological defenses such as projection, denial and dissociation in order to accepting guilt and taking the responsibility of offense.

Hall and Fincham (2005) especially pointed out the individuals' tendency to forgive self for failures. Because, without self-forgiveness an individual cannot change negative thoughts about oneself and allow one to focus in a

non-judgmental way rather than transgressing on maladaptive behaviors. They supposed 3 steps for self-forgiveness. First, an individual should accept that a transgression has occurred, and take responsibility. Second, it is followed by regret and guilt feelings which are natural. Third, to overcome those negative feelings one should make motivational changes toward self-acceptance and leave self-blame and self-punishment behind. So, self-forgiveness plays an important role in reducing guilt and improving self-acceptance.

According to Woodyatt, Wenzel, & Ferber (2017), self-forgiveness is the presence of positive feelings and the absence of negative feelings towards the self after a wrongdoing. Accepting the responsibility and working with that wrongdoing is a difficult, disturbing and sometimes a painful process. In one of the studies of these researchers, they examined these processes by defining two pathways to self-forgiveness: 1) over self-compassion and 2) over reaffirmation of transgressed values. The results showed that both pathways lead to self-forgiveness. But it is more promising to meet the needs of both offenders and victims especially after a transgression.

2.1.1. Research on Self-forgiveness

Self-forgiveness is a new psychological construct and there is lack of study in the field. It recently has been linked with self-compassion (McConnell, 2015) and has been explained one of the many dimensions of forgiveness (Woodyatt et al., 2017). Mostly in research, forgiveness of self and forgiveness of others have been put together and assessed as total forgiveness. However, in a meta-analysis, Davis et al. (2015) reported that there is only modest to moderate relationship between self-forgiveness and other-forgiveness.

When looked at the literature, self-forgiveness is related with a variety of health-related outcomes. For instance, it exhibits associations with anxiety (Thompson et al., 2005), coping factors in people with cancer (Friedman et al., 2007), hopelessness and depression (Toussaint, Williams, Musick, & Everson-Rose, 2008), alcohol problems (Webb et al., 2017), health behaviors and life satisfaction among people with a spinal cord injury (Webb, Toussaint, Kalpakjian, & Tate, 2010), aggression, hostility, and anger (Webb, Dula, & Brewer, 2012), eating disorders (Watson et al., 2012), physical and mental health behaviors and health status among people in physical therapy (Svalina & Webb, 2012), suicide (Nsamenang, Webb, Cukrowicz, & Hirsch, 2013), procrastination (Wohl et al., 2010; Uzun et al., 2018, as cited in Webb et al., 2017).

Studies examining the failure to forgive oneself revealed positive correlations with negative outcomes such as psychopathology (Mauger et al. 1992), neuroticism (Fisher & Exline, 2006), self-blame and mood disturbance (Friedman et al., 2007), negative mood and rumination (Thompson et al., 2005). Moreover, Maltby and his colleagues (2001) found that it has been correlated negatively with offender's anxiety and McCann (2009) indicated the relationship of self-forgiveness with shame, guilt and perfectionism.

In contrast, self-forgiveness was found to be highly correlated with positive consequences such as self-esteem (Coates, 1997), mental well-being (Jacinto, 2007), quality of life (Romero et al., 2005; Thompson et al., 2005) and lower levels of non-suicidal self-injury (Westers, 2010; Westers, Rehfuss, Olson, & Biron, 2012, as cited in Hansen, 2013). Additionally, results have revealed that it has partially mediate the positive relationship between religiosity and physical health (Lawler-Row, 2010). In a more general perspective, forgiving oneself increases life satisfaction as well as relationship satisfaction and duration by the help of increased emotional regulation and less personal distress (Thompson et al., 2005).

In our country there is lack of research about self-forgiveness. One of the studies which was prepared as a Thesis of Graduate School of Social Science by Bugay (2010) aimed to investigate the role of social-cognitive, emotional and behavioral responses toward oneself in predicting self-forgiveness based on Hall and Fincham's (2005) theoretical model. Bugay (2010) examined locus of control, rumination and socially prescribed perfectionism as a social-cognitive factor; shame and guilt as an emotional factor; conciliatory behaviors as a behavioral factor in the frame of the theory. Results revealed that between social-cognitive variables, rumination is the strongest determinant of self-forgiveness both directly and indirectly. Locus of control influences self-forgiveness only through the mediating effect of shame and guilt. Conversely, socially prescribed perfectionism influences self-forgiveness only directly but not indirectly. Furthermore, shame has only a direct effect on self-forgiveness while guilt has a small but significant effect on it directly through the mediating effect of conciliatory behaviors.

In another study in Turkey, Bugay and Demir (2012) conducted a study to explore the efficacy of "Forgiveness Enrichment Group" on forgiveness level of Turkish university students. They gathered 16 (8 treatment group, 8 non-treatment group) university students. Treatment group subjects attended a 5-session Forgiveness Enrichment Group Program and non-treatment group received no application at all. The results of the study revealed that treatment group gain significantly higher level of self-forgiveness scores than non-treatment group. Additionally, significant increases were observed in the posttest of others' forgiveness and total forgiveness scores of participants who were attended to Forgiveness Enrichment Group Program.

Gündüz (2014) has also conducted a study among Turkish university students to investigate whether the gender, religious tendency, self-esteem and cognitive distortions predict dispositional forgiveness of self and forgiveness of others. Results of her study revealed that self-esteem and cognitive distortions

significantly predict self-forgiveness whereas religious tendency and gender are not associated with self-forgiveness. In other words, as cognitive distortions increase, the tendency of self-forgiveness decreases. On the other hand, according to the responses individuals with high self-esteem tend to have higher self-forgiveness tendencies.

In another study in Turkey, Halisdemir conducted a study in Turkey which aims to examine if the psychological well-being of university students predicted by self-forgiveness, perceived parental acceptance and rejection level in their childhood period, perceived academic success and demographic variables. Results showed that self-forgiveness, academic success, perceived mother acceptance and rejection level and also perceived program and faculty demographic variables were significant predictors of psychological well-being (Halisdemir, 2013).

Lastly, Dolunay Cuğ and Tezer (2015) conducted a research which aimed to test the role of self-forgiveness, self-compassion, subjective vitality and orientation to happiness in predicting subjective well-being among university students in Tukey. Their results revealed that subjective vitality predicts subjective well-being most whereas self-compassion, self-forgiveness and subjective vitality were mediated by meaning orientation but not pleasure orientation when explaining subjective well-being.

Through the consequences of these studies above, we can conclude that emotion is an important mechanism for self-forgiveness and health relationship. It appears that self-forgiveness may decrease negative emotions like shame, guilt, anger, regret or disappointment which are associated with physical or mental health problems. These destructive emotions partially explore the difficulties that individuals have connecting with others, accepting themselves, and achieving personal growth (Van Vliet, 2008).

2.2. Academic Procrastination

One of the most common definition of procrastination is a voluntarily delay of an intended course of action in spite of expecting being worse off for that delay (Steel, 2007). It refers to self-regulatory failure which involves delaying the initiation or completion of an important duty or a responsibility till the last minute (Dryden, 2000).

Even though procrastination has lots of common parts about difficulties in prioritizing and being self-assertive, it also requires choosing the activities in which the person avoids in favor of the other for a more immediate reward or for the escape from an aversive experience (Pychyl et al., 2000). The main characteristic which is common for all researchers who examine procrastination is the tendency to delay an intended action or a judgement (Ferrari et al., 1995).

From a theoretical point of view, procrastination's conceptualization was made as either a state or as a trait. When the sources of procrastination are considered, there are many causal factors which contributes to it were found by several researchers (Rozental & Carlbring, 2013). Burka and Yuen (2009) suggested that a person's cognitive processes are causal factors. Those researchers stated that there are various factors like evaluation anxiety, difficulty in decision making, resistance against control, lack of assertion, fear of the results of success, perceived negativity to the tasks, and perfectionistic standards about competency are related to procrastination. Some other authors also have stated that emotional components including anxiety-related physical symptoms which causes task delays are essential (Rothblum, Solomon, & Murakami, 1986).

Cognitive interventions about dysfunctional beliefs which result in procrastination are also important in the case perfectionism, fear of unsuccess, and self-doubt. Dysfunctional beliefs, expectations that are not realistic, and low self-esteem bring about possible explanations for procrastination and show the dealing process with

a type of negative thinking that resembles rumination of severe and chronic procrastinators (Pychyl & Flett, 2012). It has also been suggested that the difficulty behaving as in line with completing a given work can lead to self-blame and negative emotions. Thus, it causes procrastination as a way of repairing positive mood (Tice, Bratslavsky, & Baumeister, 2001).

Findings also exemplify the nature of the negative self-evaluative thoughts that procrastinators struggle with and how they may be related with stress. Researchers have proposed that people with trait procrastination deal this issue with a specific type of negative automatic thought, procrastinatory cognitions which looks alike rumination over past procrastination behavior (Stainton, Lay, & Flett, 2000).

2.2.1. Research on Academic Procrastination

Procrastination is mostly associated with personal distress and decreased well-being. In a meta-analysis about procrastination's possible causes and effects, 691 correlations were revealed. Results indicated that neuroticism, rebelliousness, and sensation seeking show only a weak connection whereas task aversiveness, task delay, self-efficacy, impulsiveness, conscientiousness, self-control, distractibility, organization and achievement motivation are strong and consistent correlations with procrastination (Steel, 2007).

Sirois (2013) indicated that lower levels of self-compassion and higher levels of stress were associated with procrastination. He conducted a meta-analysis about these effects. Results revealed a moderate negative relationship between self-compassion and procrastination while in some cases self-compassion mediated the relationship between stress and procrastination. Thus, it has been suggested that lower levels of self-compassion could explain some of the stress

experienced by procrastinators and therefore future interventions encouraging self-compassion may be useful for those people.

Procrastination is a serious problem for all ages and is extremely common especially for young adults. Solomon and Rothblum (1984) were the first researchers who examined procrastination in the academic setting and developed a new scale, The Procrastination Assessment Scale-Students (PASS), to explain the frequency of and reasons for procrastination on academic tasks. They conducted a study with their new scale and according to those results, 80-95% of university students were dealing with procrastination and almost 50% procrastinate consistently and problematically. Their results also showed that writing term papers has the highest percentage with 46% among students who procrastinate. Second reason was reading assignments (30%), third studying for exams (28%), fourth attending to academic tasks (23%) and last attending to administrative tasks (11%). The absolute amount of procrastination was important, with students reporting that it typically took one third of their daily activities.

While some research has shown why especially university students struggle more with procrastination than the general population; some other studies evaluated the frequency of reasons of academic procrastination. Solomon and Rothblum (1984) used their scale to assess those reasons for engaging in procrastination. Factor analysis of their items revealed two factors: Fear of failure and task aversiveness. The fear of failure factor showed relations with anxiety about meeting the expectations of others, the concern of meeting one's own standards and lack of self-confidence. In addition, it was significantly associated with depression, irrational cognitions, and anxiety. Task aversiveness factor showed relations with unpleasantness of the task and lack of energy or laziness. It also was significantly associated with depression and irrational beliefs. In conclusion, the authors concluded that academic procrastination does not represent a lack of study habits

and / or time management, but a complex interaction of cognitive, behavioral and emotional components.

To examine if there is difference, Seo (2013) separated procrastinators into two categories as active and passive procrastinators. In his study, he found that active procrastinators have similar internal motivation level to non-procrastinators, but passive procrastinators have higher external and lower internal motivation levels than non-procrastinators. This explains some of the variance in procrastination in those with highly internal motivations and is also determinative for two categories of student procrastinators. Choi and Moran (2009) defined active procrastinators as those who intentionally decide to delay a task in order to become better motivated, while passive procrastinators are those who procrastinate for avoiding the task.

Rothblum et al. (1986) found that procrastination disrupts people's productivity and coping skills about stressful tasks. They showed that low and high procrastinators react and respond to given projects with different approaches. When faced with stressful tasks, low procrastinators tend to see those tasks as more challenging and interesting, and they have a more positive impact for those tasks. Thus, they spend more time devoted to those activities. In contrast high procrastinators do not exhibit these cognitive and behavioral patterns. They spend more time devoted to enjoyable projects than stressful projects.

Furthermore, two distinct types of procrastination have also been identified and explored: decisional and behavioral procrastination. Decisional procrastination is the intentional postponement in making decisions within some specific time. By postponing tasks, people manage to avoid testing their abilities and request others to make decisions instead of them. So, they protect themselves from making any subsequent failing decision or poor planning. Behavioral procrastination involves postponing or avoiding tasks in order to protect a vulnerable sense of self-esteem.

These two procrastinator types base their self-worth on their ability to perform tasks (Effert & Ferrari, 1989; Ferrari, 1994).

Ferrari (1994) found that decisional and behavioral procrastination were significantly correlated with each other. They are also associated with interpersonal dependency, self-defeating behavior patterns, and low self-esteem. While both forms of procrastination are similar on postponing tasks to protect a fragile self-image, they are predicted by different factors. Interpersonal dependency predicts decisional procrastination whereas self-esteem predicts behavioral procrastination. Thus, it can be concluded that individuals who are indecisive and have avoidant motives for postponing actions rely on others to make decisions for them.

There are numerous studies which explore procrastination in the field. For instance, the associations between academic procrastination, self-handicapping, behavioral delay and test performance were further explored by Beck and his colleagues (2000). The results showed that students who reported academic procrastination in high levels tended to have higher scores in self-handicapping behavior. In addition, these procrastination tendencies in academic settings and dealing with self-handicapping were involving the negative behavioral consequences of procrastination as the amount of time which is spent for studying and exam performance. Moreover, students who disposed to engage in procrastination and self-handicapping studied less, postponed longer on exam preparation, and did more badly on exam compared to their counterparts who did not tend to procrastinate or self-handicap (Beck et al., 2000).

Another study about procrastination and self-handicapping behavior was done by Ferrari (1991b) and he compared the degree of self-handicapped on the same task of procrastinators and non-procrastinators. Results indicated that procrastinators self-handicapped more than non-procrastinators. Thus, procrastination may be

explained as a self-handicapping behavior. It may be useful for the purpose of creating alternative excuses, especially if the students should fail or perform poorly on a given task. It means, if an individual feels he/she may perform poorly, he/she may procrastinate as a mean of self-handicapping. Eventually, the function of this behavior is like operating as an explanation for failure that does not reflect the individual's true ability (Ferrari, 1991b).

In Turkish literature, to explore academic procrastination among Turkish students Uzun Özer, Demir and Ferrari (2009) conducted a study. The authors explored the prevalence of and reasons for academic procrastination and relationships with gender and academic grade level variables. Results indicated that 52% of students are frequent academic procrastinators and male students reported more frequent procrastination on academic tasks than female students. In addition, due to their procrastination reasons, female students reported greater academic procrastination than males on fear of failure and laziness whereas male students reported more academic procrastination than female on risk taking and rebellion against control.

In another research of Uzun Özer, Demir and Ferrari (2013), a short-term cognitive intervention treatment group program was used to focus on students' procrastination assessment. 10 students enrolled a structured 90-minute session program for 5 weeks. Pre-test to follow-up test scores revealed that there was a significant decrease in participants' academic procrastination and general procrastination scores.

2.3. Academic Perfectionism

Perfectionism has become increasingly interesting for researchers with regard to psychological well-being. There is a rising argument to understand the aspects of perfectionism which may be adaptive or maladaptive.

When examined some of the definitions, perfectionism is characterized by striving to be faultless and putting excessively high standards for performance and also having a tendency to be overly critical for one's behavior (Flett & Hewitt, 2002). In addition, some researchers explained perfectionism as setting goals that are hard to reach. Thus, causes the person to experience negative feelings consequently (Frost et al., 1990).

At early times, researchers conceptualized perfectionism as a unidimensional construct. Burns (1980) especially focused on a unidimensional, dysfunctional conceptualization of perfectionism and he defined perfectionists as people who force compulsively and continuously toward impossible goals and who assess their own worth entirely in terms of productivity and accomplishment. According to him, this is a self-destructive and a self-defeating drive. This drive is associated with several problems like productivity decrease, health impairment, low selfesteem, mood disorders, and anxiety. Also, perfectionist people live interpersonal difficulties and loneliness because of their fears like appearing foolish or being rejected due to their imperfections. He also emphasized some cognitive distortions that perfectionist people usually have which sabotage their productivity and cause personal distress. According to Burns (1980), some of the examples of dysfunctional thinking patterns of perfectionistic people are all-or-nothing thinking, overgeneralization, and the oppression of the should thinking. He pointed out that perfectionism is an irrational and self-destructive pattern which requires to be elaborated and resolved with counseling. Blatt (1995) later explained the self-destructiveness of perfectionism by linking it to self-critical depression and general psychopathology.

Even though older research explain perfectionism as a unidimensional construct, recent views are focusing on the multidimensional nature of it involving both personal and interpersonal aspects (Terry-Short, Glynn Owens, Slade, & Dewey, 1995). Especially two major dimensions of perfectionism can be emphasized as

perfectionistic strivings and perfectionistic concerns (Frost, Heimberg, Holt, Mattia & Neubauer, 1993; Stoeber & Otto, 2006). Setting and striving for extremely high personal standards and demanding perfection from the self is called perfectionistic strivings (Sirois & Molnar, 2015). This dimension has the associations with positive characteristics, processes, and outcomes like conscientiousness, adaptive coping and positive affect and also higher levels of subjective well-being and psychological adjustment (Stoeber & Childs, 2010). The other dimension of perfectionism which is perfectionistic concerns seems to include the most maladaptive aspects of perfectionism (Chang, Watkins, & Hudson Banks, 2004) like neurotic, unhealthy or maladaptive such as concern over mistakes and doubts about actions (Stoeber & Rennert, 2008) It also covers critical and negative self-evaluations, excessive worries about others' evaluations, expectations and criticism, an insufficiency to experience satisfaction from even successful performance (Sirois & Molnar, 2015). Because of displaying different and opposing associations with important outcomes in different dimensions, multidimensional model of perfectionism is often used in research (Frost et al., 1990; Hewitt & Flett, 1991a; Stoeber & Otto, 2006).

