AN INVESTIGATION OF ADAPTIVE AND MALADAPTIVE DIMENSIONS OF
PERFECTIONISM IN RELATION TO ADULT ATTACHMENT AND
BIG FIVE PERSONALITY TRAITS

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ABSTRACT

AN INVESTIGATION OF ADAPTIVE AND MALADAPTIVE DIMENSIONS OF PERFECTIONISM IN RELATION TO ADULT ATTACHMENT AND BIG FIVE PERSONALITY TRAITS

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The present study investigated the role of anxiety and avoidance dimensions of attachment and big five personality traits in adaptive and maladaptive dimensions of perfectionism. A pilot study was carried out with 408 (260 males and 148 females) preparatory school students of Middle East Technical University (METU) for the adaptation studies of Almost Perfect Scale-Revised (APS-R). The results of the exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses yielded a 21 item scale with three factors; Standards, Discrepancy and Order. The results of convergent and divergent and criterion-related validity studies revealed evidence for the adaptive and maladaptive dimensions of perfectionism. As for the main purpose of the study, three questionnaires, namely APS-R, Relationship Scales Questionnaire and Big Five Inventory were administered to 604 (377 males and 227 females) preparatory school students of METU. The results of three multiple regression analysis revealed that adaptive perfectionism as measured by Standards scores was significantly predicted by Conscientiousness, Openness and Extraversion. Maladaptive perfectionism as

measured by Discrepancy scores was predicted by Neuroticism, Anxiety and Avoidance dimensions of attachment. Order scores used as an additional analysis were found to be predicted by Conscientiousness, Neuroticism, Extraversion and Openness.

Keywords: Adaptive perfectionism, maladaptive perfectionism, adult attachment dimensions, big five personality traits.

ÖZ

OLUMLU VE OLUMSUZ MÜKEMMELLİYETÇİLİK BOYUTLARININ YETİŞKİN BAĞLANMA BOYUTLARI VE BEŞ FAKTÖR KİŞİLİK ÖZELLİKLERİNE GÖRE İNCELENMESİ

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Bu çalışmanın temel amacı bağlanmanın kaygı ve kaçınma boyutlarının ve beş faktör kişilik özelliklerinin olumlu ve olumsuz mükemmeliyetçilik boyutları üzerindeki rolünü incelemektir. 408 (260 erkek ve 148 kız) Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi (ODTÜ) hazırlık sınıfı öğrencisinden oluşan bir örneklemle yürütülen pilot çalışmada, Olumlu-Olumsuz Mükemmelliyetçilik Ölçeği'nin uyarlama çalışması gerçekleştirilmiştir. Açıklayıcı ve doğrulayıcı faktör analizi bulguları sonucunda 21 madde ve 3 faktörden (Standartlar, Uyuşmazlık, Düzen) oluşan bir ölçek elde edilmiştir. Uyum ve ölçütsel geçerlik çalışması bulguları olumlu ve olumsuz mükemmelliyetçilik boyutlarının varlığını ortaya koymuştur. Araştırmanın temel amacına bağlı olarak, Olumlu-Olumsuz Mükemmelliyetçilik Ölçeği, İlişki Ölçekleri Anketi ve Beş Faktör Kişilik Envanteri 604 (377 erkek ve 227 kız) ODTÜ hazırlık sınıfı öğrencisinden oluşan bir örnekleme uygulanmıştır. Çoklu regresyon analizi sonuçları, Standartlar alt ölçeği ile ölçülen olumlu mükemmelliyetçilik puanı için Özdisiplin, Deneyime Açıklık ve Dışadönüklük kişilik özelliklerinin yordayıcı değişkenler olduğunu göstermiştir. Uyuşmazlık alt ölçeği ile ölçülen olumsuz

mükemmelliyetçilik puanı için Nevrotiklik, Bağlanma Kaygısı ve Kaçınma boyutlarının yordayıcı değişkenler olduğu bulunmuştur. Ek bir analizde Düzen puanlarının Özdisiplin, Nevrotiklik, Dışadönüklük ve Deneyime Açıklık boyutları tarafından yordandığı bulunmuştur.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Olumlu mükemmelliyetçilik, olumsuz mükemmelliyetçilik, yetişkin bağlanma boyutları, beş faktör kişilik özellikleri.

To My Parents

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I am grateful to my beloved husband for his love, encouragement, patience and belief in me.

And last but not least, I would like to thank my precious son, Demir, whose wonderful smiles motivated me to finish.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Theoretical and research interest in the construct of perfectionism has grown increasingly over the last decade. Although it has been a topic of widespread interest, a precise definition of perfectionism remains rather controversial. From the philosophical perspective, perfectionism is simply defined as a meticulous pursuit to reach excellence (Moreh, 1998). However, in psychology literature, definitions such as "a drive for excellence, an intrinsic motivation ...[for]... striving for perfection…" or "a disposition to feel that anything less than perfect is unacceptable…" are considered as not comprehensive enough and found to be subject to debate (for a review see Slaney, Rice, Mobley, Trippi, & Ashby (2001). As mentioned by Flett and Hewitt (2002), in the conceptualization of perfectionism, three issues are still debated regarding whether perfectionism is a trait or state, is unidimensional or multidimensional in nature, and has adaptive or maladaptive characteristics.

Historically, some major personality theorists such as Ellis and Freud considered perfectionism as related with abnormal intrapsychic development and others such as Adler and Maslow viewed it as healthy and essential to human development. The researchers emphasizing Adler's view considered perfectionism as a positive factor to adjustment with high standards leading to high levels of achievement and satisfaction (Accordino, Accordino, & Slaney, 2000). However, perfectionism literature mostly assumed a pathological orientation focusing on negative aspects of perfectionism without recognizing the positive aspects (Flett & Hewitt, 2002). Hamachek (1978, as cited in Patch, 1984) is among the first researchers who categorized perfectionism into two as "normal and positive" and "neurotic and dysfunctional". According to Hamachek, people with normal perfectionism set high standards in a similar way to the person with neurotic

perfectionism but they feel satisfied when the standards are achieved whereas maladaptive perfectionists do not feel satisfied and harshly criticize themselves even for minor mistakes. After Hamachek's definition, attempts to identify positive aspects of perfectionism lead to some new conceptualizations of the construct. Slaney and Ashby (1996) conducted the first known qualitative study and investigated how perfectionists described their own experiences and their understanding of perfectionism. After analyzing the interviews, researchers concluded that having high standards for performance and being neat and orderly were the basic characteristics of perfectionism. In addition, an underlying theme of the responses of perfectionists was a sense of discrepancy between standards and performance which leads to distress. These findings suggested that having high standards for performance and orderliness provide a useful definition of the positive aspects of perfectionism and the concept of perceived discrepancy between standards and performance provide a definition of the negative aspect of perfectionism (Slaney, et al., 2001). In this line of research, from a behaviorist perspective, Terry-Short, Owens, Slade, and Dewey (1995) described positive perfectionists as individuals who set realistic expectations, are driven by positive reinforcements such as heightened self-esteem, who put intense effort for achievement but when faced with failure, demonstrate adaptive behaviors such as changing standards or working harder. In contrast, negative perfectionists are driven by a fear of failure, negatively reinforced through avoidance of aversive stimuli such as criticism or shame. They try to reach unrealistically high standards and end up in failure which leads to negative feelings such as anxiety, inadequacy and depression. Such conceptualizations are consistent with the growing trend in psychology which assumes that a comprehensive understanding of any psychological construct cannot be formulated from examining only the negative dimensions (Gilman & Ashby, 2003).

In the literature, there is another way of conceptualization in which perfectionism is described either as a unitary construct or having various characteristics. Early attempts to define and measure perfectionism considered perfectionism as unidimensional. Historically, the unidimensional viewpoint focused

on cognitive factors in the form of Ellis's irrational beliefs or Burn's dysfunctional attitudes (Flett & Hewitt, 2002). This line of literature emphasized a small number of important features of perfectionism. Most widely-stated among these has been the setting of unrealistically and excessively high personal standards of performance (Frost, Marten, Lahart, & Rosenblate, 1990). However, later conceptualizations of the perfectionism construct indicated that this early definition is not sufficient to describe perfectionism and to distinguish perfectionistic people experiencing high distress from those who are highly competent and successful. Therefore, in the early 1990s, perfectionism viewed as a multidimensional construct including various characteristics.

In the literature, there are three widely-accepted multidimensional conceptualization of perfectionism. In Frost, Marten, Lahart, and Rosenblate's (1990) conceptualization, perfectionism described as the tendency to set high standards, overconcern with mistakes, doubting the quality of one's performance, overly critical evaluations of one's behavior, placing considerable value on one's parents' expectations and evaluations of oneself and overemphasis on precision, order and organization. It was stated that Frost et al.'s multidimensional approach offers a developmental and possible etiological aspect by addressing perception of parental expectations and criticism (Saboonchi & Lundh, 1999). On the other hand, Hewitt and Flett's (1991a) approach is concerned with the direction of the perfectionistic demands. In self-oriented perfectionism, perfectionistic behaviors are directed to self. It includes setting high standards for oneself and stringently evaluating one's own performance. Other-oriented perfectionism is related with beliefs and expectations about the capabilities of others. It includes setting unrealistic standards for significant others, placing importance on other people being perfect and stringently evaluating their performance. Socially-prescribed perfectionism involves the perceived need to attain high standards and expectations prescribed by significant others. Socially-prescribed perfectionism implies people's belief or perception that significant others have unrealistic standards for themselves, evaluate their performance stringently and exert pressure on them to be perfect (Hewitt & Flett, 1991a). This conceptualization emphasized the significance of both intrapersonal and interpersonal aspects of perfectionism.

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An emerging body of evidence has supported the validity of two-dimensional nature of perfectionism. Factor analytic studies of several popular measures of perfectionism demonstrated two underlying factors which are labeled as adaptive and maladaptive dimensions of perfectionism. More specifically, Frost, Heimberg, Holt, Mattia, and Neubauer (1993) identified adaptive and maladaptive perfectionism factors in the pooled Frost et al.'s Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale (F-MPS) and Hewitt and Flett's Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale (H-MPS). They found that maladaptive perfectionism consisted of concern over mistakes, parental criticism, parental expectations and doubts about action subscales of F-MPS and socially-prescribed perfectionism subscales of H-MPS. On the other hand, adaptive perfectionism factor consisted of personal standards and organization subscales of F-MPS and self-oriented and other-oriented perfectionism subscales of H-MPS. In this view, adaptive perfectionists demonstrate positive striving but not negative evaluation concerns that indicate maladaptive perfectionism. That is, adaptive and maladaptive perfectionists share similarly high performance standards but maladaptive perfectionists consistently and harshly criticize their performance.

As for the third and most recent conceptualization, Johnson and Slaney (1996) distinguished adaptive and maladaptive perfectionism based on the findings of the instruments that they developed. The Almost Perfect Scale (APS) was originally developed by the researchers in 1996 and it was then revised by Slaney et al. in 2001. Exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses yielded three subscales of Standards, Discrepancy, and Order, and supported the factor structure and independence of the adaptive and maladaptive dimensions. In their conceptualization, adaptive perfectionism reflects high personal standards and expectations and orderliness whereas maladaptive perfectionism is related with the high distress experienced due to discrepancy between actual performance and expected standards.

In the present study, the revised version of APS was translated into Turkish and adaptation studies were carried out by the researcher. The basic reason of using this instrument is based on the view of the researchers (Slaney et al., 2001) that the scale was developed from the counseling perspective with an intension to explore

and measure perfectionism from an unbiased perspective. In other words, considering that most of the debates on the conceptualization of perfectionism are based on the results obtained from the instruments used and most of the earlier studies claimed that perfectionism is an unhealthy pursuit, the instrument emphasizing adaptive dimensions of perfectionism was found to be more promising particularly in the field of counseling.

In the present study, adaptive and maladaptive perfectionism measured by APS-R was investigated from two perspectives. One is to understand the developmental nature of the construct and the other is to examine its trait-like characteristics. It was believed that such an investigation may provide further evidence for the distinction between adaptive and maladaptive dimensions of perfectionism. Although researchers have proposed many variables as correlates of perfectionism, the most widely stated variables are developmental and parental variables. Most of the perfectionism researchers agree that perfectionism has roots in interactions with parents who are perfectionistic and demanding (Shafran & Mansell, 2001). It was reported that perfectionism is generally associated with reports of having less satisfactory parenting including less warmth and affection, more harshness and strict control (Kawamura, Frost, & Harmatz, 2001). Hamachek (1978, as cited in Flett, Hewitt, Oliver, & McDonalds, 2002) suggested that perfectionism develops from children's need for acceptance from parents having high standards and who are never satisfied with their children's efforts to accomplish these standards and whose love is always conditional on the child's performance. Hollender (1965, as cited in Greenspon, 2000) emphasized that a sensitive and insecure child may become perfectionistic in an environment of conditional acceptance.

Such theoretical assumptions can be interpreted from the viewpoint of the attachment theory (Rice & Mirzadeh, 2000). Attachment theory is related with how early caregiving experiences shape adaptation and growth (Lopez, 1995). Briefly described, attachment is an enduring affect-laden bond that is characterized by an individual's desire and need to be close to another person. It is an enduring construct that has an impact on cognitive and emotional components of personality, individual development and relationship with others. Bowlby (1980) stated that secure

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attachment enhances both interpersonal ties, individual's coping skills and feelings of personal worth and self-efficacy. Therefore, attachment experiences have potential to affect both adaptive and maladaptive styles of functioning.

Despite the strong theoretical connection between perfectionism and early parent-child relationships, empirical research investigating the association between perfectionism and attachment was limited (Enns, Cox, & Clara, 2002). Rice and Mirzadeh (2000) found that adaptive perfectionists had more secure attachment to parents compared to maladaptive perfectionists. Similarly, Wei, Mallinckrodt, Russell, & Abraham (2004) found that both dimensions of attachment, anxiety and avoidance, were significantly and positively associated with maladaptive perfectionism.

Although there are several categorizations of attachment styles which were outlined in the Literature Chapter of the present study, similar to perfectionism, these categorizations are also controversial particularly in terms of reliability and validity of the scales used in measuring the dimensions of attachment. Among these instruments, Relationship Scales Questionnaire (Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994) consists of items of a variety of attachment subscales developed by different researchers providing opportunities to calculate different attachment styles and underlying dimensions, one of which is avoidance and anxiety subscales proposed by Simpson, Rholes, and Nelligan (1992). In the present study, considering the reliability evidence obtained from different dimensions, attachment were conceptualized as anxiety and avoidance dimensions. Moreover, in the recent literature, it was recommended that it is more accurate to conceptualize attachment dimensionally because no evidence was found for a true attachment typology (Fraley & Waller, 1998). Rather, it was stated that attachment styles are regions in a two-dimensional space of the anxiety (model of self) and avoidance (model of other) (Brennan, Clark, & Shaver, 1998; Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994). In support of this view, Brennan et al. (1998) factor analyzed 60 attachment subscales and found two factors of anxiety and avoidance. According to this approach, avoidance is defined as the extent to which individuals desire limited intimacy and prefer to remain psychologically and emotionally independent and anxiety is defined as the extend to

which individuals worry that others may not be available or could abandon them (Simpson, Rholes, Orina, & Grich, 2002).

In the present study, personality characteristics were another group of variable of interest investigated in relation to perfectionism considering the strong evidence regarding trait-like characteristics of perfectionism which is still a prevailing debate in the literature. In recent years, the big five model of personality has gained attention as a higher order factor that help to characterize and better understand other personality constructs (Enns & Cox, 2002). Big five model provides a widely recognized taxonomy of personality dimensions which are Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Openness, and Neuroticism (John & Srivastava, 1999). Piedmont, McCrae, and Costa (1991) stated that the correlation of a scale with big five personality measures helps to understand its psychological meaning and orient it in a widely shared conceptual system.

In existing perfectionism literature, there were few studies investigating the relationship between perfectionism and big five personality traits. Hill and McIntire (1997) investigated the association between Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale (Hewitt & Flett, 1991a) and NEO Personality Inventory-Revised (Costa & McCrae, 1990). Their findings indicated that self-oriented perfectionism was strongly associated with conscientiousness, especially with achievement striving subscale and modestly associated with neuroticism and agreeableness. other-oriented perfectionism was inversely associated with agreeableness and socially-prescribed perfectionism was associated with the depression subscale of the neuroticism factor. In the light of these findings, they concluded that self-oriented perfectionism appeared predominantly adaptive while other-oriented and socially-prescribed perfectionism appeared maladaptive. Similarly, Parker and Stumpf (1995) investigated the correlations between Frost et al.'s MPS subscales and NEO-Five Factor Inventory (NEO-FFI) scores in a sample of academically talented sixth-grade children. Findings revealed moderate correlations between neuroticism and concern over mistakes, doubts about action and parental criticism subscales. Conscientiousness moderately correlated with personal standards and strongly correlated with organization. In a more recent study, these researchers replicated the

findings with a sample of academically talented students and a sample of college students (Stumpf & Parker, 2000). They found that organization subscale have positive correlations with conscientiousness, doubts about action and concern over mistakes subscales were positively correlated with neuroticism and personal standards and organization subscales show substantial associations with conscientiousness.

These results imply that the adaptive perfectionism is strongly correlated with conscientiousness while maladaptive perfectionism, that has strong associations with psychopathological symptoms, demonstrates strong associations with negative big five trait neuroticism. These findings help to understand adaptive and maladaptive aspects of perfectionism construct. Additionally, they may imply that perfectionism is best characterized by not as an unidimensional construct but by two independent dimensions showing different pattern of correlations with other personality variables (Stumpf & Parker, 2000).

Review of the literature demonstrated that the categorization of perfectionism into adaptive and maladaptive types has not been supported by empirically. Related with this, the effects of perfectionism on indices of positive psychological outcomes have not yet to be fully examined. Chang (2000) stated that an examination of perfectionism's influence on both positive and negative psychological outcomes would be important for developing theory and intervention. To do this, potential correlates of perfectionism should be investigated. Moreover, such an investigation may help to identify culture-specific variables related with perfectionism (Chang, 1998).

In the light of this knowledge, the basic aim of the present study is to investigate the role of anxiety and avoidance dimensions of attachment and big five personality traits on adaptive and maladaptive dimensions of perfectionism. More specifically, present study examined the predictive power of anxiety and avoidance dimensions of attachment and big five personality traits of Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Openness, and Neuroticism on Standards, Discrepancy and Order dimensions of perfectionism in a group of first-year METU students. Regarding this aim, the adaptation studies of Almost Perfect Scale-Revised

were carried out in a pilot study to determine the adaptive and maladaptive dimensions of perfectionism construct.

1.1. Purpose of the Study

Given that the main purpose of the present study is to explore the effects of attachment dimensions and big five personality traits on adaptive and maladaptive dimensions of perfectionism, the following research questions are sought to be answered.

1. To what extent adaptive perfectionism as measured by Standards subscale of Almost Perfect Scale-Revised is predicted by anxiety and avoidance dimensions of attachment and extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism and openness personality traits?

2. To what extent maladaptive perfectionism as measured by Discrepancy subscale of Almost Perfect Scale-Revised is predicted by anxiety and avoidance dimensions of attachment and extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism and openness personality traits?

3. To what extent Order is predicted by anxiety and avoidance dimensions of attachment and extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism and openness personality traits?

1.2. Significance of the Study

The present study is important because it tries to conceptualize both adaptive and maladaptive dimensions of perfectionism. Existing Turkish studies demonstrated that perfectionism seems to be recurrent characteristic among university students and it is maladaptive causing various psychological problems (Dinç, 2001; Oral, 1999; Yorulmaz, 2002). Different from the existing Turkish studies, present study tried to assess both adaptive and maladaptive aspects and correlates of perfectionism. Such a multidimensional assessment contributes to the understanding of the meaning of the perfectionism construct in the Turkish culture. Another contribution of the present study is that it provides an instrument into Turkish by investigating the applicability

of the Almost Perfect Scale-Revised. Careful work on reliability and validity of the scale was undertaken to maximize the applicability of the scale.

Understanding the nature and correlates of the perfectionism construct has both theoretical and practical significance. The present study may have important contributions for the counselors working with perfectionistic clients by emphasizing the multidimensionality of perfectionism with its adaptive and maladaptive components. Multidimensional conceptualization of perfectionism is related with counseling psychology's emphasis on adjustment and normal development.

Review of the literature demonstrated a relationship between perfectionism and attachment and perfectionism and big five personality traits, but to our knowledge no research examined these three variables together. Therefore, identifying the association between perfectionism, attachment and personality traits may help to clarify the possible origins of perfectionism and understand it more clearly.

It is important to note that through multidimensional assessment, beginning university students having maladaptive perfectionistic attitudes may be identified on the entrance to university and interventions that address these attitudes can be developed. It was suggested that in late adolescence and young adulthood, perfectionistic attitudes became more permeable resulting from the developmental tasks and environmental demands faced in this stage (Barrow & Moore, 1983). Therefore, development and validation of intervention programs help to convert negative aspects of perfectionism into a healthy pursuit which acts as a protective mechanism for the first-year university students.

1.3. Definitions of the Terms

In the following section, the definitions of the important terms of the present study were presented.

Perfectionism is a multidimensional construct with both adaptive and maladaptive dimensions (Slaney, Rice, Mobley, Trippi, & Ashby, 2001).

Adaptive Perfectionism refers to setting high personal standards for performance and desire for organization and need for orderliness (Slaney et al., 2001).

Maladaptive Perfectionism refers to distress caused by the perceived discrepancy between performance and personal standards (Slaney et al., 2001).

Attachment is a biologically based motivational control system that serves to fulfill the individual's need for security or safety (Bowlby, 1980).

Adult attachment involves a dyadic relationship in which proximity to a special other is sought or maintained to achieve a sense of security (West & Sheldon-Keller, 1994, as cited in Newswald-McCalip, 2001).

Attachment Styles refers to individual differences in functioning of the attachment system (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991).

Attachment Dimensions refers to dimensions underlying styles of attachment.

Avoidance is defined as the extent to which individuals desire limited intimacy and prefer to remain psychologically and emotionally independent.

Anxiety is defined as the extent to which individuals worry that relationship partners may not be available or could abandon them (Simpson, Rholes, & Nelligan, 1992).

Big Five Personality Traits refers to the five basic underlying dispositions of personality which are Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness, Conscientiousness and Agreeableness (John & Srivastava, 1999).

Extraversion refers to an energetic approach to the social and material world that includes traits such as sociability, activity, assertiveness and positive emotionality.

Agreeableness contrasts a prosocial and communal orientation towards others with antagonism and includes traits such as altruism, tender-mindedness, trust and modesty.

Conscientiousness describes socially prescribed impulse control that facilitates task and goal directed behavior such as thinking before acting, delaying gratification, following norms and rules and planning, organizing and prioritizing tasks.

Neuroticism contrasts emotional stability and even-temperedness with negative emotionality such as feeling anxious, nervous, sad and tense.

Openness to Experience describes the breadth, depth, originality and complexity of an individual's mental and experiential life.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The review of literature presents the literature related with perfectionism, attachment and big five personality variables. The first section is devoted to the presentation of conceptualization of perfectionism, debates on perfectionism and measurement of perfectionism. The second section includes research on perfectionism. The third section presents the definition and measurement of attachment and big five personality traits. The fourth section reviews the association between perfectionism, adult attachment and big five personality traits. Finally, in the fifth section, Turkish literature on perfectionism, attachment and big five personality traits were presented.

2.1. Conceptualization of Perfectionism

As it is summarized in the Introduction Chapter, various attempts have been made to define and conceptualize the construct of perfectionism over the years which have their roots in the psychoanalytic theory. Freud (1959, as cited in Gilman & Ashby, 2003a) defined perfectionism as a function of exaggerated superego, which makes harsh demands for high achievement. Similarly, perfectionism is defined as "the tyranny of shoulds" by Horney (1950). More specifically, Horney (1937) viewed most perfectionist strivings as a neurotic inability to accept the imperfections of the self. She distinguished this neurotic need from healthy achievement needs which were discriminate and noncompulsive. Hollender (1978, as cited in Slade & Owens, 1998) defined perfectionism as "the practice of demanding oneself or others a higher quality of performance than is required by the situation". All of these early definitions emphasized the negative aspects of the construct. There were also some early definitions which indicate the positive aspects of the perfectionism such as

Adler's view that striving for perfection in life is inherent and healthy and Roger's actualizing tendency and Maslow's view that striving for perfection through self-actualization is an indication of the absence of neurosis (Accordino, Accordino, & Slaney, 2000; Stumpf & Parker, 2000).

Related with the question whether perfectionism has an unhealthy or harmful characteristic, some researchers proposed definitions which include both positive and negative aspects of perfectionism. Hamachek (1978, as cited in Patch, 1984) who is among the first researchers categorizing "normal and positive" and "neurotic and dysfunctional" perfectionism mentioned that people with normal perfectionism set high standards in a similar way to the person with neurotic perfectionism but they feel satisfied when the standards are achieved. In a similar vein, Enns and Cox (2002) defined adaptive perfectionism as setting high but achievable personal standards, a preference for order and organization, a sense of satisfaction, a desire to excel and a motivation to achieve positive rewards. On the other hand, maladaptive perfectionism is defined as setting unrealistically high standards, intense ruminative concern over mistakes, perceived pressure from others to be perfect, a perceived large discrepancy between one's performance and personal standards, doubting of one's actions and motivation to avoid negative consequences. As it is also mentioned in the Introduction Chapter, all these earlier and recent definitions of perfectionism continue to be debated regarding both healthy and unhealthy characteristics of perfectionism.

2.1.1 Debates on Perfectionism

In the literature, three issues are still debated concerning whether perfectionism is trait or state-like, unidimensional or multidimensional, adaptive or maladaptive. These issues are summarized in the following sections to increase the understanding of the conceptualization of the dimensions of perfectionism.

2.1.1.1. Trait-State Debate

In the perfectionism literature, conflicting findings exist related with the discussion whether perfectionism is a trait or a state. Many researchers considered perfectionism as a dispositional construct possessing trait-like qualities which remains stable across time and contexts (Hewitt & Flett, 1991a). According to this approach, perfectionism is considered as a personal disposition to demonstrate perfectionistic features such as having excessively high performance standards, overconcern with mistakes, being orderly and neat. In support of this view, Hewitt and Flett (1991a) demonstrated three-month test-retest reliabilities ranged from .75 to .88 for self-oriented, other-oriented and socialy-prescribed perfectionism dimensions. Similarly, Rice and Dellwo (2001) found that Frost et al.'s Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale subscales were moderately stable over a 10-week period. According to Chang (2000) a way of examining whether perfectionism represents a trait is to investigate the influence of perfectionism on outcome measures in two distinct age groups. Based on this procedure, Chang examined familial concordance of perfectionism using parents and children. Findings of the study indicated that perfectionism in parents accounted six percent of the variance in children's perfectionistic tendencies. On the other hand, Saboonchi and Lundh (1999) questioned whether perfectionism represents a state that can fluctuate as a function of the type of the situation or other factors. In their study, perfectionism was treated as a state in which transient changes were produced through manipulation of two factors that are being observed by others and verbal priming. Findings indicated that priming of perfectionistic thinking and being observed by others cause to temporarily elevated degrees of perfectionism.

At the present, most of the research has focused on individual trait differences in generalized forms of perfectionism and assumed that perfectionists have extreme standards in all domains such as achievement, physical appearance, and interpersonal relationships (Flett & Hewitt, 2002). For example, Flett, Sawatzky and Hewitt (1995, as cited in Hewitt et al., 2003) demonstrated that individuals with a high level of commitment to one perfectionistic goal also tend to have commitment to various other perfectionistic goals. On the other hand, in interview-based studies, Slaney and

Ashby (1996) and Slaney, Chadha, Mobley, and Kennedy (2000) identified that perfectionism may be mostly related with academic and work domains. It was concluded that in order to clarify such issues, empirical research investigating both generalized perfectionism and perfectionism related with specific domains is needed.

2.1.1.2. Unidimensional-Multidimensional Debate

Whether perfectionism is an unidimensional or a multidimensional concept has long been asked in the perfectionism literature. Although there are also some recent unidimensional conceptualizations (e.g., Flett, Hewitt, Blansktein, & Gray, 1998; Rhéaume, Freeston, & Ladauceur, 1995 as cited in Rhéaume et al., 2000), most of the early attempts to define and measure perfectionism considered perfectionism as unidimensional (Burns, 1980; Patch, 1984; Sorotzkin, 1985). This line of literature mostly focused on cognitive factors in the form of irrational beliefs and dysfunctional attitudes or behavioral factors such as setting excessively high personal standards of performance (Frost et al., 1990; Shafran, Cooper, & Fairburn, 2002).

In the early 1990s, researchers realized that the early definitions of perfectionism are not sufficient to distinguish perfectionistic people who suffer from various psychological problems from those who are highly competent and successful. Related with this, in some studies, it was found that perfectionism is unrelated with maladjustment or even positively related with adjustment (Frost et al., 1993; Rice, Ashby, & Slaney, 1998). In 1990, two different groups of researchers proposed multidimensional conceptualizations of perfectionism and developed two instruments that share the same name, the Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale (Frost, Marten, Lahart, & Rosenblate, 1990; Hewitt & Flett, 1991a). With this development, it was realized that perfectionism is a complex, multidimensional concept and unidimensional conceptualizations may miss some key aspects of the construct (Flett & Hewitt, 2002).

In Frost et al.'s conceptualization, perfectionism is described as the tendency to set high standards, overconcern with mistakes, doubting the quality of one's

performance, high self-criticism, placing considerable value on one's parents' expectations and evaluations of oneself and overemphasis on precision, order and organization (Frost et al., 1990). It was stated that this approach offers a developmental and possible etiological aspect by addressing perception of parental expectations and criticism (Saboonchi & Lundh, 1999). On the other hand, Hewitt and Flett defined three types of perfectionism. In self-oriented perfectionism, perfectionistic behaviors are directed to self which includes setting high standards for oneself and high self-criticism. Other-oriented perfectionism is related with beliefs and expectations about the capabilities of others. It includes setting unrealistic performance standards for significant others, placing importance on other people being perfect and harshly evaluating their performance. Socially-prescribed perfectionism is related with the belief or perception that significant others have unrealistic standards for the individual, evaluate his or her performance stringently and exert pressure to be perfect (Hewitt & Flett, 1991a). This conceptualization emphasized both intrapersonal and interpersonal aspects of perfectionism.

2.1.1.3. Adaptive-Maladaptive Debate

Review of the literature demonstrated that the categorization of perfectionism into adaptive and maladaptive types has not been fully supported by empirical studies. In order to provide support for these dimensions, the effects of perfectionism on indices of positive and negative psychological outcomes have to be fully examined.