Hewitt and Flett (1991a) designed their own multidimensional definition of perfectionism, and they focused on the interpersonal aspects of it. In their definition, there are three dimensions of the construct, namely self-oriented other-oriented perfectionism, perfectionism, and socially prescribed perfectionism. According to them, self-oriented perfectionism involves setting of high standards for oneself and having strict criticism of one's behavior. Individuals which are high in this dimension are motivated to achieve perfection in their efforts and to avoid failure. Other-oriented perfectionism contains the beliefs and expectations an individual has for other people fundamentally, perfectionistic behavior directed not in inward but mostly outward. Those perfectionists are concerned with having unrealistic expectations for significant others and

interpreting their performance based on these expectations. The last dimension of perfectionism, socially prescribed perfectionism, describes people's demand to live up to the standards and expectations which are determined by significant others who evaluate them and apply pressure on them to be perfect.

Based on these previous theories, Frost and his colleagues (1990) combined several definitions of perfectionism and found six components, which are 1) excessively high standards, 2) concern over making mistakes, 3) doubts about the quality of one's actions or performance, 4) emphasis on precision, order, and organization 5) perception of high parental expectations, and 6) perception of parental criticism.

Hamachek (1978) was the first psychologist to make a distinction between positive and negative types of perfectionism. He specified two different groups of perfectionists based on his clinical experience working with patients. He described them as normal or neurotic perfectionists. According to him, normal perfectionists have high standards for themselves and appreciate order and organization. They have pleasure and satisfaction for their efforts, but their self-esteem is not depending on these requirements. Conversely, neurotic perfectionists put unreasonably high standards mostly impossible to meet. Thus, they never satisfied with their efforts, following by decreased self-esteem.

Slaney, Rice, Mobley, Trippi and Ashby (2001) proposed another elucidation of perfectionism which involves three components as high personal standards, order or organization, and discrepancy. The term discrepancy points out as the perception about the difference between one's standards and expectations and one's actual performance. According to this view of perfectionism, the first two components, high standards and order or organization represent the more adaptive aspects of perfectionism, whereas discrepancy is the maladaptive form of it. From this point of view, it can be defined as adaptive perfectionists are the people who

have high standards in situations, and they are not concerned about their ability to achieve these standards. However, maladaptive perfectionists are the people who have high standards with a problematic perception because they are not capable of achieving their own standards. These maladaptive perfectionistic characteristics may cause various psychological distress and disturbance for those individuals.

2.3.1. Research on Academic Perfectionism

Literature focusing on these maladaptive and adaptive dimensions of perfectionism, found associations with a variety of emotional and behavioral outcomes like personality disorders (Flett, Endler, Tassone, & Hewitt, 1994), obsessive-compulsive disorders (Hewitt & Flett, 1991b; Rice & Pence, 2006) and eating disorders (Hewitt, Flett, & Ediger, 1995). There are also studies showing the relationships between maladaptive perfectionism and low self-esteem (Ashby & Rice, 2002; Grzegorek, Slaney, Franze, & Rice, 2004; Mobley, Slaney & Rice, 2005).

Perfectionism generates high shame (Ashby, Rice, & Martin, 2006) and relatedly high levels of anxiety (Flett et al., 1989; Mobley et al., 2005) like attachment anxiety, emotional adjustment and coping problems (Slaney et al., 2001). In addition, people with higher levels of perfectionistic tendencies have higher sensitivity to failure, and their perception about their faults as disasters. Thus, they usually show higher levels of depression scores on evaluations (Shahar, Blatt, Zuroff & Pilkonis, 2003; Cox, Enns, & Clara, 2002; Wang, Slaney, & Rice, 2007).

When examined the cognitive aspects of perfectionism, studies indicated that perfectionistic thinkers have brooding and rumination more than non-perfectionists (Hewitt, Flett, Besser, Sherry, & McGee, 2003; O'Connor, O'Connor, & Marshall, 2007). They also have higher hopelessness scores

(O'Connor et al., 2007), and have greater suicide risks (Blatt, 1995; Hewitt, Flett, & Turnbull, 1992; Hewitt, Flett, & Weber, 1994).

Usually, college honors or gifted samples have more perfectionistic individuals than non-honor samples and interests in perfectionism with this population have gained important outcomes. In a related study, maladaptive perfectionism correlated with hopelessness, social connectedness, perceived academic adjustment, depression, and perceived stress in high-achieving honors students (Rice, Leever, Christopher, & Porter, 2006).

When looked at the studies defining the perfectionistic concerns and perfectionistic strivings dimensions of perfectionism, there are many different conclusions. Research has demonstrated the effects of perfectionistic concerns and perfectionistic strivings on psychopathology (Burgess & DiBartolo, 2015), distress (Dunkley, Mandel, & Ma, 2014), therapeutic alliance (Hewitt et al., 2003), well-being (Chang, 2006), health behaviors (Sirois, 2015b) and physical health (Fry & Debats, 2009; Molnar, Reker, Culp, Sadava, & DeCourville, 2006).

Perfectionism is also linked with procrastination problems (Flett, Blankenstein, Hewitt, & Koledin, 1992), and reducing performance anxiety (Mor, Day, Flett, & Hewitt, 1995). Research results elaborated that as a behavioral consequence of perfectionistic thinking there is a significant relationship between perfectionism and procrastination on the academic and personal functioning of college students. In other words, adaptive perfectionism is related with more positive outcomes than maladaptive perfectionism. When compared with maladaptive perfectionists, adaptive perfectionist students declared lower depression scores, lower anxiety scores, higher self-esteem scores and higher-grade point averages (Slaney, Rice, & Ashby, 2002; Slaney et al., 2001).

2.4. Self-forgiveness and Academic Procrastination

Transgression against the self can be conceptualized as the failure to achieve one's goal because of procrastination. From this point of view, procrastination may be viewed as a form of self-sabotage, because procrastinators avoid intended and usually necessary actions irrationally (Uzun Özer et al., 2013; Wohl et al., 2010). Thus, it may produce destructive feelings like guilt, stress or anxiety (Blunt & Pychyl, 2005; Onwuegbuzie 2004; Sirois & Stout, 2011). Consequently, dealing with procrastination requires motivational changes from avoidance to attempt (Wohl et al., 2010). When procrastination is considered as a transgression against self, forgiveness of the self can be viewed as the first step towards revealing adaptive motivational change. Because, self-forgiveness may diminish negative feelings by the help of increasing positive feelings (Wohl et al., 2010). In other words, self-forgiveness provides a positive attitude towards the self when a person feels guilt or shame because of procrastinating (Wohl & Thomson, 2011). This situation provides one to begin the forgiveness process and reduce rigidity, shame or anger and to produce positive regard (Wade & Worthington, 2005).

Self-forgiveness allows one to change negative thoughts about the self by focusing on maladaptive behaviors in a non-judgmental way instead of transgressing. So, reducing negative feelings by the help of self-forgiveness may also reduce avoidant behavior to the original stimulus. Moreover, because self-forgiveness is generally linked with a promise to change future behavior it also elevates a motivational shift to attempt behavior (Wohl, Deshea, & Wahkinney, 2008).

Self-forgiveness is a positive coping strategy that mainly helps individuals through the reorientation of their emotions, thoughts and actions (Wade & Worthington, 2005). In addition to reconciliation (Freedman, 1998), self-forgiveness needs self-reflection, lessons learned from mistakes (Ingersoll-Dayton & Krause, 2005), and self-acceptance (Bauer et al., 1992) to occur.

As stated earlier, for self-forgiveness one needs to face with his/her faults without negative thoughts and feelings directed at the self and replace them with positive thoughts, concerns and self-love (Wohl et al., 2008) which is essential to psychological well-being (Woodyatt, & Wetzel, 2013). Thus, self-forgiveness for procrastination may be an essential step in effecting motivational behavioral change.

In human being's functioning, positive emotions play an effective role. In recent years, researchers are especially attentive to understand the roles of different variables play in revealing emotional responses. One of the important factors that can reveal either positive or negative emotions is situational procrastination (Chu & Choi, 2005). It has short term positive affect whereas in the long term it has been found to be related with negative affective outcomes. McCullough, Pergament and Therosen (2000) have found that forgiveness against a transgression like procrastination and positive imputations towards the experience are correlated cross-sectionally.

In relation to this information above, to explore the association between self-forgiveness for procrastination and future academic procrastination on a similar task, Wohl et al., (2010) conducted a research. In their study, they explored the relationship between self-forgiveness for a specific situation of procrastination and procrastination on that same task in the future. The sample of 119 university students were given scales for procrastination and self-forgiveness before each of two midterm exams. Results revealed that self-forgiveness for procrastinating provide reduction to following procrastination by the reduction of negative affect related with the outcome of an exam. On the other hand, students with low self-forgiveness scores reported high negative affect and maintained procrastinating for the second exam. Researchers then concluded that negative affect was a mediator effect for the association, such that when self-forgiveness increased, it reduced procrastination by decreasing negative affect. More specifically, it has

found that reduction in the guilty feelings was related with task failure. With this reduction of negative affect, people quitted procrastinating for the next exam (Wohl, et al., 2010). In this respect, self-forgiveness seems to be a coping strategy which is used to engage with the negative affect that is related with procrastination and it improves performance for future tasks.

In another study which was conducted in Turkey by Uzun and her colleagues (2018), it was aimed to provide a better understanding of the link between procrastination and positive affect by examining the role of self-forgiveness as a mediator of this relationship. In this study, the role of self-forgiveness was investigated in terms of its effect on the association between procrastination and positive affect. It was hypothesized that by forgiving oneself, an individual may overcome negative emotions. Because self-forgiveness covers reducing negative feelings and instead establishing positive feelings toward oneself. So, self-forgiveness may help individuals on regaining positive self-perception. To test these statements, researchers applied the Tuckman Procrastination Scale, the Heartland Self-Forgiveness Scale, and the Positive-Negative Affect Scale to a sample of 317 undergraduate students. Findings demonstrated that forgiving oneself partially mediates the relationship between procrastination and positive affect.

2.5. Self-forgiveness and Academic Perfectionism

Self-forgiveness seems important when an individual has done something to hurt either the self or another person. It includes forgiving harms, failures or transgressions of one's behavior. Thus, perfectionism which means having the perception about significant others that they expect perfection or having a fear of shame about negative evaluation as well as failure or other self-evaluative personality dimensions may be relevant to one's tendency to forgive the self (Tangney, Boone, & Dearing, 2005).

Recent research mostly have been working on to find out the associations between self-forgiveness and transgression severity, guilt, and rumination (Hall & Fincham, 2008; Thompson et al., 2005), but there are few research which have examined the relationship of this variable with perfectionism (Kim, Johnson, & Ripley, 2011; Tangney et al., 2005). One of the studies which was done by Dixon, Earl, Lutz-Zois, Goodnight and Peatee (2014) explored this relationship, along with the mediators that help to explain this association. Particularly, they researched the indirect associations between both conscientious and selfevaluative forms of perfectionism and self-forgiveness, through both unconditional self-acceptance and rumination. 206 participants were given forms to identify perfectionism, unconditional self-acceptance, rumination about a specific betrayal they did, and self-forgiveness of that said betrayal. Findings revealed that self-evaluative perfectionism has an indirect relationship with selfforgiveness, through both unconditional self-acceptance and rumination. Namely, self-evaluative perfectionism had a positive and significant correlation with rumination and a negative with self-acceptance. Moreover, rumination had a negative and significant correlation with self-forgiveness whereas self-acceptance had a positive and significant correlation with self-forgiveness. Conscientious perfectionism had not a significant relationship with mediators or it had not an indirect association with self-forgiveness.

Tangney et al., (2005) elaborated self-forgiveness and perfectionism relationship as well and their results indicated that there was a negative correlation between fear of negative evaluation, fear of shame, and socially prescribed perfectionism. Thus, they concluded that individuals who have tendency to self-forgive, have less problems about self-evaluative concerns.

In another study Mistler (2010) hypothesized that perfectionism in the expected directions have a significant relationship with forgiveness, so that, higher levels of forgiveness would predict lower levels of maladaptive or self-critical perfectionism. Because she assumed that the ability to forgive oneself, others, and situations may have a preventing effect for the possibility of intense psychological distress regarding not meeting one's high standards. Thus, it may be expected that people who had extremely negative self-evaluation about their performance, would have a lower tendency to forgive. Because, in situations where high standards may not be met, lacking self-forgiveness leads that individuals to perceive their performance as a failure and they would state larger discrepancies between their standard and their real performance. Results supported her hypothesis and a significant relationship was found between self-forgiveness and perfectionism.

In an Egyptian college, a research was conducted to explore the relationship between self-esteem, perfectionism and forgiveness. 105 college students were given The Almost Perfect Scale-Revised (APS-R; Slaney, et al., 2001), The Sorensen Self-Esteem Test (Sorensen, 2006), The Heartland Forgiveness Scale (HFS; Thompson et al., 2005). Results revealed that there was a significant negative relationship between forgiveness and perfectionism. Participants who were least likely to be perfectionist, expressed forgiveness-related attitudes or beliefs most likely (Abo Hamza & Helal, 2012).

Kim et al. (2011) made a research to examine the extent to what perfectionism predicts self-forgiveness, other-forgiveness and marital satisfaction. According to the results collected from 223 participants, socially prescribed perfectionism was found to be the significant predictor of self-forgiveness and other-forgiveness inversely. Moreover, self-oriented perfectionism was found to be the significant predictor of marital satisfaction, whereas other-oriented perfectionism and

self-oriented perfectionism were not the predictors of self-forgiveness and other-forgiveness.

In Turkey a study was conducted by Kaya and Peker (2016) aiming to examine the mediator role of emotional intelligence on the association between perfectionism and forgiveness levels of university students. 622 participants were given Demographic Form, The Heartland Forgiveness Scale, The Frost Multi-Dimensional Perfectionism Scale and The Emotional Intelligence Traits Scale-Short Form. Findings indicated that forgiveness and perfectionism correlates negatively. A similar negative correlation was also observed for perfectionism and emotional intelligence whereas a positive correlation was found between forgiveness and emotional intelligence. There were not significant differences in forgiveness and emotional intelligence levels regarding gender and the grade year groups. Conversely, there was a significant difference between forgiveness and emotional intelligence levels in terms of pre-experience of psychological problems and faculty groups. Finally, the partial mediator role of emotional intelligence on the relationship between forgiveness and perfectionism was concluded.

2.6. Academic Procrastination and Academic Perfectionism

Perfectionism has lots of impacts in an individuals' life. An individual who has dysfunctional perfectionism trait is usually avoid situations that may require to reach his or her perfectionist standards, thus he / she tends to procrastinate. In other words, preventing a perfectionistic standard unlikely to be met people delay starting a task because of the intention to complete it perfectly and it makes the circumstance hard or unpleasant (Shafran & Mansell, 2001).

According to this explanation it can be hypothesized that procrastination and perfectionism are closely related variables. Perfectionists prone to set

unrealistically high goals for themselves and it causes anxiety because of the goals' difficulty (Burka & Yuen, 2009). This ends up with task aversiveness and causes procrastination (Steel, 2007).

There are several studies in research area examining the relationship between perfectionism and procrastination. For example, in his initial description of normal and neurotic perfectionism, Hamacheck (1978) explained that perfectionism is not always a negative trait, but in some occasions, it can be self-defeating if the fear of not performing up to one's high standards results in delays in starting tasks. He also asserted that rates of procrastination varied by type of the perfectionist. Namely, while neurotic perfectionists focus on their deficiencies and try to avoid doing incorrect things precisely, normal perfectionists concentrate on their strengths and performing to their best abilities. Thus, these avoidant tendencies seem to lead to more frequent procrastination especially by neurotic perfectionists.

According to Burka and Yuen (2009), people who think their self-worth is dependent on their abilities and performance success are more likely to procrastinate. Because this action provides them an explanation for any of their performance that comes short of genius and preserves their belief that they are brilliant. These people have powerful fear of being perceived insufficient by others or feeling themselves as lacking ability. Thus, procrastination gives an advantage to ease this fear of failure by providing an appropriate excuse for any perceived inadequacies. Additionally, many perfectionists have the strong belief that there is only one correct solution to every problem, and till they have discovered this solution, they don't want to take any action. Because the fear of making the wrong choice panic them, so doing nothing rather than making any mistake is a more useful way for them. These kinds of irrational beliefs lend to the procrastination tendencies represented by perfectionists, who has high standards and fear of not succeed in their goals.

In a study conducted by Ferrari (1992), a significant relationship was found between unidimensional perfectionism and procrastination. Procrastinators reported more perfectionism, protectiveness, public and private self-consciousness, and self-handicapping behavior than non-procrastinators. In addition, procrastinators who have high scores of perfectionism tended to have high scores on social anxiety, self-presentation, and self-handicapping where procrastinators who didn't have high scores of perfectionism represented high scores on only one measure of self-presentation. Based on these results, Ferrari (1992) assumed that perfectionism has different purposes for procrastinators and non-procrastinators. Procrastinators may present perfectionistic tendencies to impress others with their efforts, while non-procrastinators may consider perfectionism as a demonstration of their skills and abilities. In the same study, he also found that trait procrastination is a consistent association with lower self-efficacy.

Flett and his colleagues (1992), examined the relationship between perfectionism and procrastination in college students. The results of their study revealed that self-oriented perfectionism and other-oriented perfectionism were not significantly correlated with frequency of procrastination. However, they found a significant relationship between socially prescribed perfectionism and procrastination.