Some researchers have suggested that the various perfectionism dimensions differ in their relationship with various adjustment indices. As noted earlier, some components are described as maladaptive (e.g., concern over mistakes) and other components are described as adaptive (e.g., high personal standards, order and organization).

The adverse effects of maladaptive perfectionism on various psychological problems have gained more attention in the perfectionism research (Ferrari & Mautz, 1997). Many authors stated that perfectionism is theoretically associated with many

forms of psychopathology (Blatt, 1995; Burns, 1980; Flett & Hewitt, 2002). Moreover, findings of several empirical studies demonstrated that perfectionism is associated with various negative outcomes ranging from chronic sense of failure, intolerance of ambiguity (Wittenberg & Norcross, 2001), negative reactions to mistakes (Frost, Trepanler, Brown, Heimberg, Juster, Makris, & Leung, 1997), low self-efficacy (Hart, Gilner, Handal, & Gfeller, 1998), lower levels of unconditional self-acceptance (Flett, Besser, Davis, & Hewitt, 2003; Pirot, 1986), hopelessness (Chang, 1988; Chang & Rand, 2000), procrastination (Onwuegbuzie, 2000; Stöber & Joorman, 2001), rumination (Flett, Madorsky, Hewitt, & Heisel, 2002), excessive responsibility (Bouchard, Rhéaume, & Ladouceur, 1999), perception of less social support (Dunkley, Zuroff, & Blankstein, 2003), shame (Ashby, Rice, & Martin, 2006), problems of interpersonal and family functioning (Flett, Hewitt, Shapiro, & Rayman, 2001; Habke, Hewitt, & Flett, 1999; Haring, Hewitt, & Flett, 2003; Hewitt, Flett & Mikail, 1995), anxiety (Flett, Greene, & Hewitt, 2004; Scheweitzer & Hamilton, 2002), depression (Cox & Enns, 2003; Cox, Enns, & Clara, 2002; Enns & Cox, 1999; Hewitt & Flett, 1991b; 1993; Hewitt, Flett, & Ediger, 1996), psychosomatic problems (Saboonchi & Lundh, 2003; Vincent & Walker, 2000), eating disorders (Ashby, Kottman, & Schoen, 1998; Goldner, Cockell, & Srikameswaran, 2002; Halmi et al., 2000; Pearson & Gleaves, 2006; Sutandar-Pinnock, Woodside, Carter, Olmsted, & Kaplan, 2003), obsessive-compulsive disorder (Coles, Frost, Heimberg, & Rhéaume, 2003; Frost & Steketee, 1997), suicide ideation (Dean, Range, & Goggin, 1996; Hamilton & Schweitzer, 2000; Hewitt, Flett, & Weber, 1994; Hunter & O'Connor, 2003) and personality problems (Hewitt, Flett, & Turnbull-Donovan, 1992).

More specifically, Mitchelson and Burns (1998) found that negative perfectionism was positively correlated with cynicism and exhaustion at work and parental distress at home in career mothers. They also found that negative and socially-prescribed perfectionism were related with decreased sense of overall satisfaction with life and satisfaction with self. The results of Wyatt and Gilbert's (1998) study also indicated that socially-prescribed perfectionism was significantly correlated with negative evaluations of social comparison, submissive behavior,

shame and depression. Rosser, Issakidis, and Peters (2003) investigated the specific maladaptive components of perfectionism that are concern over mistakes and doubt about actions, and social phobia. They found that these components were related with social anxiety severity. Kawamura, Hunt, Frost, and DiBartolo (2001) examined the relationship between perfectionism and various features of anxiety which are obsessive-compulsive disorder, social anxiety/trait anxiety/worry, and posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD) symptoms. Findings of the study indicated that all three anxiety factors were significantly related to maladaptive perfectionism, but the social anxiety/trait anxiety/worry factor was the only factor found to be related to maladaptive perfectionism independent from depression. In another study, Blankstein, Flett, Hewitt, and Eng (1993) investigated the association between dimensions of perfectionism and specific fears. Findings indicated that both self-oriented and socially-prescribed perfectionism were associated with fears about failure, making mistakes, losing control, and feeling angry. Additionally, socially-prescribed perfectionism was found to be associated with fears reflecting social evaluative concerns such as being criticized and looking foolish to others whereas Other-oriented perfectionism was not associated positively with specific fears. Flett et al. (1991) examined the extent to which different dimensions of perfectionism are related to levels of personal adjustment and found that socially-prescribed perfectionism is the perfectionism dimension most closely related with depression and low self-esteem.

Findings of the above studies demonstrated that a group of perfectionism research, using both of the Multidimensional Perfectionism Scales, has focused on both clinical and normal populations, mostly university student samples, and supported a negativistic, pathologically inclined conceptualization of perfectionism (Terry-Short et al., 1995). These studies indicted that there are multiple maladaptive dimensions of perfectionism which are differentially related with different types of psychopathology (Rosser, Issakidis, & Peters, 2003).

More recently, researchers began to investigate the association between various positive psychological outcomes and the two dimensions of perfectionism. In most of these studies, Almost Perfect Scale-Revised, which is designed to measure

adaptive and maladaptive perfectionism, was used. For example, Ashby and Rice (2002) examined the association between adaptive and maladaptive dimensions of perfectionism and self-esteem. Confirmatory factor analysis and structural equations modeling revealed that adaptive perfectionism was positively associated with self-esteem and maladaptive perfectionism was negatively associated with self-esteem.

There were also studies comparing clusters of perfectionists (adaptive and maladaptive) and nonperfectionists (Martin & Ashby, 2004). For example, Rice and Slaney (2002) used cluster analyses to identify adaptive and maladaptive perfectionists and nonperfectionists. Differences between the clusters emerged on measures of self-esteem, depression, anxiety, positive and negative affect. In another study, Periasamy and Ashby (2002) found that adaptive perfectionists and maladaptive perfectionists had significantly higher internal locus of control scores than non-perfectionists and that maladaptive perfectionists had significantly higher external locus of control than both adaptive perfectionists and non-perfectionists. Findings of another study demonstrated that negative perfectionists were poor constructive thinkers and exhibited maladaptive coping in reaction to stress and endorsed negative stereotypes whereas positive perfectionists were found to engage active problem solving, to be conscientious and endorsed positive stereotypes (Burns & Fedewa, 2005). Rhéaume et al. (2000) tried to identify two types of perfectionists within a nonclinical population. They found that although functional and dysfunctional perfectionists reported equivalent perfectionistic tendencies, dysfunctional perfectionists reported more negative consequences resulting from those tendencies. It was found that dysfunctional perfectionists reported more obsessive-compulsive tendencies, took significantly more time to complete the precision task and precipitated their decision when confronted with ambiguity than the functional perfectionists. In general, research using cluster analysis demonstrated that categories of perfectionists exist and different types of perfectionists differ qualitatively in their characteristics.

To sum up, the results of the studies presented above, support the validity of the dimensionality of perfectionism construct. That is, adaptive and maladaptive dimensions of perfectionism seem to be distinguishable both conceptually and statistically (Enns & Cox, 2002).

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2.1.2. Measurement of Perfectionism

The assessment of perfectionism construct has relied almost entirely on self-report measures. There are several existing measures of perfectionism which have slightly different emphasis. Some of these scales are portions of the scales designed to measure broader constructs. One of them is Dysfunctional Attitudes Scale (Weissman & Beck, 1978) and the other is Irrational Belief Test (Jones, 1968) which heavily focuses on personal standard setting (for a review see Enns & Cox, 2002). Both of these instruments have adequate reliability and validity for assessing dysfunctional cognitive patterns in general (Hewitt, Mittelstaedt, & Wollert, 1989). Later Burns (1980) adapted a portion of the Dysfunctional Attitudes Scale and created the Burns Perfectionism Scale (BPS) which is focused on personal standard setting and concern over mistakes. BPS consists of ten statements, rated on a 5-point scale (e.g., "If I don't set the highest standards for myself, I am likely to end up a second-rate person"). Hewitt, Mittelstaedt, and Wollert (1989) found evidence for convergent, discriminant and predictive validity of the BPS.

The Eating Disorders Inventory (EDI, Garner, Olmstead, & Polivy, 1983) contains a 6-item perfectionism subscale which emphasizes personal standard setting and parental expectations (e.g., "Only outstanding performance is good enough in my family"). Findings of many studies indicated that EDI perfectionism subscale had satisfactory internal consistency and test-retest reliability. Also, concurrent and predictive validity of the subscale was demonstrated in samples with eating problems (for a review see Enns & Cox, 2002).

One of the more recent unidimensional instruments was Perfectionism Questionnaire developed by Rhéaume, Freeston, Dugas, Letarte, and Ladeuceur (1995). It contains 64 items under three subscales which are perfectionistic tendencies, domains affected by perfectionism and negative consequences of perfectionism. Another unidimensional measure assessing perfectionism from a cognitive perspective is Perfectionism Cognitions Inventory (PCI, Flett, Hewitt, Blankstein, & Gray, 1998). PCI was based on the view that perfectionists who feel a discrepancy between their actual self and the ideal self tend to experience automatic thoughts reflecting perfectionistic themes. These researchers believed that many

existing measures assess trait components of perfectionism and assessment of perfectionistic thoughts is also important. It is a 25-item inventory including a list of perfectionistic thoughts (e.g., "I can't stand to make mistakes"). Respondents are asked to indicate how frequently the thoughts occurred in the past week on a 5-point scale. PCI had a high level of internal consistency and correlational analyses provided evidence for convergent and discriminant validity.

These measures are unidimensional instruments emphasizing one or two aspects of perfectionism construct and yielding one score that was considered as measuring perfectionism. Moreover, they were developed from a psychopathological perspective and relatively few studies demonstrated their reliability and validity. On the other hand, more recently-developed measurement instruments try to improve these weaknesses of early instruments and consider multiple dimensions of perfectionism construct. The two of the most-widely used and studied multidimensional instruments are Frost et al.'s and Hewitt and Flett's Multidimensional Perfectionism Scales.

The measure of Frost et al. (1990) includes 35 items related with concern over mistakes (reacting negatively to mistakes and equating them with failure; e.g., "If I fail at work/school, I am a failure as a person"), doubts about actions (doubting the quality of one's performance; e.g., "Even when I do something very carefully, I often feel that it is not quite done right"), personal standards (setting excessively high standards that cannot be met satisfactorily and excessive importance placed on these standards for self-evaluation; e.g., "If I do not set the highest standards for myself, I am likely to end up a second rate person"), parental expectations (perceiving that one's parents have high expectations; e.g., "My parents set very high standards for me"), parental criticism (perceiving one's parents as being excessively critical; e.g., "As a child, I was punished for doing things less than perfectly") and organization (overemphasizing the importance of order and organization; e.g., "Organization is very important to me"). Several studies provided evidence for the construct, concurrent and discriminant validity and adequate internal consistency of the F- MPS (for a review see Enns & Cox, 2002).

The measure of Hewitt and Flett (1991a) consists of three subscales which are self-oriented perfectionism, other-oriented perfectionism and socially-prescribed perfectionism. Self-oriented perfectionism addresses setting high standards for oneself, striving to avoid failure and evaluating one's behavior stringently (e.g., I must always be successful at school or work"). Other-oriented perfectionism is defined as having unrealistically high standards for significant others (e.g., "I have high expectations for the people who are important to me") and socially-prescribed perfectionism is defined as perceiving that others have unrealistically high standards for the individual, stringently evaluate the individual and exert pressure on the individual to be perfect (e.g., "The people around me expect me to succeed at everything I do"). The basic distinction between three subscales is related with the source and direction of the perfectionistic behavior. Several studies demonstrated the reliability and validity of the H-MPS (for a review see Enns & Cox, 2002).

Although these two scales assess multiple aspects of perfectionism, their emphasis is mostly on maladaptive dimensions. While developing their scales, the authors did not intend to differentiate adaptive and maladaptive aspects of perfectionism but recent factor analytic studies using these scales identified two higher-order dimensions of adaptive and maladaptive perfectionism (Frost et al., 1993; Suddarth & Slaney, 2001).

There are also other scales that emphasize the multidimensionality of perfectionism. For example, Terry-Short, Owens, Slade and Dewey (1995) developed the Positive and Negative Perfectionism Scale. Positive perfectionism subscale includes a focus on personal strengths, positive outcomes and the experience of positive reinforcement as a consequence of perfectionistic behavior and negative perfectionism subscale assesses negative perfectionism which is a personality trait motivated by a fear of failure or to avoid negative reinforcement.

Almost Perfect Scale-Revised (APS-R, Slaney, Rice, Mobley, Trippi, & Ashby, 2001) was became the third most widely-used multidimensional perfectionism instrument in the literature. One of the advantages of this scale is that it provides a more clear conceptualization of maladaptive perfectionism by proposing discrepancy concept. In other multidimensional instruments, adaptive perfectionism

is commonly defined by having high standards but maladaptive perfectionism factor is more difficult to define in an uniform manner. Moreover, development and use of APS-R led to the selection of positive adjustment variables as outcome measures in addition to psychopathological constructs (for a review see Slaney, Rice & Ashby, 2002). The adaptation studies of the APS-R were carried out for the present study to measure METU students' perfectionism.

In conclusion, several self-report instruments have been developed for the assessment of perfectionism and the meaning of perfectionism concept underlying different measures vary considerably. The instruments range from brief, unidimensional measures to multidimensional measures.

2.2. Research on Perfectionism

In the literature several variables have been studied in relation to perfectionism. The review of these variables seems to include three categories: Demographic characteristics, particularly gender and race; psychological traits or dispositions such as locus of control and self-esteem and developmental features particularly parenting styles.

2.2.1. Demographic Variables

Related to demographic variables, researchers (Chang, Watkins, & Banks, 2004; Van Hanswijck De Jonge & Waller, 2003) mentioned that in perfectionism research, variables such as gender, race and culture have been neglected and existing empirical studies demonstrated conflicting findings regarding these variables. For example, related with gender and race differences, Nilsson, Paul, Lupini, and Tatem (1999) found that Black female students reported greater parental expectations whereas White female students reported greater concern over mistakes and parental criticism. Among male students, Blacks reported greater parental expectations than Whites. In another study, Chang, Watkins, and Banks (2004) found that White female students, as compared with Black female students, reported greater adaptive perfectionism. They found no difference between Black and White women on

maladaptive perfectionism. It was stated that racial variations on perfectionism appeared to be greater for female students than for male students. In an interview study, Slaney and Ashby (1996) found that women tend to evaluate their perfectionism more negatively than males. In a middle school sample, Siegle and Schuler (2000) found that girls demonstrated greater concern for organization while boys reported greater parental expectations. Parker and Mills (1996) and Kline and Short (1991) reported that females are more perfectionistic as compared to males. Hewitt, Flett, and Blankstein (1991) found that men had higher other-oriented perfectionism scores than women in a patient sample but not in a student sample. Scheweitzer and Hamilton (2002) found no gender and age differences in perfectionism levels of Australian university students. In general, although a consensual finding does not exist regarding gender differences, existing findings indicate that males and females may differentially experience and evaluate their perfectionism.

2.2.2. Psychological Variables

As for the psychological variables, several studies have been conducted to examine the correlates of perfectionism in order to increase the understanding of the meaning, dimensions and possible origins of the perfectionism construct. For example, Johnson and Slaney (1996) investigated the association between perfectionism, procrastination, anxiety, interpersonal problems and found that maladaptive perfectionism was positively related with these variables. Chang (1998, 2002) found that social problem solving buffered the negative influence of perfectionism on maladjustment, especially suicide ideation. Effects of daily hassles are investigated by Hewitt and Flett (1993) and it was found that self-oriented perfectionism interacted with achievement hassles to predict depression and socially-prescribed perfectionism interacted with both achievement and interpersonal stressors to predict depression. Ferrari and Mautz (1997) reported that motor-cognitive rigidity was positively related with self-oriented perfectionism, attitude flexibility was negatively related with self-oriented, other-oriented and socially-prescribed perfectionism.

Perfectionism has been studied with various personality dispositions and dimensions. For example, perfectionism was found to be associated with greater levels of hopelessness in college students (Chang, 1998; Chang & Rand, 2000). In a study investigating the relationship between locus of control and perfectionism, it was found that high self-oriented perfectionism interacted with low levels of internal control to predict high levels of anxiety and low levels of goal satisfaction in a sample of professional artists (Mor, Day, Flett, & Hewitt, 1995).

Among the personality-related correlates of perfectionism, self-esteem is a widely-investigated variable and found to be related with perfectionism in many studies, especially, studies trying to identify both adaptive and maladaptive aspects of perfectionism. For example, in some studies (Accordino, Accordino, & Slaney, 2000 ; Ashby & Rice, 2002) high personal standards, a component of perfectionism, was found to be positively related with self-esteem in a high school student sample. On the other hand, discrepancy, which is another component of perfectionism reflecting the amount of distress people feel in regard to their personal standards, was found to be negatively related with self-esteem. Other studies found a moderate correlation between low self-esteem and socially prescribed perfectionism (Flett et al., 1991; Rice et al., 1998). Similarly, with a sample of intercollegiate athletes, Gotwals, Dunn, and Wayment (2003) found that maladaptive perfectionism was associated with low self-esteem. In a study investigating the relationship between temperament and perfectionism, Kobori, Yamagata, and Kijima (2005) found that self-oriented perfectionism was associated with the temperamental characteristics of low novelty seeking, high reward dependence and high persistence.

In recent years, the big five model of personality has gained attention as a higher order factor that help to identify and better understand other personality constructs (Enns & Cox, 2002). Although, in existing perfectionism literature, there are few studies investigating the relationship between perfectionism and big five personality traits, in the present study, it was believed that big five personality would contribute a better understanding to the conceptualization of perfectionism than any other individual characteristics.

2.2.3. Developmental Variables

Although there are different explanations, most of the researchers agree that perfectionism has roots in interactions with parents who are perfectionistic and demanding (Shafran & Mansell, 2001). Hamachek stated that neurotic perfectionism develops from children's need for acceptance from parents who hold high standards of accomplishment but who are never satisfied with their children's performance or are inconsistent in their approval. Barrow and Moore (1983) stated that Rogers's concept of conditions of self-worth is applicable because a perfectionistic individual seems to have grown up with the perception that regard from others is conditional on one's performance. They summarized four types of early experience that contribute the development of perfectionism. These are excessively high parental expectations and standards, indirect and excessive criticism, absence of clearly expressed standards which lead to child fill it by setting perfection as the standard and finally, perfectionistic parents acting as models for perfectionistic attitudes and behaviors. Many authors stated that perfectionism is associated with reports of having less satisfactory parenting including less warmth and affection and high levels of control (Kawamura, Frost, & Harmatz, 2001). In support of this view, Soenens, Vansteenkiste, Luyten, Duriez, and Goossens (2003) demonstrated that parents' psychological control was a positive predictor of perfectionism in adolescents. In another study, Soenens et al. (2005) found that perfectionistic parents behave their children in a more intrusive and psychologically controlling fashion. Enns, Cox, and Clara (2002) investigated the relationship among parenting experiences, adaptive and maladaptive perfectionism and depression proneness in a group of college students. Findings demonstrated that maladaptive perfectionism mediates the relationship between harsh parenting and depression proneness. The results suggested that adaptive and maladaptive perfectionism shared unique developmental origins and that they have a differential relationship with depression proneness in adulthood. The findings also supported the validity of the adaptive-maladaptive dichotomy of perfectionism.

It has been proposed that in addition to parenting styles, genetic inheritance and role modeling are important mechanisms for the transmission of beliefs, affect

and behaviors from parents to their children (Flett, Hewitt, Oliver, & MacDonald, 2002). Several studies have examined the intergenerational transmission of perfectionism from parents to their offspring (Chang, 2000; Frost, Marten, Lahart, & Rosenblate, 1991; Vieth & Trull, 1999). From a social-learning perspective, it was stated that children's personality is modeled to a large degree on their parents' personality characteristics (Flett et al., 2002). For example, Soenens et al. (2003) found a significant correlation between mothers' and daughters' maladaptive perfectionism. Vieth and Trull (1999) investigated the patterns of perfectionism among college students and their biological parents. They found more convergence between daughters' self-reports and both parents' ratings of perfectionism. Also, the levels of self-oriented perfectionism in students were positively associated with the perfectionism levels of the same-sex parent. In another study, Elliot and Thrash (2004) found that the intergenerational transmission of fear of failure, a concept related with perfectionism, is mediated by children's reports of their mothers' use of love withdrawal.

All of these findings can be unified by considering both nature and nurture dimensions to explain the development of perfectionism. As mentioned by Blatt (1995), any disruptions in the early caring relationships may create distorted mental representations or internal working models of caring relationships, such that an individual either constantly seeks reassurance and support and has difficulty with separation or continually perceives rejection and criticism and avoids interpersonal involvement. Hollender (1965, as cited in Greenspon, 2000) emphasized that perfectionism is not related with the narcissistic gratification of being a perfect individual, but rather related with the struggle to perform perfectly in order to gain acceptance by others. He described the origins of perfectionism in the childhood experiences, stating that a sensitive and insecure child may become perfectionistic in an environment of conditional acceptance. Support for this view came from several researchers. Rice and Mirzadeh (2000), for example, proposed that quality of attachment to parents may affect the development of perfectionism. Flett, Hewitt, Oliver, and McDonalds (2002) who proposed a transactional model of the development of perfectionism stated that perfectionism develops from transactions

between individual and environment. The individual factors involve temperament, attachment style and genetic influences. The environmental factors involve perfectionism of parents, family environment, history of being abused and parenting style. These researchers also noted that it is important to consider the role of people outside the home, such as peers and teachers and societal and cultural factors. Based on all these findings and suggestions it can be concluded that attachment theory would contribute to the understanding of the development of perfectionism.

2.3. Perfectionism and Its Relation to Attachment and Big Five Personality Traits

Review of the existing studies demonstrated that attachment and big five personality traits are two higher-order constructs which remain to be investigated as correlates of perfectionism. They may help to conceptualize adaptive and maladaptive aspects of perfectionism construct. Therefore, clarification of the role of attachment styles and personality traits in perfectionism is needed since as stated by Flett et al. (2002), one of the best ways to understand the perfectionism construct more clearly is to examine the factors and processes that contribute to its development.

In the following sections, studies investigating the relationship of perfectionism with attachment and big five personality are presented after the conceptualizations of each construct.

2.3.1. Attachment: Definition and Key Concepts

Attachment theory can be thought as a metaperspective for counseling psychology. It is related with how early caregiving experiences shape adaptation and growth. One strength of attachment theory is its integrativeness that its emphasis on biological, pscyhological (cognitive/affective) and social dimensions of experience which help to understand the developmental dynamics of self change and self stability over the life span (Lyddon, 1995). Attachment theory views development as a process of directed change, competencies, adaptive patterns and personality

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emerging from the reorganization of previous patterns, structures and competencies (Rosenstein & Horowitz, 1996).

Generally, attachment theory focused on the child attachment to primary caregivers and the role of primary caregiver as a secure base from which an infant can explore and learn about the environment (Ainsworth, 1989). Theory also focused on this first relationship as a context for socialization and for development of expectations about close relationships. Another implication of attachment theory is that an individual's history of interactions with attachment figures leads to systematic differences in how the individual attends to and copes with distress (Cole-Detke & Kobak, 1996).

Bowlby (1980) described attachment as a biologically based motivational control system that serve to fulfill the individual's need for security or safety. He argued that infants are born with a repertoire of attachment behaviors aimed at seeking and maintaining proximity to primary caregivers that is attachment figures. Proximity seeking is an affect-regulation device designed to protect individual from physical and psychological threats and to decrease stress. Proximity-seeking behaviors are parts of an attachment behavioral system which emerged over the course of evolution. Attachment behaviors such as proximity seeking become attachment patterns when individual consistently exhibits the behaviors in order to achieve security or safety. Once developed, a pattern of attachment tends to persist over time. Repeated experiences with caregivers are organized into internal working models of self and attachment figure. Internal working models refer to an internalized set of beliefs related with perceptions of one's own competence and love worthiness (self-model) and expectations about availability and responsiveness of attachment figures (other-model) (Lopez, 1995).

The term attachment implies an interactive process between caregiver (attachment figure) and infant (Peterson, 1987). Attachment figures have many functions. They are the targets of proximity maintenance and provide physical and emotional safety. They provide a secure base from which an individual can explore and learn about the world and develop capacities and personality. In addition to these universal aspects, Bowlby also proposed individual differences in functioning of the

attachment behavioral system. Interactions with significant others who are available when needed, sensitive to one's needs and responsive to one's desire for proximity helps formation of the attachment security. As a result, positive expectations about significant others' availability and positive views about the self as worthy of love are developed. On the other hand, when significant others are unavailable or unresponsive, proximity seeking fails to relieve distress and attachment insecurity is developed. As a result, negative views about self and others are formed. These models tend to persist over the life span and guide expectations and beliefs related with self and related with interactions in past, present and future relationships. An important adition to the attachment theory was made by Ainsworth by further exploring individual differences in attachment relationships. With the strange situation procedure, she assessed the security of the mother-infant attachment relationship through the infant's reactions to the mother during a series of brief separations and reunions. According to infants' reactions, she proposed three styles which are secure, avoidant and anxious-ambivalent. On reunion with mother, secure infants seek comforting and contact with the caregiver, avoidant infants are indifferent to or ignore the caregiver and anxious-ambivalent infants request contact with the caregiver but resist it when offered and failed to be comforted. These categories reflected the infant-parent relationships. That is for example, parents of secure infants, are generally more available, responsive and sensitive to their children's needs than parents of insecure children. Parents of avoidant children are rejecting, aloof and uncomfortable with bodily contact and they tend to withdraw support when their children are in distress. Parents of anxious children are more self-preoccupied, intrusive and inconsistent.

Emprical studies provided support for the importance of caregivers' behavior in the development of working models and effects of working models on later relationships. For example, Collins and Read (1990) found that trust in the dependability of others was related with subjects' perceptions of their parents as warm and responsive. On the other hand, perceptions of rejecting and inconsistent parenting were associated with less confidence in others. In another study related with parental behavior and adult attachment, Gittleman, Klein, Smider, and Essex

(1998) found that men and women with secure attachment styles reported higher levels of care from both parents than those with fearful attachment styles. La Guardia, Ryan, Couchman, and Deci (2000) found that fulfillment of the basic needs for autonomy, competence and relatedness positively predicted attachment security, model of self and model of other.

Related with the effects of working models on later relationships, Collins (1996) investigated whether adults with different attachment styles explain and interpret dating relationhip events in ways consistent with their beliefs and expectations about themselves and others. She found that secure adults provided more positive explanations, indicate confidence in their relationship and in their partner's love. On the other hand, insecure individuals had more negative interpretations, viewed their partner's behavior more negatively and reported more emotional distress.

Another important focus of attachment research is testing the associations between attachment security and adjustment in a variety of domains. Related with this, there are two lines of research. One is focused on the investigation of the association between attachment and psychopathology, mostly in clinical samples, and the other line of research investigated attachment from the counseling perspective and focused on effects of attachment on adaptive functioning. The first line of research demonstrated that insecure attachment is related with development of psychopathology (Pianta, Egeland, & Adam, 1996; Riggs & Jacobvitz, 2002; Rosenstein & Horowitz, 1996), suicidal ideation (Adam, Sheldon-Keller, & West, 1996), posttraumatic psychological distress (Mikulincer, Florian, & Weller, 1993), loneliness (Chipuer, 2001), eating disorders (Kenney & Hart, 1992), higher levels of depression and anxiety and lower levels of self-esteem (Gittleman et al., 1998), difficulties in social competence and higher levels of psychological problems (Kenny & Donaldson, 1991).

The second line of research, focused on associations between secure attachment which includes positive affect and support for autonomy and adaptive functioning (Kenny & Donaldson, 1991). In the attachment literature, there is considerable empirical support for the view that secure attachment related positively

with well-being (Kenny & Donaldson, 1991; Kenny & Perez, 1996; Kobak & Sceery, 1988; La Guardia et al., 2000), affect regulation (Lopez, 2001), high self-esteem (Meyers, 1998), positive perceptions of others, interpersonal trust (Carranza & Kilmann, 2000), well-adjusted interpersonal cognitions and behaviors, social competence (Allen, Marsh, McFarland, McElhaney, Land, Jodl, & Peck, 2002; Engels, Finkenauer, Meeus, & Dekovic, 2001; Mikulincer, Gillath, Halevy, Avihou, Avidan, & Eshkoli, 2001; Rice, Cunningham, & Young, 1997), career development (Blustein, Walbridge, Friedlander, & Palladino, 1991), marital satisfaction (Rholes, Simpson, Campbell, & Grich, 2001) and effective coping with stress (Kemp & Neimeyer, 1999) in late adolescents and young adults.

In addition to self-related outcomes, it was suggested that secure attachment may promote altruistic reactions to others' needs. Mikulincer et al. (2001) found that contextual activation of the sense of attachment security resulted in reacting to others' needs with more empathic responses and lower levels of personal distress. Additionally, it was found that attachment anxiety and avoidance were negatively related with empathy. Moreover, Mikulincer and Shaver (2001) investigated the relationship between attachment and negative reactions to out-groups. Findings indicated that contextual activation of the sense of secure base led to less negative reactions toward out-groups as well as toward people who express negative or critical opinions about certain aspects of a person's worldview. All of these findings indicate that an important focus of attachment theory has involved testing predictive relations between individual's attachment security and his/her adjustment in a variety of interpersonal and social domains (Lyddon, 1995). It can be concluded that secure attachment provides a child the resilience, trust and ability to develop and use capacities and regulate emotion when encountered adverse life events which lead to social competence and confidence (Svanberg, 1998).

Another implication of these findings is that attachment theory has important applications for understanding late adolescent and young adult development. This is the period in which considerable intrapersonal and interpersonal activity, transition and change take place (Kenny & Rice, 1995) such as exploring intimate and supportive relationships outside the family, and adjusting to college. The experience

of transition to college has been conceptualized as a naturally occurring "strange situation", presenting students new experiences to explore (Kenny & Rice, 1995). It was stated that secure attachment promotes instrumental competence and adaptive behavior both concurrently and in the future (Rice et al., 1995). Researchers found that secure attachment was positively associated with a variety of indexes of college adjustment (academic, social, emotional, curricular adjustment, goal maturity, study skills, mental health and personal relations) in both cross-sectional and longitudinal studies (Lapsley & Edgerton, 2002; Rice et al., 1995).

To sum up, attachment theory which was initially focused on understanding of the infant-mother attachment is useful in understanding attachments and other kinds of affectional bonds beyond infancy (Ainsworth, 1989). Ainsworth (1989) stated that long-lasting interpersonal relationships that involve affectional bonds are attachment of the child to parents, the bonds of parents to a child, bonds with other kin, sexual pair bonds and bonds between friends.