To elaborate the perfectionistic tendencies of graduate students, Onwuegbuzie (2000) conducted a study and found a significant association between perfectionism and procrastination. The results were positively correlated with socially prescribed perfectionism. When the author analyzed the reasons for procrastination and its relation with perfectionism, the results indicated that fear of failure was positively related to socially prescribed perfectionism as well as self-oriented perfectionism. On the contrary, task aversiveness reason did not show a significant relationship with any of the subscales of perfectionism. Based on these associations, Onwuegbuzie assumed that the interpersonal context of

procrastination is less influential than the social context. These results strengthen the possibility that perfectionism may be one of the causes of procrastination. In other words, academic procrastinators may be overly concerned about others' beliefs about the extents of standards they have for themselves, how they are evaluated, and what others expect to be perfect.

Steel (2007) conducted the first meta-analysis for trait procrastination, which included a sub-analysis of the relations of procrastination and perfectionism. His study provided an important integration of the knowledge about procrastination. Unlike most recent research, he concluded that the associations between procrastination and perfectionism were weak and procrastinators are less likely to be perfectionists. But his meta-analysis examined perfectionism as a unidimensional structure and this unidimensional view of perfectionism only included perfectionistic strivings. But in recent studies it was emphasized that examining perfectionism as a multidimensional construct in relation to procrastination is important. Because the associations of each dimension with key outcomes are often in opposing directions and gives different ideas about the relationship between perfectionism and procrastination (Hewitt et al., 2003).

Vohs and Baumeister (2011) asserted that there are also different patterns of associations between procrastination and perfectionism dimensions. They usually emerge for negatively related constructs to behavioral control like avoidant coping, goal disengagement and impulsiveness which are key dimensions of self-regulation. For instance, coping is a key self-regulatory task aimed at coordinating thoughts, feelings and behavior towards the goal of reducing immediate stress (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Successful coping requires removing the stressor or reducing its effect in a lasting manner, whereas maladaptive coping tends to provide temporary relief from the stressor and often have an additional cost for well-being. Both perfectionism and procrastination concerns are linked with more maladaptive forms of coping like avoidance and

disengagement or supporting immediate needs over behavior to meet short-term goals (Taylor & Sirois, 2014).

In different studies Flett, Blankstein, and Martin (1995) and Sirois (2014) asserted that poor self-regulation issues which includes cognitive, affective and also behavioral components, are related with trait procrastination and perfectionistic concerns. Common associations of perfectionistic concern and trait procrastination are related with negative self-evaluations and those negative self-evaluations are usually ending with self-criticism. In two other studies, Sirois (2015a; 2015b) found supporting results about negative self-evaluation, procrastination and perfectionism. His results indicated that there are significant positive relationships between procrastination and self-blame and also perfectionism and self-blame.

Stewart and De George-Walker (2014) made a study to understand the implication of the role of perfectionism in self-handicapping behavior. According to their results perfectionism and self-handicapping were significantly and positively correlated, along with low-self efficacy. Thus, they suggested that perfectionists tend to sabotage their level of self-efficacy through setting unrealistic high goals and personal standards. This leads to self-handicapping behaviors such as procrastination, task aversiveness or failing to practice.

Another research which examined the relationship between academic procrastination and perfectionism in university students was provided by Jadidi, Mohammedkhani and Tajrishi (2011). The aim of their study was to examine the dimensions of perfectionism which show the strongest associations with procrastination. They used Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale and measured 3 subscales called concern over mistakes and doubts, parental expectations and criticism and personal standards. Consequently, all three dimensions of perfectionism appeared to be significantly and positively related with academic

procrastination. Thus, they concluded that procrastination is a form of self-handicapping, more so in perfectionists.

2.7. Theoretical Framework of the Study

The present study is based on Rational Emotive Behavior Theory (REBT) and the explanation of affect, cognition and behavior in REBT and their reflection to study variables are presented in detail below.

Rational Emotive Behavior Theory (REBT) is called as the comprehensive theory of human behavior and the central theory of Cognitive Behavioral Approach by Froggat (2005), as well as humanistic psychotherapy by Ellis (1973). The main principle of REBT is that people live their life in cognitively, emotively and behaviorally. Thus, individuals' behaviors develop in transitions of their cognitions, emotions and behaviors (Ellis, 1979). Namely, cognitions, emotions and behaviors of people affect each another (Ellis, 1991) and every single change would have an influence on the other (Ellis, 1996).

Rational Emotive Behavior Theory asserts that all people have self-defeating tendencies. But people can choose their feelings when something goes against their goals. The type of emotion which is chosen is usually depend on people's belief systems. Ellis (1979) indicated that individuals have both rational and irrational beliefs. The types of beliefs that are chosen to lead different emotional, behavioral and cognitive outcomes. For instance, when an individual's belief system is rational, then the behaviors are rational, and emotions would be appropriate for that situation. On the other hand, if the belief system is irrational, the emotions would be inappropriate to the situation and they may bring undesirable behavioral outcomes.

When looked at procrastination, irrational fears and self-criticism are the most effective cognitive factors. According to Ellis and Knaus (1979) it is a maladaptive behavior which is arising from dysfunctional beliefs and behavioral avoidance.

One of the common dysfunctional beliefs among university students who procrastinate academically is irrational fear. In other words, it can be said that fear of failure is an important reason of procrastination between students. According to Solomon and Rothblum (1984), 50% of university students who procrastinate expressed fear of failure as their reason in their study. This reason was positively correlated with depression, irrational beliefs and anxiety. Also, it was found that procrastination was negatively associated with punctuality or organized study habits as well as assertion and self-esteem.

To examine both cognitive, affective and behavioral components of academic procrastination, Rothblum et al. (1986) conducted a study with low and high procrastinators. Results indicated that distress experience was an essential reason between high procrastinators. Furthermore, students who had high procrastination levels had high tendency to low academic performance. High procrastination levels were also associated with high physical anxiety symptoms which was experienced by students. Lastly, results showed that students who had high levels of procrastination had more dysfunctional cognitive patterns like negative appraisal, lower self-efficacy and less self-control.

According to the results of their numerous studies, Solomon and Rothblum (1984), assumed that procrastination includes complex relationships of cognitive, affective, and behavioral components. Thus, it cannot be seen as only a lack of study habits or organization of time. For instance, Burka and Yuen (2009) and Ferrari (1992) found that mood and emotions have the relationship with affective part while Solomon and Rothblum (1984) pointed out that dilatory and study habits have associations with behavioral part of procrastination. Irrational beliefs

are the cognitive factors of this complex phenomenon (Ferrari, 1994; Blunt & Pychyl, 2005).

Conceptual model of perfectionism explains perfectionistic people having both relationships with others and with the self. The main differentiation about self is the "to be perfect" automatic thought. This relationship may be adaptive which includes self-compassion and self-forgiveness or maladaptive which involves shame, self-criticism and self-hatred (Hewitt, Flett, & Mikail, 2017).

Horney (1950) first described the cognitive factors of perfectionism about self. She emphasized the term neurotic perfectionists. People who have automatic thoughts and self-dialogue is based on "shoulds" are neurotic perfectionists. These thoughts and dialogues make the discrepancy between ideal self and the actual self. Thus, they harm self-image of people.

In his article "Rational Psychotherapy", Ellis (1958) introduced 12 irrational beliefs in the rational-emotive perspective. From his point of view, perfectionism was one of them. He interpreted perfectionism as an irrational belief because perfectionistic people feel that perfection is a compulsory requirement and it usually outrival reason and logic (Ellis, 2002).

He explained the aspects of the term as being fully competent, intelligent and have a resistance accepting the self as imperfect. He also pointed out the tendencies that perfectionists have, are making generalizations about being approved by everyone and doing everything perfectly well. Thus, perfectionists are prone to evaluate setbacks and other negative consequences as disasters and they feel chronic frustration (Ellis, 1958).

Shafran, Egan, and Wade (2010) elaborated perfectionism in cognitive, behavioral and emotional context. Their model involved numerous important factors. One of them is setting rigid standards and then evaluating or criticizing self in those rigid

and high standards. Dichotomous evaluation of standards is another one which includes feeling of failure. This feeling exists even if perfectionists met standards and there is lack of feeling relief. Because they have the thought about standards as they have been met temporarily. Thus, they reset standards as higher. Because of the intense worry and anxiety, avoidance of meeting standards is another important factor and it usually results with procrastination.

Shafran et al. (2010) also assumed that perfectionists have cognitive biases like all-or-nothing thinking, should thinking, selective attention on negative and overgeneralizing. Lastly, they pointed out the performance-related behaviors of perfectionistic individuals. Goal achievement behaviors, testing performance, comparisons, reassurance seeking, safety behaviors are the performance-related behaviors which they exhibit to protect adverse consequences of their self-esteem.

Self-forgiveness models assert that it is a step by step occurring healthy process. This process works well when "true self-forgiveness" arises. The term "true self-forgiveness" actualizes when people take responsibility for their past mistakes and achieve self-acceptance with both positive and negative sides (Enright, 1996; Luskin, 2002). In 2005, Hall and Fincham developed a self-forgiveness model which based on the changes in emotional, social-cognitive, behavioral and offense-related reactions toward oneself. They concluded that self-forgiveness is a process with the interaction of social-cognitive, affective and behavioral components (Hall & Fincham, 2008). They give the definition of self-forgiveness as a motivational change which requires accepting faults and taking responsibility by the offender. It occurs when cognitive, emotional and behavioral processes are completed successfully (Hall & Fincham, 2005).

According to their model self- forgiveness consists of transitions in affective, social-cognitive, behavioral and offense-related components. They define shame, guilt and empathy are the affective components while attributions and perceived

forgiveness are the social-cognitive ones. Perception of the transgression severity is related with offense-related components and conciliatory behaviors are the behavioral variables of self-forgiveness (Hall & Fincham, 2005).

Hall and Fincham (2005) assumed that self-forgiveness has numerous negative associations with undesirable emotions. For instance, guilt and shame which are mediated by conciliatory behaviors or empathic understanding have negative relationship with self-forgiveness. In social-cognitive aspect, they hypothesized that while external attribution about transgression is positively correlated with self-forgiveness; maladaptive attribution may support guiltiness and ends up with seeking forgiveness. In other words, individual's adaptive / maladaptive and internal / external attribution about one's own behavior has an important impact on self-forgiveness process.

As mentioned before, Hall and Fincham (2005) highlighted the mediator role of conciliatory behavior between transgression and self-forgiveness as the behavioral aspect of self-forgiveness. Furthermore, they assumed that perception of forgiveness from a powerful person or the victim are also linked with higher levels of self-forgiveness. Conversely, intensity of the offense has a negative association with self-forgiveness as predicted.

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

3.1. Participants

The data for the present study were obtained from 571 university students who are studying in four different faculty programs at Middle East Technical University (METU) during the spring semester of 2018-2019 academic year. In order to select the participants of this study, convenient sampling method was chosen. After checking the assumptions of regression analysis, 3 multivariate outliers were excluded from the data set. Thus, the analysis was continued with 568 participants. In the following paragraph participant characteristics according to 568 university students will be explained.

The sample consisted of 326 (57.4 %) female and 242 (42.6 %) male students who represented four different grade levels. Specifically, 92 participants (16.2 %) of this study were freshmen, 168 (29.6 %) were sophomores, 145 (25.5 %) were juniors and 163 (28.7 %) were senior students. Their mean age was 21.68 (SD = 1.72) with an age range between 18 and 25. Participants represented the four faculties of the METU. Considering the distribution of participants by faculty, 171 students (30.1 %) were from the Faculty of Education, 198 (34.9 %) students were from the Faculty of Arts and Sciences, 146 (25.7 %) students were from the Faculty of Engineering. Regarding the academic achievement of the

participants, mean of the cumulative general point average (CGPA) was found 3.11 (SD = .61) ranging from 1.10 to 4.00.

3.2. Data Collection Instruments

In the present study, a survey package containing a Demographic Information Questionnaire, the Academic Perfectionism Scale (APS), the Procrastination Assessment Scale-Students (Turkish-PASS) and the Heartland Forgiveness Scale (HFS) were administered to participants.

The instruments which were used to assess the variables have preexisting standardized Turkish versions and their contents as well as subscales are meeting the criteria of the current study.

3.2.1. Demographic Information Questionnaire

Demographic Information Questionnaire was used to gather information about participants' characteristics like age, gender, department and Cumulative General Point Average (CGPA) and was developed by the researcher.

3.2.2. Academic Perfectionism Scale (APS)

The scale was developed by Odacı, Kalkan and Çıkrıkçı (2017) to examine the academic perfectionism levels of university students. It has 13 items and is a 5-point Likert scale which has statements ranging from 1 (I strongly disagree) to 5 (I strongly agree). There are not reverse items in the measurement tool. The

lowest score is 13 and maximum is 65 points. Higher scores indicate higher levels of academic perfectionism.

It consists of 3 factors and based on the contents of the factor structures their names are Self-doubt, Comparison and Idealization consecutively. Confirmatory and exploratory factor analysis of the scale was found acceptable. The internal consistency coefficient (Cronbach alpha) of the total scale was found .82. For the sub-factors, internal consistency coefficients (Cronbach alpha) were found .78 for self-doubt, .69 for comparison and .57 for idealization. For scale-related validity, researchers found a significant positive correlation between the Academic Perfectionism Scale (APS) and the Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale (MPS) which was developed by Frost et al. in 1990. Accordingly, it was found that Academic Perfectionism Scale (APS) is a valid and reliable measurement tool.

3.2.3. Procrastination Assessment Scale-Students (Turkish-PASS)

It was developed by Solomon and Rothblum (1984) and was translated and adapted into Turkish by Uzun Özer (2005) to assess the disposition to procrastinate among Turkish people. It is a 44 itemed self-reported scale and has two parts.

The first part has 18 items and investigates the prevalence of procrastination in six domains of academic functioning. These are writing a term paper, studying for an exam, keeping up weekly reading assignments, performing administrative tasks, attending meeting and performing academic tasks. It is a 5-point Likert scale which evaluates students' procrastination levels (1 = Never procrastinate – 5 = Always procrastinate), their perception about it (1 = Not at all a problem – 5 = Always a problem) and their wish to decrease it (1 = Do not want to decrease – 5 = Definitely want to decrease). To find the total score of this part, first 12 question is summed, and scores reveal ranging from 12 to 60 (Uzun Özer, 2005).

Low scores mean low procrastination whereas high scores show high procrastination (Uzun Özer et al., 2009).

The second part of the PASS examines the reasons of procrastination which are fear of failure, risk taking, laziness and rebellion against control. This part has 26 items and is a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Not at all reflects why I procrastinated) to 5 (Definitely reflects why I procrastinated) (Solomon & Rothblum, 1984).

The internal consistency coefficients (Cronbach alpha) of subscales of the first part were .68 for frequency of procrastination, .65 for causing a problem, and .81 for intention to decrease. Furthermore, the internal consistency coefficients (Cronbach alpha) of factors of the second part were .86 for fear of failure, .69 for risk taking, .61 for laziness and .66 for rebellion against control. Lastly, Cronbach's alpha for total scale was .86. Overall, Turkish version of PASS was found to be a reliable measurement tool (Uzun Özer et al., 2009).

In order to assess the prevalence of procrastination without reasons, only the first part of the scale was measured and used in the current study.

3.2.4. The Heartland Forgiveness Scale (HFS)

The Heartland Forgiveness Scale (HFS, Thompson et al., 2005) is an 18 itemed self-measurement tool which assesses the forgiveness in a multidimensional manner. The scale contains three subscales naming forgiveness of self, forgiveness of others, and forgiveness of the situation. Statements of this scale measures the responses of participants to transgressions. It is a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (Almost always false of me) to 7 (Almost always true of me). The lowest score is 18 and maximum is 126 points. Higher scores of subscales show higher

levels of forgiveness. To find the total score, all items are summed after reversing questions number 2, 4, 6, 7, 9, 11, 13, 15 and 17 (Thompson et al., 2005).

HFS was standardized by Bugay and Demir (2010) and the internal consistency coefficient (Cronbach alpha) was found .81 for total score, .64 for forgiveness of self subscale, .79 for forgiveness of other subscale and .76 for forgiveness of situation subscale.

In the current study, only forgiveness of self subscale (items 1-6) was used because of the relevancy of the study.

3.3. Data Collection Procedure

A survey package containing the Demographic Information Questionnaire, the Academic Perfectionism Scale (APS), the Procrastination Assessment Scale-Students (PASS) and the Heartland Forgiveness Scale (HFS) were administered to participants at the first or last 15 minutes of lessons. Firstly, permissions were obtained from the Ethical Committee and the instructor of each class, then the aim of the study, confidentiality and the voluntarily basis were explained to participants. Lastly, Informed Consent Forms were obtained from each volunteer student and they were asked to respond to the scales. The data was collected in the classroom settings from approximately 30 students per class in a 2-week duration at the beginning of the spring semester of 2018-2019 academic year. It took almost 15 minutes to complete the questionnaire package.

3.4. Data Analysis Procedure

Descriptive statistical analysis was used to examine the frequencies, percentages, means and standard deviations of the data. Demographic characteristics of participants were also analyzed using descriptive statistics. Descriptive analysis was followed by regression analysis to determine the predictive roles of Academic Perfectionism and Academic Procrastination on Self-forgiveness using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) 24.0. Due to the nature of the data, multiple regression analysis was carried out to assess the functional relationships between the study variables and to find the variation in the dependent variable. Before regression analysis, missing data analysis, multivariate outliers, normally distributed errors, homoscedasticity, independence of errors, linearity, multicollinearity and multivariate normality assumptions were checked.

The scores obtained from the scales were compared by gender with independent sample t-test. The gender variable was not included in the regression analysis. Because there were no gender-based differences on academic perfectionism ($t_{566} = .07$; p>.05), academic procrastination ($t_{566} = -.37$; p>.05) and self-forgiveness ($t_{566} = -1.23$; p>.05).

The demographic variable academic achievement which was considered as the cumulative grade point averages (CGPA) of students in the present study has not been included to regression analysis. Because, according to the Rules and Regulations Governing Undergraduate Studies of Middle East Technical University (METU), students whose CGPA are between 3.00 and 3.49 are qualified as Honor Students and the mean of the CGPA of the sample indicated a result as 3.11 (SD = .61) which is an overachievement level.

Another demographic variable of sample was the faculty program. The distribution of the faculties in the sample was not comparable enough to include to the analysis. Thus, this demographic variable was not calculated in the study.

3.5. Limitations of the Study

This study has some limitations and it would be better to evaluate the findings by taking those limitations into consideration. The major limitation of this study was the chosen sampling method to collect the data from Middle East Technical University (METU) which was convenience sampling. Although convenience sampling is a practical way to gather data rather than random sampling, it cannot be expected a highly representative sample and there is the possibility of sample selection bias since matching samples or homogenous subgroups were not used. Thus, findings can be only generalized for METU university students and subject characteristics may result in differences as a threat to internal validity of this study.

The scope of data collection of the present study is consisting of freshmen, sophomore, junior and senior grades, studying in METU which means limited to undergraduate level of students. So, the results can only be discussed in relation to this age group and generalization of findings to prep-school, high-school and graduate students is limited.

Because of its voluntary-based nature in terms of willingness to participate in the study, the number of enrolled students from each faculty is not equal. Thus, the results cannot be specifically representative to compare to all faculties.

Another limitation may be the most probable threat of this study, which is related to subject characteristics biased because of the self-report nature of the study. The results might not reflect the students' actual academic perfectionism, academic procrastination and self-forgiveness levels. Despite the wide applicability, the validity of the self-report measures is limited because of participants' honesty in responses due to the need for social desirability. Participant's motives or secondary gains may have resulted in reporting different answers than they actually think.

Finally, a limitation exists because of the cross-sectional nature of the study, which the data captured perceptions at one point in time rather than over an extended period of research. Thus, it restricted the researcher from making any longitudinal prediction.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

This chapter presents the results obtained from the statistical analysis in terms of research question. In order to obtain valid and reliable results, necessary assumptions were checked before performing regression analysis. In this respect, firstly, missing data analysis, multivariate outliers, normally distributed errors, homoscedasticity, independence of errors, linearity, multicollinearity and multivariate normality assumptions were checked step by step. After, descriptive statistics of study variables and multiple regression analysis was given in "Results of the Multiple Regression Analysis" section. Summary of the results were presented with each analysis.

4.1. Missing Data Analysis

There are different methods for addressing missing values. One of these methods is to delete the subjects or variables that cause the problem because of containing a missing value. In this method, each subject having the missing value is extracted from the data file. This method is a good alternative if few subjects have missing values (Çokluk, Şekercioğlu, & Büyüköztürk, 2012). In this study, only 12 subjects had missing values in the data set. The ratio of the number of subjects with missing values to the sample of the study is quite small. Therefore, subjects with missing values were excluded from the data set and then analyzed.

4.2. Assumptions

In the following section, required assumptions of multiple regression analysis in order to find reliable results were presented.

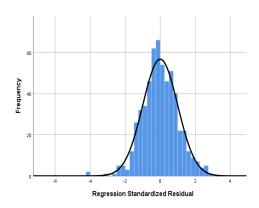
4.2.1. Multivariate Outliers

To determine the multivariate outliers, the values of Mahalanobis Distance, Cook's Distance, and Standardized DFBETA Intercepts were calculated and analyzed. Highest Cook's Distance and Standardized DFBETA Intercept values were smaller than 1 and only values > 1 (Field, 2009) may be cause for concern. But for this sample, values satisfy the assumption.

The accepted criterion for multivariate outliers is the Mahalanobis Distance value at p < .001. The Mahalonobis Distance value calculated for each observation is decided by comparing with the critical chi-square value (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2006). When the Mahal distance values were examined, it was observed that 3 multivariate outliers were in the data set (*Mahalanobis Distance* = 13.82, df = 2, p = .001). The observations of these values were excluded from the data set. The analysis was continued with 568 data.

4.2.2. Normally Distributed Errors

In the regression analysis, in order to determine the normality of distributed errors, Histogram showing distribution of standardized residuals and Normal P-P plot showing normality of residuals were examined.



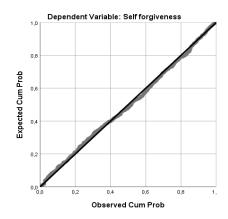


Figure 1. Histogram showing distribution of standardized residuals

Figure 2. Normal P-P plot showing normality of residuals

Figures 1 and 2 show the distribution of standardized residues and the Normal P-P Plot obtained by regression analysis to determine the effect of academic procrastination and academic perfectionism on self-forgiveness. In Figure 1, when the histogram is examined, it can be said that a very slight positively skewed distribution has occurred and there is some deviation from normal distribution. It can be said that the distribution is very close to normal. In Figure 2, almost no deviation occurred from the line.

4.2.3. Homoscedasticity

The assumption of homoscedasticity refers to the necessity that errors should have the same variance for each observation. Homoscedasticity assumption can be checked by visual examination of a plot of the standardized residuals (the errors) by the regression standardized predicted value (Osborne & Waters, 2002). The breach of this assumption does not prevent the analysis but the power of the test

decreases if the assumption is not met. Tabachnick and Fidell (2006) expressed that homoscedasticity assumption is not critical for multivariate analysis.

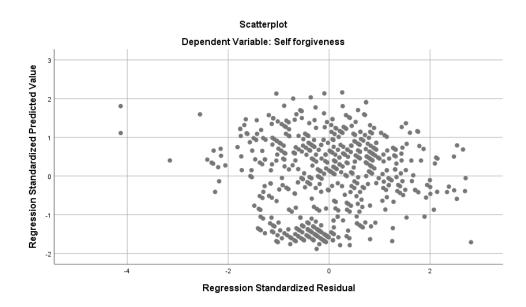


Figure 3. Distribution of the homoscedasticity of residuals, independent variables: Academic Procrastination and Academic Perfectionism

When the distribution in Figure 3 is examined, it is understood that the residuals do not accumulate in a certain region and show no systematic distribution. The residuals were distributed in the middle of the charts and in different regions. The distribution indicated that there are no heterogeneous residuals.

4.2.4. Independence of Errors

Durbin Watson statistic is the criteria that is used to test whether residual terms are correlated after a regression model is estimated. The Durbin-Watson statistic

for the regression model was close (1.45 < Durbin-Watson < 1.76) the acceptable range (> 1.5 and < 2.5) and indicating that the independence of errors assumption was met.

4.2.5. Linearity

In order to observe the linearity of residuals, partial regression scatter plots were checked. The visual inspection of plots showed a very close to linear relationship between dependent and independent variables of the study.

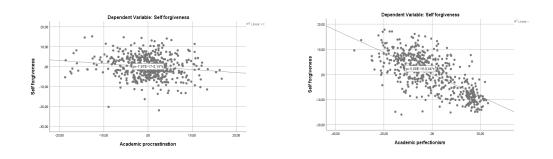


Figure 4. Scatter plots of residuals

4.2.6. Multicollinearity

Strong relationships between independent variables are called multicollinearity. It occurs when the correlations (r > .90) between the variables are high. If there is a multicollinearity between the independent variables, it is recommended to remove one or more of the variables with strong relations between the models (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2006). Multicollinearity was tested by calculating the variance inflation factor (VIF), with values >10 indicating a problem (James, Witten, Hastie, &

Tibshirani, 2013). The result of the analysis showed that there is no multicollinearity between variables (1.00 < VIF < 1.08).

4.2.7. Multivariate Normality

For multivariate normality, it is necessary for each variable to meet the univariate normality. Therefore, the univariate normal distribution was investigated firstly. The univariate normality was investigated by calculating the skewness and kurtosis values of the variables. These values are in the range of ± 2 indicate that the distribution does not deviate from the normal distribution (George & Mallery, 2001). It is understood that the calculated values are within the threshold and the normal univariate distribution assumption is met (Table 1).

Table 1. Normality of the Variables

Variable	Skewness	S.E	Kurtosis	S.E
Academic procrastination	53	.10	.90	.20
Academic perfectionism	.21	.10	-1.04	.20
Self-forgiveness	13	.10	99	.20

In order to exam the multivariate normality assumption, Mardia's multivariate kurtosis value was calculated by assuming the multivariate normal distribution assumption. If this value was greater than 8, it was stated that the data set did not comply with the multivariate normal distribution (Kline, 2011). The obtained value ($multivariate \ kurtosis = .72 < 8$) in this study showed that the data fit the multivariate normal distribution.

4.3. Results of the Multiple Regression Analysis

After the necessary assumptions were tested, regression analyzes were performed. Before that, study variables were compared by gender after excluding multivariate outliers from the data set, in order to conclude to add gender to the analysis or not. Independent sample t-test statistics were calculated to examine whether there was a significant difference between male and female students in terms of academic procrastination, academic perfectionism and self-forgiveness. The results indicated that there were no significant differences between males and females in terms of academic perfectionism ($t_{(566)} = .07$; p > .05), academic procrastination ($t_{(566)} = -.37$; p > .05) and self-forgiveness ($t_{(566)} = -1.23$; p > .05). According to the results, gender wasn't calculated as an independent variable in multiple regression analysis. Thus, self-forgiveness scores used as dependent variable while academic procrastination and academic perfectionism scores used as independent variables.

Table 2. Summary of Descriptive Statistics for Study Variables

Variables	N	min	max	M	SD
Academic procrastination	568	18	54	37.33	5.49
Academic perfectionism	568	13	64	39.82	12.48
Self-forgiveness	568	9	42	24.18	7.78

Descriptive statistics of the variables including means and standard deviations are displayed in Table 2. According to the descriptive statistics, participants' academic procrastination scores vary between 18 and 54 (M = 37.33, SD = 5.49) where academic perfectionism scores vary between 13 and 64 (M = 39.82, SD = 12.48). Self-forgiveness levels of students are between 9 and 42 (M = 24.18, SD = 7.78).

Table 3. Pearson Correlation Coefficients for Relations Between the Variables

Variables	M	SD	1.	2.	3.
1. Academic procrastination	37.33	5.49	1		
2. Academic perfectionism	39.82	12.48	.275**	1	
3. Self-forgiveness	24.18	7.78	301**	734**	1

^{**}p < .01 (two-tailed); *N*=568

Before the main statistical analysis, correlations among all variables were examined and these correlations are displayed in Table 3. When the table is examined, there is a moderate negative and statistically significant relationship between self-forgiveness and academic procrastination (r = -,30, p < .01) which means higher academic procrastination related with lower self-forgiveness levels. Another finding is a high negative and statistically significant relationship between self-forgiveness and academic perfectionism (r = -.73, p < .01) which means as academic perfectionism levels of students increase, their level of self-forgiveness decrease.

In the next step, multiple regression analysis was used to test how well academic procrastination and academic perfectionism variables predict the self-forgiveness together. Results were given in Table.4 with their description below the table.

Table 4. Summary of Regression Analysis for Academic Procrastination and Perfectionism Predicting Self-forgiveness (N = 568)

Variable	Coefficients		
	B	SE B	eta
(Constant)	47.31	1.54	
Academic procrastination	15	.04	11**
Academic perfectionism	44	.02	71**
R^2		.55	

p < .01

As it is shown in Table 4. the results of the regression analysis indicated that 55% of the variance ($R^2 = .55$, $F_{(2;567)} = 345.03$, p < .01) of self-forgiveness in the sample can be accounted for by the linear combination of academic procrastination and academic perfectionism indicators. It was found that academic procrastination ($\beta = -.11$, p < .01) and academic perfectionism ($\beta = -.71$, p < .01) significantly and negatively predicted self-forgiveness.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

5.1. Conclusion

Regression analysis of the current study revealed significant relationship between the predictor variables and the outcome variable. Namely, there was a statistically significant relationship among self-forgiveness and the predictor variables academic procrastination and academic perfectionism for Turkish university students. Results revealed a negative relationship between the predictor variables and the outcome variable as expected. When compared, academic perfectionism ($\beta = -.71$, p < .01) was found to be a better contributor to the model than academic procrastination ($\beta = -.11$, p < .01). Perfectionism and procrastination together can predict 55% of the variance of the prediction self-forgiveness. Therefore, it can be concluded that the more severe the procrastination and the perfectionism, the less likely the individual would be to self-forgive.

Furthermore, an association between the predictor variables, academic procrastination and academic perfectionism was observed, suggesting that on higher levels of perfectionism, tending to procrastinate is more likely. There were not significant differences for all three variables regarding gender.

In conclusion the current results indicated that studying self-forgiveness in relation to procrastination and perfectionism may be beneficial in exploring the processes that influence self-regulation failure deeply. Exploring these processes may give a better understanding of the cognitive, affective and behavioral components related to self-forgiveness. It may also provide new perspectives about which individuals may be able to handle self-regulation failures in a more constructive way and reduce both procrastination and perfectionism.

5.2. Discussion Regarding Preliminary Analysis

In the current study, before regression analysis, t-test was conducted to compare study variables regarding gender. Results showed that gender was not a significant predictor of self-forgiveness of participants. In addition, gender did not make significant difference on academic procrastination and academic perfectionism either.

One of the result of this study which shows that there is no gender difference in self-forgiveness is consistent with most of the studies in literature (Abo Hamza & Helal, 2012; Hodgson & Wertheim, 2007; Kim et al., 2011; Maltby et al., 2001; Macaskill et al., 2002; Rangganadhan & Todorov, 2010). In terms of Turkish culture, study findings also revealed that there was no gender difference in self-forgiveness (Aşçıoğlu Önal, 2014; Bugay, 2010; Kaya & Peker, 2016; Gündüz, 2014; Halisdemir, 2013).

There are also studies showing significant differences of self-forgiveness on gender which does not match with the findings of the current study. For instance, Mauger et al. (1992) found that women find themselves less forgiving than men. Tangney et al. (2005) also determined that male participants' tendency to forgive was more than females.

According to Miller, Worthington, & McDaniel (2008), a possible reason for not having a significant relationship between gender and self-forgiveness is that there

is a high probability for individuals of not taking into consideration gender roles while focusing on self-forgiveness process. With the onset of focusing self, they stated that the importance of gender roles that may affect the process of self-forgiveness may be reduced. A similar situation may be acceptable for the participants of this study. Gender roles thought to cause gender difference in self-forgiveness may have lost their effectiveness, as the participants focus on their own lives in this process, regardless of whether they are women or men.

According to the literature examining the relationship between academic procrastination and gender, scholars have found different results. Some research revealed that there is no significant gender difference on procrastination (Harrison, 2014; Rapson, 2015; Effert & Ferrari, 1989; Ferrari, 1991b; Haycock, McCarty, & Skay, 1998; Rothblum et al., 1986; Solomon & Rothblum, 1984; Watson, 2001; Schouwenburg's, 1992; Beswick et al., 1988) which support the current study. On the contrary, some of the studies suggested that female participants have more procrastination tendencies than male participants (Doyle & Paludi, 1998) whereas some of them found that women procrastinate less than men (Senecal, Koestner, & Vallerand, 1995).

In Turkish culture, Uzun Özer found different results in two of her studies which were examining gender differences on procrastination. One of her study's result revealed that there is not a significant difference on the female and male students' procrastination level (Uzun Özer, 2010). However, in her previous procrastination study, findings regarding gender difference on procrastination revealed that academic procrastination was related with gender. In other words, female university students procrastinated less than male students (Uzun Özer, 2005).

Studies indicating different results in procrastination levels according to gender may have been caused by the natures of studies, sample characteristics, limitations or other variables that are used for measurement. Eventually, for the current study, findings are in line with most of the previous results explicating that there is no gender difference on procrastination levels of students. Therefore, gender does not provide an impact on academic procrastination.

According to gender on academic perfectionism results of this research, there is not a significant difference between male and female which is partially supported with the literature. There are different results about gender on perfectionism in literature. Some of them support the current result and reveal no gender differences (Stoeber & Stoeber, 2009; Sapmaz, 2006; Canoya, 2010) while in some studies females show significantly higher perfectionistic tendencies than males (Abo Hamza & Helal, 2012; You Joung Lee, 2017; Slaney & Ashby, 1996).

Tuncer and Voltan-Acar (2006) conducted a research to find out the differences between traits of perfectionism of university students and their anxiety levels, gender, perceived personality type and perceived body image. Results yielded that socially prescribed perfectionism levels of males were significantly higher than females whereas there was not a significant difference in perceived personality type and perfectionism traits on gender variable.

In a study with Turkish sample of 6-7-8th grade gifted students' positive and negative perfectionism characteristics were investigated by Kahraman and Bulut Pedük (2014). According to the results, while female students indicated higher levels of positive perfectionism than male students, there was not a significant difference on gender about negative perfectionism.

Due to the multidimensional nature of perfectionism, it can be understood that study results are varying from each other concerning the relationship of different dimensions of perfectionism and gender. In the current study, perfectionism was measured in an academic context and no gender differences was observed.

To conclude, as the research reviews revealed, gender differences are not conclusive. While some studies showed significant relations with the variables and gender, some others reported no such findings. Based on these findings, it can be speculated that variables might be affected by some factors like age, culture, personality and related issues.

5.3. Discussion Regarding Multiple Regression Analysis

The findings of the current study which shows the relationship between academic procrastination, academic perfectionism and self-forgiveness are discussed below according to the previous findings in literature.