2.3.1.1. Adult Attachment

Based on Bowlby's emphasis on continuity of attachment through life, in the 1980's attachment theory has been extended to the study of adolescent and adult functioning (Lopez, 1995). Researchers that investigated the relationship between adults' reports of early attachment to parents and their current attachments found associations between the two (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Hazan & Shaver, 1987). The research on continuity of the attachment styles and long term effects of secure and insecure attachment lead to the translation of Ainsworth's infant-mother attachment patterns into corresponding adult patterns (Levy, Blatt, & Shaver, 1998).

Adult attachment involves a dyadic relationship in which proximity to a special other is sought or maintained to achieve a sense of security (West & Sheldon-Keller, 1994, as cited in Newswald-McCalip, 2001). There has been different approaches to adult attachment which are conceptually different, that is some of them are more dimensional than others, some focus on parental relationships but others focus on romantic relationships (Levy, Blatt, & Shaver, 1998).

It was stated that although adult attachments are most commonly directed toward romantic partners, parents, other family members and close friends are important attachment figures. In a review, Bartholomew and Thompson (1995) suggested that for late adolescents and young adults, both parent-child and romantic/peer relationships serve as attachment figures. Late adolescents have much more opportunity to form multiple attachments. Several studies demonstrated that supportive relationships with both parents and peers play an important role in adolescents' adjustment. For example, Laible, Carlo and Raffaelli (2000) found that attachment with parents and peers serve similar functions in terms of adolescent adjustment. Findings indicated that adolescents who securely attached to both parents and peers reported the best adjustment overall with least depression, least aggression and most sympathy. On the other hand, adolescents with low levels of security with both parents and peers reported the worst adjustment. Such results supported the importance of multiple attachment figures in promoting healthy adjustment.

The early research on adult attachment focused on assessing attachment styles using categorical measures based on Ainsworth typology whereas recent studies have demonstrated two dimensions underlying adult attachment which are labeled as model of self and model of other or anxiety and avoidance. Hazan and Shaver (1987) are the first researchers who described adult attachment based on the Ainsworth's classification. They used attachment theory as a framework for understanding adult romantic relationships. These researchers suggested that early relationships have an effect on adult romantic relationships and more importantly, romantic love itself is a process of becoming attached that shares important similarities with child-caretaker attachment. They proposed three styles, secure, avoidant and anxious/ambivalent. Later, Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) proposed four attachment styles, on two-dimensions based on Bowlby's model of self and model of other. In this classification attachment security is defined as a positive self-image and a sense of being worthy of love and positive expectation that others will be responsive and accepting in times of need (positive self and other model; low anxiety and low avoidance). Preoccupation (anxious/ambivalence) is defined as a negative self image and a sense of unloveability combined with positive evaluation of others (negative

self-model and positive other-model; high anxiety and low avoidance). These researchers proposed two avoidant strategies. Fearful individuals have negative working models of both self and others (high anxiety and high avoidance), believing that they are unlovable and significant others are rejecting. Dismissing individuals have a negative working model of others but a positive model of self (low anxiety and high avoidance). They protect their self-esteem from negative interactions by denying that attachment relationships are important (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991). Bartholomew and Horowitz's (1991) proposal that similar with children's attachment, adult attachment varies as a function of the individual's working model of self and others led to another development in the attachment literature by emphasizing the importance of both attachment styles and underlying dimensions. Support for the underlying attachment dimensions came from studies which used factor analysis of several instruments. A large number of studies showed that exploratory factor analysis of attachment items resulted in two dimensions reflecting avoidance and anxiety (Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994b; Kurdek, 2002). For example, Siegert, Ward, and Hudson (1995, as cited in Backström & Holmes, 2001) factor analyzed Relationship Scales Questionnaire and found that two dimensions had a better fit than three and four prototypes. In a large sample factor analytic study, Brennan, Clark, and Shaver (1998) demonstrated anxiety and avoidance dimensions with 60 subscales from different attachment measures. Avoidance is related with the other-model dimension and anxiety is related with the self-model dimension of attachment. That is, negative model of others implies avoidance of closeness from relationships and negative model of self is associated with anxiety about being unloved or abandoned. Individuals who score low on both anxiety and avoidance are prototypically secure (Simpson et al, 2002). Additionally, another group of empirical studies provided evidence for these underlying dimensions. For example, Collins and Read (1990) found that subjects with secure attachment style had a more positive view of themselves than subjects with avoidant and anxious attachment. Additionally, subjects with secure attachment were more trusting in general and more likely to believe that people are altruistic. Also, they have more positive views about the social world than avoidant and anxious subjects.

To sum up, contemporary extensions of attachment theory to the study of adolescent and adult functioning offer a multidimensional conceptualization of adaptive and maladaptive adjustment (Rice, Lopez, & Vergara, 2005). Various instruments have been developed to assess both adult attachment styles and underlying dimensions. These are summarized in the following section.

2.3.1.2. Measurement of Adult Attachment

Similar to perfectionism, the measurement of adult attachment continues to be debated (Bartholomew & Thompson, 1995). Some attachment measures focus on the quality of attachment relationships such as Parental Attachment Questionnaire (Kenny, 1987) and others assess attachment styles such as Adult Attachment Interview. Additionally, attachment measures differ in whether they assess family, peer or romantic relationships and the specificity with which they define attachment, single relationships or general model. Moreover, some measures focus on security of attachment, some measures assess different styles of attachment and some assess underlying dimensions such as anxiety and avoidance. Also, these measures differ in the classification system they use (for a review see Bartholomew & Shaver, 1998; Bartholomew & Thompson, 1995).

There are two general methods for assessing adult attachment which are interview methods and self-report scales. The most widely-used interview method is the Adult Attachment Interview (AAI, George, Kaplan, & Main, 1985 as cited in Crowell et al., 1996). The self-report instruments are so many that, instead of summarizing them here, some critics in the literature are discussed regarding measuring attachment.

Beginning with the late 1980s, studies related with the measurement of adult attachment have been conducted by using different methods of measurement but there is a lack of integrated approach to measurement of attachment (Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994a). The interview measure of AAI assesses retrospective accounts of parent-child relationships and is scored primarily in terms of linguistic and structural features that are pauses, gaps in memory, incoherent discourse and

other signs of defensiveness. On the other hand, the self-report measures assess beliefs, feelings and behaviors in current romantic or other close relationships (Levy, Blatt, & Shaver, 1998). Most of the current research uses questionnaire measures (LaGuardia et al., 2000). Bernier and Dozier (2002) stated that the central component of adult attachment is a set of mental representations of self and others. The conscious aspects of these representations can be assessed with self-report measures and interviews but the unconscious and automatic aspects of internal working models can be assessed through observational and experimental procedures. More importantly, the research aimed to develop measures of adult attachment primarily used a categorical perspective in which attachment are classified into mutually exclusive types or styles (West et al, 1998). In these studies, individuals are classified according to their predominant style. For example, studies using Hazan and Shaver's (1987) Adult Romantic Attachment Measure classified attachment as secure, anxious-ambivalent and avoidant. However, recently, researchers begin to discuss the use of dimensional ratings of the attachment since individuals can have some degree of each attachment style (LaGuardia et al., 2000). In dimensional approach, individuals have a score on each style. For example, when developing Adult Attachment Scale, Collins and Read (1990) factor analyzed the items and found that results did not support three factors that correspond to the three attachment styles (secure, avoidant and anxious), rather three dimensions (closeness, dependency and anxiety) were found that underlie these styles. They stated that obtaining three orthogonal factors that correspond to the three attachment styles is very unlikely because an individual could be simultaneously secure and avoidant. In support of this view, Sümer (2006) compared the discriminatory and predictive power of attachment categories and dimensions derived from three instruments. He found that assessment of attachment is more precise and has more predictive power when attachment dimensions were used instead of attachment categories. Similarly, other studies using factor analyses and structural equation models of several attachment measures consistently indicated an underlying construct reflecting a common core established in childhood (Bartholomew & Shaver, 1998; Brennan, Clark, & Shaver, 1998; Fraley & Waller, 1998).

In sum, validity and reliability of current attachment measures and the advantages of a dimensional over a categorical approach has been debated in adult attachment research (Stein et al., 2002). There is no consensus about which instrument is ideal or how such an instrument should be constructed (Backström & Holmes, 2001). It can be concluded that the combination of interview and self-report techniques is the optimal technique to measure attachment-related processes in adulthood.

2.3.2. Big Five Personality Traits: Definition

Personality has been conceptualized from a variety of theoretical perspectives and many measures were developed. Although, personality literature is generally lack of integration and a general taxonomy, after decades of research, there has been a growing consensus that individual differences in personality can be described by a hierarchical system composed of five major traits (John & Srivastava, 1999).

Historically, the investigation of big five dimensions was began with Allport and Odbert's lexical hypothesis which states that the personality characteristics that are most socially relevant and salient in people's lives will become encoded into their language and expressed as a single word. In 1936, Allport and Odbert examined the most comprehensive English language dictionaries and extracted 18.000 personality describing adjectives. Then they summarized these traits under four categories. These researchers stated that these adjectives describe observable and relatively permanent traits. In 1967, Norman developed another classification and included seven content categories which are stable, biophysical traits, temporary states, activities, social roles, social effects, evaluative terms and anatomical and physical terms (John & Srivastava, 1999).

However, both Allport and Odbert's and Norman's classifications had overlapping and fuzzy boundaries which led to some researchers to develop more clear and multidimensional conceptualizations. Cattell clustered a subset of 4500 adjectives from Allport and Odbert's list and by using factor analysis generated twelve independent factors which became a part of his 16PF Personality Questionnaire (Goldberg, 1993). Later, in 1981, Goldberg et al. reviewed existing

adjective lists to clarify the composition of broad factors. Factor analysis results demonstrated that the first five factors represented the Big Five and replicated across different factor extraction and rotation methods. It was stated that these five dimensions represent personality at the broadest level of abstraction and each big five dimension includes a large number of specific personality characteristics (John & Srivastava, 1999). Based on this adjective list, many researchers have developed adjectival measures of Big Five. Another important development in the Big Five literature is Costa and McCrae's questionnaire-based research which is different than lexically-based research. These researchers developed two widely-used NEO instruments (NEO-PI-R and NEO-FFI) which used sentence-format.

The Five Factor Model is among the newest models of personality and one of the most practical and applicable models available in the field of personality. Five factor model states that personality can be described in terms of five aggregate-level trait descriptors. These basic underlying dispositions of personality are Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness, Conscientiousness and Agreeableness (Wolfgang, 2005). Although each of the five factors can be identified by more than one name, John and Srivastava (1999, p.121) described Extraversion as "an energetic approach to the social and material world that includes traits such as sociability, activity, assertiveness and positive emotionality". Agreeableness "contrasts a prosocial and communal orientation towards others with antagonism and includes traits such as alturism, tender-mindedness, trust and modesty". Conscientiousness describes "socially prescribed impulse control that facilitates task and goal directed behavior such as organizing and prioritizing tasks". Neuroticism "contrasts emotional stability an even-temperedness with negative emotionality such as feeling anxious, nervous, sad and tense". Finally, Openness to Experience "describes the breadth, depth, originality and complexity of an individual's mental and experiential life". According to John and Srivastava (1999), the importance of five factor model was the establishment of a taxonomy that demonstrates order in a previously disorganized field of personality research. The Big Five model does not represent a specific theoretical perspective, rather it is derived from analyses of the natural language terms that people use to describe themselves and others.

Beginning from 1990s, there has been growing body of research related with big five personality traits and consensus among researchers which support these traits. Related with this, the existence of cross-cultural research demonstrating the existence of big five traits in many Western and non-Western nations is very important. There has been many studies conducted in different languages such as Dutch (Fruyt, Mervielde, Hoekstra, & Rolland, 2000; Hendriks, Hofstee, & De Raad, 1999), German, Estonian and Finnish (Pulver, Allik, Pulkkinen, & Hamalainen, 1995), Flemish, Italian (cited in Pulver et al., 1995), Czech (Hrebickova, 1995 cited in John & Srivastava, 1999), Norwegian, Hebrew (Almagor, Tellegen, & Waller, 1995), Chinese (Yang & Bond, 1990), Japanese (cited in Pulver et al., 1995), Russian (Shmelyov & Pokhilko, 1993 cited in John & Srivastava, 1999) and Turkish (Somer & Goldberg, 1999) which supported the validity of the big five dimensions. Research in other languages and cultures can determine the existence of universal aspects in addition to culturally-specific dimensions of personality traits.

Support for big five personality traits came from various emprical studies. Evidence for the big five has been obtained across data sources, samples and instruments, as well as several languages (Benet-Martinez & John, 1998). There were also some studies investigating the associations between big five traits. For example, Rubinstein (2005) found that neuroticism is negatively related to both conscientiousness and agreeableness whereas agreeableness is positively related to openness and conscientiousness.

As for the evidence for external validity of the Big Five traits, studies showed that these traits predicted certain outcomes such as job performance, childhood psychopathology, academic performance and physical health (John & Srivastava, 1999). Big Five traits have also been investigated with many positive and negative psychological outcome measures. For example, King, Walker, & Broyles (1996) investigated the association between big five traits and verbal creative ability and creative accomplishments. Findings indicated that openness to experience and extraversion were positively correlated with creative ability and aggreableness was negatively correlated with creative accomplishments. In a study reflecting gender differences in big five traits, Rubinstein (2005) found that women have higher

agreeableness and conscientiousness scores than men. Also law students were significantly less agreeable and open to experience than students from all other faculties and more neurotic than natural science students. In a dissertation study, Friday (2005) found that all big five traits were significantly related with GPA at all grade levels of six, nine and twelve. There was no gender difference in correlations between personality and GPA. In another study, Marlar and Joubert (2002) found that agreeableness, conscientiousness and extraversion were positively correlated with self-esteem whereas neuroticism was negatively correlated with self-esteem. Another group of research factor analyzed various personality questionnaires and found support for the two broad dimensions of Extraversion and Neuroticism (for a review see John & Srivastava, 1999) in these scales. To conclude, results of the existing studies indicate the presence of big five traits and their associations with both positive and negative psychological outcomes.

2.3.2.1. Measurement of Big Five Personality Traits

The research in Big Five literature was conducted using a variety of instruments which have subtle distinctions in how the big five domains are conceptualized. There is greater disagreement at lower-order levels that is facets. For example, Costa and McCrae's selection and placement of particular facets criticized as being involved a number of subjective decisions (Reynolds & Clark, 2001). Although it was stated that analysis at the facet level will provide a richer description, there was limited support for the greater predictive utility of the facets than the five domains (Reynolds & Clark, 2001).

The high level of interest in the Five Factor model of personality has led to the development of various instruments masuring the big five (Worrell & Cross, 2004). The examination of these scales indicated that they can be grouped under three categories, one group using single adjectives to measure big five (e.g., Trait Descriptive Adjectives, TDA, Goldberg, 1992), second group using sentence format (e.g. NEO-Personality Inventory-Revised, NEO-PI-R, Costa & McCrae, 1992) and third group using short phrases (e.g., Big Five Inventory, BFI, John, Donahue &

Kentle, 1991). It was reported that the NEO questionnaires (NEO-PI-R, NEO-FFI) are the best validated big five measures, Trait Descriptive Adjectives is the most commonly used measure consisting single adjectives and Big Five Inventory has been used in studies where subject time is limited. Additionally, it was stated that BFI's short-phrase item format provides more context than single adjective scales such as TDA and less complexity than sentence format used by NEO questionnaires (John & Sirivastava, 1999). John and Srivastava (1999) compared these three most-widely used measures. Related with reliability, TDA scales had the highest alphas with a mean of .89, followed by the BFI (.83) and NEO-FFI (.79). The most reliably measured subscales were Extraversion, Conscientiousness and Neuroticism and the less reliable subscales were Agreeableness and Openness. In terms of convergent validity, BFI and TDA showed the strongest convergence. Across instruments Extraversion, Agreeableness and Conscientiousness showed highest convergence correlations. Overall, discriminant correlations were low. Together, these findings indicated that the Big Five traits are independent dimensions that can be measured with convergent and discriminant validity.

2.4. The Review of the Association between Perfectionism, Adult Attachment and Big Five Personality Traits

Review of literature demonstrated that, in existing studies, relationship between perfectionism and attachment and perfectionism and personality was demonstrated but no research examined these three variables together. Therefore, in the proceeding sections the findings of the studies which investigated the association between perfectionism and attachment and studies investigating the association between perfectionism and big five personality traits were summarized separately.

2.4.1. The Review of the Association Between Perfectionism and Adult Attachment

Many theoretical viewpoints emphasized the importance of adolescent-parent relationships in late adolescent development. Moreover, recent emprical research

indicated that late adolescents' perceptions of attachment is related with various indexes of adolescent development (Blustein, Prezioso, & Schulthesis, 1995). It was suggested that secure attachment facilitate risk taking and exploration that chacterizes the developmental tasks of late adolescence. Therefore, attachment is an important factor for first year university students since healthy attachments may provide a secure base from which late adolescents can engage in challenging tasks of university life.

Bowlby (1980) stated that secure attachment enhances interpersonal relationships, individual's coping skills and feelings of self-worth and self-efficacy. These skills and feelings of self-efficacy lead to the development of effective coping strategies with environmental stressors, reducing anxiety and improving emotional adjustment. According to Bowlby, attachment security affects activation of other behavioral systems such as exploration and caregiving. Therefore, attachment security contributes to the building a person's resources and broadening of capacities and skills. When security is maintained and distress is relieved, individual can direct energy to activities that broaden their perspectives and skills (Mikulincer, Shaver, & Pereg, 2003). Moreover, confidence in availability of support when needed facilitates the development of autonomy and self-actualization (Mikulincer, Shaver, & Pereg, 2003). Research indicated that attachment security is related with the optimistic beliefs about stress management, positive views of self and others and maintenance of psychological health and effective functioning in times of stress (Mikulincer, 1995). In support of this view, Reinecke and Rogers (2001) stated that quality of attachment affects the development of cognitive structures. For example it was reported that insecurely attached individuals are more likely to attend to negative stimuli than securely attached individuals. Whisman and McGarvey (1995) found that perceived attachment was related to dysfunctional attitudes, specifically those related with performance evaluation and approval of others and dysphoria in a sample of college students. Similarly, Reinecke and Rogers (2001) found that dysfunctional attitudes partially mediated the association between insecure attachment and depression severity.

Consistent with this view, maladaptive perfectionism may result in response to insecure parent-child attachment bonds which is characterized by absence of parental support and inconsistency in responding to the child's need for acceptance and approval (Rice & Mirzadeh, 2000). Diprima (2003) investigated the relationship between adolescents' perceptions of their family environment and perfectionism. She found that Almost Perfect Scale-Revised (APS-R) Standards subscale scores were predicted by parental nurturance, Family Environment Scale's (FES) intellectual-cultural orientation and achievement orientation subscale. Also, it was found that parental nurturance was a negative predictor of APS-R Discrepancy subscale. Additionally, results of discriminant function analysis indicated that the parental nurturance and Family Environment Scale's independence subscale were the best predictors for distinguishing adaptive and maladaptive perfectionism subtypes. In another study, Levy, Blatt, and Shaver (1998) found that securely attached undergraduates' parental representations were characterized by differentiation, elaboration, benevolence and nonpunitiveness. On the other hand, dismissing students had representations characterized by less differentiation, more punitiveness and malevolence. Fearful students described their parents as punitive and malevolent but their representations were well differentiated and conceptually complex. Anxious-ambivalent students described their parents ambivalently as punitive and benevolent.

Findings of many empirical studies supported that maladaptive perfectionism was related to anxious and avoidant attachment styles (Brennan & Shaver, 1995; Rice, Lopez, & Vergara, 2005; Rice & Mirzadeh, 2000; Wei, Mallinckrodt, Russell, & Abraham, 2004). Rice (2004) used adult attachment theory to investigate the association between perfectionism, self-esteem and depression in college students. Findings indicated that self-esteem buffered the effects of maladaptive perfectionism on depression and adult attachment security moderated the association between perfectionistic self-doubt and self-esteem. Brewer (2002) found that perceived parenting style of parent and attachment with parent were significantly associated with the parental perfectionism. Mann (1999) reported that socially-prescribed perfectionism which represents negative perfectionism dimension was negatively

related with goal commitment/institutional attachment subscale of Student Adaptation to College Questionnaire and self-oriented perfectionism which represents adaptive perfectionism was correlated positively with institutional attachment. Flett et al. (2001, as cited in Flett & Hewitt, 2002) found that students having preoccupied or fearful attachment styles had higher levels of socially-prescribed perfectionism which reflects maladaptive perfectionism, than those with secure attachment.

In sum, although there is a lack of studies investigating the association between perfectionism and attachment, existing studies demonstrated that maladaptive perfectionism is related with insecure attachment.

2.4.2. The Review of the Association Between Perfectionism and Big Five Personality Traits

Another metatheory that help to explain the development of perfectionism is personality theory. Many personality theorist mentioned perfectionism in their proposals. For example, Cattell described perfectionism as one of the factors in 16-Personality Factor Inventory. Other researchers examined the associations between perfectionism and personality (Ashby & Kottman, 1996, Ashby, Kottman, & Stoltz, 2006). Two lines of research investigated these associations. First line of research investigated perfectionism-personality disorder association and second line of research investigated the association between perfectionism and normal personality (Habke & Flynn, 2002).

In perfectionism literature, there have been many studies investigating the associations between perfectionism and disordered personality. For example, Hewitt and Flett (1991) investigated the associations between Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale and Millon Clinical Multiaxial Inventory (MCMI). They found that self-oriented perfectionism was not related with any of the MCMI personality patterns whereas other-oriented and socially-prescribed perfectionism were related differentially with narcissistic, histrionic, borderline, passive-aggressive, schizoid and avoidant personality subscales. In another study, Hewitt et al. (1992) reported

similar findings using MMPI-personality disorders scales. Similarly, self-oriented perfectionism was not significantly correlated with any of the personality disorders, other-oriented perfectionism was correlated with narcissistic traits and socially-prescribed perfectionism was correlated significantly with paranoid, schizotypal, avoidant, compulsive, dependent and passive-aggressive traits. Mann (1999) found that narcissistic vulnerability, shame-proneness and socially prescribed perfectionism were positively correlated with each other.

Many researchers have discussed the role of neuroticism in the development and maintenance of perfectionism but there have been few empirical tests of this association. For example, Hewitt, Flett, and Blankstein (1991) investigated the association between perfectionism and neuroticism by using Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale and the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire which provides measures of extraversion, neuroticism, psychoticism and dissimulation tendencies. Correlational analyses demonstrated that neuroticism was associated significantly with socially-prescribed perfectionism in males and females and neuroticism was related with self-oriented perfectionism in females. Also, a positive relationship was found between other-oriented perfectionism and psychoticism in the patient sample. Similarly, in another study, Flett, Hewitt, and Dyck (1989) found that perfectionism was correlated marginally with neuroticism and strongly with trait anxiety. Regression analyses suggested that the interaction of perfectionism and high life stress predicted neuroticism and trait anxiety.

In the study of normal personality, the five-factor model has been widely used. For example, Enns and Cox (2002) investigated the association between both Multidimensional Perfectionism Scales (Frost et al., 1990 and Hewitt & Flett, 1991a) and NEO-Five Factor Inventory in an outpatient sample. Results demonstrated that self-oriented perfectionism which represents adaptive perfectionism showed a stronger correlation with neuroticism and a weaker correlation with conscientiousness. Socially-prescribed perfectionism which represents maladaptive perfectionism had a strong correlation with neuroticism and a strong negative association with agreeableness and conscientiousness. The correlation between Frost MPS subscales and neuroticism ranged from .58 for concern over mistakes to -.14

with organization. Organization was largely correlated with conscientiousness (.51). Concern over mistakes and doubts about action showed negative relationship with conscientiousness, extraversion and agreeableness. In another study, Enns, Cox, Sareen, and Freeman (2001) found that adaptive perfectionism was significantly correlated with conscientiousness and neuroticism and maladaptive perfectionism was related with neuroticism in medical students. In another study, Campbell and Di Paula (2002) examined the association between Hewitt and Flett's self-oriented and socially-prescribed perfectionism subscales and abbreviated Five Factor Inventory measure. They found that socially prescribed perfectionism was positively correlated with neuroticism and negatively correlated with extraversion, agreeableness and openness. On the other hand, self-oriented perfectionism was found to be correlated with conscientiousness and extraversion. Ashby, Slaney and Mangine (1996, as cited in Slaney et al., 2002) investigated the relationship between APS and NEO subscales and they found that adaptive dimensions of perfectionism (Standards and Order subscales) were significantly associated with conscientiousness and maladaptive dimensions (Discrepancy, Anxiety and Procrastination subscales) were associated with neuroticism.

In sum, findings of the studies investigating the association between perfectionism and big five personality traits may imply that perfectionism is best characterized not as a unidimensional construct but by two independent dimensions showing different pattern of correlations with other personality variables.

2.5. Turkish Literature on Perfectionism, Attachment and Big Five Personality Traits

In this section, studies conducted with Turkish samples are presented seperately for perfectionism, attachment and big five personality variables.

2.5.1. Turkish Literature on Perfectionism

In a group of existing Turkish studies the relationship between perfectionism and a variety of psychological problems were investigated. In all of these studies

perfectionism was measured with Hewitt and Flett's Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale. These studies investigated the role of perfectionism in depression, anger, pathological eating and obsessive-compulsive symptoms.

Oral (1999) studied the relationship between dimensions of perfectionism, stressful life events and depressive symptoms in university students. Findings of the study indicated that self-oriented perfectionism and other-oriented perfectionism were found to be negatively related depression scores whereas socially-prescribed perfectionism was found to be positively related with depression scores. This finding supports the adaptive and maladaptive dimensions of perfectionism. Additionally, researcher reported some gender and socioeconomic differences related with perfectionism. She found that male subjects had higher scores of other-oriented perfectionism as compared to females. Students from low educated families and students coming from towns had higher scores on socially-prescribed perfectionism.

Zabunoğlu (1999) investigated perfectionism as one of the predictors of pathological eating attitudes among Turkish university students. Results indicated that there was no correlation between the dimensions of perfectionism and pathological eating attitudes.

Dinç (2001) investigated the predictive role of perfectionism on depressive symptoms and anger in a university student sample. Findings of the study indicated that students have higher self-oriented perfectionism scores than other-oriented and socially-prescribed perfectionism scores. Males were higher in socially-prescribed perfectionism as compared to females whereas females were higher in other-oriented perfectionism. There is no significant main effect of perfectionism on depressive symptoms. Interaction of self-oriented perfectionism and achievement related life events was a significant predictor of depressive symptoms. The interaction of self-oriented perfectionism with social life events was not found to be significant in predicting depression. It was found that main effect of socially-prescribed perfectionism was significant, that is high levels of socially-prescribed perfectionism lead to high levels of depressive symptoms. It was found that other-oriented perfectionism interacted significantly with achievement related life events to predict depression. Also, interaction of other-oriented perfectionism and social life events predicted repressed anger.

Yorulmaz (2002) investigated the responsibility and perfectionism as predictors of obsessive-compulsive symptoms. Results indicated that there were significant positive relationship between self-oriented perfectionism, socially-prescribed perfectionism and other-oriented perfectionism and obsessive-compulsive symptoms.

Sun Selışık (2003) investigated the association between perfectionism and helpless exploratory style. Findings indicated no significant association between perfectionism and helpless exploratory style as a function of gender.

Koydemir (2006) found that socially-prescribed perfectionism was a significant predictor of shyness. Additionally, socially-prescribed perfectionism was found to be positively related with fear of negative evaluation and negatively related with self-esteem.

Another group of studies used Frost et al.'s Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale. For example, Özbay and Taşdemir (2001) translated Frost et al.'s Multidimensional Perfectionism Scales into Turkish and established its reliability and validity in a group of high school students. In another study, Özgüngör (2003) found that organization as measured by Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale was related with the learning style of students that is related with positive academic behaviors. Additionally, she reported that concern over mistakes and parental criticism were related with the performance avoidance which is highly predictive of the students' unwanted academic behavior.

To sum up, results of these studies supported the reliability and validity of the Hewitt and Flett's and Frost et al.'s Multidimensional Perfectionism Scales and the role of perfectionism in negative psychological outcomes. Findings of these studies demonstrated that perfectionism is recurrent within Turkish Culture and seems to be an important issue for high school and university students.

2.5.2. Turkish Literature on Attachment

Attachment studies conducted with Turkish samples can be group under some categories. One group of research consisted of master's thesis and dissertation studies (e.g.; Amado, 2005; Aydın, 2002; Çelik, 2004; Güngör, 2000; Işınsu, 2003;

İmamoğlu, 2005; İzmirli, 1991; Karakurt, 2001; Kart, 2002; Löker, 1999; Özenç, 2002). For example, Amado (2005) investigated the emotional well-being of the first-year university students. She found that, students having fearful attachment styles have more depressive symptoms and hopelessness as compared to students having secure and preoccupied attachment styles. Similarly, Bekiroğlu (1996) found that insecurely attached individuals tend to be more depressed and have high anxiety levels than individuals with secure attachment. In another thesis study, Löker (1999) found that adolescents who showed less attachment to parents and peers reported more social and emotional loneliness. Additionally, it was demonstrated that parent attachment contributed more to the prediction of emotional loneliness and peer attachment contributed more to social loneliness. In a study related with attachment styles and family environment, Gezer (2001) demonstrated that adolescents from low coherent families have insecure attachment styles but adolescents from high coherent families have secure attachment style. Keskingöz (2002) found that individuals with dismissing attachment style tend to have more pathological eating attitudes than individuals with fearful and secure attachment styles. Additionally, individuals with preoccupied attachment styles tend to have more unhealthy eating patterns than individuals with fearful attachment styles. In another thesis study, it was demonstrated that secure attachment style was related with extrovert personality type and avoidant attachment style was related with introvert personality type (Konyalıoğlu, 2002). Tolan-Çakmak (2002) found that fearful and preoccupied attachment styles were positively related with trait anxiety but secure attachment style was negatively related with trait anxiety. Pamir-Arıkoğlu (2003) found that secure university students reported low attachment anxiety and avoidance, low distress, high self-restraint, high negative mood regulation and high repressive defensiveness. Saya (2006) investigated the relationship between attachment styles and perfectionism in high school students and found no significant relationship between these two constructs as a function of gender. In a dissertation study, Bahadır (2006) investigated the relationship between attachment and conflict resolution strategies in romantic relationships. Findings indicated that anxiety dimension of attachment directly predicted forcing, avoiding, accommodating and collaborating

strategies of conflict resolution whereas avoidance dimension has a significant direct effect on forcing, avoiding, accommodating and compromising strategies. Büyükşahin (2006) found that individuals with preoccupied and secure attachment have the highest levels of relationship satisfaction.