5.3.1. Prediction of Academic Procrastination on Self-forgiveness

One of the relationships that was observed in the study is between academic procrastination and self-forgiveness. According to the regression analysis, academic procrastination was found to predict self-forgiveness negatively $(\beta = -.11, p < .01)$. In other words, individuals who procrastinated to a larger extent were less likely to forgive themselves.

Findings of the current study is consistent with previous research. But, in literature there are few studies examining the link between these two variables. Thus, it is limited to compare with previous findings. One of the research examining this relationship was conducted in 2010 by Wohl and his colleagues. In their study Wohl et al. (2010) focused on the relationship between procrastination and negative emotion with mediator self-forgiveness. Namely, self-forgiveness is related with a reduction of avoidance, putting forward that self-forgiveness was associated with less procrastination and more positive emotions. Similarly, Uzun

and her colleagues (2018) examined the association between procrastination and positive emotion with mediator self-forgiveness. Results were supporting Wohl and his colleagues' (2010) research. Self-forgiveness partially mediates the relationship between procrastination and positive affect, and it was mediating by hindering the negative emotions of procrastination.

In another study, it was aimed to explore the relationships between procrastination, self-forgiveness for procrastination, perfectionism and average grade. Results yielded a significant negative relationship between procrastination and self-forgiveness (Rapson, 2015).

Consequently, this was an expected relationship but perhaps with a higher degree. When reasons of this low degree are elaborated, there are some probabilities that arise. First, it may be because of the tendency of the majority of students to procrastinate actively. According to Chu and Choi (2005), active procrastinators are the people who choose to procrastinate to serve a purpose. This purpose is mostly about achieving the peak motivation and arousal. Scholars found that active procrastinators usually have similar grades to non-procrastinators and the procrastination style of an individual mainly predicts positive and negative outcomes. Especially passive procrastinators dwell with more undesirable outcomes (Chu & Choi, 2005; Seo, 2012, Choi & Moran, 2009). From this point of view, it can be assumed that because of not affected by the negative outcomes of procrastination like low achievement, active pocrastinators may maintain their psychological well-being. Thus, they do not need to self-forgive for procrastination.

According to this differentiation between active and passive procrastinators, there may have had some implications on the present finding. Because the measurement of procrastination which is used in the analysis did not discriminate the procrastination styles, people with high scores on procrastination scale may have

been active procrastinators and so high achievers. However, passive procrastinators would also high scored on the analysis. Thus, results provided a slight negative relationship with self-forgiveness as the less the students procrastinate, the more they self-forgive.

To sum up, motivational changes from avoidance to attempt is required to deal with procrastination. Forgiving self for wrongdoings may be the first step to begin this motivational change by decreasing negative emotions and increasing positive emotions (Wohl et al., 2010).

5.3.2. Prediction of Academic Perfectionism on Self-forgiveness

Another relationship that was found in the current study is the one between academic perfectionism and self-forgiveness. According to the regression analysis, academic perfectionism was the strongest predictor of self-forgiveness ($\beta = -.71$, p < .01). In other words, individuals who had more academic perfectionistic standards were less likely to forgive themselves.

Considering the previous research results, low amounts of self-forgiveness is not surprising for people who are prone to be highly perfectionist. One of the studies which was done by Dixon and his colleagues (2014) explored this relationship. They examined the relationship between conscientious and self-evaluative forms of perfectionism and self-forgiveness indirectly by the help of unconditional self-acceptance and rumination. Results showed that self-evaluative perfectionism and self-forgiveness has an indirect relationship. Mistler (2010) analysis' results also indicated a significant relationship between self-forgiveness and perfectionism.

Tangney and his colleagues (2005) investigated self-forgiveness and perfectionism association. Their findings revealed that people who tend to self-

forgive, have less troubles about self-evaluative concerns like perfectionistic concerns. In another research, it was found that people who were most likely to have state-forgiveness related attitudes or beliefs, are least likely to tend to be perfectionist (Abo Hamza & Helal, 2012). Kim et al. (2011) asserted that socially prescribed perfectionism is the only significant predictor of self-forgiveness inversely.

Studies concerning self-forgiveness mostly emphasize the negative influence of perfectionism on self-forgiveness. They explain perfectionism as an obstruction for the individual to develop forgiveness. Thus, to improve self-forgiveness, people must first admit their wrongdoings. In line with these statements, Enright (1996) and Luskin (2002) conducted studies and found negative relationships between socially prescribed perfectionism and self-forgiveness. McCann (2009) also made an analysis and his findings were similar with the previous studies as self-oriented perfectionism is the predictor of self-forgiveness and it has a negative correlation with self-forgiveness.

In Turkey there are few studies examining the association between perfectionism and self-forgiveness. One of them was conducted by Kaya and Peker (2016) aiming to find out the mediator role of emotional intelligence on the relationship between perfectionism and forgiveness. Their results revealed that forgiveness and perfectionism correlates negatively.

Lastly, Bugay (2010) elaborated on the role of self-oriented perfectionism in self-forgiveness. She asserted that when perfectionism scores of students increase, self-forgiveness scores decrease. She also indicated that rumination, shame, socially prescribed perfectionism as well as conciliatory behaviors of others are the important predictors of forgiving self. Thus, having high standards for oneself because of self-oriented or socially prescribed perfectionism is a barrier in the development of self-forgiveness.

In sum, the present study provides evidence for strong relationship between academic perfectionism and self-forgiveness. Based on the current study and previous research, it has been established that maladaptive perfectionism inversely affects almost every aspect of psychological well-being including self-forgiveness.

Somov (2010) indicated that it is important for people to understand that they are motivationally innocent and naturally imperfect, so there is no need to blame themselves for anything. He added that to prevent blaming and begin forgiving it is a necessary way to take the psychological determinism into account with an attempt to accept reality as it is. For especially perfectionists, this is good enough to set them on the essential path of self-forgiveness.

According to Hill et al. (2004), perfectionism may make self-forgiveness process more difficult because of putting high and unreachable standards to self. When these standards are not met, shame is experienced and perception about self becomes a failure. This explanation is consistent with Hewitt and Flett's (1991) statement. They assumed that when individuals cannot meet the high expectations of themselves and others, they may blame themselves and that feeling avoids self-forgiveness.

5.3.3. Correlation between Academic Procrastination and Academic Perfectionism

The results of the present study revealed that there is a relationship between academic procrastination and academic perfectionism which suggests that higher levels of academic perfectionism are related with higher levels of academic procrastination.

This finding is consistent with most of the research in the field that evaluated perfectionism in a unidimensional (Ferrari, 1992) and multidimensional (Ferrari & Diaz-Morales, 2007; Pychyl, Coplan, & Reid, 2002) construct and its relationship with procrastination.

For instance, Flett et al. (1992) conducted a correlational analysis and found positively significant associations between perfectionism dimensions and procrastination. Their results indicated that socially prescribed perfectionism was correlated with academic procrastination among males whereas self-oriented and socially prescribed perfectionism were correlated with fear of failure among females. Similar to Flett et al (1992), Burns, Dittmann, Nguyen and Mitchelson (2000) found that negative perfectionism which has the same concept with socially prescribed perfectionism was positively associated with procrastination.

Onwuegbuzie (2000) also found positive relationship between socially prescribed perfectionism and procrastination in academic settings. On the other hand, his study revealed that self-oriented and other-oriented perfectionism were not correlated significantly with procrastination.

To examine the associations between procrastination and multidimensional perfectionism in detail, a meta-analysis was conducted. Findings revealed a significant positive relationship between procrastination and perfectionistic concerns and a significant negative relationship between procrastination and perfectionistic strivings. Regarding gender, it was found only one significantly different result as the relationship between procrastination and perfectionistic concerns was higher for males than it was for females (Sirois et al., 2017).

In another study perfectionism was measured in two dimensions, Personal Standards and Organization (PSO) and Parentally Introjected Anxieties (PIA). Firstly, PIA was found to have a significant negative association with procrastination. The PIA variable included the concern over mistakes, parental

expectations, parental criticisms and doubts about actions subtitles of perfectionism (Rapson, 2015). On the contrary, Jadidi et al., (2011) found that parental criticisms, doubts about actions and concern over mistakes were correlated with procrastination positively. Consistent with these results Stöber (1998) pointed out that maladaptive aspects of perfectionism which are doubts about actions and concern over mistakes were positively associated with procrastination.

In the same study which was conducted by Rapson (2015), the other dimension of perfectionism, Personal Standards and Organization (PSO) showed a significant and positive correlation with procrastination. These findings are also inconsistent with the research of Jadidi et al., (2011). Their findings indicated that the organization dimension of perfectionism is associated with lower states of procrastination. Stöber's (1998) study supported this conclusion. His findings revealed that procrastination was negatively correlated with organization. He also indicated that there were not significant relationships between procrastination and high parental expectations and high parental criticism.

Slaney et al. (2001) aimed to elaborate the associations among dimensions of perfectionism, academic self-efficacy and procrastination on academic tasks. Study results differed among groups of adaptive perfectionists, maladaptive perfectionists and non-perfectionists. Namely, while maladaptive perfectionists reported high procrastination levels than adaptive perfectionists but less than non-perfectionists, adaptive perfectionists reported less procrastination level than non-perfectionists. Thus, the results of the study indicated that having high personal standards is not always related with problematic perfectionism.

These findings along with the result of the current study showed that individuals with high personal standards may struggle with procrastination due to these high standards. Those high standards may be unrealistic and may cause anxiety.

Supporting this hypothesis, previous study of Burka and Yuen (2009) suggested that people with perfectionistic standards are prone to procrastinate because of these high expectations and inability to meet the impossible high standards of perfection.

According to Schouwenburg (2009), perfectionistic procrastinators experience excessive concern over mistakes, socially prescribed perfectionism and plenty of negative automatic thoughts about themselves. They also suffer from high levels of fear of failure associated with feelings of personal inferiority, inefficacy and low self-acceptance. Thus, this may be the most possible explanation of the relationship between academic procrastination and academic perfectionism revealed in the present study.

5.4. Implications for Practices

The findings of the present study offer several practical implications. Firstly, the current study both maintained previous research and suggested a supporting study for investigation concerning about self-forgiveness in a Turkish context. Literature that is available on the self-forgiveness process does not focus on the variable of self-forgiveness with its relationship among academic procrastination and academic perfectionism.

Secondly, perfectionism has previously been studied in association with procrastination or self-forgiveness. But these variables have not been combined in a single study. Thus, this study helps to gather three important variables of literature for inclusion in future studies with individuals both in therapeutic and theoretical areas. As stated earlier, according to Rational Emotive Behavior Theory (REBT), individuals' behaviors develop in transitions of their cognitions, emotions and behaviors (Ellis, 1979) and every single change on each domain

would have influence on others (Ellis, 1996). Thus, an improvement in the emotional part which is self-forgiveness, would affect the cognitive part, academic perfectionism, and the behavioral part, academic procrastination of an individual. In other words, these findings may serve to make use of self-forgiveness process in a different point of view and linking these three concepts could help mental health professionals in creating more integrated treatment plans centering self-forgiveness for clients displaying perfectionistic beliefs and procrastinatory behaviors.

Thirdly, as mentioned before, for the relationship between academic procrastination and self-forgiveness, there is only one research in United States and one in Turkey. Besides, there exist few research which explored self-forgiveness in the field and most of them was conducted in Europe and United States. Thus, there was a big gap in Turkish literature explaining the construct of self-forgiveness in relation with academic procrastination as well as academic perfectionism.

Another result revealed from the study was the inverse relationship between academic procrastination and self-forgiveness. Due to the short history of this relationship in academic area, the current study demonstrates that it may be valuable when enlightening this relationship deeply. Understanding the underlying mechanism between procrastination and self-forgiveness may be a beneficial tool for intervention by enhancing mood repair and shifting motivation from avoidance to approach for future assignments. From a wider view, forgiving oneself for wrongdoings may be valuable for increasing the capacity to admit responsibility. After learning from mistakes, this situation may serve as a regulatory strategy which supports adaptive behavioral change, helps emotion regulation and prevents procrastination for future tasks.

Finally, according to the association between procrastination and perfectionism, it may be hypothesized that perfectionists who hold high personal standards may also be affected by procrastination. Similar to the findings of this study, in a study which examined the perfectionism profiles as well as achievement goals of educational outcomes in students as predictors, revealed that students in the adaptive perfectionist group who are active procrastinators, are likely to report high levels on positive affect, as well as lower levels of exhaustion when compared to the students in the maladaptive perfectionist group who are passive procrastinators (You Joung Lee, 2017). Therefore, understanding the multidimensional construct of perfectionism and relationships with variables like procrastination provide helpful information for developing therapeutic approaches tailored for both groups of individuals who are adaptive and maladaptive perfectionists.

In conclusion, the results of the current study may encourage counselors to benefit from self-forgiveness as a tool in counseling to reduce procrastination and perfectionism. Self-forgiveness enrichment programs which would be based on Enright's intervention model on forgiveness (1996) may make a difference in individuals' lives as well as academic procrastination and academic perfectionism levels.

5.5. Recommendations for Further Research

Overall, the current study disclosed useful findings which are relevant to the literature. However, it has some limitations that require consideration. These limitations can provide useful directions for future research.

The present study employed a cross-sectional design, administering three measures at one point in time. Nevertheless, for procrastination and perfectionism

this may not be a concerning issue, because procrastination was found to be a stable behavior over time (Wohl et al., 2010) and perfectionism is deemed as a trait (Anshel & Mansouri, 2005). Self-forgiveness, however, was found as an unstable variable and was influenced by positive or negative affect (Wohl et al., 2010). Thus, self-forgiveness levels of participants may change across time or vary across situations during a semester.

For instance, this study's questionnaires were given to participants at the beginning of second semester. Thus, it may influence the response of students. Due to the chosen time, there have not been any exam and students were coming from semester holiday and these conditions may affect their level of emotional stress. For further study it can be chosen to measure prior to mid-terms and again at the end of the semester. After, interaction effects can be observed which can then give a chance to assess whether procrastination and self-forgiveness perceptions of students are due to exams and related school tasks or not.

Another limitation of this study is about its correlational design. Because of this research design, a causal relationship between the variables cannot be determined. In further studies, a longitudinal design employing an intervention for academic procrastination and academic perfectionism based upon self-forgiveness which examines the discrepancy scores before and after intervention may both specify the directionality of the relations among the variables and provide further evidence for the area.

This study was based upon self-report measures which carries the limitations of the use of self-report measures as in many correlation studies. Despite the wide applicability of non-experimental studies based on self report measures, controlling the confounding variables can be difficult. When compared an observable measure of procrastination to a self-report one, Steel, Brothen, and Wambach (2001) found discrepancy between the two scores. This result indicated

that, when measuring variables, self-report measurement may not be a reliable measurement entirely. This discrepancy may skew the scores if the participants replied the questions in a socially desirable manner. For instance, social desirability may have resulted in some participants reporting higher grades than they actually have. In future, grades may be gathered by contacting the student affairs department of the university directly with the permission of the participants.

One of other potential issue that should be mentioned is order effect. The scales were given to each respondent in an identical order. This might have caused order effect. Because the topic of the previous scale might have influenced the responses of later scales. To prevent this issue, scales may be given to the respondents in a random order.

In addition, there are some recommendations regarding the participants. Firstly, the current study was carried through with a sample of Turkish undergraduate students who were living in Ankara. This issue limits the generalizability of the results only to similar populations. Besides, cultural issues may also be responsible for these findings. Further studies with larger and more demographically diverse populations which will be conducted in other cities may be more representative and may strengthen the findings of the study. Therefore, it can be proposed to conduct future research with participants from different universities and in different regions.

Moreover, both perfectionism and procrastination are common in all school grades. In order to understand the relation of self-forgiveness with these terms deeply, this study may be conducted with prep-school graders, high school graders and graduate students as well. By the help of future results, interventions and prevention programs may be initiated in prep-school and high school counseling services. These programs may prevent future procrastinations and high expectancies of adolescents in their university lives.

Although the findings of the current study suggested results that are in line with and confirm previous results of existing literature, some findings were unexpected. Specifically, in spite of the efforts to gather an unrestricted normative population, the current sample's mean of the cumulative grade point average (CGPA) reflected an overachievement level. Thus, this demographic variable has not been included to regression analysis. In future research, participants may be divided into two groups as low and high achievers at first and then relationship between academic procrastination, academic perfectionism and self-forgiveness may be compared. In this way, results may bring different interpretations to the field. Besides, this study may be replicated with only moderate and low achievement scored university students to verify the results.

Additionally, in the current research only the prevalence of procrastination was measured. Thus, the reasons of procrastination cannot be determined. The importance of the relationship between reasons of procrastination and self-forgiveness cannot be ignored. Another suggestion for future studies may include conducting a study which investigates the reasons of procrastination as well as the prevalence. It would be more elaborating to understand the underlying mechanisms of the reasons for procrastinating and the relationship with perfectionism and self-forgiveness.

Another important issue to note in this study is that the Academic Perfectionism Scale (APS), the Procrastination Assessment Scale-Students (Turkish-PASS) and the Heartland Forgiveness Scale (HFS) were used to measure participants' tendencies. However, there are other measurement scales for academic perfectionism and academic procrastination. In future research, other instruments may be used to verify if the results are similar or not.

As it is mentioned before, self-forgiveness is quite a new concept in Turkey. Therefore, for the future research, it is important to determine other related variables to provide more information in explaining self-forgiveness from all dimensions.

Lastly, it has been always difficult for counselors and other clinicians to materialize therapeutic change with perfectionistic students. Studies revealed that perfectionism is a personality trait which focuses on personal competency (Rice et al, 2006). It can arise with negative or positive sides toward self and counteracts to some degrees of comfort and harmony in relationships. From this point of view, research exploring therapeutic change in academic perfectionists within group therapy settings which intends to improve self-forgiveness levels of students for their past mistakes would make a difference in their life and procrastination habits.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Approval Letter from Middle East Technical University Human **Subjects Ethics Committee**

ORTA DOĞU TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ MIDDLE EAST TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY UYGULAMALI ETİK ARAŞTIRMA MERKEZİ APPLIED ETHICS RESEARCH CENTER

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19 ARALIK 2018

Değerlendirme Sonucu

Gönderen: ODTÜ İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu (İAEK)

İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu Başvurusu ilgi:

Sayın Prof.Dr. Ayhan Gürbüz DEMİR

Danışmanlığını yaptığınız Burçin BELGİN'in "The Relationship between Academic Procrastination and Self-forgiveness: The Moderating Role of Acedemic Perfectionism" başlıklı araştırması İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu tarafından uygun görülerek gerekli onay 2018-EGT-189 protokol numarası ile araştırma yapması onaylanmıştır.

Saygılarımla bilgilerinize sunarım.

Prof. Dr. Tülin GENÇÖZ Başkan

Prof. Dr. Ayhan Gürbüz DEMİR

Doç. Dr. Emre SELÇUK

Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Ali Emre TURGUT

Appendix B: Informed Consent Form

ARAŞTIRMAYA GÖNÜLLÜ KATILIM FORMU

Bu araştırma, ODTÜ Psikolojik Danışmanlık ve Rehberlik Bölümü Yüksek Lisans

öğrencisi Burçin Belgin tarafından Prof. Dr. Ayhan Demir danışmanlığındaki

yüksek lisans tezi kapsamında yürütülmektedir. Bu form sizi araştırma koşulları

hakkında bilgilendirmek için hazırlanmıştır.

Çalışmanın Amacı Nedir?

Bu çalışmanın amacı, üniversite öğrencilerindeki akademik mükemmeliyetçilik,

akademik erteleme ve kendini affetme arasındaki ilişki ile ilgili bilgi toplamaktır.

Bize Nasıl Yardımcı Olmanızı İsteyeceğiz?

Araştırmaya katılmayı kabul ederseniz, sizden toplam 31 maddeden oluşan 3 ayrı

derecelendirme ölçeğini yanıtlamanızı isteyeceğiz. Doldurulması yaklaşık olarak

15 dakika sürmesi beklenen bu ölçeklerde sizlere akademik mükemmeliyetçilik,

akademik erteleme ve kendini affetme konularını kapsayan sorular yöneltilecektir.

Sorularda size en uygun gelen seçenekleri işaretlemeniz beklenmektedir.

Sizden Topladığımız Bilgileri Nasıl Kullanacağız?

Araştırmaya katılımınız tamamen gönüllülük temelinde olmalıdır. Çalışmada

sizden kimlik veya okuduğunuz bölüm gibi belirleyici hiçbir bilgi

istenmemektedir. Cevaplarınız tamamıyla gizli tutulacak ve sadece araştırmacılar

tarafından değerlendirilecektir. Katılımcılardan elde edilecek bilgiler toplu halde

değerlendirilecek ve bilimsel yayımlarda kullanılacaktır. Sağladığınız veriler

gönüllü katılım formlarında toplanan kimlik bilgileri ile eşleştirilmeyecektir.

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Katılımınızla ilgili bilmeniz gerekenler:

Bu çalışmada kullanılan ölçekler, genel olarak kişisel rahatsızlık verecek sorular içermemektedir. Ancak, katılım sırasında sorulardan ya da herhangi başka bir nedenden ötürü kendinizi rahatsız hissederseniz cevaplama işini yarıda bırakabilirsiniz. Böyle bir durumda ölçekleri uygulayan kişiye çalışmadan çıkmak istediğinizi belirtmeniz yeterli olacaktır.

Araştırmayla ilgili daha fazla bilgi almak isterseniz:

Ölçeklerin sonunda, bu çalışmayla ilgili sorularınız cevaplanacaktır. Bu çalışmaya katıldığınız için şimdiden teşekkür ederiz. Çalışma hakkında daha fazla bilgi almak için PDR Bölümü yüksek lisans öğrencisi Burçin Belgin (E-posta: burcinbelgin@yahoo.com) ile iletişim kurabilirsiniz.

Yukarıdaki bilgileri okudum ve bu çalışmaya tamamen gönüllü olarak katılıyorum.

(Formu doldurup imzaladıktan sonra uygulayıcıya geri veriniz).

İsim Soyisim Tarih İmza

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Appendix C: Academic Perfectionism Scale with Demographic Information Questionnaire (Sample Items)

Lütfen aşağıdaki a	alanları doldurunuz
Yaş:	
Cinsiyet: E()	K ()
Bölüm:	
Akademik ortalan	na:

Akademik Mükemmeliyetçilik Ölçeği

Aşağıdaki ifadelere ne düzeyde katıldığınızı en uygun seçeneği işaretleyerek cevaplayınız. (1) KESİNLİKLE KATILMIYORUM (2) KATILMIYORUM (3) KARARSIZIM (4) KATILIYORUM (5) KESİNLİKLE KATILIYORUM					
Sınıfın en başarılı öğrencisi olmak isterim.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
2. Eğer biri okulda benden daha başarılı olursa, kendimi bütün işlerde başarısız hissederim.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
5. Derslerde ya da sınavlarda daha az hata yaparsam, daha çok insan beni sevecektir.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
7. Öğrenmedeki yeterliliğimi aldığım notlara göre değerlendiririm.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
9. Sınavlara çok çalışsam bile yeterli olduğundan emin olmam.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
10. Sınavlardan benden iyi notlar alan birileri olunca kendimi kötü hissederim.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
12. Sınavlardan istediğim notu alamayınca kendimi yetersiz hissederim.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
13. Hazırladığım bir çalışmaya ya da ödeve herkesin hayran kalmasını isterim.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

Appendix D: Procrastination Assessment Scale-Students - Part I

(Sample Items)

ERTELEME DAVRANIŞI DEĞERLENDİRME ÖLÇEĞİ

Aşağıda, öğrenim hayatınızda sıklıkla yaptığınız etkinliklerde, erteleme davranışını ne ölçüde kullandığınızı ölçmeyi amaçlayan birtakım ifadeler yer almaktadır. Her bir ifadeyi okuduktan sonra öncelikle, erteleme davranışını ne ölçüde kullandığınızı, daha sonra bu davranışınızın size ne ölçüde problem yarattığını ve son olarak ertelediğiniz bu davranışları ne ölçüde azaltmak istediğinizi ilgili seçeneği işaretleyerek belirtiniz.

Aşağıdaki konularda ne dereceye kadar erteleme davranışı gösterirsiniz? KONULAR	Hiçbir zaman ertelemem	Ertelemem	Bazen ertelerim, bazen ertelemem	Ertelerim	Her zaman ertelerim
1. Dönem Ödevi Hazırlama					
3. Haftalık Okuma Ödevlerini Tamamlama					
6. Genel Olarak Okul Etkinlikleri (Kültürel, bilimsel, sosyal etkinlikler vb.)					

Aşağıdaki konularda erteleme yoluna gitmeniz size ne ölçüde problem yaratır? KONULAR	Hiç problem yaratmaz	Problem yaratmaz	Bazen yaratır, bazen yaratmaz	Problem yaratır	Her zaman problem yaratır
7. Dönem Ödevi Hazırlama					
8. Sınavlara Hazırlanma					
9. Haftalık Okuma Ödevlerini Tamamlama					

Aşağıdaki konularda erteleme eğiliminizi ne ölçüde azaltmak istersiniz? KONULAR	Kesinlikle azaltmak istemem	Azaltmak istemem	Kararsızım	Azaltmak isterim	Kesinlikle azaltmak isterim
13. Dönem Ödevi Hazırlama					
14. Sınavlara Hazırlanma					
18. Genel Olarak Okul Etkinlikleri (Kültürel, bilimsel, sosyal etkinlikler vb.)				 	

Appendix E: Heartland Forgiveness Scale (Sample Items)

Heartland Affetme Ölçeği

Hayatımız boyunca, kendi davranışlarımız, başkalarının davranışları veya kontrolümüz dışındaki durumlar nedeniyle olumsuz olaylar yaşayabiliriz. Bu olumsuz yaşantıların ardından belli bir zaman geçtikten sonra, kendimiz, diğer insanlar veya yaşanan durumlar hakkında olumsuz duygu veya düşüncelerimiz olabilir. Bu tür olumsuz olaylara genel olarak nasıl tepki verdiğinizi düşününüz ve aşağıda verilen her ifadenin yanına, tarif edilen olumsuz duruma genellikle nasıl tepki verdiğinizi ifade eden sayıyı (aşağıdaki 7'li değerlendirme ölçeğine göre) yazınız. Vereceğiniz yanıtlarda doğru veya yanlış cevap yoktur. Lütfen yanıtlarınızda olabildiğince dürüst ve samimi olunuz.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Beni hiç yansıtmıyor		Beni pek yansıtmıyor		Beni biraz yansıtıyor		Beni tamamen yansıtıyor
İşleri berl	bat ettiğimde ö	nce kötü hissetmei	me rağme	n zamanla kend	imi rahatl	atabilirim.
Yaptığım	olumsuz şeyle	er için kendime kin	tutarım.			
Yaptığım	kötü şeylerde	n öğrendiklerim on	ılarla baş	etmemde bana y	ardımcı o	olur.
İşleri berl	bat ettiğimde, l	kendimi kabul etm	ek benim	için gerçekten ç	ok zordu	r.
Yaptığım	hatalara, zama	anla daha anlayışlı	olurum.			
Hissettiği durduran		m, söylediğim ya c	la yaptığı	m olumsuz şeyle	er için ker	ndimi eleştirmeyi
Yaptığını	n yanlış olduğ	unu düşündüğüm k	kişiyi ceza	ılandırmayı sürd	ürürüm.	
Beni inci	tenlere karşı za	ımanla daha anlayı	şlı olurun	1.		
Beni inci	tenlere karşı ka	ntı olmaya devam e	ederim.			
Başkaları görebiliri		e zarar vermiş de o	lsa, enind	e sonunda onlar	ı iyi insar	ılar olarak

Appendix F: Turkish Summary / Türkçe Özet

1. GİRİŞ

İnsanların psikolojik ve zihinsel sağlıklarına olan yararı (Brown, 2003) ve birçok psikolojik zorlukla baş etmedeki etkisi nedeniyle (Thompson ve diğerleri, 2005; Maltby, Macaskill, & Day, 2001), kendini affetme kavramına ilişkin araştırmalar günden güne artmaktadır.

Kendini affetmeyi derinlemesine kavrayabilmek için, önce affetme kavramını araştırmak önemlidir. Maltby ve arkadaşları (2001), affetmeyi kişilerarası ilişkilerdeki olumsuz yaşam koşullarının acı verici yanlarının üstesinden gelmek için gerekli bir çözüm yolu olarak tanımlarlar. Benson (1992) için affetmek, bireyin suçluya karşı olan hislerini salıverme ve acı veren olayı tekrar tekrar zihninde canlandırmayı bırakma gücüdür. Sells ve Hargrave (1998), affetmenin gerçekleşebilmesi ve olumlu ya da nötr duyguların gelişebilmesi için olumsuz duyguların boşaltılması gerektiğini varsaymışlardır. Enright, Freedman ve Rique'e göre (1998) affetme, bilinçli ve istemli bir şekilde, olumsuz duyguların olumluya çevrilmesine yönelik bir girişimdir.

Alandaki araştırmaların çoğu, başkalarının affedilmesine odaklanmıştır ve ilgili alanyazında kendini affetme konusunda az sayıda çalışma bulunmaktadır. Bu çalışmalar incelendiğinde genel anlamıyla affetme ile kendini affetmenin ortak amaçlarının suçlamanın bırakılması ve suçluya yönelik olumsuz tutumun olumluya çevrilmesi olduğu görülmektedir. Suçlu bir başkası da kişinin kendisi de olsa, kişiye zarar veren olumsuz tutumdan uzaklaşmak affetmenin gerçekleşmesi için önkoşul olarak görülebilir. Bu bilgiden hareketle, Horsbrugh (1974), kendini affetmeyi acı verici bir deneyimden sonra kişinin kendinden nefret etme ve kendini aşağılama ya da yargılama düşüncesinde gerçekleşen bir değişiklik olarak tanımlamıştır. Webb ve arkadaşları (2017) ise kendini affetmenin bilinçli bir süreç

olduğunu ve bu sürecin kişinin kendine yönelik olumsuz duygularını pozitif ve yapıcı yönde değiştirmeye istekli olmasıyla, benliğini kabul ederek uzlaşımcı bir tutum sergilemesiyle ortaya çıkacağını savunmuşlardır.

Bauer ve arkadaşları (1992), bireylerin, hatanın insan doğasında var olan bir şey olduğunu anladıkları zaman kendini affetmenin gerçekleştiğini varsaymışlardır. Webb, Bumgarner, Conway-Williams, Dangel ve Hall (2017), bireyin kendini affedebilmesi için beş önemli bileşenin olduğunu savunmuşlardır. Bunlar bireyin kendisiyle uzlaşması, tüm kusurlarını kabul etmesi, hatalarının sorumluluğunu alması, insanlarla bağlantı içerisinde olması ve geleceğe yönelik değişim için samimi bir çaba sarf etmesi şeklinde sıralanabilir. Hall ve Fincham (2005) ise kendini affetmenin kendini takdir etmekten, kişisel sorumluluğu almayı kabul etmekten ve hatalar için açıklamalar yapmaya hazır olmaktan geçtiğini belirtmişlerdir.

Bireyin kendini affedebilmesi için sosyal, bilişsel, davranışsal ve duygusal alanlarda değişime ihtiyacı vardır (Bauer ve ark., 1992; Ingersoll-Dayton ve Krause, 2005). Bir diğer deyişle kendini affetmeyi arttırmak için kişinin kendine yönelik suçlamalarını azaltması ve hatalarından ders alması gereklidir.

Yapılan araştırmalara göre aktif başa çıkma becerilerinin, sosyal destek varlığının ve yüksek öz-empatiye sahip olmanın, kendini affetme sürecini kolaylaştırdığı bulunmuştur. Suçluluk duygusunun, değersizlik hissinin ve ruminasyonun ise kendini affetmenin gerçekleşmesini zorlaştırdığı ortaya konulmuştur (Yamhure-Thompson, Robinson, Michael ve Snyder, 1998).

Akademik erteleme, özellikle lisans öğrencileri arasındaki yaygın sorunlardan birisidir (Burka ve Yuen, 2009; Ellis ve Knaus, 1979; Solomon ve Rothblum, 1984; Harriot ve Ferrari, 1996). Wadkins (1999) ertelemenin akademik başarıya engel teşkil ettiğini, çünkü işin niteliğini ve niceliğini azalttığını belirtmiş; üstesinden gelinmesi gereken uyumsuz bir davranış olduğunu eklemiştir. Ferrari

(1991a), ertelemenin bir kişilik özelliği olduğunu savunurken Ellis ve Knaus (1979) bunun bir alışkanlık veya akılcı olmayan bir düşünce olduğunu dile getirmişlerdir.

Akademik ertelemenin birçok tanımı bulunmakla birlikte ortak vurgu gecikme bileşenine yapılmaktadır. Örneğin, Ferrari, Johnson ve McCown (1995) akademik ertelemeyi bir görevi ya da bir kararı geciktirme eğilimi olarak tanımlamışlardır. Clayton'a (2000) göre, ertelemenin amacı, bireyin hayatını daha keyifli hale getirme isteğidir. Fakat bunun aksine erteleme, genellikle daha fazla stres ve başarısızlıkla sonuçlanır. Knaus (2002), bu durumu "yarına bırakma sendromu" olarak açıklar. Bu nedenle erteleme, özellikle akademik alanda düşük performans (Steel, 2007; Steel, 2002) ve düşük özgüven (Ferrari, 1991b; Wadkins, 1999) ile ilişkili bulunmuştur. Ayrıca kaygı (Stöber ve Joormann, 2001), akılcı olmayan inançları kullanma eğilimi (Beswick, Rothblum ve Mann, 1988), zihinsel sağlığın (Ferrari ve Scher, 2000) ve fiziksel sağlığın (Tice & Baumeister, 1997) zarar görmesi gibi olumsuz bilişsel ve duygusal sonuçları olduğu araştırmalarla ispatlanmıştır.

Öğrencilerin akademik erteleme davranışlarının nedenlerini saptamak amacıyla yürütülen çalışmalarda, çalışma becerilerinin yetersizliği, çalışma alışkanlıkları ve motivasyon (Brown, 1983) gibi davranışsal nedenlerin yanı sıra değerlendirilme kaygısı, karar vermede güçlük, kontrole karşı itaatsizlik, başarının sonuçlarına duyulan korku, ertelenen işe karşı isteksizlik ve rekabete yönelik mükemmeliyetçi standartlar (Burka ve Yuen, 2009) gibi düşünsel nedenlerin etkili olduğu bulunmuştur. Ek olarak başarısızlık korkusu, umursamazlık, tembellik, pasif agresif tutum, dürtü kontrol sorunları, kendinden şüphe etme, yapılan işin sonucunda oluşabilecek hayal kırıklığına karşı toleransın düşük olması ve başkaldırı gibi içsel uyaranların aşırı erteleme davranışının yordayıcıları olduğu ifade edilmiştir (Kanus, 2001).