Second group of research investigated psychometric qualities of various attachment instruments such as Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment, Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised, Parental Bonding Instrument (Günaydın, Selçuk, Sümer, & Uysal, 2005; Kapçı & Küçüker, 2006; Koçak-Delen, 2003; Selçuk, Günaydın, Sümer, & Uysal, 2005; Sümer & Güngör, 1999a).

Finally, third group of research investigated the association between attachment styles and various positive and negative adjustment indices. For example, Hortaçsu, Cesur, and Oral (1993) found that orphanage-reared children were more avoidant, anxious and less secure than parent-reared children. Additionally, they found that avoidant attachment was a significant predictor of depression in children. Sümer and Güngör (1999b) found that individuals from authoritative and indulgent families were more likely to have secure attachment, high self-esteem, self-concept clarity and low levels of trait anxiety. In another study, Turan, Osar, Turan, İlkova, & Damcı (2003) found that dismissing attachment is associated with poor adjustment to diabetes in a group of insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus patients. Additionally, dismissing attachment was associated with the coping strategies of avoidance and passive resignation. In another study, Deniz and Hamarta (2003) investigated the effects of attachment styles on social skills and loneliness levels of university students and found significant effects of all attachment styles. Sabuncuoğlu and Berkem (2006) investigated the relationship between attachment styles and depressive symptoms in a group of postpartum women and they found that insecure attachment was related with postpartum depressive symptoms. In this study, Adult Attachment Style Questionnaire was translated into Turkish and its reliability was investigated by computing Cronbach alphas. It was found that avoidant and anxious/preoccupied attachment subscales had a coefficient of .61 and .66 respectively but secure attachment subscale had a coefficient of .42.

To sum up, Turkish studies investigating attachment were conducted with different age groups and supported associations with both positive and negative adjustment variables.

2.5.3. Turkish Literature on Big Five Personality Traits

In the Turkish literature, there were limited number of studies investigating big five traits. Somer, Korkmaz, and Tatar (2002) developed an inventory (Big Five Personality Inventory) consisting of 15 subdimensions based on Five-factor personality theory. They investigated a pool of 924 items with item-factor analysis and internal consistency procedures and developed a 187-item inventory. Factor analysis of 15 subscales indicated that these subscales covered the suggested dimensions of big five traits except for emotional stability subscale. This Turkish scale has high reliability and construct validity. Somer and Goldberg (1999) investigated the structure of Turkish trait-descriptive adjectives in two seperate studies and they found a clear version of big five factor structure

In a thesis study, Demirkan (2006) investigated the association between attachment styles, locus of control beliefs, job satisfaction levels and big five traits in a sample of managers and workers from private sector. Results regarding big five traits demonstrated that managers and workers differed on the big five dimension of emotional stability with managers being less emotionally instable compared to workers. Additionally, emotional instability and openness dimensions of big five significantly predicted job satisfaction and locus of control.

In another study, Ekşi (2004) investigated the relationships between situational coping responses, dispositional coping styles and big five personality traits as measured by NEO-Five Factor Inventory in university students. He found significant and moderate correlations between neuroticism and dispositional and optimistic situational coping. Sümer, Lajunen, and Özkan (2005) found that all of the big five dimensions had indirect effects on accident risk through their effects on aberrant driving behaviors. Conscientiousness and Agreeableness had negative effects on aberrant behavior whereas Extraversion and Neuroticism had weak but positive effects on aberrant driving behavior.

To sum up, despite the growing body of research related to perfectionism, studies exploring the association between perfectionism, attachment and underlying personality structures were limited. Overall, the theoretical and emprical findings summarized in this chapter demonstrated a need to investigate the associations between perfectionism, attachment and big five personality in order to better understand the nature and developmental mechanisms of the adaptive and maladaptive dimensions of perfectionism construct.

METHOD

This chapter is devoted to the presentation of the methodological procedures of the present study. The first section describes the sample of the present study. The second section presents the data collection instruments used in the study. The third section introduces data collection procedures. Finally, the fourth section presents the data analysis procedures.

3.1. Participants

Survey data were collected from 604 freshmen students of preparatory school classes of Middle East Technical University. Sample consisted of 227 female (37.6 %) and 377 (62.4 %) male students. Age of the students ranged from 17 to 20 with the mean of 18.20 (SD = 0.79). The distribution of the students in terms of levels and gender is presented in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1. Distribution of the Participants of the Study in terms of Levels and Gender

	Female (n = 227)	Male (n = 377)	Total (N = 604)
Level			
Beginner	17	37	54
Elementary	101	148	249
Intermediate	81	150	231
Upper	28	42	70
Faculty			
Architecture	17	15	32
Arts & Sciences	64	41	105
Economic & Administrative Sciences	38	50	88
Education	35	36	71
Engineering	71	233	304

As can be seen from the table, in the sample, there were 54 beginner, 249 elementary, 231 intermediate and 70 upper level students. There were 32 students from Faculty of Architecture, 105 from Faculty of Arts and Sciences, 88 from Economic and Administrative Sciences, 71 from Faculty of Education, 304 from Faculty of Engineering and 4 students did not indicate department.

3.2. Instruments

In the present study, four instruments were administered to the participants, namely Almost Perfect Scale-Revised to measure perfectionism, Relationship Scales Questionnaire to measure adult attachment styles, Big Five Inventory to measure five personality traits, and Demographic Information Form to obtain demographic information.

3.2.1. Almost Perfect Scale-Revised

The Almost Perfect Scale-Revised (APS-R; see Appendix A) is a self-report instrument originally developed by Johnson and Slaney (1996) and later revised by Slaney, Rice, Mobley, Trippi, and Ashby (2001) to measure adaptive and maladaptive dimensions of the perfectionism construct. The APS-R consists of 23 items with a 7-point rating scale from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 7 (Strongly Agree). APS-R contains three subscales that are Standards (7 items measuring personal standards for performance, e.g., "I have high expectations for myself"), Discrepancy (12 items measuring distress caused by the perceived discrepancy between performance and personal standards, e.g., "I often feel frustrated because I can't meet my goals") and Order (4 items measuring desire for organization and need for orderliness, e.g., "I am an orderly person"). Exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses have supported the factor structure and independence of subscales (Slaney et al., 2001). Validity was supported by a confirmatory factor analysis with a goodness-of-fit index (GFI) of .92. In two separate studies using undergraduate samples, factor loadings of the items ranged from .49 to .86. Cronbach's alphas were .92 for Discrepancy, .85 for Standards and .86 for Order. Many other studies

provided additional support for the factor structure and concurrent and discriminant validity of the APS and APS-R (Ashby & Kottman, 1996; Ashby et al., 1998; LoCicero & Ashby, 2000; Rice et al., 1998; Suddarth & Slaney, 2001).

The adaptation studies of APS-R were carried out by the researcher. Translation and back-translation procedure and validity and reliability studies were presented in the following sections.

3.2.1.1. Translation Studies of the Almost Perfect Scale-Revised

In the present study, the instrument was translated and back-translated following the procedure described below.

First of all, the APS-R was translated from English to Turkish by four psychological counselors who had at least M.S. degree and who were fluent in English. Second, the four translated versions of APS-R and its English version were given to two other judges (one professor in guidance and counseling and one psychological counselor who had a Ph.D. degree) to evaluate the four versions of translated instrument and to choose the best fitting translation for each item. All the judges had excellent command of English and had translation experience. The recommended changes were made based on the feedback given by the judges. Third, in order to ensure the equivalence of the APS-R in two languages, the Turkish translation of the instrument was given to two English language teachers who also had excellent command of English for back-translation. Fourth, two back-translated versions of the instruments were compared with the Turkish translated version and items were chosen by the researcher and her supervisor to assure whether the meaning of each item was maintained. Fifth, the final version of APS-R was reviewed by a Turkish language teacher to check in terms of the accuracy of Turkish language. Finally, the researcher has decided to use the instrument after these modifications made for ensuring the adequacy of the translation.

3.2.1.2. Validity and Reliability Study of the Turkish Version of the Almost Perfect Scale-Revised

A pilot study was carried out to obtain evidence regarding validity and reliability of Turkish version of the APS-R. This pilot study included 408 (260 males and 148 females) preparatory school students of METU who were volunteered to participate. These students were not the participants of the main study. Age of the students ranged from 17 to 25 (M = 19.0, SD = 1.05). In order to obtain different validity evidence for the Turkish version of the APS-R, packages of questionnaires were prepared in which APS-R was presented together with different instruments. These packages were randomly distributed to the students in the classroom settings. As a result, out of 408 students who completed APS-R, 97 students also responded to Frost et al.'s (1990) Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale, 98 students to Hewitt and Flett's (1991a) Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale, and 173 students both to Brief Symptom Inventory (Derogatis & Melisaratos, 1983) and College Adjustment Self Efficacy Scale (Hirose, Wada, & Watanabe, 1999). For obtaining test-retest reliability evidence, 40 students were administered APS-R twice with two-week interval.

In order to assess the construct validity of Turkish version, factor structure of the APS-R was investigated by employing both exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis. Convergent and discriminant validity were assessed by joint factor analysis of APS-R separately with the two Multidimensional Perfectionism Scales of Hewitt's and Frost's. The criterion-related validity was determined by investigating the relationships between APS-R, Brief Symptom Inventory and College Adjustment Self-Efficacy Scale. Such an investigation helped to understand whether adaptive and maladaptive perfectionism were differentially related with positive and negative adjustment indices. Finally, to test reliability, internal consistency and test-retest reliability coefficients were computed.

3.2.1.2.1. Exploratory Factor Analysis of the Turkish Version of the Almost Perfect Scale-Revised

The dimensionality of the 23 items from APS-R was analyzed using principal components factor analysis with a sample of 408 students. Three criteria were used to determine the number of factors to rotate; the a priori hypothesis that the measure was three dimensional, the scree-test and the interpretability of the factor solution.

Barlett's test of sphericity was 3942.641 (p < .0001) and Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was .88 which supported the use of these data in a factor analysis.

The initial solution yielded 4 components with eigenvalues exceeding 1, accounting for a total of 57.66 % of the variance. Inspection of the scree-plot indicated four factors (see Appendix I). A varimax rotation was conducted with these four factors. First factor included items 3, 6, 11, 13, 17, 20 and 21 which were originally Discrepancy items. Among these items, items 20 and 21 were also loaded on the third factor with loadings above .40. Second factor composed of items 1, 5, 8, 12, 14, 18 and 22 which were items of the Standards subscale. Among them, item 22 had also a loading of .41 under the first factor. The third factor included items 9, 15, 16, 19 and 23 which were Discrepancy items. Among them, item 23 had a loading of .41 under the first factor. Finally, the fourth factor composed of items 2, 4, 7 and 10 which were originally Order subscale items. First factor accounted for 16.45 % of the item variance, second factor accounted for 14.30 % of the item variance, third factor 13.80 % and fourth factor accounted for 13.09 % of the item variance.

To sum up, with the initial four-factor solution, it was seen that original Standards and Order factors were evident with the present sample but Discrepancy items were loaded under two different factors. Also APS-R items 20, 21, 22 and 23 had loadings above .30 under two factors.

Because of the a priori hypothesis that the measure was three dimensional and four-factor model included many crossloaded items, a 3-factor solution was also tested. This new analysis yielded three interpretable factors which had eigenvalues of 5.23, 3.90 and 2.96 and they explained 52.61 % of the total variance after varimax rotation. In this analysis, it was seen the original Standards, Discrepancy and Order

scales were obtained with the present sample. However, items 13 and 22 had loadings above .39 under both Discrepancy and Standards factors.

The APS-R three-factor structure was also examined through maximum likelihood and principal axis factoring analysis and with direct oblimin rotation and the same items 13 and 22 were crossloaded under both Standards and Discrepancy factors. Then the crossloaded items were omitted and factor analysis was repeated. The results were presented in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2. Varimax-Rotated Factor Loadings, Communalities, Eigenvalues and Explained Variances of the Items of the Turkish Version of APS-R (3-factor model)

Item No	Communalities	Factor 1 Discrepancy	Factor 2 Standards	Factor 3 Order
20	.62	.75		
21	.55	.73		
16	.53	.69		
19	.53	.69		
23	.46	.68		
17	.52	.67		
15	.45	.66		
11	.50	.64		
6	.53	.61		
9	.45	.57		
3	.19	.41		
14	.62		.76	
12	.59		.74	
8	.55		.73	
1	.45		.64	
18	.46		.59	
5	.30		.52	
4	.82			.89
2	.73			.84
10	.70			.82
7	.60			.75
Eigenvalue		4.78	3.40	2.95
Pct. of Variance		22.78	16.19	14.05

As can be seen from the table, this new analysis yielded three interpretable factors which had eigenvalues of 4.78, 3.40 and 2.95 explaining 53.01 % of the total variance. Discrepancy factor accounted for 22.78 % of the item variance, Standards factor accounted for 16.19 % of the item variance and Order factor accounted for 14.05 % of the item variance. These three factors were similar to the original version. The APS-R three-factor structure after omitting crossloaded items was also examined through maximum likelihood and principal axis factoring analysis and with direct oblimin rotation and the same item composition was obtained.

APS-R is also designed to differentiate adaptive and maladaptive components of perfectionism. Standards and Order subscales are designed to reflect adaptive perfectionism and Discrepancy subscale is designed to reflect maladaptive perfectionism. To investigate this structure, a two-factor model was tested with 21 items. Principal components analysis with varimax rotation yielded two factors with eigenvalues of 4.79 and 4.13 accounting 42.45 % of the variance. Rotated component matrix indicated that Discrepancy items 3, 6, 9, 11, 15, 16, 17, 19, 20, 21 and 23 were loaded under the first factor and Standards and Order items 1, 5, 8, 12, 14, 18 and 2, 4, 7, 10 were loaded under the second factor which supported the adaptive and maladaptive dimensions. Two-factor model was also tested without Order subscale items because in some studies it was found that Order subscale did not significantly and consistently differentiate adaptive and maladaptive perfectionism. The results were presented in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3. Varimax-Rotated Factor Loadings, Communalities, Eigenvalues and Explained Variances of the Items of the Turkish Version of APS-R (2-factor model)

Item No	Communalities	Factor 1 Discrepancy	Factor 2 Standards
20	.61	.75	
21	.54	.72	
16	.52	.70	
19	.52	.69	
23	.46	.68	
17	.52	.67	
15	.44	.66	
11	.49	.64	
6	.51	.60	
9	.43	.57	
3	.18	.41	
14	.63		.79
8	.55		.74
12	.58		.73
1	.46		.68
18	.43		.65
5	.29		.51
Eigenvalue		4.76	3.39
Pct. of Variance		28.02	19.93

As can be seen from the table, principal component analysis with varimax rotation yielded two factors with eigenvalues of 4.76 and 3.39 accounting 47.96 % of the variance. The first factor was composed of Discrepancy items and the second factor composed of Standards items which again supported the adaptive and maladaptive dimensions of APS-R.

In sum, two, three and four-factor models were tested with exploratory factor analysis. Four-factor model indicated that like the original version, Turkish version of the APS-R has the same Standards and Order subscales but Discrepancy items were loaded under two different factors. Three-factor model indicated that items 13 and 22 had loadings greater than .39 on both Standards and Discrepancy factor and after these items were omitted, the original Standards, Discrepancy and Order factors were obtained. Two-factor model indicated that Discrepancy items were loaded

under the maladaptive perfectionism factor and Standards factor were loaded under adaptive perfectionism factor.

3.2.1.2.2. Confirmatory Factor Analysis of the Turkish Version of the Almost Perfect Scale-Revised

The LISREL 8.30 program was used to perform confirmatory factor analysis. Maximum likelihood was the estimation method and covariance matrices were analyzed. The ability of several factor models to fit the data was tested. The original three-factor model and two-factor model were tested. The fit of the models was evaluated using multiple criteria: Chi square/df ratio, the goodness of fit index (GFI), the adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI), the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) and comparative fit index (CFI). The following criteria were used to indicate goodness of fit: GFI, AGFI and CFI .90 and higher, RMSEA .08 or lower and Chi-square/df ratio 3 or lower (Bentler, 1990; Bollen, 1990; Cole, 1987).

First of all, the original three factor model was evaluated. In this model, 7 items related to personal standards were specified to identify with the Standards factor, 4 items with Order factor and 12 items were specified to identify with the Discrepancy factor. Goodness-of-fit values were presented in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4. Goodness-of-fit for the Three-Factor Model

Model	Chi-square/df	GFI	AGFI	RMSEA	CFI
3-factor	6.10	0.77	0.72	0.11	0.79

As can be seen from the table, confirmatory factor analysis for the three-factor model of the Turkish version of the APS-R yielded following goodness of fit indices: $\chi^2(227) = 1386.495$, $p < 0.01$; $\chi^2/df = 6.10$; GFI = 0.77; AGFI = 0.72; RMSEA = 0.11 and CFI = 0.79. These indices were indicated poor fit. Then modifications suggested by the program were conducted. These are setting error

covariance between APSR11 and APSR6, APSR19 and APSR9, APSR16 and APSR9 free and including APSR22 in both Standards and Discrepancy factors. After these modifications, following goodness of fit indices were obtained. χ^2 (222) = 815.204, p < 0.01; χ^2/df = 3.67; GFI = 0.85; AGFI = 0.82; RMSEA = 0.08 and CFI = 0.87. Although these findings indicated a significant drop in chi square, χ^2/df ratio and RMSEA value and an increase in GFI, AGFI and CFI values, goodness-of-fit values were not still acceptable. Then, based on the findings of exploratory factor analysis and for conceptual clarity, crossloaded items 13 and 22 were omitted and the results of the repeated confirmatory factor analysis were presented in Table 3.5.

Table 3.5. Goodness-of-fit for the Modified Three-Factor Model

Model	Chi-square/df	GFI	AGFI	RMSEA	CFI
3-factor after items 13 & 22 omitted	3.03	0.90	0.87	0.07	0.90

As can be seen from the table, the goodness-of-fit indices were; χ^2 (180) = 547.158, p < 0.01; χ^2/df = 3.03; GFI = 0.90; AGFI = 0.87; RMSEA = 0.07 and CFI = 0.90. These goodness-of-fit statistics showed that the model seems acceptable although a slightly lower value of AGFI and larger value for RMSEA was obtained.

Table 3.6 indicates the standardized Lambda values, standard errors, t-values and squared multiple correlations (R^2) as obtained for each of the items for the three-factor model. All parameter estimates were statistically significant (p < 0.05).

Additionally, the path diagrams of LISREL estimates of parameters in measurement model of three-factor APS-R with coefficients in standardized and t-values were presented in Appendices section (see Appendix J).

Table 3.6. Standardized Lambda Values, Standard Errors, t-values and Squared Multiple Correlations of the items of the Turkish Version of the APS-R (3-factor Model)

Factors & Item No	λ	SE	t	R^2
Standards				
1	0.42	0.06	8.02	0.17
5	0.50	0.08	9.88	0.25
8	0.71	0.05	15.20	0.50
12	0.78	0.07	17.10	0.61
14	0.75	0.06	16.22	0.56
18	0.57	0.06	11.59	0.33
Discrepancy				
3	0.43	0.09	8.33	0.18
6	0.45	0.09	8.70	0.20
9	0.38	0.08	6.69	0.12
11	0.51	0.08	10.10	0.26
15	0.58	0.08	11.83	0.34
16	0.60	0.07	12.34	0.36
17	0.72	0.08	15.48	0.51
19	0.52	0.07	10.39	0.27
20	0.71	0.07	15.43	0.51
21	0.73	0.07	16.01	0.54
23	0.65	0.08	13.70	0.42
Order				
2	0.78	0.06	17.66	0.60
4	0.87	0.07	20.97	0.77
7	0.72	0.07	15.88	0.52
10	0.77	0.07	17.53	0.60

As can be seen from the table, the first factor represented items of Standards. Six items were positively and significantly loaded on this factor. These were item 1 "I have high standards for my performance at work or at school" ($\lambda = 0.42$, $p < 0.05$), item 5 "If you don't expect much out of yourself, you will never succeed" ($\lambda = 0.50$, $p < 0.05$), item 8 "I have high expectations for myself" ($\lambda = 0.71$, $p < 0.05$), item 12 "I set very high standards for myself" ($\lambda = 0.78$, $p < 0.05$), item 14 "I expect the best from myself" ($\lambda = 0.75$, $p < 0.05$) and item 18 "I try to do my best at everything I do" ($\lambda = 0.57$, $p < 0.05$). Among them item 12 accounted for the greatest variance ($R^2 = 0.61$) of the Standards factor.

In the second factor which was named as Discrepancy, item 3 "I often feel frustrated because I can't meet my goals" ($\lambda = 0.43$, $p < 0.05$), item 6 "My best just

never seems to be good enough for me" ($\lambda = 0.45$, $p < 0.05$), item 9 "I rarely live up to my high standards" ($\lambda = 0.38$, $p < 0.05$), item 11 "Doing my best never seems to be enough" ($\lambda = 0.51$, $p < 0.05$), item 15 "I often worry about not measuring up to my own expectations" ($\lambda = 0.58$, $p < 0.05$), item 16 "My performance rarely measures up to my standards" ($\lambda = 0.60$, $p < 0.05$), item 17 "I am not satisfied even when I know I have done my best" ($\lambda = 0.72$, $p < 0.05$), item 19 "I am seldom able to meet my own high standards of performance" ($\lambda = 0.52$, $p < 0.05$), item "I am hardly ever satisfied with my performance" ($\lambda = 0.71$, $p < 0.05$), item 21 "I hardly ever feel that what I've done is good enough" ($\lambda = 0.73$, $p < 0.05$) and item 23 "I often feel disappointment after completing a task because I know I could have done better" ($\lambda = 0.65$, $p < 0.05$) were loaded. From these eleven items, item 21 accounted for the greatest variance ($R^2 = 0.54$) of this factor.

In the third factor, item 2 "I am an orderly person" ($\lambda = 0.78$, $p < 0.05$), item 4 "Neatness is important to me" ($\lambda = 0.87$, $p < 0.05$), item 7 "I think things should be put away in their place" ($\lambda = 0.72$, $p < 0.05$) and item 10 "I like to always be organized and disciplined" ($\lambda = 0.77$, $p < 0.05$) were loaded significantly. Among these four items, item 4 accounted for the largest variance ($R^2 = 0.77$) of the Order factor.

Secondly, to identify adaptive and maladaptive perfectionism factors, a two-factor model was tested. In this model, Standards and Order subscales were defined as adaptive perfectionism and Discrepancy subscale was defined as maladaptive perfectionism factor. After confirmatory factor analysis, it was seen that Order subscale items were highly correlated with each other and LISREL program suggested setting error covariance between these items free. As can be seen from table 3.7, when these modifications were conducted and crossloaded items 13 and 22 were not included, goodness-of-fit indices were $\chi^2(178) = 618.603$, $p < 0.01$; $\chi^2/df = 3.47$; GFI = 0.88; AGFI = 0.84 ; RMSEA = 0.07 and CFI = 0.88.

Table 3.7. Goodness-of-fit for the Two-Factor Model

Model	Chi-square/df	GFI	AGFI	RMSEA	CFI
2-factor with Order Subscale	3.47	0.88	0.84	0.07	0.88

A second confirmatory factor analyses was conducted without including Order items in the adaptive perfectionism factor and results were presented in Table 3.8.

Table 3.8. Goodness-of-fit for the Modified Two-Factor Model

Model	Chi-square/df	GFI	AGFI	RMSEA	CFI
2-factorwithout Order Subscale	3.22	0.91	0.87	0.07	0.90

As can be seen from the table, the goodness-of-fit indices were; χ^2 (112) = 360.714, $p < 0.01$; $\chi^2/df = 3.22$; GFI = 0.91; AGFI = 0.87; RMSEA = 0.07 and CFI = 0.90. These goodness-of-fit statistics showed that the two-factor model seems acceptable although a slightly lower value of AGFI and larger value for RMSEA was obtained.

Table 3.9 indicates the standardized Lambda values, standard errors, t-values and squared multiple correlations (R^2) as obtained for each of the items for the two-factor model. All parameter estimates were statistically significant ($p < 0.05$). Additionally, the path diagrams of LISREL estimates of parameters in measurement model of two-factor APS-R with coefficients in standardized and t-values were presented in Appendices section (see Appendix K).

Table 3.9. Standardized Lambda Values, Standard Errors, t-values and Squared Multiple Correlations of the Items of the Turkish Version of the APS-R (2-factor model)

Factors & Item No	λ	SE	t	R^2
Adaptive				
1	0.41	0.06	7.81	0.17
5	0.50	0.08	9.91	0.25
8	0.72	0.05	15.38	0.52
12	0.78	0.07	17.07	0.61
14	0.75	0.06	16.31	0.57
18	0.56	0.06	11.23	0.31
Maladaptive				
3	0.43	0.09	8.33	0.18
6	0.45	0.09	8.71	0.20
9	0.35	0.08	6.69	0.12
11	0.51	0.08	10.11	0.26
15	0.58	0.08	11.83	0.34
16	0.60	0.07	12.34	0.36
17	0.72	0.08	15.48	0.51
19	0.52	0.07	10.39	0.27
20	0.71	0.07	15.43	0.51
21	0.73	0.07	16.01	0.54
23	0.65	0.08	13.70	0.42

To sum up, there was consistent evidence from both exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses that the Discrepancy item 13 (I am never satisfied with my accomplishments) crossloads on Standards, and item 22 (I have a strong need to strive for excellence) which was conceptualized to measure high Standards crossloads on Discrepancy factor. Omitting crossloaded items 13 and 22 significantly changed the goodness-of-fit indexes. With modifications suggested by the program, most of the goodness-of-fit indexes reached acceptable values required for model fit. Therefore, for conceptual clarity, models in which items loading on more than one factor were not chosen. Therefore, three-factor model without items 13 and 22 and two-factor model without Order subscale were used in the following statistical analyses.

3.2.1.2.3. Correlations between Subscales of the Turkish Version of the Almost Perfect Scale-Revised

In order to examine the relationship between APS-R subscales, Pearson correlation coefficient was computed. The intercorrelation of subscales was presented in Table 3.10.

Table 3.10. Subscale Intercorrelations of the Turkish Version of the APS-R

	1	2	3
1.Order	1		
2.Standards	.30**		
3.Discrepancy	.07	.16**	1

** p < 0.01

As can be seen from the table, there were significant correlations between Standards and Order subscales (r = .30, p < .01) and Standards and Discrepeancy subscales (r = .16, p < .01).

3.2.1.2.4. Convergent and Discriminant Validity of the Turkish Version of the Almost Perfect Scale-Revised

To assess convergent and discriminant validity, the associations between APS-R and Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale (MPS-H; see Appendix B) were investigated by a joint principal components analysis of both scales' items and computing correlations between subscales of the two measures. Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale (Hewitt & Flett, 1991a) is a 45-item measure designed to measure self-oriented perfectionism, other-oriented perfectionism and socially prescribed perfectionism. MPS-H was translated into Turkish by Oral (1999).

In the joint principal components analysis, Order subscale of APS-R and Other-oriented perfectionism subscale of the MPS-H were not included since these subscales were not used to classify adaptive and maladaptive subtypes of perfectionism. A two-factor model representing adaptive and maladaptive

perfectionism was tested with varimax rotation with a sample of 98 students. In this model, APS-R's Standards subscale and MPS-H's Self-oriented Perfectionism subscale were defined as adaptive perfectionism and APS-R's Discrepancy subscale and MPS-H's Socially-prescribed Perfectionism were defined as maladaptive perfectionism. The results were presented in Table 3.11.

Table 3.11. Factor Loadings of the Items of APS-R and MPS-H Obtained Through Joint Principal Components Analysis with Varimax Rotation

Scale and Item No	Factor 1	Factor 2
MPS-H 17	**.78**	
MPS-H 28	**.71**	
MPS-H 40	**.70**	
MPS-H 32	**.70**	
MPS-H 14	**.69**	
APS-R 12	**.66**	
APS-R 14	**.66**	
MPS-H 15	**.66**	
MPS-H 42	**.66**	
MPS-H 36	**.64**	
MPS-H 6	**.62**	
MPS-H 8	**.61**	
APS-R 8	**.61**	
MPS-H 1	**.58**	
APS-R 18	**.56**	
MPS-H 12	**.55**	
APS-R 1	**.49**	
MPS-H 20	**.44**	.41
APS-R 5	**.42**	
MPS-H 35	**.40**	.38
MPS-H 37	**.35**	
MPS-H 34	**.30**	
MPS-H 30		
APS-R 16		**.76**
APS-R 21		**.74**
APS-R 23		**.68**
APS-R 20		**.66**
MPS-H 33		**.66**
APS-R 9		**.65**
APS-R 15		**.62**
MPS-H 5		**.60**
APS-R 19		**.58**
APS-R 17		**.52**
MPS-H 25		**.50**
MPS-H 41		**.50**
MPS-H 13		**.49**
MPS-H 39		**.47**
MPS-H 18	.46	**.47**
APS-R 6	.36	**.46**
APS-R 3		**.46**
APS-R 11	.39	**.45**
MPS-H 21		**.45**
MPS-H 23		**.43**
MPS-H 31		**.43**
MPS-H 11	.34	**.36**
MPS-H 44		**.34**
Eigenvalues	9.04	7.83
Pct. of Variance	19.24	16.65

As can be seen from the table, findings demonstrated two factors with eigenvalues 9.04 and 7.83 explaining 35.89 % of the variance. The inspection of factor loadings indicated that although there were some crossloaded items (APSR6, APSR11, MPS11, MPS18, MPS20, MPS35) all of the items of the Standards subscale of APS-R and Self-oriented perfectionism subscale of the MPS-H were loaded on the first factor which is defined as adaptive perfectionism and all of the items of the Discrepancy subscale of APS-R and Socially-prescribed perfectionism subscale of MPS-H were loaded under the second factor which indicated the maladaptive perfectionism.

The subscale intercorrelations of APS-R and MPS-H were identified by computing Pearson correlation coefficient and results were presented in Table 3.12.

Table 3.12. Correlation Matrix of the Turkish version of the APS-R and MPS-H Subscales

	Order	Standards	Discrepancy
Self-oriented perfectionism	.32**	.70**	.39**
Other-oriented perfectionism	.12	.26**	.21**
Socially-prescribed perfectionism	.29**	.27**	.55**

**p < 0.01

As can be seen from the table, Standards subscale of APS-R was significantly correlated with Self-oriented, Other-oriented and Socially Prescribed Perfectionism subscales of MPS-H. Order subscale of APS-R was significantly correlated with Self-oriented and Socially-prescribed perfectionism and Discrepancy subscale of APS-R was significantly correlated with Self-oriented, Other-oriented and Socially-prescribed perfectionism subscales.

The above procedure was repeated with Frost et al.'s Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale (MPS-F; see Appendix C). The MPS-F (Frost et al, 1990) is a 35-item questionnaire designed to measure perfectionism. It consists of six subscales which are concern over mistakes, doubts about action, personal standards, parental

expectations, parental criticism and organization. It was translated into Turkish by Özbay and Mısırlı-Taşdemir (2003).

A joint principal component analysis was conducted and subscale intercorrelations were inspected to examine convergent and discriminant validity of Turkish version of the APS-R with a sample of 97 students. In this analysis, Order subscale of APS-R and Organization subscale of the MPS-F were not included since these subscales were not used to differentiate adaptive and maladaptive subtypes of perfectionism. A two-factor model representing adaptive and maladaptive perfectionism was tested with varimax rotation. In this model, APS-R's Standards subscale and MPS-F's Personal Standards subscale were defined as adaptive perfectionism and APS-R's Discrepancy subscale and MPS-F's Concern over Mistakes, Parent Expectations, Parental Criticism and Doubting of Actions were defined as maladaptive perfectionism. Results were presented in Table 3.13.

Table 3.13. Factor Loadings of the Items of APS-R and MPS-F Obtained Through Joint Principal Components Analysis with Varimax Rotation

Scale &Item No	Factor 1	Factor 2
APS-R 20	.66	
MPS-F 21	.66	
MPS-F 32	.63	
MPS-F 35	.62	
MPS-F 34	.61	
MPS-F 22	.61	
APS-R 16	.61	
APS-R 17	.61	
APS-R 21	.60	
MPS-F 23	.59	
MPS-F 25	.55	
APS-R 9	.51	
APS-R 15	.51	
MPS-F 33	.51	
APS-R 11	.51	.44
MPS-F 15	.49	
MPS-F 28	.48	
APS-R 23	.46	
APS-R 19	.46	
APS-R 1	-.45	
MPS-F 5	.39	
MPS-F 17	.38	
MPS-F 16	-.38	.31
MPS-F 26	.36	
MPS-F 24	.34	
MPS-F 3	.33	
APS-R 12		.76
APS-R 14		.71
MPS-F 19		.66
MPS-F 12		.65
MPS-F 30		.64
MPS-F 4	.39	.63
MPS-F 6		.61
MPS-F 9		.58
MPS-F 13		.57
MPS-F 18		.55
APS-R 18		.54
APS-R 6	.36	.49
MPS-F 1		.47
MPS-F 14		.46
APS-R 5		.46
APS-R 8		.44
MPS-F 10		.43
MPS-F 20	.37	.40
MPS-F 11		.40
Eigenvalues	**8.26**	**7.24**
Pct. of Variance	**17.96**	**15.74**

As can be seen from the table, findings demonstrated two factors with eigenvalues 8.26 and 7.24 explaining 33.70 % of the variance. The inspection of factor loadings indicated that the items of Discrepancy subscale of APS-R, all items of Parental Criticism and Doubting of Actions subscales of MPS-F, 2 items from Parent Expectations subscale of MPS-F and 3 items of Concern over Mistakes subscale of MPS-F were loaded under the first factor which indicated the maladaptive perfectionism. On the other hand, adaptive perfectionism factor was not clearly identified. Although all items of Standards subscale of APS-R and five of the six items of Personal Standards of MPS-F were loaded under this factor, MPS-F's six items of Concern over Mistakes, and three items of Parent Expectations which are defined as maladaptive, were also loaded on the second factor.

The subscale intercorrelations of APS-R and MPS-F were identified by computing Pearson correlation coefficient and results were presented in Table 3.14.

Table 3.14. Correlation Matrix of the Turkish Version of the APS-R and MPS-F Subscales

	Order	Standards	Discrepancy
Organization	.78**	.16	-.00
Concern over mistakes	.16	.30**	.58**
Personal Standards	.16	.58**	.28**
Parent Expectations	-.00	.19	.28**
Parental Criticism	-.10	-.08	.44**
Doubting of Actions	.07	-.03	.62**

**p < .01

As can be seen from the table, Standards subscale of APS-R was significantly correlated with Concern over Mistakes and Personal Standards subscales of MPS-F. Order subscale of APS-R was significantly and strongly correlated with Organization subscale and Discrepancy subscale of APS-R was significantly correlated with Concern over Mistakes, Personal Standards, Parental Expectations, Parental Criticism and Doubts about Action subscales of MPS-F.

3.2.1.2.5. Criterion-Related Validity of the Turkish Version of the Almost Perfect Scale-Revised

The strength of the associations between APS-R subscales and indicators of adjustment and well-being were examined in order to test the criterion-related validity of the Turkish version of the APS-R with a sample of 173 students. College Adjustment Self-Efficacy Scale (CASES; see Appendix D) was selected considering the research results demonstrating an association between perfectionism and college adjustment (Rice & Dellwo, 2002; Hood et al., 2002). CASES (Hirose, Wada, & Watanabe, 1999) is a 21-item, 5-point Likert scale, measuring the degree of confidence in the skills necessary for college adjustment. CASES has three subscales which are Judgmental ability based on objective information, Self-controlled persistence of activity and Self-adjustment in human relations. CASES was translated into Turkish by Çelik-Örücü (2005). Brief Symptom Inventory (BSI; see Appendix E) was also selected as a criteria considering that maladaptive perfectionism is related with various psychological symptoms (Ashby, Kottman, & Schoen, 1998; Enns & Cox, 1999; Hewitt, Flett, & Turnbull-Donovan, 1992; Saboonchi & Lundh, 2003; Scheweitzer & Hamilton, 2002). BSI is a 53-item, five-point, short form of the Symptom Checklist-90. It is designed to assess nine symptom constructs (somatization, obsessive-compulsive behavior, interpersonal sensitivity, depression, anxiety, hostility, phobic anxiety, paranoid ideation and psychoticism) and yields three indices of general adjustment. BSI was translated into Turkish by Şahin and Durak (1994).

Pearson Correlation Coefficients were computed to determine the relationship between Turkish version of the APS-R, CASES and BSI. The correlations between the Turkish version of the APS-R and CASES were presented in Table 3.15.

Table 3.15. Correlation Matrix of the Turkish Version of the APS-R and CASES Subscales

	Standards	Discrepancy	Order
Judgmental Ability	.42**	-.08	.20**
Persistence of Activity	.54**	-.07	.46**
Human Relations	.32**	-.07	.13

**p < 0.01

As can be seen from the table, it was found that Standards subscale was significantly correlated with all CASES subscales (Judgmental ability based on objective information, Self-controlled persistence of activity and Self-adjustment in human relations) and Order subscale had significant correlations with Judgmental ability based on objective information and Self-controlled persistence of activity subscales. On the other hand, Discrepancy subscale was not significantly correlated with any CASES subscales.

The correlations between the Turkish version of the APS-R and BSI were presented in Table 3.16.

Table 3.16. Correlation Matrix of the Turkish Version of the APS-R and BSI Subscales

	Standards	Discrepancy	Order
Somatization	-.01	.37**	.13
Obsessive-compulsive	.02	.50**	.01
Interpersonal Sensitivity	-.05	.47**	.06
Depression	-.08	.45**	.04
Anxiety	-.03	.43**	-.01
Hostility	.00	.39**	.05
Phobic Anxiety	-.06	.43**	.05
Paranoid Ideation	.10	.47**	.07
Psychoticisim	.05	.51**	.10

**p < 0.01

As can be seen from the table, Standards and Order subscales of the Turkish version of the APS-R were not significantly correlated with any BSI subscales whereas Discrepancy subscale was significantly correlated with all symptom subscales of BSI (somatization, obsessive-compulsive behavior, interpersonal sensitivity, depression, anxiety, hostility, phobic anxiety, paranoid ideation and psychoticism). These correlations ranged from .37 to .51.

3.2.1.2.6. Reliability of the Turkish Version of the Almost Perfect Scale-Revised

The reliability of the APS-R was assessed by two methods which are internal consistency and test-retest reliability. For internal consistency, coefficient alpha was computed with a sample of 408 students. It was found that the total scale had an alpha coefficient of .83, Standards Scale .78, Discrepancy Scale .85 and Order Scale .86. Test-retest correlation coefficients for two weeks were obtained for a subset of the sample (n = 40) and coefficients were .67 for Standards Scale, .73 for Discrepancy Scale and .86 for Order Scale. These findings demonstrated that the Turkish version of the Almost Perfect Scale-Revised had good internal consistency and stability.

To sum up, the findings of the initial study provided some evidence of the construct validity of the Turkish version of the Almost Perfect Scale-Revised based on both factor analytic results, correlations between APS-R and other perfectionism measures that suggest convergent and divergent validity and the relationship between APS-R subscales and positive and negative adjustment measures. After crossloaded items (13 and 22) were omitted, the results of exploratory factor analyses of APS-R were consistent with the original version. The confirmatory factor analysis results indicated that the goodness-of-fit statistics for two and three factor models were close to an acceptable fit. Cronbach alphas of the subscale scores ranged from .78 to .85 indicating acceptable levels of internal consistency. Test-retest correlation coefficients for two weeks ranged from .67 to .86 indicating stability of the subscale scores.

The subscale score intercorrelations indicated a moderate overlap between Standards and Order factor which was consistent with the findings in the literature.

The modest relationships found between Standards and Discrepancy subscale was not evident in most of the other studies.

The moderate to high correlations between APS-R subscales and other measures of perfectionism were in the expected directions. These correlations provided a theoretically meaningful pattern of findings that provide support for the underlying constructs of adaptive and maladaptive perfectionism.

The positive relationship between Standards and College Adjustment Self-Efficacy Scale subscales suggest that Standards subscale had a positive connotation. The positive associations between Discrepancy and BSI symptom scales were in the expected direction supporting the negativeness of the Discrepancy subscale.

In conclusion, all of the above findings supported the construct validity of the Turkish version of the Almost Perfect Scale-Revised. Turkish version of the APS-R seems to be an adequate measure of perfectionism and its subscales support the two-dimensional structure of perfectionism. The initial study provided preliminary support for the APS-R as a measure of both adaptive and maladaptive perfectionism.

3.2.2. Relationship Scales Questionnaire

Relationship Scales Questionnaire (RSQ; see Appendix F) is a self-report instrument which was developed by Griffin and Bartholomew (1994a). RSQ consists of 30-items to measure attachment styles on a 5-point Likert type scale. RSQ consisted of items of a variety of attachment subscales which are Hazan and Shaver's (1987) three-category attachment measure (secure, anxious and avoidant styles), Bartholomew and Horowitz's four-category attachment measure (secure, fearful, preoccupied and dismissing styles), Collins and Read's (1990) dependency, anxiety and closeness styles and Simpson, Rholes and Nelligan's (1992) avoidance and anxiety subscales. The items of the RSQ describe the feelings about close relationships and scored on a 5-point scale. Griffin and Bartholomew (1994a; 1994b) reported Cronbach alphas ranged between .41 to .70 for the four subscales of secure, fearful, preoccupied and dismissing attachment.

RSQ was translated into Turkish by Sümer and Güngör (1999a). Turkish version is scored on a 7-point scale which shows the extend to which each item is characteristic of the individual. The total scores of each of the four subscales are obtained by summing the scores of each item on the subscale and then dividing by the item number of that subscale. Also, it can be used as a categorical measure that is the highest subscale score indicates the individual's attachment style. Turkish RSQ has satisfactory level of reliability, stability and convergent validity for a Turkish university student sample. Cronbach alphas for the Turkish version of RSQ subscales ranged between .27 to .61. Similar findings related with the internal consistency reliability of the scale were reported in other Turkish studies (Çelik, 2004; Saya, 2006). Test-retest reliability coefficients were ranged between .54 and .78 (Sümer & Güngör, 1999a).

Cronbach alpha coefficients for the four subscales of RSQ were .23 for Secure attachment, .44 for Dismissing attachment, .35 for Preoccupied attachment and .63 for Fearful attachment in the present sample. Because of the low reliability of the four categories, the avoidance and anxiety scores were computed. Cronbach alpha coefficient for Avoidance was .64 and for Anxiety was .77. In the statistical analysis, anxiety and avoidance scores were used.

3.2.3. Big Five Inventory

Big Five Inventory (BFI; see Appendix G) was developed by John, Donahue, and Kentle (1991) to assess the five personality dimensions of neuroticism, extraversion, openness, agreeableness, and conscientiousness. It consists of 44 items with a 5-point scale. All items include short phrases that are based on prototypical trait adjectives related to each big five dimension.

John and Srivastava (1999) reported alpha reliabilities ranging from .75 to .90 for subscales and 3-month test-retest reliabilities changed between .80 and .90. Validity coefficients with the NEO-Five Factor Inventory were .91 for Extraversion, Agreeableness and Conscientiousness .88 for Neuroticism and .83 for Openness.

In Turkish, there are two different translations of Big Five Inventory. BFI was translated into Turkish by Sümer (as cited in Sümer, Lajunen, & Özkan, 2005) and

Alkan (2006). In the present study, the Alkan's translation was used. Alkan (2006) reported alpha reliabilities for the total scale .87 and Cronbach alphas ranging from .67 to .89 for the subscales.

For the present study, Cronbach alpha coefficients were .81 for Extraversion, .64 for Agreeableness, .79 for Conscientiousness, .80 for Neuroticism and .81 for Openness subscales.

3.2.4. Demographic Information Form

The demographic information form (see Appendix H) consisted of information about gender, age, level in the preparatory school and department.

3.3. Procedure

Before administering the instruments, necessary permissions were obtained from the Director of Preparatory School. Data for the pilot study were collected by the researcher in April 2005 and data for the main study were gathered in November 2005. All of the participants volunteered to participate in the study. Participants in the main study completed the Turkish version of the Almost Perfect Scale-Revised, Relationship Scales Questionnaire, Big Five Inventory and Demographic Information Form. Questionnaires were administrated to the students in their classrooms in a regular school day. Participants were guaranteed anonymity of their responses and confidentiality of the data. Completing the entire packet of instruments took approximately 30-35 minutes.

3.4. Analysis of Data

The statistical tests used to analyze the data were exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis, internal consistency estimates of reliability, test-retest estimate of reliability, Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient, multivariate analysis of variance and multiple regression analysis. All of the analyses were carried out by using the SPSS/PC 11.0 and LISREL 8.30 (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993) programs.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

In the first section of this chapter, descriptive statistics of the study variables were presented. The second section includes correlation matrix of the study variables. Third section presents the results of multivariate analysis of variance. Finally, in the fourth section results of multiple regression analyses were presented.

4.1. Descriptive Statistics of the Study Variables

The means and standard deviations of the variables used in the present study were presented in Table 4.1. These variables were Standards, Discrepancy and Order subscale scores of Almost Perfect Scale-Revised, Anxiety and Avoidance subscale scores of Relationship Scales Questionnaire and Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Openness and Neuroticism subscale scores of Big Five Inventory.

Table 4.1. Means and Standard Deviations for the Variables of the Study by Gender

Variables	Male (n = 377)		Female (n = 227)		Total (N = 604)	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Perfectionism						
Standards	31.45	6.42	32.63	5.82	31.89	6.22
Discrepancy	39.90	12.19	39.74	14.10	39.84	12.93
Order	17.94	6.08	18.22	5.78	18.04	5.97
Attachment						
Anxiety	15.92	6.41	13.93	6.62	15.17	6.56
Avoidance	28.34	6.49	29.34	7.80	28.72	7.03
Big Five Personality Traits						
Extraversion	3.23	0.68	3.43	0.77	3.31	0.72
Agreeableness	3.56	0.54	3.67	0.55	3.60	0.54
Conscientiousness	3.27	0.69	3.38	0.69	3.31	0.69
Openness	3.65	0.59	3.88	0.65	2.97	0.78
Neuroticism	2.84	0.73	3.18	0.80	3.74	0.62

As can be seen from the table, male participants' mean scores for the perfectionism subscales were ranged from 17.94 to 39.90 and female participants' mean scores for the perfectionism subscales were ranged from 18.22 to 39.74. Related with attachment dimensions, mean scores of males were 15.92 for anxiety and 28.34 for avoidance and mean scores of females were 13.93 and 29.34 respectively. Mean scores regarding big five personality traits were ranged between 2.84 to 3.65 for males and 3.18 to 3.88 for females.

4.2. Correlation Matrix of the Study Variables

In order to examine the relationship between variables used in the study, Pearson Correlation Coefficient was computed. The intercorrelation of the variables for the total sample was presented in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2. Correlation Matrix of the Study Variables for the Total Sample

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1.Standards	1									
2.Discrepancy	.20**									
3.Order	.31**	.16**								
4.Anxiety	.01	.40**	-.02							
5.Avoidance	-.02	.25**	.15**	.22**						
6.Extraversion	.19**	-.16**	-.14**	-.17**	-.38**					
7.Agreeableness	.05	-.05	.19**	-.05	-.31**	.10				
8.Conscientiousness	.41**	-.03	.64**	-.01	.09	.02	.24**			
9.Neuroticism	.02	.40**	.05	.41**	.22**	-.18**	-.12**	-.09		
10.Openness	.32**	-.09	-.02	-.09	-.11**	.37**	.05	.17**	-.04	1

** $p < 0.01$

As can be seen from the table, APS-R subscales, Standards, Discrepancy and Order had significant and positive correlations with each other with coefficients ranging from .16 to .31.

Standards subscale was not significantly correlated with Anxiety and Avoidance subscales. It was significantly and positively correlated with Extraversion ($r = .19$, $p < .01$), Conscientiousness ($r = .41$, $p < .01$) and Openness ($r = .32$, $p < .01$) personality traits.

Discrepancy subscale was significantly and positively correlated with Anxiety ($r = .40$, $p < .01$), Avoidance ($r = .25$, $p < .01$) and Neuroticism ($r = .40$, $p < .01$) subscales and negatively correlated with Extraversion subscale ($r = -.16$, $p < .01$).

Order subscale of the APS-R was significantly and positively correlated with Avoidance ($r = .15$, $p < .01$), Agreeableness ($r = .19$, $p < .01$) and Conscientiousness ($r = .64$, $p < .01$) subscales. Also, Order subscale was significantly and negatively correlated with Extraversion ($r = -.14$, $p < .01$) subscales.

4.3. Results of Multivariate Analysis of Variance

In order to determine if it is necessary to control for possible effects of gender on the variables of interest (Standards, Discrepancy and Order scores), a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted. The results indicated that there was no gender difference, Wilks' Lambda = .99, $p = .14$.

4.4. Results of Multiple Regression Analysis

In the present study, three separate standard multiple regression analysis were conducted to predict the effect of the independent variables (attachment dimensions measured as anxiety and avoidance and big five personality traits) on three dependent variables (Standards as a measure of adaptive perfectionism, Discrepancy as a measure of maladaptive perfectionism and Order).

Before conducting the analyses, major assumptions of the multiple regression analysis were checked out. First of all, univariate outliers were identified through

visual inspection of histogram and frequency distributions (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Additionally, multivariate outliers were analyzed by computing Mahalonobis distance. As a rule of thumb, the Mahalonobis distance should not exceed the critical chi-squared value with degrees of freedom equal to number of predictor variables at Alpha level = .001. In the present study, Mahalonobis distance should be less than $X^2 = 24.32$, $p < .001$. When Mahalonobis distances were checked, no outlying case was found. Secondly, assumptions of normality, linearity and multicollinearity were tested. In order to test normality, descriptive statistics including mean, standard deviation, skewness, kurtosis, visual inspection of P-P plots and histograms were conducted. Results of these statistics demonstrated that normality was not violated. In order to check linearity between the dependent and the independent variables, scatter plots were performed and found that linearity assumption was not violated. Finally, multicollinearity was tested. Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) suggested that a bivariate correlation of .70 or more indicates multicollinearity. Related with this, correlations among independent variables were checked and found no intercorrelation above .70. Additionally, tolerance and VIF values were used for indicators of multicollinearity. With the criteria of tolerance should not be less than .20 and VIF should not be higher than 4, multicollinearity was not detected for the present data.

The basic aim was to identify those attachment dimensions and big five personality traits predicting the dimensions of perfectionism. In these regression analyses, the predictor variables were Anxiety, Avoidance, Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Neuroticism and Openness. The criterion variables were Standards, Discrepancy and Order. Three separate multiple regression analyses were conducted for each perfectionism dimension.

In the first analysis, adaptive perfectionism as measured by the Standards subscale of the APS-R was the dependent variable. Table 4.3 displays the standardized regression coefficient (Beta), t, R^2 and adjusted R².

Table 4.3. Multiple Regression Analysis Results (Standards as Dependent)

Variables	β	t	Significance
Conscientiousness	.39	10.39***	.000
Openness	.22	5.73***	.000
Extraversion	.12	3.18**	.004

Multiple R = .50   R² = .25   Adjusted R² = .24
 ** p < .01, *** p < .001

As can be seen from the table, after all variables entered into the equation, Multiple R = .50, F (7, 596) = 28.92, p < .001. By analyzing Beta values, it was seen that in the overall model, Conscientiousness, Openness, and Extraversion significantly and positively predicted Standards scores with Beta values of   β = .39, p < .001, β = .22, p < .001 and β = .12, p < .01 respectively.

In the second regression analysis, Discrepancy (maladaptive perfectionism) was the criterion variable. Table 4.4 displays the standardized regression coefficient (Beta), t, R^2 and adjusted R².

Table 4.4. Multiple Regression Analysis Results (Discrepancy as Dependent)

Variables	β	t	Significance
Neuroticism	.26	6.57***	.000
Anxiety	.25	6.48***	.000
Avoidance	.15	3.47**	.001

Multiple R = .49   R² = .24   Adjusted R² = .23
** p < .01, *** p < .001

As can be seen from the table, after all variables entered into the equation, Multiple R = .49, F (7, 596) = 27.51, p < .001. In the overall model, Neuroticism, Anxiety and Avoidance were significantly and positively predicted Discrepancy scores with Beta values of   β = .26, p < .001, β = .25, p < .001 and β = .15, p < .01 respectively.

In the third regression analysis, Order was the criterion variable. Table 4.5 displays the standardized regression coefficient (Beta), t, R^2 and adjusted R².

Table 4.5. Multiple Regression Analysis Results (Order as Dependent)

Variables	β	t	Significance
Conscientiousness	.64	19.86***	.000
Neuroticism	.10	3.00**	.003
Extraversion	-.09	-2.64**	.009
Openness	-.09	-2.78**	.006
Multiple R = .68	R² = .46	Adjusted R² = .45	

** p < .01, *** p < .001

As can be seen from the table, after all variables entered into the equation, Multiple R = .68, F (7, 596) = 71.80, p < .001. In the overall model, Conscientiousness and Neuroticism significantly and positively predicted Order scores with Beta values of β = .64, p < .001 and β = .10, p < .01 respectively. On the other hand, Extraversion and Openness significantly and negatively predicted Order scores with Beta values of β = -.09, p < .01 and β = -.09, p < .01 respectively.

In sum, the first multiple regression analysis demonstrated that Conscientiousness, Openness and Extraversion appeared as significant predictors explaining 25 percent of the total variance of the Standards scores of the students. This means that students who scored higher on conscientiousness, openness and extraversion tended to score higher on standards. Second multiple regression analysis demonstrated that Neuroticism, Anxiety and Avoidance were significant predictors explaining 24 percent of the total variance of the Discrepancy scores of the students. This means that students who scored higher on neuroticism, anxiety and avoidance tended to score higher on discrepancy. Finally, third multiple regression analysis demonstrated that Conscientiousness, Neuroticism, Extraversion and Openness were significant predictors explaining 46 percent of the total variance of the Order scores of the students. This means that students who scored higher on conscientiousness and

neuroticism and students who scored lower on extraversion and openness tended to score higher on order.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In the present chapter, discussion regarding the findings obtained from the statistical analyses is presented. In the first section of the chapter, discussion related with the conceptualization of adaptive and maladaptive aspects of perfectionism was presented. The second part is devoted to the discussion of the predictors of adaptive and maladaptive perfectionism. Finally, implications of the present study and recommendations for future studies were presented.

5.1. Discussion

The main purpose of the study was to conceptualize the adaptive and maladaptive dimensions of perfectionism and to investigate the role of attachment and big five personality traits on these dimensions. In order to investigate the adaptive and maladaptive dimensions of perfectionism, Almost Perfect Scale-Revised was translated into Turkish and its reliability and validity were examined in a pilot study. Then, in the main study, multiple regression analyses were carried out. Dependent variables were the three dimensions of perfectionism (standards, discrepancy and order) and the predictor variables were two attachment dimensions (anxiety and avoidance) and big five personality traits (extraversion, conscientiousness, agreeableness, neuroticism and openness).

In the following sections, first the conceptualization of adaptive and maladaptive dimensions of perfectionism is presented. The discussions regarding predictors of perfectionism were seperately presented for standards, discrepancy and order dimensions.

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5.1.1. Discussion Regarding Conceptualization of Adaptive and Maladaptive Dimensions of Perfectionism

In order to conceptualize the adaptive and maladaptive dimensions of perfectionism Almost Perfect Scale-Revised was translated into Turkish and its reliability and validity were established in a pilot study. Careful work on translation and reliability and validity study were undertaken to maximize the conceptual equivalence. Results of exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses demonstrated that except two items, the principal factors obtained with the Turkish version of the APS-R were very similar to those found in the original version. There was consistent evidence from both exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses that the Discrepancy item 13 (I am never satisfied with my accomplishments) crossloads on Standards, and item 22 (I have a strong need to strive for excellence) which was conceptualized to measure high Standards crossloads on the Discrepancy factor.

The similarity of the factor structure can be accepted as an evidence for construct validity of the Turkish version. In other words, these findings suggested that Western constructs of high standards, discrepancy and order dimensions of perfectionism are also meaningfully distinguished by the Turkish university students. In addition, the descriptive statistics obtained in the present study were very similar to Suddarth and Slaney's (2001) findings. In a college student sample, they found that participants (n = 196) had a mean of 38.43 (SD = 6.79) for Standards, 43.20 (SD =14.04) for Discrepancy and 21.08 (SD = 4.80) for Order. The present sample's (n = 604) mean score for Standards was 31.89 (SD = 6.22), 39.84 (SD = 12.93) for Discrepancy and 18.04 (SD = 5.97) for Order.

However, when the intercorrelations between subscales were investigated, it was seen that there were some differences between the original and the Turkish version of the APS-R. Specifically, the significant, positive but low correlation between Standards and Discrepancy subscales (r = .20) obtained in the present study was not evident in the original study. This correlation indicates a slight overlap between Standards and Discrepancy factor. In a review, Slaney, Rice, and Ashby (2002) reported that in some Western studies a small but positive correlations were found between Standards and Discrepancy subscales but they were negligible.

In the factor analyses, two items, one from Standards and the other from Discrepancy subscales were omitted. When the nature of the items of Standards and Discrepancy subscales were investigated, it was seen that in Standards items there is no evaluative component whereas Discrepancy items have an affective component which implies worry, frustration and dissatisfaction experienced as a result of the discrepancy between performance and standards. Standards items reflect high personal standards without implying that the standards are rigid, excessive or problematic. A part from their conceptual differences, these two items might have some cultural connotations. The omitted Standards item "I have a strong need to strive for excellence" and Discepancy item "I am never satisfied with my accomplishments" might imply verbal expressions of a need to strive for excellence and overinvestment in one's personal success which may not be approved or emphasized strongly by the Turkish culture since such expressions are considered as a lack of modesty in collectivistic cultures. However, for the sample of the present study, there seem to be a dilemma for the METU students regarding being modest as a rewarded trait and being competitive for maintaining high performance attained in the University Entrance Examination in METU's education system.

Besides, as a more collectivist culture, in the Turkish Culture, personal standards may include attributions related with other people's expectations especially parents' expectations and external circumstances. Turkish parents tend to expect their children to be increasingly successful and excel their own past performance. A person from a collectivist culture may define his or her performance from others' expectations whereas an individual from an individualistic culture may define performance more from his or her own experiences of success and failure. That is, Turkish students may more strongly experience others' expectations of them when setting standards than students from more individualistic cultures. Kağıtçıbaşı (2002) supported this view and mentioned the concept of socially-oriented achievement motivation which refers to "a sense of achievement that is not individualistic but rather extends from the self to close others such as the family or the group. The key here is the related self". Phalet and Claeys (1993, as cited in Kağıtçıbaşı, 2002) found that for Belgian youth, future achievement had only an individual meaning whereas

for Turkish youth, it had the additional meaning of the family sharing the pride. Based on these arguments, it can be concluded that Turkish students, especially METU students with their heterogenious nature, i.e., coming from the different regions of the country, might experience some difficulties or confusions in setting

personal standards. They may be experiencing a dilemma regarding two psychological needs as noted by Crocker (2002) which are need for competency and need for relatedness.

Validity studies on Standards and Discrepancy subscales indicated that they were differently related with college adjustment self-efficacy and various psychological symptoms. More specifically, the positive relationship between Standards and College Adjustment Self Efficacy Scale's subscales and lack of significant relationship with Brief Symptom Inventory's symptom subscales suggest that Standards had a positive connotation. That is, setting high personal standards seems to be related with judgemental skills (competency to solve a problem accurately), self-control skills (competency to achieve a career through one's own will) and interpersonal skills (competency to work well with people) necessary to complete one's college career. On the other hand, the positive associations between Discrepancy and Brief Symptom Inventory's symptom scales and lack of association with the College Adjustment Self Efficacy Scale were in the expected direction supporting the maladaptive nature of the Discrepancy dimension. Moreover, in the pilot study, convergent and discriminant validity of the Turkish version of the APS-R was also demonstrated. The moderate to high correlations between APS-R subscales and two Multidimensional Perfectionism Scales and findings of joint principal component analysis were in the expected directions and provided support for the underlying dimensions of adaptive and maladaptive perfectionism. Principal components analysis indicated two factors that can be named as adaptive perfectionism and maladaptive perfectionism. More specifically, it was found that Discrepancy subscale of the Turkish version of the APS-R and Socially-prescribed perfectionism subscale of MPS-H were loaded under the same factor which indicates the maladaptive aspects of perfectionism. On the other hand, Standards subscale of APS-R and Self-oriented perfectionism subscale of MPS-H were loaded together

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which indicated adaptive perfectionism. Similarly, the joint factor analysis of the Turkish version of the APS-R and MPS-F indicated that Discrepancy subscale of APS-R, Parental Criticism and Doubting of Actions subscales of MPS-F were loaded together and formed maladaptive perfectionism. On the other hand, adaptive perfectionism factor was not clearly identified. Although all items of Standards subscale of APS-R and five of the six items of Personal Standards of MPS-F were loaded under this factor, MPS-F's six items of Concern over Mistakes, and three items of Parent Expectations which are defined as maladaptive, were also loaded on this factor. The finding that Standards items were related with concern over mistakes and parental expectations are consistent with the positive association between standards and discrepancy found in the present study.