Mevcut alanyazında kendini affetme ve akademik erteleme arasındaki ilişkiyi inceleyen az sayıda çalışmaya rastlanmıştır. Çalışmalardan bir tanesi kendini affetmenin ertelemeden kaynaklı olumsuz duygularla başa çıkmada yararlı bir strateji olarak kullanılabileceğini ve bu sayede gelecekteki görevler için öğrencilerin performansının arttırılabileceğini gösterirken (Wohl, Pychyl ve Bennett, 2010), bir diğeri kendini affetmenin erteleme ve olumlu duygulanım arasındaki ilişkiye kısman de olsa aracılık ettiğini (Uzun, Ferrari ve Le Blanc, 2018) saptamıştır. Özetle akademik erteleme, kişinin öz düzenleme becerilerindeki bir eksiklik olarak adlandırılabilir ve özellikle akademik alanda öğrencilere zarar veren bir olgu olarak kabul edilmektedir. Bu nedenle, danışmanlar için erteleme tedavi programlarına daha fazla odaklanılması ve kendini affetme ile akademik erteleme arasındaki ilişkinin araştırılması psikolojik sağlığın iyileştirilmesi açısından önemli bir etkendir.

Akademik mükemmeliyetçilik, katı ve gerçekçi olmayan bir başarı beklentisiyle ulaşılması zor akademik hedefler koymak olarak açıklanabilir (Odacı, Kalkan ve Çıkrıkçı, 2017). Mükemmeliyetçiliğin, alanyazındaki tüm tanımlarının ortak noktası, bireylerin hata yapma konusundaki gerçekçi olmayan endişeleridir (Frost ve ark., 1990).

Hamachek (1978) mükemmeliyetçiliğin "normal" ve "nevrotik" şeklinde ikiye ayrılarak incelenebileceğini savunmuştur. Normal (uyumlu) mükemmeliyetçileri, kendileri için yüksek standartlar belirleyen ve bu standartlar karşılandığında başarılı hisseden insanlar olarak tanımlarken, nevrotik (uyumlu olmayan) mükemmeliyetçileri koydukları yüksek standartları karşılayacak kadar başarılı olduklarında bile kendilerini yeterli ve başarmış hissetmeyen insanlar olarak açıklamıştır. Nevrotik mükemmeliyetçilerin, mükemmelden düşük performans gösterdikleri işleri birer başarısızlık olarak değerlendirmelerine neden olan ya hep ya hiç tarzı akılcı olmayan düşüncelerinin olduğunu belirtmiştir. Ek olarak Ferrari (1995), mükemmeliyetçi insanların mükemmelliğe ulaşamama gibi kaygı dolu

temalar hakkında daha fazla otomatik düşünceye sahip olduğunu belirtmiştir. Araştırmacılar ayrıca, çalışmalarını görevin gerektirdiğinden daha fazla bir çabayla sürdürdükleri için mükemmeliyetçi insanların genellikle tükenme ile karşı karşıya kaldıklarını bulmuşlardır (Burns, 1980; Missildine, 1963; Pacht, 1984).

Mükemmeliyetçiliğin nedenlerini açıklamak amacıyla yapılan çalışmaların bir kısmı bireyin hatalarına yönelik ruminasyonları ve yetersizlikleri gibi bilişsel yönlerine odaklanırken (Frost ve Henderson, 1991), bir kısmı ise bireyin kendisi ile ilgili şemalarına vurgu yapmıştır (Hewitt ve Genest, 1990). Hewitt ve Flett (1991b) mükemmeliyetçilikte sıklıkla görülen kendini suçlama faktörü üzerinde durmuşlardır.

Bugay (2010), başkalarınca belirlenen mükemmeliyetçiliğin, ruminasyonun, utancın ve telafi edici davranışların bireyin kendini affetmesinde önemli belirleyiciler olduğunu göstermiştir. McCann (2009) mükemmeliyetçilik ile kendini affetme arasında negatif bir ilişki saptamıştır. Diğer bir deyişle, yüksek standartlar koymanın, kendini affetme sürecinde bir engel olduğunu ortaya koymuştur.

Özet olarak, alanyazında kendini affetmeyle ilgili henüz yeterince araştırma bulunmamasından dolayı kendini affetme sürecini etkileyen değişkenler hakkındaki bilgi de azdır. Ancak olumlu benlik imajının sürdürülmesi (Mills, 1995); telafi edici davranışların arttırılması (Hall ve Fincham, 2005); değersizlik hissi, kendini suçlama, ruminasyon (Yamhure-Thompson ve ark., 1998) ve utanç (Fisher ve Exline, 2006) gibi duygu ve düşüncelerin azaltılmasında oynadığı etken rol nedeniyle bu sürecin altında yatan değişkenlerin araştırılması ve çoğunlukla bireylerin hayatını olumsuz yönde etkileyen mükemmeliyetçilik ve erteleme ile olan ilişkisinin incelenmesi alana teorik ve pratik anlamda katkı sağlayacaktır.

1.1. Çalışmanın Amacı

Bu çalışmanın amacı, akademik erteleme ve akademik mükemmeliyetçiliğin lisans öğrencilerinin kendini affetme düzeyindeki yordayıcı rolünü araştırmaktır. Buradan hareketle, bu araştırmada aşağıdaki soruya cevap aramaktadır:

Akademik erteleme ve akademik mükemmeliyetçilik, üniversite öğrencilerinin kendini affetme seviyelerini ne ölçüde yordar?

1.2. Çalışmanın Önemi

Alanyazında, akademik erteleme ve kendini affetme arasındaki ilişkiyi inceleyen az sayıda çalışmaya ulaşılmıştır. Bu çalışmalarda akademik erteleme ile kendini affetme arasındaki ilişki olumlu veya olumsuz duygulanımın aracı rolü kapsamında araştırılmış, akademik mükemmeliyetçilik değişkeni incelenmemiştir. Bu çalışma, akademik mükemmeliyetçilik, akademik erteleme ve kendini affetme arasındaki ilişkiyi inceleyen Türkiye'deki ilk çalışmadır. Bu nedenle bu çalışma ilgili alanyazına bu anlamda katkı sağlayacaktır.

Geçmişten günümüze, araştırmacılar kendini affetmeden daha çok başkalarını affetme olgusuna odaklanmışlardır. Ancak affetme kavramının genel anlamda ele alınması, doğası gereği kendini affetmeyi açıklamaya yeterli değildir. Çünkü kendini affetmede hem hatalı hem de mağdur olan kişi bireyin kendisidir ve insanın kendinden kaçınması mümkün değildir. Bu nedenle, kendini affetme kavramı yeni bir araştırma konusudur ve kendini affetme sürecinin potansiyel kolaylaştırıcıları konusunda alanyazında yeterince bilgi bulunmamaktadır. Bu çalışma, bu kavramla ilişkili değişkenler hakkındaki alanyazını genişletmeye katkı sağlayacaktır.

Ek olarak, bu çalışma pratik alana katkı sağlayacak bilgiler de sunmaktadır. Türkiye'de, üniversite öğrencileri arasında, kendini affetme konusunda

yayınlanmış çok az sayıda araştırma bulunmaktadır. Bu nedenle, Türk üniversite öğrencilerinin kendini affetme düzeyleri ile ilgili bir çalışma yürütmek, bu kavramı Türk kültürü bağlamında anlamak ve geliştirmek için yararlı olacaktır.

Ayrıca bu çalışmanın sonuçları, akademik alanda mükemmeliyetçilik ve/veya ertelemeden kaynaklı sorunlar yaşayan öğrencilere müdahalede, kendini affetme odaklı yeni programlar geliştirebilmeleri açısından danışmanlara destek sağlayacaktır.

2. YÖNTEM

Bu çalışmada ilişkisel araştırma yöntemi kullanılmıştır. Bağımlı değişken kendini affetme, yordayıcı değişkenler ise akademik erteleme ve akademik mükemmeliyetçiliktir. Bu değişkenler arasındaki ilişkiler çoklu regresyon modeli ile test edilmiştir.

2.1. Katılımcılar

Bu çalışmanın verileri 2018-2019 eğitim öğretim yılı bahar döneminde Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi'nin (ODTÜ) dört farklı fakültesinde okuyan 568 üniversite öğrencisinden elde edilmiştir. Örneklemi, lisansın dört farklı sınıf düzeyinden 326 (% 57.4) kız ve 242 (% 42.6) erkek öğrenci oluşturmaktadır. Yaşları 18 ile 25 arasında değişen öğrencilerden oluşan grubun yaş ortalaması 21.68 (SD = 1.72) bulunmuştur.

2.2. Veri Toplama Araçları

Bu çalışmada katılımcılara Demografik Bilgi Formu, Akademik Mükemmeliyetçilik Ölçeği, Erteleme Davranışı Değerlendirme Ölçeği ve Heartland Affetme Ölçeği uygulanmıştır.

Demografik Bilgi Formu: Çalışmada, araştırmacı tarafından geliştirilen ve katılımcıların yaş, cinsiyet, bölüm ve Genel Not Ortalaması (CGPA) gibi demografik özellikleri hakkında bilgi toplanan Demografik Bilgi Formu kullanılmıştır.

Akademik Mükemmeliyetçilik Ölçeği: Ölçek, üniversite öğrencilerinin akademik mükemmeliyetçilik düzeylerini incelemek için Odacı, Kalkan ve Çıkrıkçı (2017) tarafından geliştirilmiştir. 13 maddeden oluşan 5'li Likert tipi bir ölçek olup her madde 1 (Kesinlikle katılmıyorum) ile 5 (Kesinlikle katılıyorum) arasında değişen puanlarla derecelendirilmektedir. Ölçekte ters puanlanan herhangi bir madde bulunmamaktadır. Ölçme aracından en düşük 13, en yüksek 65 puan alınabilmektedir. Yüksek puanlar akademik mükemmeliyetçilik seviyesinin yüksek olduğunu göstermektedir.

Akademik Mükemmeliyetçilik Ölçeği 3 faktörden oluşmaktadır. Faktörler sırasıyla "Kendinden Süphe", "Karşılaştırma" ve İdealleştirme" olarak adlandırılmıştır. Ölçeğin geçerliğini test etmek amacıyla açımlayıcı faktör analizi (AFA) uygulanmıştır. AFA sonrasında ise belirlenen yapının geçerliğini saptamak için doğrulayıcı faktör analizi (DFA) kullanılmıştır. Ölçeğin iç tutarlılık katsayısı (Cronbach alfa) .82 olarak hesaplanmıştır. Alt faktörler için iç tutarlılık katsayıları (Cronbach alfa) kendinden şüphe etme için .78, karşılaştırma için .69 ve için .57 bulunmuştur. Tüm bu bulgular, idealleştirme Akademik Mükemmeliyetçilik Ölçeği'nin geçerli ve güvenilir bir ölçüm aracı olduğunu gösterir niteliktedir.

Erteleme Davranışı Değerlendirme Ölçeği: Erteleme Davranışı Değerlendirme Ölçeği üniversite öğrencilerinde erteleme davranışının sıklığını ve olası sebeplerini incelemek için Solomon ve Rothblum (1986) tarafından geliştirilmiş ve Türk halkının erteleme eğilimini değerlendirmek amacıyla Uzun Özer (2005) tarafından Türkçeye uyarlanmıştır.

İki bölümden oluşan 44 maddelik bir öz değerlendirme ölçeğidir. Birinci bölüm, erteleme davranışının yaygınlığını ölçmeyi amaçlayan ve 18 maddeden oluşan 5'li Likert tipi bir alt ölçektir. Bu bölüm, öğrencilerin erteleme davranışının yaygınlığını dönem ödevi hazırlama, sınavlara hazırlanma, haftalık okuma ödevlerini tamamlama, derslere kayıt yapma ve kimlik kartı alma gibi akademik idari işleri yerine getirme, derslere katılma ve akademik danışman ile görüşme gibi katılım görevleri ve genel olarak okul aktivitelerini yerine getirme şeklinde isimlendirilen altı akademik alanda incelemektedir. Sorular erteleme davranışının sıklığını (1 = Hiçbir zaman ertelemem - 5 = Her zaman ertelerim), erteleme davranışının problem olarak hissedilip hissedilmediğini (1 = Hiç problem yaratmaz -5 = Her zaman problem yaratır) ve erteleme davranışının azaltılmak istenip istenmediğini (1 = Kesinlikle azaltmak istemem – 5 = Kesinlikle azaltmak isterim) ölçen üç alt boyuta ayrılmıştır. Öğrencilerin akademik erteleme puanını bulmak için bu bölümün ilk 12 sorusu toplanmakta ve 12 ile 60 puan arasında değişen sonuçlar elde edilmektedir. Yüksek puanlar öğrencilerin yüksek oranda erteleme davranışı sergilediklerini göstermektedir.

Ölçeğin ikinci bölümü, erteleme davranışının sebeplerini bulmayı amaçlayan 26 maddeden oluşmaktadır. Soruları 1 (Hiç yansıtmıyor) ile 5 (Tamamıyla yansıtıyor) arasında derecelendirilen 5'li Likert tipi puanlama ölçeğidir. Ölçeğin Türkçe formuna göre sebepler, değerlendirilme kaygısı, mükemmeliyetçilik, karar verme güçlüğü, bağımlılık ve yardım arama, görevden hoşlanmama, öz güven eksikliği, tembellik, girişkenlik eksikliği, başarma korkusu, etkisiz zaman kullanımı, kontrol edilmeye karşı tepki, risk alma davranışı ve akran etkisi şeklindedir.

Ölçeğin psikometrik özellikleri incelendiğinde ilk bölümün iç tutarlılık katsayısı (Cronbach alfa) .76, ikinci bölümün .81 ve tüm ölçeğin .86 bulunmuştur. Faktör analizi sonuçlarına göre birinci bölümün yapı geçerliliğinin orijinali ile uyumlu olduğu görülmüş; ancak ikinci bölüm için yapılan analizde, ölçeğin orijinalinde var olan faktör yapısı ile uyuşmadığı ortaya çıkmıştır.

Bu çalışmada öğrencilerin erteleme davranışının sadece sıklığının değerlendirilmesi amaçlandığından ölçeğin sadece ilk kısmı değerlendirmeye alınmış, nedenlerin araştırıldığı ikinci kısım dahil edilmemiştir.

Heartland Affetme Ölçeği: Heartland Affetme Ölçeği (HFS, Thompson ve ark., 2005), affetmeyi çok boyutlu bir şekilde değerlendiren ve 18 maddeden oluşan 7'li Likert tipi bir ölçüm aracıdır. Ölçek, kendini affetme, başkalarını affetme ve durumu affetme olarak üç alt ölçekten oluşmaktadır. Sorular 1 (Beni hiç yansıtmıyor) ile 7 (Beni tamamen yansıtıyor) arasında değişen puanlar alabilmektedir. Ölçme aracından en düşük 18, en yüksek 126 puan alınabilmektedir. Her alt boyut için yüksek puanlar, o alandaki affetme düzeyinin yüksek olduğunu gösterir. Ölçekte toplam puan 2., 4., 6., 7., 9., 11., 13., 15. ve 17. soruların ters çevrilmesinin ardından tüm maddelerin toplanmasıyla elde edilir (Thompson ve ark., 2005).

Ölçeğin Türkçe uyarlama çalışması Bugay ve Demir (2010) tarafından yapılmış ve iç tutarlılık katsayısı (Cronbach alfa) toplam puan için .81, kendini affetme alt ölçeği için .64, başkalarını affetme alt ölçeği için .79 ve durumu affetme alt ölçeği için .76 bulunmuştur.

Bu çalışmada, çalışma konusuna uygunluğu nedeniyle sadece kendini affetme alt ölçeği (1-6. maddeler) kullanılmıştır.

2.3. Veri Toplama Süreci

Katılımcılara lisans derslerinin ilk ya da son 15 dakikasında, çalışmanın amacının, gizlilik ve gönüllülük ilkelerinin anlatılmasının ardından, Demografik Bilgi Formu, Akademik Mükemmeliyetçilik Ölçeği, Erteleme Davranışı Değerlendirme Ölçeği ve Heartland Affetme Ölçeği'nden oluşan bir öz değerlendirme anket paketi sunulmuştur. Veriler sınıf ortamında, 2018-2019 eğitim-öğretim yılı bahar döneminde, 2 haftalık bir sürede toplanmıştır.

2.4. Veri Analizi

Verilerin frekanslarını, yüzdelerini, ortalamalarını ve standart sapmalarını incelemek için betimleyici istatistiksel analiz yöntemi kullanılmıştır. Akademik erteleme ve akademik mükemmeliyetçilik değişkenlerinin kendini affetme üzerindeki yordayıcı rollerini belirlemek amacıyla çoklu regresyon analiz yapılmıştır. Regresyon analizi öncesi tüm varsayımlar kontrol edilmiştir.

Ölçeklerden elde edilen puanlar cinsiyet değişkeni açısından t-testi ile karşılaştırılmıştır. Akademik mükemmeliyetçilik ($t_{566} = .07$; p > .05), akademik erteleme ($t_{566} = -.37$; p > .05) ve kendini affetme ($t_{566} = -1.23$; p > .05) değişkenleri açısından cinsiyete dayalı bir farklılık bulunmadığı için cinsiyet değişkeni regresyon analizine dahil edilmemiştir.

Akademik başarıyı değerlendirmek amacıyla bu çalışmada öğrencilerin Genel Not Ortalamaları (CGPA) esas alınmış ve örneklemin akademik başarı ortalaması 3.11 (SS=.61) bulunmuştur. ODTÜ Lisans Eğitim Öğretim Yönetmeliği'ne göre ortalamaları 3.00 ile 3.49 arasında olan öğrenciler Şeref derecesine sahip olmaktadırlar. Bu nedenle örneklemin akademik başarısının ortalamanın üzerinde olduğu saptanmış ve bu değişken regresyon analizine dahil edilmemiştir.