Related with the reliability of the subscales, the Standards subscale had the lowest alpha value (.78) and lowest test-retest correlation (.67). Overall, the internal consistency of each subscale was adequate for research use and test-retest correlations for two-weeks indicated that subscales have an acceptable level of stability.

In sum, these findings demonstrated that although Discrepancy subscale which reflects maladaptive aspects of perfectionism seems to be provide more consistent results than Standards which reflects adaptive aspects of perfectionism, Turkish version of the APS-R appears to provide a reliable and valid assessment of both of these dimensions. This may imply that although there were slight differences, the concept of adaptive and maladaptive perfectionism reflects similar meanings for the individuals in two cultures. Therefore, perfectionism can be similarly conceptualized and measured with this instrument.

The basic aim of the present study is to conceptualize adaptive and maladaptive dimensions of perfectionism by investigating the role of attachment and five-factor personality traits on these dimensions. More specifically, present study examined the predictive power of anxious and avoidant attachment and big five personality traits of Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Openness, and Neuroticism on Standards, Discrepancy and Order dimensions. Before testing the role of attachment and big five personality traits on perfectionism dimensions,

possible effects of gender on these dimensions were investigated by using multivariate analysis of variance. Results of the MANOVA indicated that there was no gender difference between male and female university students in terms of Standards, Discrepancy and Order scores. As noted by Chang, Watkins, and Banks (2004) gender is a neglected variable in perfectionism research. Additionally, existing empirical studies demonstrated conflicting findings regarding gender differences in perfectionism. That is in some studies gender differences were found related with perfectionism levels or in relation with perfectionism dimensions (Dinç, 2001; Hewitt, Flett, & Blankstein, 1991; Oral, 1999; Siegle & Schuler, 2000) but in other studies no gender differences were found (Scheweitzer & Hamilton, 2002).

In the following sections the predictors of adaptive and maladaptive perfectionism were discussed.

5.1.2. Discussion Regarding the Predictors of Adaptive Perfectionism

Many theorists in the perfectionism literature described excessively high personal standards as a basic feature of maladaptive perfectionism (Burns, 1980; Frost, Marten, Lahart, & Rosenblate, 1990; Hewitt & Flett, 1991; Patch, 1984; Shafran, Cooper, & Fairburn, 2002). However, some empirical research has not consistently supported an association between high standards and psychological difficulties (e.g., Castro & Rice, 2003; Nounopoulos, Ashby, & Gilman, 2006; Powers, Zuroff, & Topciu, 2004). Moreover, recent qualitative and cluster analytic studies (Alden, Bieling, & Wallace, 1994; Burns & Fedewa, 2005; Periasamy & Ashby, 2002; Rhéaume et al., 2000; Rice & Dellwo, 2002; Rice & Mirzadeh, 2000; Rice & Slaney, 2002) indicated that high standards are indicators of both adaptive and maladaptive perfectionism and other dimensions such as concern over mistakes, discrepancy between actual and ideal performance differentiated the clusters. Such findings lead to the differentiation of high personal standards from perceived discrepancy between standards and performance. According to Slaney et al. (2001) setting high standards for performance is a basic part of the definition of adaptive perfectionism and it is related with various positive outcomes.

Results of the multiple regression analysis demonstrated that Standards scores which reflects adaptive perfectionism significantly predicted by Conscientiousness, Openness and Extraversion subscales. The whole model explained 25 percent of the variance and the strongest contribution to the prediction of standards was made by Conscientiousness trait. Achievement striving, competence, dutifulness, following norms and rules, order, self-discipline and planning are elements of conscientiousness which are theoretically related with adaptive perfectionism as measured by high personal standards. Individuals with high standards try to achieve high levels of performance and they may be purposeful, planful, determined and hard working which are characteristics related with the conscientiousness trait. In support of this view, Mills and Blankstein (2000) found that adaptive perfectionism as measured by self-oriented perfectionism subscale was related with adaptive learning strategies in university students which are adaptive rehearsal, elaboration, organization, critical thinking, time and study environment management. In another study, Nounopoulos, Ashby, and Gilman (2006) found that APS-R Standards subscale was related with academic confidence and GPA. Various authors have theorized that positive aspects of perfectionism are related with personality trait of conscientiousness (Slade & Owens, 1998; Stumpf & Parker, 2000). The association between adaptive perfectionism as measured by Almost Perfect Scale's Standards subscale, Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale's (Frost et al., 1990) Organization and Personal Standards subscales and Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale's (Hewitt & Flett, 1991a) Self-oriented perfectionism subscale, and conscientiousness was demonstrated in many studies (Ashby, Slaney, & Mangine, 1996 as cited in Slaney et al., 2002; Campbell & Di Paula, 2002; Hill & McIntire, 1997; Stumpf & Parker, 2000).

Additionally, Standards subscale was found to be predicted by Openness and Extraversion. The association between Standards and Openness is not striking. Openness is related with the breadth, depth and complexity of mental and experiential life (John & Srivastava, 1999). It represents characteristics such as curiosity, fantasy, originality, imagination, appreciation for art and emotion (Costa and McCrae, 1992, as cited in Hill & McIntire, 1997). People high on openness to

experience personality trait may have a tendency to set high personal standards. In turn, setting high standards may help them to increase their capacities, resources and creativity in many areas of mental and experiential life. In support of this view, it was found that setting high standards is a characteristic of talented people such as academically gifted children (Siegle & Schuler, 2000) and elite athletes (Koivula, Hassmen, & Fallby, 2002).

The association between Standards and Extraversion is theoretically meaningful. Extraversion is related with energy, high activity, assertiveness, tendency to seek stimulation and company of others, and positive emotionality which is also found to be related with adaptive perfectionism. Researchers stated that high scores on extraversion are correlated with greater happiness and better adjustment (Costa & McCrae, 1992, as cited in Hill & McIntire, 1997). The findings of the present study also support this view indicating the adaptiveness of high personal standards.

When the findings related with attachment were considered, contrary to the expectation that high standards would be negatively associated with anxious and avoidant attachment, adaptive perfectionism as measured by Standards subscale was not predicted by any of the attachment dimensions. In support of this finding, Flett et al. (2001, cited in Flett & Hewitt, 2002) found that self-oriented perfectionism which is considered as adaptive was not associated with attachment style measure. As stated by Mikulincer et al. (2001) attachment security is related with confidence in one's skills, the ability to deal with stress, optimism, self-efficacy and less preoccupation with self-worth issues which are characteristics expected to be related with adaptive perfectionism. The core cognitive components of attachment security are positive working models of self and others. In existing studies secure attachment was found to be related with adaptive perfectionism (Andersson & Perris, 2000; Rice & Mirzadeh, 2000) but these studies conceptualized attachment differently; that is, they measured attachment to parents. On the other hand, in the present study, adult attachment conceptualization was used because it was thought that conceptualizing attachment using adult attachment styles may help to differentiate dimensions of perfectionism. Lack of an association between adaptive perfectionism and

attachment may be related with the instrument used in the present study. Attachment instrument used in the present study conceptualized attachment in the context of current close relationships and consists of items of a variety of attachment subscales developed by different researchers. Because of the low reliability of four category attachment styles, scores for two dimensions of anxiety and avoidance were used in the statistical analysis. Review of recent literature also indicated the use of underlying dimensions of anxiety and avoidance for the measurement of adult attachment (Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994; Kurdek, 2002). In a study using measures of anxiety and avoidance dimensions of adult attachment, Wei et al. (2004) found that maladaptive perfectionism as measured by APS-R Discrepancy scale was significantly and positively related with attachment anxiety and avoidance. With a later longitudinal study, these researchers concluded that current levels of attachment anxiety and avoidance appear to influence the tendency toward maladaptive perfectionism in the future (Wei et al., 2006). However, these researchers included only maladaptive perfectionism in their study.

To sum up, adaptive perfectionism as measured by Standards found to be predicted only by three big five traits which are Conscientiousness, Openness and Extraversion and seems to imply both self-related and interpersonal nature. Thus, it can be concluded that adaptive perfectionism seems to be a personality characteristic related with task orientation, achievement motivation, competence, extraversion, positive emotionality, creativity and productiveness.

5.1.3. Discussion Regarding the Predictors of Maladaptive Perfectionism

The negative aspect of perfectionism is related with the concept of discrepancy which is defined as the perceived discrepancy or difference between the individual's personal standards and his or her actual performance and distress experienced as a result of this discrepancy (Slaney et al., 2001).

Maladaptive perfectionism as measured by Discrepancy subscale was predicted by Neuroticism, Anxious and Avoidant attachment. All of these variables explained 24 percent of the variance in Discrepancy scores. The strongest predictor was neuroticism which is related with easily experiencing negative emotions such as

anxiety, hostility, depression, impulsiveness and vulnerability. The association between discrepancy and neuroticism imply that when neuroticism is high, individuals tend to perceive more discrepancy between their actual and ideal performance and dissatisfied with their achievements. There has been empirical support for this finding. Findings of various studies demonstrated that maladaptive perfectionism as measured by Discrepancy subscale of APS-R, concern over mistakes and doubts about action subscales of MPS (Frost et al., 1990) or socially-prescribed perfectionism of MPS (Hewitt & Flett, 1991a) was associated with neuroticism (Ashby, Slaney & Mangine, 1996, as cited in Slaney et al., 2002; Campbell & Di Paula, 2002; Hill & McIntire, 1997; Stumpf & Parker, 2000). Studies investigating facets of neuroticism indicated that maladaptive perfectionism is particularly associated with depression facet which reflects a tendency toward guilt, sadness, hopelessness, discouragement and loneliness. Although the big five measure used in the present study, Big Five Inventory, did not include specific facets, when items of neuroticism subscale are examined it was seen that they reflect feelings of depression and anxiety, sadness and ineffective coping with stress. Powers et al. (2004) found that self-critical perfectionism which is regarded as a maladaptive dimension of perfectionism was an important predictor of depressive symptoms. The association between maladaptive perfectionism and depression, anxiety, ineffective coping with stress which was found in various studies (Blatt, 1995; Enns & Cox, 1999; Kawamura et al., 2001) provide a strong support for the findings of the present study.

The results of the multiple regression analysis on Discrepancy also indicated that the Discrepancy subscale was predicted by attachment anxiety and avoidance. Discrepancy was found to be significantly and positively correlated with attachment anxiety and avoidance. Attachment anxiety and avoidance implies negative self view and negative view of others. These findings were consistent with the theoretical and empirical literature supporting the association between maladaptive perfectionism and insecure attachment. Hollander (1965, as cited in Greenspon, 2000) stated that excessive striving for perfection is a common response to a low self-worth. He proposed that perfectionism is motivated both by an effort to create a better self-

image and to obtain approval of other people. Similarly, Greenspon (2000) stated that perfectionist individuals try to do things perfectly, not for the joy of accomplishment, but because they hope finally to find love, or to be accepted as a person. Rice, Lopez, and Vergara (2005) defined maladaptive perfectionism as an internalized set of performance-related beliefs that reflects the internalization of expectations related with personal worthiness and the availability and responsiveness of significant others. In empirical research, maladaptive perfectionism was found to be related with avoidant attachment, ambivalent attachment styles, fear of abandonment, need for approval and relationship preoccupation (Andersson & Perris, 2000; Brennan & Shaver, 1995; Rice, Lopez, & Vergara, 2005; Wei et al., 2004; 2006).

The association between discrepancy and attachment anxiety and avoidance may imply that some individuals reported having maladaptive perfectionism may have negative working model of others as indicated by their avoidant attachment style and may be fearful of negative reactions from others and tend to avoid close relationships. They may believe that they must reach high levels of achievement and autonomy to feel good about themselves and to obtain significant others' love and approval. Rice et al. (2005) stated that maladaptive perfectionism may derive from and be maintained by internalized beliefs of significant others are critical and insufficiently valuing one's accomplishments. They noted that maladaptive perfectionism is related with the effort to diminish internalized self-criticism and increase self-approval through preoccupation with performance. In support of this view, Mills and Blankstein (2000) found that socially-prescribed perfectionists, which is considered as having maladaptive perfectionism, demonstrated motivation for recognition of others, decreased likelihood of help-seeking, test anxiety and non-use of adaptive learning strategies. Newswald-McCalip (1995) stated that insecurity of attachment implies a negative view of exploration and challenge, not seeking help when needed and not believing help will be forthcoming when requested. Related with this, the association between discrepancy and attachment anxiety may imply that individual experiences anxiety when faced with challenge or need to explore because of a negative view of self. On the other hand, the association between

discrepancy and attachment avoidance may imply that individual has no confidence that help is forthcoming and attempts to be emotionally self-sufficient because of the expectancy to be ignored by others. In support of this view, Lopez (2001) stated that attachment anxiety and avoidance are associated with high levels of self-concealment which means a predisposition to conceal personal information from others that one perceives as negative. This is a characteristic of maladaptive perfectionism stated by many theorists (Burns, 1980; Flett & Hewitt, 2002; Frost et al., 1995).

To sum up, high self-criticism, unwillingness to self-disclose in relationships, negative self view and perception of others as less supportive and unreliable and emotional withdrawal from relationships seems to be characteristics of maladaptive perfectionism as indicated by attachment anxiety and avoidance. The association between discrepancy and attachment might imply that discrepancy can be a more interpersonal concept than standards. That is, it seems to represent at least in part an internalization of early experiences with significant others which persist in the form of working models. Maladaptive perfectionism may include significant others' performance expectations and concern about criticism from these people. It is possible that, the slightest negative feedback from other people can be regarded as evidence for discrepancy. Rice et al. (2005) stated that maladaptive perfectionists anticipate that any performance that falls short of their own and others' high standards is not good enough to maintain self-esteem and will result in criticism and disapproval. Therefore, development of maladaptive perfectionism seems to be related with beliefs such as "If I am perfect, others will like me".

Overall, the positive association between maladaptive perfectionism, attachment anxiety and avoidance and neuroticism indicates that individuals with neurotic personality characteristics and insecure attachment orientation experience greater distress related with the perceived discrepancy between actual performance and high personal standards. This perceived discrepancy in turn may lead to lowered self-esteem, tendency to be more fearful of assuming new life changes, excessive concern over mistakes and high levels of negative affect such as anxiety.

5.1.4. Discussion Regarding the Predictors of Order

In the perfectionism literature, concept of order, organization is not defined as a core dimension of perfectionism but rather defined as a related dimension (Frost, Marten, Lahart, & Rosenblate, 1991; Slaney, Rice & Ashby, 2002). Originally Order subscale of the APS-R was developed to reflect adaptive aspects of perfectionism but later studies using this scale indicated inconsistent results; that is, Order did not meaningfully differentiated adaptive and maladaptive perfectionists. Some studies included it as an adaptive aspect of perfectionism but others did not use it (for a review see Slaney, Rice, & Ashby, 2002). The authors of the Almost Perfect Scale-Revised stated that further research is needed to understand the importance or lack of importance of this variable in the study of perfectionism (Slaney et al., 2001). In the present study, Order factor was investigated in order to understand whether it reflects a positive or a negative meaning.

In the pilot study, it was found that Order subscale was significantly correlated with Standards subscale and not correlated with Discrepancy subscale which is consistent with the theoretical expectations and with findings of the Slaney et al. (2001). However, in the main study, a small but significant and positive relationship was found between Order and Discrepancy subscales which is contrary to the findings in the literature (for a review see Slaney, Rice, & Ashby, 2002).

When predictors of Order were investigated, it was found that Conscientiousness, Neuroticism, Extraversion and Openness predicted Order scores. All of these variables explained 46 percent of the variance in Order scores. The strongest predictor of Order scores was conscientiousness which is a theoretically meaningful finding. Since conscientiousness reflects perseverance, self-discipline, order, acting dutifully, organizing and prioritizing tasks, it is expected to be related with Order which emphasizes being neat and orderly. This finding can be thought as an evidence for positive aspects of Order dimension. On the other hand, Order score was found to be inversely related with extraversion and openness traits which imply energy, assertiveness, positive emotionality, creativity, imagination. More importantly, the association between order and neuroticism indicates that this dimension might have negative aspects.

To sum up, although order seems to be mostly a positive trait regarding the strong association with conscientiousness which indicates self-discipline, planfulness and productiveness, it is possible that strictly emphasizing being neat and orderly is related with low creativity, imagination, positive emotionality and may cause some distress. Therefore, it can be concluded that the present findings related with Order was supported by the findings of Slaney, Rice, and Ashby (2002) which indicated that although Order scale seems to measure normal orderliness not related with obsessive-compulsive features of personality, additional research is needed.

5.2. Conclusion

To conclude, multiple regression analysis indicated that the subscales of the Turkish version of the APS-R demonstrated different patterns of relations with different attachment and big five personality dimensions. The most powerful predictors of both adaptive and maladaptive perfectionism were big five traits, specifically conscientiousness for adaptive perfectionism and neuroticism for maladaptive perfectionism. Findings may imply that the defining features of adaptive perfectionism as measured by high personal standards are conscientiousness, openness and extraversion whereas the defining features of maladaptive perfectionism as measured by discrepancy between standards and performance are neuroticism, attachment anxiety and avoidance. The findings related with Order subscale are not very clear since some of the findings imply that it represents positive aspects of perfectionism and others indicate that it may be negative.

In terms of Standards and Order, attachment dimensions did not reveal any information whereas they provided a better understanding related with the nature of the maladaptive perfectionism as measured by the Discrepancy subscale. The positive associations between maladaptive perfectionism and insecure attachment may imply that self-evaluation in maladaptive perfectionism seems to depend on acceptance by others rather than simply on high standards or achievement. Discrepancy may reflect a strong need for approval and acceptance by setting standards for performance that are unrealistically high.

Overall, the findings supported that Discrepancy seems to provide a measure of maladaptive aspects of perfectionism and Standards reflects adaptive perfectionism. That means, the problematic part of perfectionism is not related with setting of high personal standards but an unwillingness to accept the fact that these standards will not be constantly achieved or doubts about the quality of one's achievements. Consistent with these findings, Rhéaume et al. (2000) found that adaptive perfectionists were more preoccupied about solving the problem whereas maladaptive perfectionists were more preoccupied about the quality of their performance. Adaptive perfectionists seem to be motivated by a need for achievement whereas maladaptive perfectionists may be motivated by a fear of failure. Therefore, setting high personal standards tend to be related with positive affect and self-efficacy whereas discrepancy might be a vulnerability factor for a wide range of adjustment problems.

Overall, these findings imply that adaptive and maladaptive perfectionism appear not to be opposite poles of a single trait, rather they are separate and largely independent factors. Therefore, it is important to distinguish high personal standards and an individual's perceived ability to meet these standards.

5.3. Implications

The present study may have several implications for both theory and practice. Results of the present study add to the growing literature on the adaptive and maladaptive dimensions of perfectionism by validation of a multidimensional instrument. Related with theory, the present study aimed to extend literature on perfectionism in several ways. First of all, the distinction between adaptive and maladaptive dimensions of perfectionism was included in the formulation of research questions. Secondly, integrating constructs related with attachment and personality to the study of perfectionism is important. Attachment and personality can be regarded as metaperspectives for issues in normal development. Attachment theory has important contributions since it uses contructs from cognitive, systemic and developmental perspectives. Literature on perfectionism appears to share common

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characteristics with attachment literature. For example, the development of insecure attachment and maladaptive perfectionism is theoretically influenced by the quality of parent-child relationships (Rice & Mirzadeh, 2000). Therefore, studying adaptive and maladaptive dimensions of perfectionism with attachment highlights the importance of interpersonal aspects of perfectionism.

There are also several practical implications of the present study. In counseling process, perfectionism should be viewed as a multidimensional construct with both positive and negative aspects. This implies that perfectionistic characteristics in clients should not be immediately labeled as maladaptive. Rather, counselors should assess both adaptive and maladaptive qualities and then use these qualities in the counseling process. Fostering adaptive aspects of perfectionism and lessening maladaptive aspects help students to improve their social and academic life in the university. In support of this view, Brown et al. (1999) found that higher scores on personal standards were positively correlated with GPA, numbers of hours spent studying, interactions with instructors regarding grades and elevated academic standards. On the other hand, concern over mistakes was not related with GPA, less strongly associated with elevated academic standards and correlated with negative attributions about later academic performance. Such findings have also implications for educators particularly in universities which emphasize a message of high standards to teachers and students. In such environments, especially first-year students with maladaptive perfectionism may experience some academic difficulties such as refuse to turn in assignments and nonparticipation in group activities because of high self-criticism and uncertainity about the correct response (Nounopoulos, Ashby, & Gilman, 2006). Therefore, they may experience less satisfaction with school experiences in general. Counselors working in universities should inform these students about the negative consequences of maladaptive perfectionism and more adaptive strategies that they could use. In counseling process, Discrepancy subscale of the Turkish version of the Almost Perfect Scale-Revised can be used to identify maladaptive perfectionists and to assess progress. Additionally, as a preventive strategy, identifying maladaptive perfectionistic chracteristics at the beginning of the university is of importance. Maladaptive perfectionists may be

resistant to enter counseling and they need psychoeducation and normalizing of interventions to overcome their resistance (Oliver et al., 2001). Various studies demonstrated that maladaptive perfectionism can have a widespread and negative effect on university students ranging from academic difficulties to psychopathology. Knowledge about possible impact of maladaptive perfectionism on adjustment and mechanisms that link maladaptive perfectionism to negative adjustment may lead to development of more comprehensive preventive strategies. For example, one of the mechanisms that link maladaptive perfectionism to adjustment problems may be insecure attachments. Interventions for maladaptive perfectionism may focus on relational dynamics by investigating attachment patterns and working model of self and others. As stated by Greenspon (2000) overcoming maladaptive perfectionism requires developing a new set of beliefs about oneself and developing new relationships with more affirming others. Therefore, counseling relationships may provide a secure base that helps maladaptive perfectionists to develop interpersonal competencies, more trusting pattern of relationships and more positive views of self. Additionally, considering that maladaptive perfectionism may have interpersonal aspects, designing group interventions to overcome negative effects of maladaptive perfectionism seems to be important.

The findings of the present study also demonstrated that adaptive and maladaptive perfectionism differ from each other in terms of underlying personality traits. Therefore, assessment of personality traits of perfectionists is important to determine the adaptive and maladaptive nature of clients' perfectionism.

University life involves regular evaluation of performance and emphasis on high standards of performance, achievement and order. During adolescence and young adulthood, social evaluations may become increasingly important. First year students exposed to such factors may experience considerable amounts of stress. Therefore, it is important to inform them about adaptive and maladaptive aspects of perfectionism. More specifically, information about setting high personal standards but able to tolerate when standards are not met is important. Also, it can be emphasized that being neat and orderly may help students to be less affected from negative effects of daily stres in the university life but strictly emphasizing the

importance of order may have negative consequences. Additionally, informing students about the seperation-individuation, attachment and identity development issues are especially important during the first year of the university when most freshmen live away from home for the first time.

To sum up, in the present study, a multidimensional model of perfectionism was emphasized by focusing on relational dynamics and personality traits which helps to adopt a more developmental perspective which can be used during important transition periods such as beginning to university.

5.4. Recommendations

Several suggestions can be made for future studies to gain a broder understanding of the adaptive and maladaptive dimensions of perfectionism. Future research should investigate other correlates of perfectionism in order to better understand the adaptive and maladaptive aspects. Numerous factors contribute to perfectionism and the heterogeneity exists among perfectionists in terms of both perfectionism dimensions and the factors that contributed to these dimensions. Therefore, other contributing factors such as parenting, self-esteem, self-acceptance, ongoing life experiences and social contexts should be investigated. Future research should also investigate whether these results also apply to other age groups.

Other type of data collection and analysis such as qualitative research, structural equation modelling may provide more clear and detailed information about meaning and development of perfectionism. Additionally, using cluster analysis to differentiate adaptive and maladaptive perfectionism may help to better understand the similarities and differences between these groups. Longitudinal studies are needed to examine the stability of perfectionism dimensions. Assessment of stability of perfectionism dimensions and perfectionism-adjustment associations over time is important in order to better understand whether perfectionism is a stable personality trait. Also, additional research is needed to determine cultural factors that affect nature and expression of perfectionism. It may be important to test adaptive and maladaptive dimensions of perfectionism in clinical samples. Comparison between

clinical and nonclinical samples in terms of adaptive and maladaptive perfectionism provides futher evidence regarding the characteristics of each of the dimensions. Additionally, in the present study, attachment was measured by asking information about current perceptions of attachment in close relationships. Future studies may use retrospective reports of attachment with parents in relation to perfectionism.

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APPENDIX A

ALMOST PERFECT SCALE – REVISED *

(OLUMLU-OLUMSUZ MÜKEMMELLİYETÇİLİK ÖLÇEĞİ)

Aşağıda kişilerin kendilerine, performanslarına ve diğer insanlara yönelik tutumlarına ilişkin çeşitli ifadeler yer almaktadır. Lütfen her bir ifadenin size ne kadar uyduğunu, size uygun rakama (X) işareti koyarak belirtiniz.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7						
Hiç Katılmıyorum						Tamamen Katılıyorum						
8.Kendimle ilgili yüksek beklentilerim var.						1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.Düzenli bir insanım.						1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.Hedeflerime ulaşamadığım için kendimi çoğu zaman engellenmiş hissederim.						1	2	3	4	5	6	7

* Ölçeğin tanıtımı amacıyla bazı örnek maddeler verilmiştir. Ölçeğin tamamına ulaşabilmek için araştırmacıyla iletişim sağlanabilir.
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MULTIDIMENSIONAL PERFECTIONISM SCALE
(ÇOK BOYUTLU MÜKEMMELLİYETÇİLİK ÖLÇEĞİ)

Aşağıda kişilik özellik ve davranışlarına ilişkin bir dizi ifade bulunmaktadır. Her ifadeyi okuduktan sonra o görüşe ne kadar katıldığınızı belirtiniz. Tamamen katılıyorsanız 7 rakamını, hiç katılmıyorsanız 1 rakamını işaretleyiniz. Bu iki görüş arasındaki düşüncelerinizi rakamlardan sizce en uygun olanına (X) işareti koyarak belirtiniz. Eğer bir ifade ile ilgili fikriniz yoksa ya da kararsızsanız 4 rakamını işaretleyiniz.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7						
Hiç Katılmıyorum						**Tamamen Katılıyorum**						
1. Bir iş üzerinde çalıştığımda iş kusursuz olana kadar rahatlayamam.						1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Başkalarını kolay pes ettikleri için eleştirmem.						1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Yakınlarımın başarılı olmaları gerekmez.						1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Arkadaşlarımı, en iyisinden azına razı oldukları için pek eleştirmem.						1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Başkalarının benden beklentilerini karşılamakta zorlanırım.						1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Amaçlarımdan bir tanesi yaptığım her şeyde mükemmel olmaktır.						1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Başkaları, yaptıkları her şeyin en iyisini yapmalıdırlar.						1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. İşlerimde asla mükemmelliği hedeflemem.						1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Çevremdekiler benim de hata yapabileceğimi kolayca kabullenirler.						1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Bir yakınımın, yapabileceğinin en iyisini yapmamış olması benim için önemli değildir.						1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Bir işi ne kadar iyi yaparsam çevremdekiler daha da iyisini yapmamı beklerler.						1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Mükemmel olma ihtiyacını çok az hissederim.						1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Yaptığım bir şey kusursuz değilse, çevremdekiler tarafından yetersiz bulunur.						1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Olabildiğim kadar mükemmel olmaya çalışırım.						1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Giriştiğim her işte mükemmel olmam çok önemlidir.						1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. Benim için önemli olan insanlardan beklentilerim yüksektir.						1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. Yaptığım her şeyde en iyi olmaya çalışırım.						1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. Çevremdekiler yaptığım her şeyde başarılı olmamı beklerler.						1	2	3	4	5	6	7

19.	Çevremdeki insanlar için çok yüksek standartlarım yoktur.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20.	Kendim için mükemmelden daha azını kabul edemem.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21.	Başkalarının benden hoşlanması için her konuda üstün başarı göstermem gerekmez.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22.	Kendilerini geliştirmek için uğraşmayan kişilere değer vermem.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23.	Yaptığım işte hata bulmak beni rahatsız eder.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24.	Arkadaşlarımdan çok şey beklemem.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25.	Benim için başarı, başkalarını memnun etmek için daha çok çalışmak anlamına gelir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26.	Birisinden bir iş yapmasını istersem, o işi mükemmel yapmasını beklerim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27.	Yakınlarımın hata yapmasına tahammül edemem.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28.	Hedeflerimi belirlemede mükemmelliyetçiyimdir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29.	Değer verdiğim kişiler beni hiçbir zaman hayal kırıklığına uğratmamalıdırlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30.	Başarısız olduğum zamanlar bile, başkaları yetersiz olduğumu düşünmezler.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31.	Başkalarının, benden çok şey beklediklerini düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32.	Her zaman yapabileceğimin en iyisini yapmaya çalışmalıyım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33.	Bana göstermeseler bile, hata yaptığım zaman diğer insanlar bana çok bozulurlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34.	Yaptığım her şeyde mükemmel olmak zorunda değilim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35.	Ailem benden mükemmel olmamı bekler.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36.	Kendime yüksek hedefler koymam.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37.	Annem ve babam hayatımın her alanında en başarılı olmamı pek beklemezler.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
38.	Sıradan insanlara değer veririm.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
39.	İnsanlar benden, mükemmelden aşağısını kabul etmezler.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
40.	Kendim için çok yüksek standartlar koyarım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
41.	İnsanlar benden, verebileceğimden fazlasını beklerler.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
42.	Okulda veya işte her zaman başarılı olmalıyım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
43.	Bir arkadaşımın, elinden gelenin en iyisini yapmaya çalışmaması benim için önemli değildir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
44.	Hata yapsam bile, etrafımdaki insanlar yetersiz ve beceriksiz olduğumu düşünmezler.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
45.	Çevremdekilerin, yaptıkları her şeyde üstün başarı göstermelerini pek beklemem.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

MULTIDIMENSIONAL PERFECTIONISM SCALE
(ÇOK BOYUTLU MÜKEMMELLİYETÇİLİK ÖLÇEĞİ)

Lütfen her bir ifadenin size ne kadar uyduğunu, size uygun rakama (X) işareti koyarak belirtiniz.

1	2	3	4	5			
Hiç Katılmıyorum				Tamamen Katılıyorum			

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Ebeveynlerim benim için yüksek standartlar belirlerler.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Düzen, plan benim için çok önemlidir.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Çocukken birşeyi mükemmel olarak gerçekleştiremediğimde cezalandırıldım.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Kendim için en yüksek standartları belirlemezsem, muhtemelen ikinci sınıf bir insan olurum.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Ebeveynlerim hatalarımı asla anlamaya çalışmadılar.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Yaptığım her şeyde tam anlamıyla yeterli olmak benim için çok önemlidir.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Düzenli, temiz bir insanım.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Düzenli bir insan olmaya gayret ederim.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Okulda (işte) başarısız olursam, kişi olarak da başarısızımdır.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Hata yaparsam sinirlenirim.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Ebeveynlerim her şeyde en iyi olmamı istemişlerdir.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Kendime çoğu insandan daha yüksek standartlar koyarım.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Eğer biri okulda (işte) bir işi benden daha iyi yaparsa, kendimi bütün işlerde başarısız hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Kısmen başarısız olmam, bütünüyle başarısız olmak kadar kötüdür.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Ailemde sadece mükemmel performans yeterince iyidir.	1	2	3	4	5

16. Bir amaca ulaşmada çabalarımı odaklamakta çok iyiyimdir.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Birşeyi çok dikkatli şekilde yapmış olsam bile, çoğu zaman yeterince doğru olmadığı hissine kapılırım.	1	2	3	4	5
18. Yaptığım şeylerde en iyisinden daha azını gerçekleştirdiğimde öfkelenirim.	1	2	3	4	5
19. Çok yüksek hedeflerim var.	1	2	3	4	5
20. Ebeveynlerim benden mükemmellik beklerler.	1	2	3	4	5
21. Eğer hata yaparsam, muhtemelen insanlar beni daha az düşüneceklerdir.	1	2	3	4	5
22. Asla ebeveynlerimin beklentilerini karşılayabildiğimi hissetmedim.	1	2	3	4	5
23. Diğer insanlar kadar iyi olamamam eksik biri olduğum anlamına gelir.	1	2	3	4	5
24. Diğer insanların kendilerine, benden daha düşük standartlar belirlediğini düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
25. Her zaman iyi olamazsam, insanlar bana saygı duymazlar.	1	2	3	4	5
26. Ebeveynlerim geleceğim konusunda daima benden daha çok beklentiye sahip olmuşlardır.	1	2	3	4	5
27. Düzenli ve temiz bir kişi olmaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
28. Daima her gün yaptığım basit şeylere karşı şüphelerim vardır.	1	2	3	4	5
29. Düzenlilik benim için çok önemlidir.	1	2	3	4	5
30. Günlük işlerimde kendimden birçok insanın gösterdiğinden daha yüksek bir performans beklerim.	1	2	3	4	5
31. Düzenli bir insanım.	1	2	3	4	5
32. Yaptığım şeyleri tekrar tekrar yinelediğim için işimde geri kalma eğilimindeyim.	1	2	3	4	5
33. Birşeyi doğru olarak yapmam uzun zamanımı alır.	1	2	3	4	5
34. Daha az hata yaparsam, daha çok insan beni sevecektir.	1	2	3	4	5
35. Hiçbir zaman ebeveynlerimin standartlarını karşılayabildiğimi düşünmedim.	1	2	3	4	5

COLLEGE ADJUSTMENT SELF-EFFICACY SCALE
(ÜNİVERSİTEYE UYUMDA KENDİNE YETERLİK ÖLÇEĞİ)

Aşağıda bulunan her bir cümlede ifade edilen durum için becerinize olan güven derecenizi değerlendirmeniz istenmektedir.

0	1	2	3	4				
Kendime hiç güvenmem				**Kendime çok güvenirim**				
1. Gerekli olduğunda iyi yargılama yapabilirim.	0	1	2	3	4
2. Mantıklı düşünebilirim.	0	1	2	3	4
3. Beklenmedik bir durumla (olayla) başa çıkabilirim.	0	1	2	3	4
4. Geniş gözlem yeteneği olan biriyim.	0	1	2	3	4
5. Değişik durumlara göre uygun davranabilirim.	0	1	2	3	4
6. Başkalarının ne söylemek istediğini anlayabilirim.	0	1	2	3	4
7. Olaylara geniş bir bakış açısıyla bakabilirim.	0	1	2	3	4
8. Bir iş benim için zor olsa bile bitirebilirim.	0	1	2	3	4
9. İyi olmadığım bir şeyin üstesinden gelebilirim.	0	1	2	3	4
10. Başarılı olmak için çaba gösterebilirim.	0	1	2	3	4
11. Her türlü zorluğa katlanabilirim.	0	1	2	3	4
12. Bir kere başarısız olsam bile yaptığım iş için çabalamaya devam ederim.	0	1	2	3	4
13. İşimi tamamlayıncaya kadar azimle devam edebilirim.	0	1	2	3	4
14. Planımı tam olarak yerine getirebilirim.	0	1	2	3	4
15. İlk kez tanıştığım insanlarla kısa sürede samimi olabilirim.	0	1	2	3	4
16. Yeni ortamlara göre kendimi ayarlayabilirim.	0	1	2	3	4
17. Bir şey yapmak için başkalarıyla işbirliği yapabilirim.	0	1	2	3	4
18. Farklı düşüncedeki biriyle uzlaşma konusunda çaba sarf ederim.	0	1	2	3	4
19. Kendimi bir başkasının yerine koyabilirim.	0	1	2	3	4
20. Bana yakın olan kişilere destek olurum.	0	1	2	3	4
21. Kendimi başkalarına açıkça ifade edebilirim.	0	1	2	3	4

BRIEF SYMPTOM INVENTORY
(KISA SEMPTOM ENVANTERİ)

Aşağıda insanların bazen yaşadıkları belirtilerin ve yakınmaların bir listesi verilmiştir. Listedeki her maddeyi lütfen dikkatle okuyunuz. Daha sonra sizde o belirtinin **Bugün dahil son bir haftadır ne kadar** varolduğunu belirtiniz

0	1	2	3	4				
Hiç yok	Biraz var	Orta derecede var	Epey var	Çok fazla var				
1. İçinizdeki sinirlilik ve titreme hali				0	1	2	3	4
2. Baygınlık, baş dönmesi				0	1	2	3	4
3. Bir başka kişinin sizin düşüncelerinizi kontrol edeceği fikri				0	1	2	3	4
4. Başınıza gelen sıkıntılardan dolayı başkalarının suçlu olduğu duygusu				0	1	2	3	4
5. Olayları hatırlamada güçlük				0	1	2	3	4
6. Çok kolayca kızıp öfkelenme				0	1	2	3	4
7. Göğüs (kalp) bölgesinde ağrılar				0	1	2	3	4
8. Meydanlık (açık) yerlerden korkma duygusu				0	1	2	3	4
9. Yaşamınıza son verme düşünceleri				0	1	2	3	4
10. İnsanların çoğuna güvenilmeyeceği hissi				0	1	2	3	4
11. İştahta bozukluklar				0	1	2	3	4
12. Hiçbir nedeni olmayan ani korkular				0	1	2	3	4
13. Kontrol edemediğiniz duygu patlamaları				0	1	2	3	4
14. Başka insanlarla beraberken bile yalnızlık hissetmek				0	1	2	3	4
15. İşleri bitirme konusunda kendini engellenmiş hissetmek				0	1	2	3	4
16. Yalnızlık hissetmek				0	1	2	3	4
17. Hüzünlü, kederli hissetmek				0	1	2	3	4
18. Hiçbirşeye ilgi duymamak				0	1	2	3	4
19. Ağlamaklı hissetmek				0	1	2	3	4
20. Kolayca incinebilme, kırılma				0	1	2	3	4
21. İnsanların sizi sevmediğine, kötü davrandığına inanmak				0	1	2	3	4
22. Kendini diğerlerinden daha aşağı görmek				0	1	2	3	4

23. Mide bozukluğu, bulantı	0	1	2	3	4
24. Diğerlerinin sizi gözlediği yada hakkınızda konuştuğu duygusu	0	1	2	3	4
25. Uykuya dalmada güçlük	0	1	2	3	4
26. Yaptığınız şeyleri tekrar tekrar doğru mu diye kontrol etmek	0	1	2	3	4
27. Karar vermede güçlükler	0	1	2	3	4
28. Otobüs, tren, metro gibi umumi vasıtalarla seyahatlerden korkmak	0	1	2	3	4
29. Nefes darlığı, nefessiz kalmak	0	1	2	3	4
30. Sıcak, soğuk basmaları	0	1	2	3	4
31. Sizi korkuttuğu için bazı eşya, yer ya da etkinliklerden uzak kalmaya çalışmak	0	1	2	3	4
32. Kafanızın bomboş kalması	0	1	2	3	4
33. Bedeninizin bazı bölgelerinde uyuşmalar, karıncalanmalar	0	1	2	3	4
34. Günahlarınız için cezalandırılmanız gerektiği	0	1	2	3	4
35. Gelecekle ilgili umutsuzluk duyguları	0	1	2	3	4
36. Konsantrasyonda (dikkati bir şey üzerine toplama) güçlük	0	1	2	3	4
37. Bedenin bazı bölgelerinde zayıflık, güçsüzlük hissi	0	1	2	3	4
38. Kendini gergin ve tedirgin hissetmek	0	1	2	3	4
39. Ölme ve ölüm üzerine düşünceler	0	1	2	3	4
40. Birini dövme, ona zara verme, yaralama isteği	0	1	2	3	4
41. Birşeyleri kırma, dökme isteği	0	1	2	3	4
42. Diğerlerinin yanındayken yanlış bir şeyler yapmamaya çalışma	0	1	2	3	4
43. Kalabalıklarda rahatsızlık duymak	0	1	2	3	4
44. Bir başka insana hiç yakınlık duymamak	0	1	2	3	4
45. Dehşet ve panik nöbetleri	0	1	2	3	4
46. Sık sık tartışmaya girmek	0	1	2	3	4
47. Yalnız bırakıldığında/kalındığında sinirlilik hissetmek	0	1	2	3	4
48. Başarılarınız için diğerlerinden yeterince takdir görmemek	0	1	2	3	4
49. Yerinde duramayacak kadar tedirgin hissetmek	0	1	2	3	4
50. Kendini değersiz görmek/değersizlik duyguları	0	1	2	3	4
51. Eğer izin verirseniz insanların sizi sömüreceği duygusu	0	1	2	3	4
52. Suçluluk duyguları	0	1	2	3	4
53. Aklınızda bir bozukluk olduğu fikri	0	1	2	3	4

RELATIONSHIP SCALES QUESTIONNAIRE
(İLİŞKİ ÖLÇEKLERİ ANKETİ)

Aşağıda yakın duygusal ilişkilerinizde kendinizi nasıl hissettiğinize ilişkin çeşitli ifadeler yer almaktadır. Yakın duygusal ilişkilerden kastedilen arkadaşlık, dostluk, romantik ilişkiler ve benzerleridir. Lütfen her bir ifadeyi bu tür ilişkilerinizi düşünerek okuyunuz ve her bir ifadenin sizi ne ölçüde tanımladığını size uygun olan rakamın üstüne (X) işareti koyarak değerlendiriniz.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7						
Beni hiç tanımlamıyor			**Beni kısmen tanımlıyor**			**Tamamıyla beni tanımlıyor**						
1. Başkalarına kolaylıkla güvenemem.						1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Kendimi bağımsız hissetmem benim için çok önemli.						1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Başkalarıyla kolaylıkla duygusal yakınlık kurarım.						1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Bir başka kişiyle tam anlamıyla kaynaşıp bütünleşmek isterim.						1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Başkalarıyla çok yakınlaşırsam incitileceğimden korkuyorum.						1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Başkalarıyla yakın duygusal ilişkilerim olmadığı sürece oldukça rahatım						1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. İhtiyacım olduğunda yardıma koşacakları konusunda başkalarına herzaman güvenebileceğimden emin değilim.						1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Başkalarıyla tam anlamıyla duygusal yakınlık kurmak istiyorum.						1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Yalnız kalmaktan korkarım.						1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Başkalarına rahatlıkla güvenip bağlanabilirim.						1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Çoğu zaman, romantik ilişkide olduğum insanların beni gerçekten sevmediği konusunda endişelenirim.						1	2	3	4	5	6	7

12. Başkalarına tamamıyla güvenmekte zorlanırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Başkalarının bana çok yakınlaşması beni endişelendirir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Duygusal yönden yakın ilişkilerim olsun isterim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Başkalarının bana dayanıp bel bağlaması konusunda oldukça rahatımdır	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. Başkalarının bana, benim onlara verdiğim kadar değer vermediğinden kaygılanırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. İhtiyacınız olduğunda hiç kimseyi yanınızda bulamazsınız.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. Başkalarıyla tam olarak kaynaşıp bütünleşme arzum bazen onları ürkütüp benden uzaklaştırıyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. Kendi kendime yettiğimi hissetmem benim için çok önemli.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. Birisi bana çok fazla yakınlaştığında rahatsızlık duyarım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. Romantik ilişkide olduğum insanların benimle kalmak istemeyeceklerinden korkarım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. Başkalarının bana bağlanmamalarını tercih ederim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. Terk edilmekten korkarım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. Başkalarıyla yakın olmak beni rahatsız eder.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. Başkalarının bana, benim istediğim kadar yakınlaşmakta gönülsüz olduklarını düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. Başkalarına bağlanmamayı tercih ederim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. İhtiyacım olduğunda insanları yanımda bulacağımı biliyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28. Başkaları beni kabul etmeyecek diye korkarım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29. Romantik ilişkide olduğum insanlar, genellikle onlarla, benim kendimi rahat hissettiğimden daha yakın olmamı isterler.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30. Başkalarıyla yakınlaşmayı nispeten kolay bulurum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

BIG FIVE INVENTORY
(BEŞ FAKTÖR ENVANTERİ)

Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadelerin sizi ne kadar tanımladığını belirtiniz.

1	2	3	4	5				
Hiç Katılmıyorum				Tamamen Katılıyorum				
1. Konuşkan				1	2	3	4	5
2. Başkalarının kusurunu bulmaya eğilimli				1	2	3	4	5
3. Bir işi eksiksiz yapan				1	2	3	4	5
4. Depresif ve hüzünlü				1	2	3	4	5
5. Orijinal, yeni fikirler üreten				1	2	3	4	5
6. Mesafeli				1	2	3	4	5
7. Yardımsever, bencil olmayan				1	2	3	4	5
8. Özensiz olabilen				1	2	3	4	5
9. Rahat, stresle iyi baş eden				1	2	3	4	5
10. Birçok farklı konuya meraklı				1	2	3	4	5
11. Enerji dolu				1	2	3	4	5
12. Başkalarıyla ağız dalaşı başlatan				1	2	3	4	5
13. Güvenilir bir çalışan				1	2	3	4	5
14. Gergin olabilen				1	2	3	4	5
15. Yaratıcı zekası olan, derin düşünen				1	2	3	4	5
16. Heyecan ve coşku yaratan				1	2	3	4	5
17. Bağışlayıcı bir yapıya sahip				1	2	3	4	5
18. Düzensiz olmaya eğilimli				1	2	3	4	5
19. Çok endişelenen				1	2	3	4	5

20. Hayal gücü zengin	1	2	3	4	5
21. Sessiz kalmaya eğilimi olan	1	2	3	4	5
22. İnsanlara genellikle güvenen	1	2	3	4	5
23. Tembelliğe meyilli	1	2	3	4	5
24. Duygusal açıdan dengeli, kolay kolay üzülmeyen	1	2	3	4	5
25. Yaratıcı	1	2	3	4	5
26. Girişken bir kişiliğe sahip	1	2	3	4	5
27. Soğuk ve kayıtsız olabilen	1	2	3	4	5
28. Bir işi bitirmeden bırakmayan	1	2	3	4	5
29. Duygusal iniş ve çıkışlar yaşayan	1	2	3	4	5
30. Sanatsal ve estetik deneyimlere değer veren	1	2	3	4	5
31. Bazen utangaç ve tutuk	1	2	3	4	5
32. Hemen hemen herkese karşı nazik ve düşünceli	1	2	3	4	5
33. İşleri etkin, verimli yapan	1	2	3	4	5
34. Gergin durumlarda sakin kalan	1	2	3	4	5
35. Rutin işler yapmayı tercih eden	1	2	3	4	5
36. Dışadönük, sosyal	1	2	3	4	5
37. Zaman zaman başkalarına karşı kabalaşan	1	2	3	4	5
38. Plan yapan ve onları uygulayan	1	2	3	4	5
39. Kolayca heyecanlanan	1	2	3	4	5
40. Düşünmekten ve fikirlerle oynamaktan hoşlanan	1	2	3	4	5
41. Sanatsal ilgileri az olan	1	2	3	4	5
42. Başkaları ile işbirliği yapmaktan hoşlanan	1	2	3	4	5
43. Dikkati kolay dağılan	1	2	3	4	5
44. Sanat, müzik ve edebiyat konusunda çok bilgili	1	2	3	4	5

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION FORM
(DEMOGRAFİK BİLGİ FORMU)

Sevgili Öğrenciler,

Bu çalışmada, öğrencilerin üniversite yaşamına uyumlarında etkili olduğu düşünülen bazı faktörler araştırılmaktadır. Sizden istenilen, ekteki anketleri aklınıza ilk gelen ve size en uygun olduğunu düşündüğünüz şekilde cevaplamanızdır. Anketlerden elde edilen sonuçlar toplu olarak değerlendirilecektir. Cevaplarınız yalnızca araştırma amacıyla kullanılacak ve kesinlikle gizli tutulacaktır. İçtenlikle vereceğiniz cevaplar için şimdiden teşekkür ederim.

Uzm. Psk. İ. Pınar Ulu

I. Cinsiyetiniz : [ ] Kadın [ ] Erkek
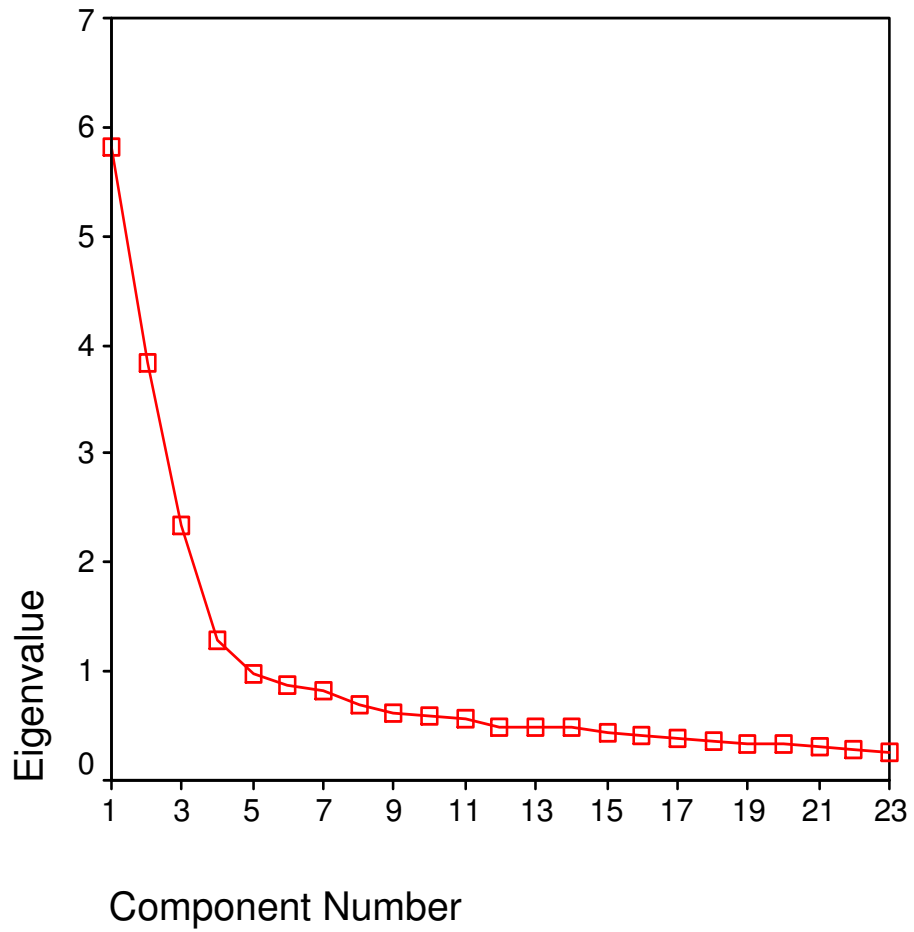
II. Yaşınız :_____

III. Bölümünüz :_____

IV. Hazırlıktaki Kurunuz:_____

**SCREE-PLOT FOR THE INITIAL SOLUTION OF THE TURKISH
VERSION OF THE ALMOST PERFECT SCALE-REVISED**

Scree Plot

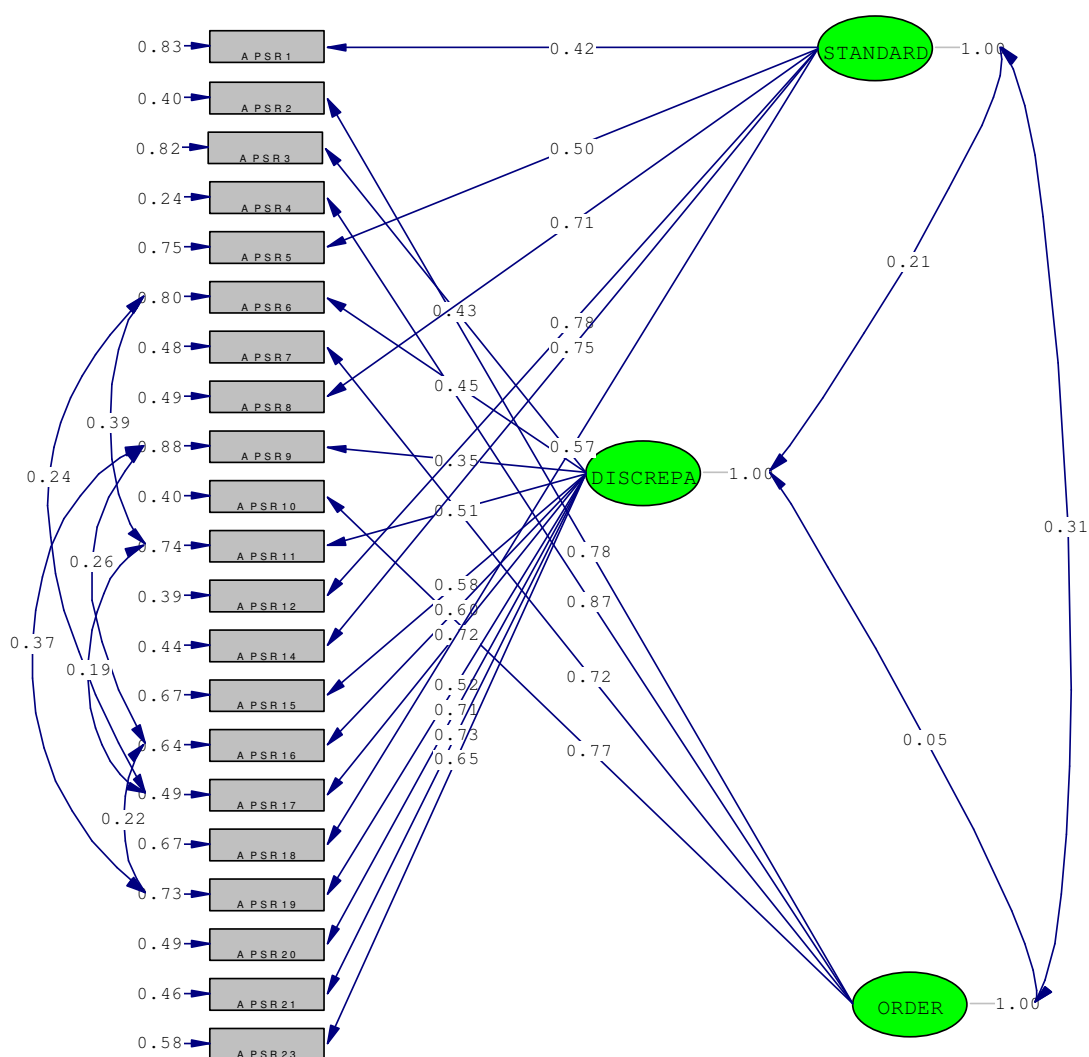**APPENDIX J**

**LISREL ESTIMATES OF PARAMETERS IN MEASUREMENT MODEL
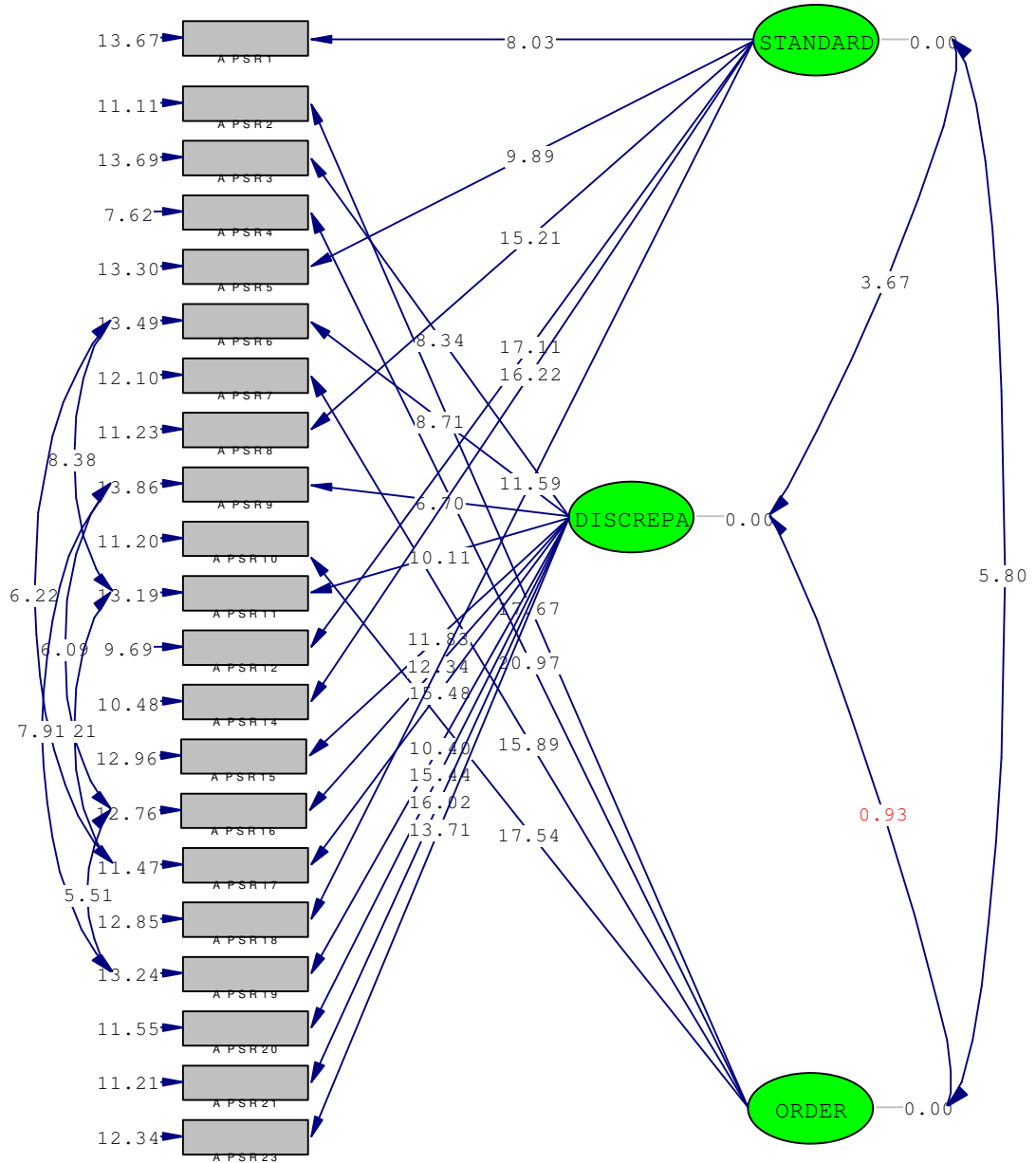WITH COEFFICIENTS IN STANDARDIZED AND T-VALUES**

(THREE-FACTOR MODEL)

J.1. LISREL Estimates of Parameters in Measurement Model with Coefficients in Standardized Values

Chi-Square=547.16, df=180, P-value=0.00000, RMSEA=0.071

J.2. LISREL Estimates of Parameters in Measurement Model with Coefficients in t-Values
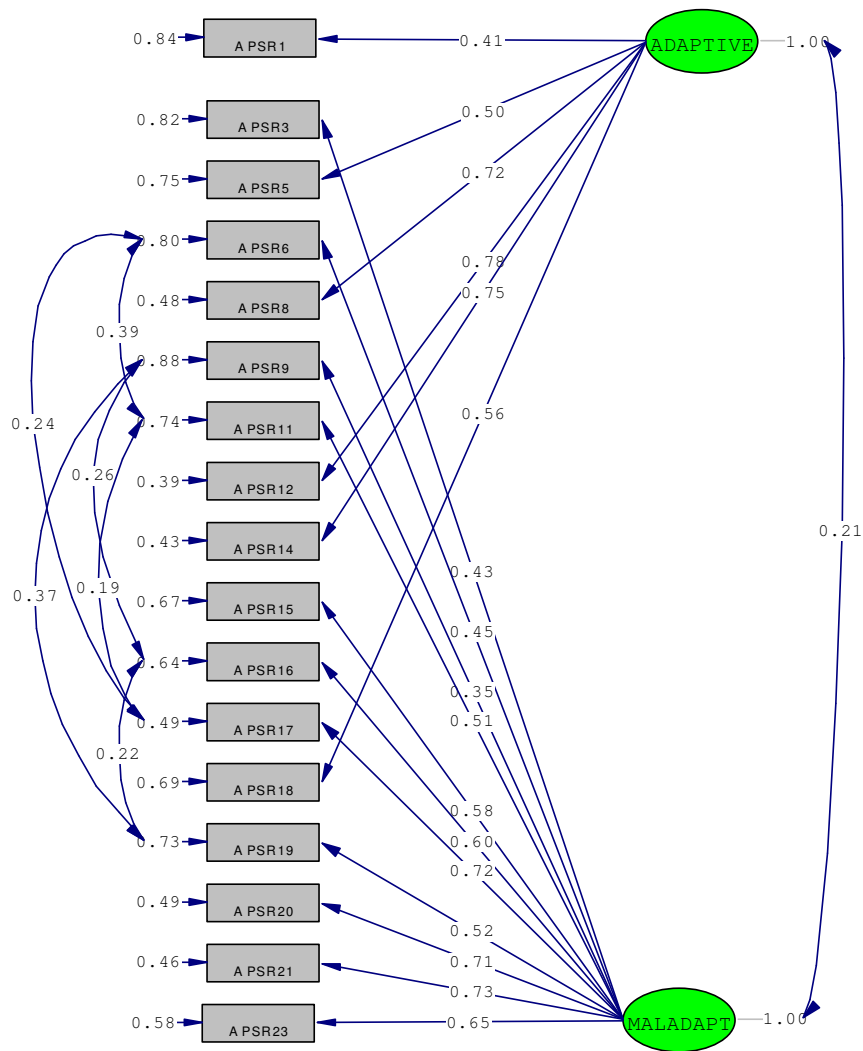