2.5. Çalışmanın kısıtlılıkları

Bu çalışmanın bazı kısıtlılıkları vardır ve bunları göz önünde bulundurarak bulguları değerlendirmek daha yararlı olacaktır. Bu çalışmanın en büyük kısıtlılığı, kolayda örnekleme yöntemi kullanılarak örneklemin oluşturulmuş olmasıdır. Bu yöntem her ne kadar veri toplamanın pratik bir yolu olsa da, evreni tam olarak temsil ettiği söylenemez ve homojen alt gruplar kullanılmadığından seçim yanlılığı olasılığı vardır. Bu nedenle, bulgular sadece ODTÜ üniversite öğrencileri için genellenebilir. Ayrıca çalışmanın verileri, ODTÜ'de öğrenim gören 18-25 yaş arası lisans öğrencileriyle sınırlıdır. Dolayısıyla, sonuçlar sadece bu yaş grubuyla ilgili bilgi vermektedir.

Diğer bir sınırlama, çalışmada kullanılan ölçeklerin öz-bildirim ölçekleri olmasından kaynaklı katılımcıların sosyal kabul ihtiyaçlarından dolayı ölçekleri yanlı cevaplamış olabilmeleri olasılığıdır. Sonuçlar, öğrencilerin gerçek akademik mükemmeliyetçilik, akademik erteleme ve kendini affetme seviyelerini yansıtmayabilir.

Son olarak araştırmanın kesitsel niteliği sebebiyle, sonuçların uzunlamasına çıkarımlarda bulunması kısıtlanmıştır.

3. BULGULAR

Bu çalışmanın analiz sonuçları, yordayıcı değişkenler ile bağımlı değişken arasında anlamlı bir ilişki olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Bir diğer deyişle, Türk üniversite öğrencilerinin kendini affetme düzeyleri ile akademik mükemmeliyetçilik ve akademik erteleme düzeyleri arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir ilişki bulunmuştur. Sonuçlar, yordayıcı değişkenler ile bağımlı değişken arasında beklendiği gibi negatif bir ilişki olduğunu göstermiştir. Yordayıcı değişkenler karşılaştırıldığında, akademik mükemmeliyetçiliğin

 $(\beta = -.71, p < .01)$ modele akademik ertelemeden $(\beta = -.11, p < .01)$ daha fazla katkıda bulunduğu gözlenmiştir. Akademik mükemmeliyetçilik ve akademik erteleme birlikte incelendiğinde, kendini affetme üzerindeki varyansın %55'ini açıklamaktadırlar. Bu sonuçlar ışığında, erteleme ve mükemmeliyetçilik ne kadar yüksek olursa, bireyin kendini affetme olasılığı o kadar düşüktür denilebilir.

Ayrıca, akademik erteleme ve akademik mükemmeliyetçilik arasında pozitif bir ilişki bulunmuştur. Bu durum, daha yüksek düzeylerdeki mükemmeliyetçiliğin erteleme eğilimini daha olası kıldığına işaret etmektedir. Cinsiyete ilişkin olarak her üç değişken için de anlamlı bir fark saptanmamıştır.

Sonuç olarak, mevcut veriler, kendini affetme olgusunu, akademik mükemmeliyetçilik ve akademik erteleme ile ilişkili olarak ele almanın, öz düzenleme başarısızlıklarını derinlemesine etkileyen süreçleri araştırmada yararlı olabileceğini göstermiştir. Bu süreçleri araştırmak, kendini affetmeyle ilgili bilişsel, duygusal ve davranışsal bileşenlerin daha iyi anlaşılmasını sağlayabilir. Ayrıca, bireylerin öz düzenleme başarısızlıklarını daha yapıcı bir şekilde ele almak, erteleme ve mükemmeliyetçiliği azaltma konusunda yeni bakış açıları sunabilir.

4. TARTIŞMA

Bu çalışmada, regresyon analizinden önce değişkenlerin cinsiyet açısından karşılaştırılması amacıyla t-testi yapılmıştır. Sonuçlar, cinsiyetin akademik mükemmeliyetçilik, akademik erteleme ve kendini affetme alanlarında anlamlı bir fark yaratmadığını göstermiştir.

Kendini affetme açısından cinsiyet farkı olmadığını gösteren bu sonuç, literatürdeki çalışmaların çoğuyla tutarlıdır (Abo Hamza ve Helal, 2012; Hodgson ve Wertheim, 2007; Kim ve ark., 2011; Maltby ve ark., 2001; Macaskill ve ark.,

2002; Rangganadhan ve Todorov, 2010). Türk kültürü açısından incelendiğinde de araştırma bulguları kendini affetmede cinsiyet farkı olmadığını ortaya koymuştur (Aşçıoğlu Önal, 2014; Bugay, 2010; Kaya ve Peker, 2016; Gündüz, 2014; Halisdemir, 2013).

Miller ve arkadaşlarına (2008) göre, cinsiyet ve kendini affetme arasında anlamlı bir ilişki olmamasının olası bir nedeni, kendini affetme sürecine odaklanırken bireylerin cinsiyet rollerini dikkate almamaları olabilir. Bireyin kendisine odaklanması ile birlikte, kendini affetme sürecini etkileyebilecek cinsiyet rollerinin önemi azalıyor görünmektedir.

Çalışmada ortaya çıkan akademik erteleme açısından cinsiyet farkının olmadığı sonucu, yapılan kimi çalışmalarla tutarlıyken kimileriyle tutarsız görünmektedir. Birçok araştırma erteleme konusunda anlamlı bir cinsiyet farkının olmadığını ortaya koymuştur (Harrison, 2014; Rapson, 2015; Effert & Ferrari, 1989; Ferrari, 1991b; Haycock ve ark., 1998; Rothblum ve ark., 1986; Solomon ve Rothblum, 1984; Watson, 2001; Schouwenburg's, 1992; Beswick ve ark., 1988; Uzun Özer, 2010). Ancak bunun aksini gösteren çalımalar da mevcuttur. Örneğin, bazı araştırmalar kadınların erkeklerden daha fazla erteleme eğilimine sahip olduğunu öne sürerken (Doyle ve Paludi, 1998), bazıları ise kadınların erkeklerden daha az ertelediğini tespit etmişlerdir (Senecal ve ark., 1995; Uzun Özer, 2005).

Bu durumda cinsiyete göre erteleme seviyelerinde farklı sonuçlar ortaya koyan çalışmaların, örneklem özelliklerinden, kısıtlılıklardan veya ölçüm için kullanılan diğer değişkenlerden kaynaklanmış olabileceği düşünülebilir.

Bu araştırmada akademik mükemmeliyetçilik açısından da cinsiyete göre anlamlı bir fark yoktur ve bu sonuç daha önceki çalışma bulgularıyla kısmen desteklenmektedir. Mevcut sonucu destekleyen ve cinsiyet farkı olmadığını ortaya koyan (Stoeber ve Stoeber, 2009; Sapmaz, 2006; Canoya, 2010; Kahraman ve Bulut Pedük, 2014) araştırmalar olduğu gibi, kadınların erkeklerden daha yüksek

mükemmeliyetçi eğilim gösterdiklerini (Abo Hamza ve Helal, 2012; You Joung Lee, 2017; Slaney ve Ashby, 1996) ya da erkeklerin mükemmeliyetçilik düzeylerinin kadınlardan daha yüksek olduğunu (Tuncer ve Voltan-Acar, 2006) gösteren araştırmalar da vardır.

Mükemmeliyetçiliğin çok boyutlu doğası nedeniyle, farklı çalışmaların, mükemmeliyetçiliğin farklı boyutlarıyla cinsiyet arasındaki ilişkiye odaklanmış olabileceklerini düşünmek mümkündür. Bu çalışmada akademik bağlamdaki mükemmeliyetçilik ölçülmüştür ve fark gözlenmemiştir.

Regresyon analizinde gözlenen ilişkilerden biri akademik erteleme ve kendini affetme arasındaki ilişkidir. Buna göre, akademik ertelemenin kendini affetmeyi negatif yönde yordadığı (β = -.11, p < .01) tespit edilmiştir. Bir başka deyişle, erteleme eğilimi yüksek olan bireylerin kendilerini affetme olasılıkları daha düşüktür. Çalışmanın bulguları önceki araştırmalarla da tutarlıdır (Wohl ve ark., 2010; Rapson, 2015; Uzun ve ark., 2018).

Bir kaçınma girişimi olarak kabul edebileceğimiz erteleme davranışıyla ve ardından gelen suçluluk hissiyle başa çıkabilmek için bireyin uyumsuz davranışından vazgeçmesi ve hatasıyla ilgili olumsuz duyguları salıvermesi gerekmektedir. Bu da kendini affetmeyle mümkündür. Kendini affeden ve hatalarından ders çıkaran birey gelecekteki görevlerde erteleme eğilimini azaltacaktır. Ertelemenin yüksek olduğu durumlarda kendini affetmenin düşük çıkması bireylerin suçluluğa yönelik bahsedilen duygu salıverilmesini gerçekleştirememelerinden kaynaklanıyor olabilir.

Bu çalışmada bulunan bir başka ilişki, akademik mükemmeliyetçilik ile kendini affetme arasındaki ilişkidir. Regresyon analizine göre, akademik mükemmeliyetçilik, kendini affetmenin en güçlü yordayıcısıdır (β = -.71, p < .01). Bir başka deyişle, bireylerin akademik mükemmeliyetçilik düzeyleri arttıkça kendilerini affetme olasılıkları azalmaktadır.

Önceki araştırma sonuçları incelendiğinde, mükemmeliyetçi bireylerin kendilerini affetme düzeylerinin düşük çıkması şaşırtıcı değildir (Dixon ve ark., 2014; Mistler, 2010; Tangney ve ark., 2005; Abo Hamza ve Helal, 2012; Kim ve ark., 2011; Enright, 1996; Luskin, 2002; McCann, 2009; Kaya ve Peker, 2016; Bugay, 2010). Bunun nedeni mükemmeliyetçiliğin kendini affetme sürecini zorlaştırması olabilir. Çünkü yüksek ve ulaşılamaz standartlar koymaya eğilimli olan mükemmeliyetçi bireyler, bu standartlar karşılanmadığı zaman utanç yaşarlar ve kendilik algıları başarısızlık odaklı hale gelir (Hill ve ark. 2004). Bu açıklama Hewitt ve Flett'in (1991) ifadesiyle tutarlıdır. Onlara göre, bir birey, kendisinin ve başkalarının yüksek beklentilerini karşılayamazsa, kendini suçlayabilir ve bu duygu onu kendini affetmekten alıkoyar. Bu nedenle, affetme sürecini başlatmak ve geliştirmek için bireyin önce hatalarını ve hata yapmanın insanın doğasında var olduğunu kabul etmesi gereklidir. Çalışmadaki sonuçlar bu şekilde açıklanabilir.

Son olarak, bu çalışmada akademik erteleme ve akademik mükemmeliyetçilik arasında pozitif bir ilişkinin olduğu bulunmuştur. Buna göre yüksek düzeyde akademik mükemmeliyetçilik, yüksek akademik erteleme ile sonuçlanma eğilimindedir.

Bu bulgular, mükemmeliyetçiliğin erteleme ile ilişkisini değerlendiren alandaki araştırmaların çoğuyla tutarlıdır (Ferrari, 1992; Ferrari ve Diaz-Morales, 2007; Pychyl ve ark., 2002; Flett ve ark., 1992; Burns ve ark., 2000; Onwuegbuzie, 2000; Stöber, 1998; Rapson, 2015).

Burka ve Yuen (2009) kişisel standartları yüksek bireylerin, bu yüksek standartları karşılayamama endişesiyle erteleme eğilimi gösterdiklerini vurgulamışlardır. Schouwenburg'a (2009) göre ise, erteleme davranışı gösteren mükemmeliyetçi bireylerin hata yapmaya dair aşırı endişeleri ve kendileri hakkında birçok olumsuz otomatik düşünceleri bulunmaktadır. Ayrıca kişisel yetersizlik ve düşük öz kabul duygularıyla birlikte yüksek düzeyde başarısızlık korkusu hissederler. Bu

çalışmada ortaya çıkan akademik erteleme ile akademik mükemmeliyetçilik arasındaki pozitif ilişkinin açıklaması bu olabilir.

4.1. Uygulamaya Yönelik Öneriler

Bu çalışmanın bulguları birtakım pratik sonuçlar sunmaktadır. İlk olarak, bu çalışma hem önceki çalışmaları desteklemiş hem de Türkiye bağlamında kendini affetmeyle ilgili yapılacak gelecek araştırmalar açısından destekleyici sonuçlar sağlamıştır.

İkincisi, akademik mükemmeliyetçilik, akademik erteleme ve kendini affetme ilk kez tek bir çalışmada bir arada incelenmiştir. Bu nedenle, bu çalışma hem terapötik hem de kuramsal alanda araştırmacıların gelecekteki çalışmaları için bir kaynak görevi görecektir. Özellikle kendini affetme kavramını farklı bir bakış açısıyla anlamaya hizmet edebilir.

Üçüncü olarak, bu çalışma üniversite öğrencilerinin akademik erteleme ile ilgili kendini affetme tutumlarını akademik açıdan anlamak için anlamlı bilgiler üretme potansiyeline sahiptir. Bu nedenle, bu çalışmanın sonuçları, akademik alanlarda ertelemenin olumsuz etkilerini azaltabilecek yeni programlar geliştirilmesinde üniversite danışmanlarına değerli ipuçları sağlayabilir. Öğrencilerin kendilerini hatalarından dolayı affetme sorumluluğunu alma kapasitelerini arttırmada, duygularını yeniden düzenlenmeye destek olmada ve gelecekteki görevler için ertelemeyi önleyecek stratejiler geliştirmede danışmanlara yol gösterebilir.

Son olarak, bu çalışma gerçekçi olmayan akademik beklentilerin bir sonucu olarak başarısızlık ve suçluluk hisseden ve kendini affetmeyle ilgili problemleri olan öğrencilerin değerlendirilmesinde uygulayıcılara yardımcı olabilir. Akademik mükemmeliyetçilik ve kendini affetme arasında bulunan bu ilişkiye odaklanarak öğrencilerin tüm hatalarıyla kendilerini kabul etmeleri ve karşılanmayan hedefler

için kendilerini affetmelerine yönelik programlar geliştirmede uzmanlara yol gösterebilir.

4.2. Gelecek Calışmalar İçin Öneriler

Genel olarak, bu çalışmada alanyazın için faydalı bulgular açıklanmıştır. Ancak, dikkate alınması gereken bazı sınırlamaları vardır. Bu sınırlamalar gelecekteki araştırmalar için yararlı yönlendirmeler sağlayabilir.

Bu çalışmada, katılımcılara art arda üç ölçeğin uygulandığı kesitsel tasarım kullanılmıştır. Her ne kadar akademik erteleme zaman içinde değişmeyen, istikrarlı bir davranış olarak bulunmuş (Wohl ve ark., 2010) ve mükemmeliyetçilik bir kişilik özelliği olarak kabul edilmiş (Anshel ve Mansouri, 2005) olsa da kendini affetme zaman içinde değişebilen bir yapıya sahip bulunmuştur (Wohl ve ark., 2010). Bu nedenle, kendini affetme konusunda yapılacak gelecek çalışmalarda boylamsal araştırmalar tercih edilebilir.

Ayrıca bu araştırmanın ilişkisel yönteme dayanmasından dolayı değişkenler arasında nedensel bir ilişkiden söz edilemez. Kendini affetme ve yordayıcıları ile yapılacak, neden-sonuç ilişkisine dayalı gelecek araştırmalar alanyazına bu konuda daha fazla katkı sağlayacaktır.

Mevcut araştırmada sadece erteleme görülme sıklığı ölçülmüştür. Dolayısıyla erteleme nedenleri belirlenmemiştir. Oysa erteleme nedenleri ile kendini affetme arasında alanyazına ve danışmanlara katkı sağlayacak ilişkiler bulunması yüksek olasılıklıdır. Gelecekteki çalışmalar, kendini affetmeyi erteleme nedenleriyle birlikte araştırabilir. Erteleme nedenlerinin altında yatan mekanizmaları, mükemmeliyetçilik ve kendini affetme ile ilişkisini anlamak, bu nedenlere yönelik ayrı ayrı stratejiler geliştirebilmek adına değerlidir.

Katılımcılarla ilgili de bazı önerilerde bulunmak mümkündür. Bu çalışmanın örneklemini Ankara'da yaşayan ve Türkiye'nin en yüksek puanlı üniversitelerinden birinde lisans eğitimi gören öğrenciler oluşturmaktadır. Bu nedenle, sonuçlar yalnızca benzer gruplara genellenebilir. Başka şehirlerdeki üniversitelerde daha farklı demografik özelliklere sahip örneklemlerle yapılacak gelecek çalışmaların sonuçları evreni daha iyi temsil edecektir.

Akademik mükemmeliyetçilik ve akademik erteleme her yaştaki tüm okul derecelerinde yaygın olan sorunlardır. Kendini affetmenin bu kavramlarla ilişkisini derinlemesine anlamak için, bu çalışma okul öncesi, lise ve yüksek lisans öğrencileri ile de yapılabilir. Elde edilecek sonuçlar sayesinde okul öncesi ve lise rehberlik servislerinde müdahale ve önleme programları başlatılabilir. Bu programlar, gelecekteki ertelemeleri ve ergenlerin üniversite yaşamlarındaki yüksek beklentilerini önleyebilir.

Appendix G: Tez İzin Formu / Thesis Permission Form

<u>ENSTÍTŮ / INSTITUTE</u>	<u> </u>		
Fen Bilimleri Enstitüsü	/ Graduate School of Natural and Applied Sciences		
	sü / Graduate School of Social Sciences		
-	Enstitüsü / Graduate School of Applied Mathematic	cs	\Box
	Graduate School of Informatics		
Deniz Bilimleri Enstitüs	sü / Graduate School of Marine Sciences		
YAZARIN / AUTHOR			
Soyadı / Surname	: BELGİN		
Adı / Name	: BURÇİN		
Bölümü / Department	: PSİKOLOJİK DANIŞMANLIK VE REHBERL	.İK/ GUIDAN	ICE
	AND PSYCHOLOGICAL COUNSELING		
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