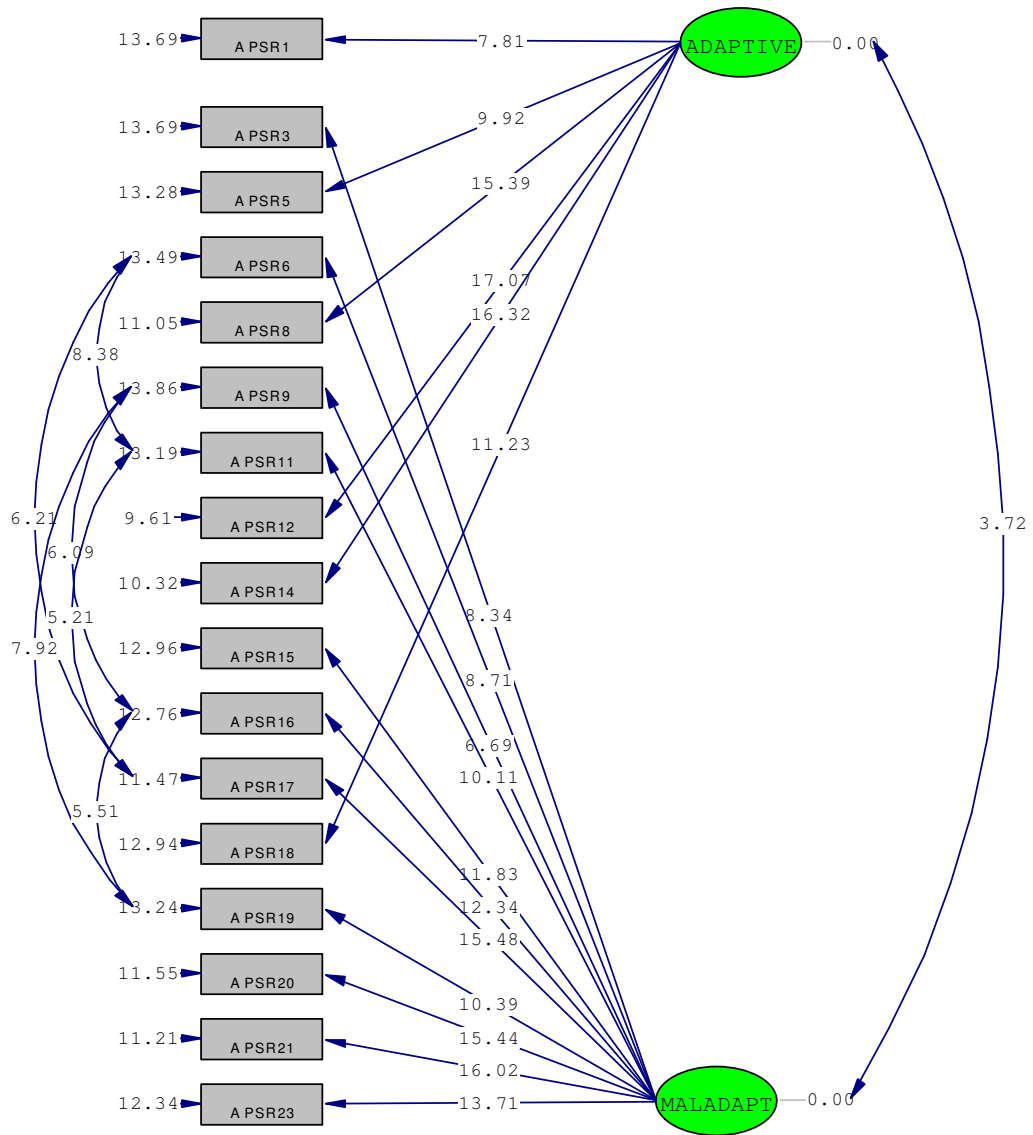Chi-Square=547.16, df=180, P-value=0.00000, RMSEA=0.071

LISREL ESTIMATES OF PARAMETERS IN MEASUREMENT MODEL
WITH COEFFICIENTS IN STANDARDIZED AND T-VALUES
(TWO-FACTOR MODEL)

K.1. LISREL Estimates of Parameters in Measurement Model with Coefficients in Standardized Values

Chi-Square=360.71, df=112, P-value=0.00000, RMSEA=0.074

K.2. LISREL Estimates of Parameters in Measurement Model with Coefficients in t-Values

Chi-Square=360.71, df=112, P-value=0.00000, RMSEA=0.074

TÜRKÇE ÖZET

OLUMLU VE OLUMSUZ MÜKEMMELLİYETÇİLİK BOYUTLARININ
YETİŞKİN BAĞLANMA BOYUTLARI VE BEŞ FAKTÖR KİŞİLİK
ÖZELLİKLERİNE GÖRE İNCELENMESİ

Mükemmelliyetçilik son yıllarda oldukça araştırılan bir konu olmasına rağmen, mükemmelliyetçilik kavramının net bir tanımı henüz yapılamamıştır. Psikoloji literatüründeki "mükemmele ulaşma ihtiyacı", "mükemmelden azının kabul edilemez olduğunu düşünme" gibi tanımların yeterince kapsamlı olmadığı öne sürülmüş ve mükemmelliyetçiliğin nasıl tanımlanabileceği halen tartışılmaya devam edilen bir konu olmuştur. Flett ve Hewitt (2002) mükemmelliyetçiliğin kavramsallaştırılması ile ilgili tartışmaların, mükemmelliyetçiliğin bir kişilik özelliği olup olmadığı, çok boyutlu bir kavram olup olmadığı ve olumlu olup olmadığı şeklinde üç ana başlık atında toplanabileceğini belirtmişlerdir.

Tarihsel olarak, Ellis ve Freud gibi önemli kişilik kuramcıları mükemmelliyetçiliğin normal olmayan bir gelişimsel süreçle ilgili olduğunu, Adler ve Maslow gibi diğer kuramcılar ise sağlıklı ve insan gelişimi için önemli bir kavram olduğunu öne sürmüşlerdir. Ancak mükemmelliyetçilik literatüründe, çoğunlukla patoloji-odaklı bir tutum benimsenmiş, mükemmelliyetçiliğin olumsuz taraflarına odaklanılmış, olumlu tarafları dikkate alınmamıştır (Flett ve Hewitt, 2002). Hamachek (1978, aktaran Patch, 1984), mükemmelliyetçiliği "normal ve olumlu", "nevrotik ve olumsuz" olarak sınıflandıran ilk araştırmacılardandır. Hamachek'e göre, normal mükemmelliyetçiliğe sahip bireyler, nevrotik mükemmelliyetçilerle benzer şekilde kendilerine yüksek performans standartları belirlerler fakat nevrotik mükemmelliyetçiler gibi belirledikleri standartlara ulaşamadıklarında tatminsizlik yaşamaz, kendilerini katı bir şekilde eleştirmezler. Hamachek'in bu tanımından

sonra, mükemmelliyetçiliğin olumlu yanlarını belirleme çabaları, yeni kavramsallaştırmaların ortaya çıkmasını sağlamıştır. Slaney ve Ashby (1996) ve daha sonra Slaney, Chadha, Mobley ve Kennedy (2000) mükemmelliyetçilik literatüründe bilinen ilk niteliksel çalışmaları yapmışlar ve mükemmelliyetçilerin, mükemmelliyetçilikle ilgili kendi yaşantılarını ve mükemmelliyetçiliği nasıl tanımladıklarını araştırmışlardır. Bu araştırma sonucunda da yüksek performans hedefleri koymanın, titiz ve düzenli olmanın mükemmelliyetçiliğin temel özellikleri olduğunu öne sürmüşlerdir. Bununla birlikte, altta yatan bir tema olarak, bu kişilerin standartları ve performansları arasında bir uyuşmazlık yaşadıkları ve bunun sonucunda da gerginlik ve huzursuzluk hissettikleri belirtilmiştir. Bu sonuçlar ışığında, yüksek performans hedefleri belirleme ve düzenli olmanın mükemmelliyetçiliğin olumlu yönlerini tanımlarken, kişisel standartlar ve performans arasındaki uyuşmazlığın, mükemmelliyetçiliğin olumsuz yönlerini tanımladığı ifade edilmiştir (Slaney, Rice, Mobley, Trippi ve Ashby, 2001). Bu görüşü benimseyen daha davranışçı bir yaklaşıma göre, olumlu mükemmelliyetçiler, gerçekçi hedefler belirleyen, artmış benlik-saygısı gibi pozitif pekiştireçlerle motive olan, başarı için yüksek çaba harcayan fakat başarısızlık yaşadıklarında standartlarını değiştirme, daha çok çalışma gibi işlevsel davranışlar sergileyen kişiler olarak tanımlanmıştır. Buna karşılık, olumsuz mükemmelliyetçiliğe sahip kişiler, hata yapma korkusu ile motive olmakta, kendini küçük görme ve utanç gibi olumsuz duygulardan kaçınmaya çalışmaktadır. Bu kişiler gerçekçi olmayacak kadar yüksek hedefler belirlemekte ve bunun sonucunda ortaya çıkan başarısızlık karşısında da yetersizlik, kaygı, depresyon gibi olumsuz duygular yaşamaktadır (Terry-Short ve arkadaşları, 1995). Mükemmelliyetçiliğin olumsuz taraflarının yanında, olumlu taraflarının da vurgulandığı bu tip tanımlamalar, psikolojide yükselen bir eğilim olarak ortaya çıkan, herhangi bir psikolojik kavramın sadece olumsuz boyutlarına bakılarak tanımlanamayacağı görüşü ile de tutarlılık göstermektedir (Gilman ve Ashby, 2003).

Mükemmelliyetçilik kavramsallaştırmalarında ikinci grup tartışma mükemmelliyetçiliğin tek boyutlu bir kavram olarak mı ele alınacağı yoksa birden fazla özelliğe sahip bir kavram olarak mı tanımlanacağı şeklindedir. Erken dönem

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araştırmalarında mükemmelliyetçilik tek boyutlu olarak ele alınmış ve bu şekilde ölçülmüştür. Tek boyutlu kavramsallaştırmalar, Ellis'in akılcı olmayan (irrasyonel) inançları ya da Burns'ün işlevsel olmayan tutumları gibi bilişsel faktörlere odaklanmıştır (Flett ve Hewitt, 2002). Bu görüşü takip eden araştırmalar sıklıkla, mükemmelliyetçiliği gerçekçi olmayan, aşırı yüksek kişisel performans standartları belirleme şeklinde tanımlamıştır (Frost, Marten, Lahart ve Rosenblate, 1990). Daha sonra geliştirilen kavramsallaştırmalar, bu tip tek boyutlu tanımların mükemmelliyetçiliği tanımlamada, yüksek düzeyde stres yaşayan mükemmelliyetçilerle, oldukça başarılı olanları birbirinden ayırmada yeterli olmadığını vurgulamıştır. Böylelikle, 1990'ların başında mükemmelliyetçilik çeşitli özellikler içeren çok boyutlu bir kavram olarak ele alınmaya başlamıştır.

Mükemmelliyetçilik literatüründe, çoğunlukla vurgulanmış üç farklı çok boyutlu tanım bulunmaktadır. Frost ve arkadaşlarının (1990) tanımda, mükemmelliyetçilik, yüksek standartlar belirleme, hatalara aşırı duyarlılık, performansın kalitesinden şüphe duyma, kendini katı bir şekilde eleştirme, ebeveynlerinin kendisi ile ilgili beklenti ve değerlendirmelerine, düzen ve organizasyona aşırı önem verme şeklinde ortaya konmuştur. Bu tanımın, ebeveyn beklenti ve değerlendirmelerini içerdiği için, gelişimsel ve etiolojik bir vurgusu olduğu belirtilmiştir (Saboonchi ve Lundh, 1999). Hewitt ve Flett'in (1991) tanımında, mükemmelliyetçilik üç farklı biçimde ortaya çıkmaktadır. Kendine yönelik mükemmelliyetçilikte, mükemmelliyetçi davranışlar kişinin kendisine yönelmiştir. Kişi kendisine yüksek standartlar belirler, kendi performansını katı bir şekilde değerlendirir ve eleştirir. Diğerlerine yönelik mükemmelliyetçilik, kişinin kendisinin önemli gördüğü insanlar için yüksek performans hedefleri belirlemesi, onlardan mükemmel olmalarını beklemesi ve performanslarını katı bir şekilde değerlendirmesi şeklinde ortaya çıkmaktadır. Sosyal olarak belirlenen mükemmelliyetçilikte ise, kişiler, kendileri için önemli insanların veya toplumun kendilerinden mükemmel olmalarını beklediklerine, kendilerine çok yüksek standartlar belirlediklerine ve performanslarını katı bir şekilde değerlendirdiklerine inanırlar. Bu tanımlama, mükemmelliyetçiliğin hem bireysel hem de kişilerarası yönlerini vurgulamaktadır. Bu araştırmacılar aynı adı taşıyan, iki ölçekle, Çok Boyutlu Mükemmelliyetçilik Ölçeği, önerdikleri bu boyutları ölçmüşlerdir.

Mükemmelliyetçiliğin çok boyutlu özelliği gittikçe artan sayıda ampirik araştırmayla ortaya konmaktadır. Literatürdeki popüler ölçme araçlarıyla yapılan faktör analizi çalışmaları sonuçları olumlu ve olumsuz olarak nitelendirilebilecek iki tip mükemmelliyetçilik ortaya koymuştur. Örneğin Frost ve arkadaşları (1993) olumsuz mükemmelliyetçiliğin hatalarla aşırı uğraş, ebeveyn eleştirisi, ebeveyn beklentileri, performansın niteliğinden şüphe duyma ve sosyal olarak belirlenen mükemmelliyetçilik alt ölçekleriyle tanımlandığını ortaya koymuşlardır. Bunun yanında, olumlu mükemmelliyetçilik ise kişisel standartlar, organizasyon, kendine yönelik mükemmelliyetçilik ve diğerlerine yönelik mükemmelliyetçilik alt ölçekleriyle tanımlanmıştır.

Üçüncü ve en yeni tanımlama, Johnson ve Slaney (1996) tarafından, geliştirdikleri ölçme aracı Olumlu-Olumsuz Mükemmelliyetçilik Ölçeği (Almost Perfect Scale-Revised) ile elde edilmiş sonuçlara dayanılarak oluşturulmuştur. Bu tanımlamada, olumlu mükemmelliyetçilik, yüksek kişisel standartlar ve düzenlilikle tanımlanırken, olumsuz mükemmelliyetçiliğin, gerçek performans ve beklenen standartlar arasındaki uyuşmazlıkla ilgili olduğu belirtilmiştir. Bu çalışmada, Olumlu-Olumsuz Mükemmelliyetçilik Ölçeği Türkçe'ye çevrilmiş ve uyarlama çalışmaları yapılmıştır. Bu ölçme aracının seçilmesinin temel nedeni, ölçeğin psikolojik danışma yaklaşımına dayanılarak geliştirilmesi ve mükemmelliyetçiliği daha önyargısız olarak ölçmeye çalışmasıdır. Başka bir deyişle, literatürdeki tartışmalar göz önüne alındığında, mükemmelliyetçiliğin olumsuz yönlerinin yanında, olumlu yönlerini de vurgulayan bir ölçme aracının kullanılmasının daha bilgi verici olduğu düşünülmüştür.

Bu çalışmada Olumlu-Olumsuz Mükemmelliyetçilik Ölçeği ile ölçülen olumlu ve olumsuz mükemmelliyetçilik iki açıdan ele alınmıştır. Birincisi, mükemmelliyetçilik kavramının gelişimsel doğasını anlamak, diğeri ise mükemmelliyetçiliğin bir kişilik özelliği olup olmadığını incelemektir. Bu tip bir incelemenin, mükemmelliyetçiliğin olumlu ve olumsuz yanlarını ayırt etmede önemli olduğu düşünülmektedir. Araştırmacılar, birçok değişkenin mükemmelliyetçilikle olan ilgisini öne sürmelerine karşın, bunlar arasında en çok vurgulananlar gelişimsel ve ailesel/ebeveynlerle olan ilişkilerle ile ilgili olanlardır. Birçok araştırmacı,

mükemmelliyetçiliğin, mükemmelliyetçi ve talepkar ebeveynlerle ilişkiler sonucunda ortaya çıktığını öne sürmüştür (Shafran ve Mansell, 2001). Ayrıca, mükemmelliyetçiliğin daha az ilgi ve sıcaklık, daha sıkı kontrol içeren çocuk yetiştirme stiliyle ilişkili olduğu bulunmuştur (Kawamura, Frost ve Harmatz, 2001). Hamachek (1978, aktaran Flett ve ark., 2002) mükemmelliyetçiliğin, çok yüksek standartlara sahip olan ve sevgilerini çocuğun performasına göre belirleyen ebeveynler tarafından kabul edilme ihtiyacı ile ilgili olduğunu savunmuştur. Benzer şekilde, Hollender (1965, aktaran Greenspon, 2000) duyarlı ve güvensiz bağlanma stiline sahip bir çocuğun, sevginin, ilginin koşullu olduğu bir ortamda mükemmelliyetçi olacağını vurgulamıştır.

Bu ve benzeri görüşler bağlanma teorisi açısından ele alınabilir (Rice ve Mirzadeh, 2000). Bağlanma teorisi, erken dönemdeki bakıcıyla kurulan ilişkinin gelişimi nasıl etkilediği ile ilgilidir (Lopez, 1995). Bağlanma, kısaca insanların kendileri için önemli gördükleri kişilere karşı geliştirdikleri, uzun süreli ve güçlü duygusal bağ olarak tanımlanabilir (Bowlby, 1980). Bowlby (1980), güvenli bağlanmanın hem kişilerarası ilişkileri güçlendirdiğini hem de kişinin başaçıkma becerilerini, kendine verdiği değeri ve yeterliliğini artırdığını öne sürmüştür. Bu yüzden bağlanma ile ilgili yaşantıların, hem olumlu hem de olumsuz psikolojik sonuçları belirleme gücü bulunmaktadır.

Mükemmelliyetçilik ve erken dönem ebeveyn-çocuk ilişkisiyle ilgili birçok kuramsal görüş ortaya atılmasına rağmen, mükemmelliyetçilik ve bağlanma ilişkisini inceleyen araştırmalar sınırlı sayıdadır (Enns ve ark., 2002). Varolan araştırmalarda olumlu mükemmelliyetçiliğe sahip kişilerin daha güvenli bağlandıkları (Rice ve Mirzadeh, 2000) ve olumsuz mükemmelliyetçiliğin bağlanma kaygısı ve kaçınma ile ilgili olduğu (Wei ve ark., 2004) bulunmuştur.

Literatürde bağlanma stilleri farklı şekillerde gruplandırılmıştır ve mükemmelliyetçilik literatüründe olduğu gibi, bu grupları değerlendirmek için geliştirilen ölçme araçlarının geçerlik ve güvenirliği tartışılmıştır. Bu ölçme araçları arasında, İlişki Ölçekleri Anketi (Griffin ve Bartholomew, 1994a) farklı araştırmacılar tarafından geliştirilen, farklı bağlanma stilleri ve boyutları konusunda bilgi verebilmektedir. Bunlardan biri Simpson, Rholes ve Nelligan (1992) tarafından

önerilen kaygı ve bağlanma boyutlarıdır. Bu araştırmada, farklı boyutların güvenirliği değerlendirilmiş ve bağlanma en yüksek güvenirliğe sahip olan kaygı ve kaçınma boyutlarıyla ele alınmıştır. Ayrıca, yakın dönemdeki araştırmalarda bağlanmanın kategoriler değil, boyutlar düzeyinde ölçülmesinin daha doğru sonuçlar sağlayacağı belirtilmektedir (Fraley ve Waller, 1998; Kurdek, 2002; Sümer, 2006). Bu araştırmacılar, son dönemdeki araştırmalarda, bağlanma kategorilerinin doğruluğu ve kesinliği konusunda kanıt bulunamadığını, bunun yerine bağlanma stillerinin kaygı (benlik modeli) ve kaçınma (diğerleri modeli) olmak üzere iki-boyutlu bir düzlemde ayrıştırılabileceğini öne sürmüşlerdir (Griffin ve Bartholomew, 1994; Brennan, Clark ve Shaver, 1998). Bu görüşe destek olacak şekilde, Brennan ve arkadaşları (1998), farklı ölçme araçlarından elde edilen 60 alt ölçek üzerinde yürüttükleri faktör analizi sonucunda kaygı ve kaçınma olarak tanımlanan iki faktör elde etmişlerdir. Bu yaklaşıma göre, kaygı, kişinin, ihtiyaç duyduğunda önemli gördüğü insanları yakınında bulamayacağı veya onlar tarafından terk edileceği konusunda yaşadığı endişeyi ifade etmektedir. Kaçınma ise, kişinin sınırlı düzeyde duygusal yakınlık beklemesi, psikolojik ve duygusal olarak bağımsız olmayı istemesi ile tanımlanmıştır (Simpson ve arkadaşları, 2002).

Literatürde halen tartışılmakta olan mükemmelliyetçiliğin bir kişilik özelliği olup olmadığı konusu bu araştırmada da ele alınmıştır. Son yıllarda, beş faktör kişilik modeli, diğer kişilik kavramlarını anlamak için kullanılabilecek üst düzey bir faktör olarak sıklıkla ele alınmaktadır (Enns ve Cox, 2002). Beş faktör kişilik modeli yaygın bir şekilde kabul edilen bir kişilik boyutları sınıflaması sunmaktadır. Modele göre bu beş temel kişilik özelliği Dışadönüklük, Uyumluluk, Özdisiplin, Deneyime Açıklık ve Nevrotikliktir (John ve Srivastava, 1999).

Mevcut mükemmelliyetçilik literatüründe, mükemmelliyetçilik ve beş faktör kişilik özellikleri arasındaki ilişkiyi inceleyen az sayıda araştırma bulunmaktadır. Hill ve McIntire (1997) Çok Boyutlu Mükemmelliyetçilik Ölçeği (Hewitt ve Flett, 1991a) ve NEO Kişilik Envanteri (Costa ve McCrae, 1990) arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemiştir. Bulgular, kendine yönelik mükemmelliyetçiliğin özdisiplinle, özellikle de başarı odaklılık alt ölçeği ile ve orta düzeyde nevrotiklik ve uyumlulukla ilgili olduğunu göstermiştir. Diğerlerine yönelik mükemmelliyetçilik, uyumlulukla ters

yönde ilişkili iken, sosyal baskıdan kaynaklanan mükemmelliyetçilik nevrotiklik kişilik özeliğinin depresyon alt boyutuyla ilişkili bulunmuştur. Araştırmacılar, bu bulgular ışığında, kendine yönelik mükemmelliyetçiliğin olumlu, diğerlerine yönelik mükemmelliyetçilik ve sosyal olarak belirlenen mükemmelliyetçiliğin ise olumsuz olduğunu öne sürmüşlerdir. Buna benzer diğer çalışmalarda da olumlu mükemmelliyetçiliğin özdisiplin, olumsuz mükemmelliyetçiliğin nevrotiklikle ilişkili olduğu bulunmuştur (Ashby, Slaney ve Mangine, 1996, aktaran Slaney ve arkadaşları, 2002; Enns ve Cox, 2000; Parker ve Stumpf, 1995; Stumpf ve Parker, 2000).

Özet olarak, literatür gözden geçirildiğinde, mükemmelliyetçiliğin olumlu ve olumsuz olarak sınıflandırılması konusunda yeterince kuramsal ve ampirik kanıt bulunmadığı görülmüştür. Ayrıca, bağlanma ve kişilik özellikleri gibi kavramların mükemmelliyetçilikle ilişkisinin incelenmesinin, olumlu ve olumsuz boyutların belirlenmesinde önemli katkısı olacağı anlaşılmıştır. Bu bilgiler ışığında, çalışmanın temel amacı, bağlanmanın kaygı ve kaçınma boyutlarının ve beş faktör kişilik özelliklerinin mükemmelliyetçiliğin olumlu ve olumsuz boyutları üzerindeki etkisini incelemektir. Bu amaçla aşağıda belirtilen araştırma soruları cevaplandırılmaya çalışılmıştır.

1. Olumlu-Olumsuz Mükemmelliyetçilik Ölçeği, Standartlar altölçeği ile ölçülen olumlu mükemmelliyetçilik, bağlanmanın kaygı ve kaçınma boyutları ve dışadönüklük, uyumluluk, özdisiplin, deneyime açıklık ve nevrotiklik kişilik özellikleri tarafından ne ölçüde yordanmaktadır?

2. Olumlu-Olumsuz Mükemmelliyetçilik Ölçeği, Uyuşmazlık altölçeği ile ölçülen olumsuz mükemmelliyetçilik, bağlanmanın kaygı ve kaçınma boyutları ve dışadönüklük, uyumluluk, özdisiplin, deneyime açıklık ve nevrotiklik kişilik özellikleri tarafından ne ölçüde yordanmaktadır?

3. Olumlu-Olumsuz Mükemmelliyetçilik Ölçeği, Düzen altölçeği bağlanmanın kaygı ve kaçınma boyutları ve dışadönüklük, uyumluluk, özdisiplin, deneyime açıklık ve nevrotiklik kişilik özellikleri tarafından ne ölçüde yordanmaktadır?

Yöntem

Örneklem

Araştırmaya 604 (377 erkek ve 227 kız) Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi (ODTÜ) hazırlık sınıfı öğrencisi katılmıştır. Öğrencilerin yaşları 17 ile 20 arasında değişmektedir, yaş ortalaması 18.20'dir (SS = 0.79).

Kullanılan Ölçme Araçları

1. Olumlu-Olumsuz Mükemmelliyetçilik Ölçeği (OOMÖ)

Olumlu-Olumsuz Mükemmelliyetçilik Ölçeği Slaney ve Ashby (1996) tarafından geliştirilmiş, daha sonra Slaney ve arkadaşları (2001) tarafından revize edilmiştir. OOMÖ 23 madde ve üç alt ölçekten oluşmaktadır. Standartlar alt ölçeği yüksek kişisel performans standartlarını, Uyuşmazlık alt ölçeği performans ve standartlar arasındaki farkın yarattığı huzursuzluk düzeyini, Düzen alt ölçeği de düzenliliğe ve organizasyona verilen önemi ölçmektedir. Ölçeğin geçerlilik ve güvenirliği birçok araştırma ile kanıtlanmıştır (LoCicero ve Ashby, 2000; Slaney ve arkadaşları, 2001; Suddarth ve Slaney, 2001).

OOMÖ'nin Türkçe'ye uyarlama çalışmaları araştırmacı tarafından yürütülmüştür. Bu çalışma aşağıdaki bölümlerde aktarılmıştır.

OOMÖ Çeviri Çalışması

Çeviri çalışması aynı anda çeviri ve tekrar çeviri yöntemiyle yapılmıştır. İngilizce diline hakim olan, en az yüksek lisans düzeyinde derecesi bulunan dört psikolojik danışman ölçeği Türkçe'ye çevirmiştir. Bu dört çeviri ve orijinal form, biri psikolojik danışma ve rehberlik alanında öğretim üyesi, diğeri doktora derecesine sahip bir psikolojik danışmandan oluşan bir jüriye verilmiş; en iyi çeviriyi seçmeleri istenmiştir. Jürinin önerileri doğrultusunda gerekli düzeltmeler yapılmış, daha sonra, her iki dilde ölçeklerin eşitliliğini sağlamak için, çeviri, her iki dili de çok iyi kullanan iki İngilizce öğretmenine tekrar çeviri için verilmiştir. Tekrar çeviriler, araştırmacı ve tez danışmanı tarafından gözden geçirilmiş ve son olarak Türkçe maddelerin anlaşılırlığı bir Türkçe öğretmeni tarafından değerlendirilmiştir. Çevirinin yeterliliği bu şekilde kontrol edildikten sonra uygulamaya geçilmiştir.

OOMÖ Geçerlik ve Güvenirlik Çalışmaları

Ölçeğin Türkçe formunun geçerlik ve güvenirliğinin belirlenmesi amacıyla 408 (260 erkek ve 148 kız) ODTÜ hazırlık sınıfı öğrencisinin katıldığı bir pilot çalışma yürütülmüştür. Bu katılımcılar ana çalışmaya katılan öğrenciler değildir. Öğrencilerin yaşı 17 ile 25 arasında değişmektedir ve yaş ortalaması 19'dur (SS = 1.05). Farklı geçerlik kanıtları elde etmek amacıyla, katılımcılara, OOMÖ ve farklı ölçme araçlarının bulunduğu paketler verilmiştir. Bu paketler, öğrencilere seçkisiz olarak dağıtılmıştır. Uygulamalar sınıf ortamında yapılmıştır. Sonuç olarak, 98 öğrenciye OOMÖ ve Hewitt ve Flett'in (1991a) Çok Boyutlu Mükemmeliyetçilik Ölçeği, 97 öğrenciye OOMÖ ve Frost ve arkadaşlarının (1990) Çok Boyutlu Mükemmeliyetçilik Ölçeği, 173 öğrenciye OOMÖ, Kısa Semptom Envanteri (Derogatis ve Melisaratos, 1983) ve Üniversite Yaşamına Uyumda Kendine Yeterlilik Ölçeği (Hirose, Wada ve Watanabe, 1999) uygulanmıştır. Ayrıca, 40 öğrenci iki hafta arayla verilen OOMÖ'yi cevaplamıştır.

Türkçe ölçeğin yapı geçerliliği için betimleyici ve doğrulayıcı faktör analizi, uyum geçerliliği için Olumlu-Olumsuz Mükemmelliyetçilik Ölçeği ve iki Çok Boyutlu Mükemmeliyetçilik Ölçeği'nin birlikte faktör analizi ve ölçütsel geçerliliği için Olumlu-Olumsuz Mükemmelliyetçilik Ölçeği, Kısa Semptom Envanteri ve Üniversite Yaşamına Uyumda Kendine Yeterlilik Ölçeği arasındaki korelasyonlar hesaplanmıştır.

Betimleyici faktör analizi bulguları, OOMÖ'nin Türkçe formunun, iki faktörde çift yüklenen iki madde dışında, orijinal yapıya benzer bir yapı sergilediğini göstermiştir. Bu bulgular ışığında doğrulayıcı faktör analizi yürütülmüş, bu analizde de aynı iki maddenin sorun yarattığı görülmüştür. Bu maddeler atılıp faktör analiz işlemi tekrarlanmış ve sonuçta elde edilen 21 maddeden oluşan 3 faktörlü yapının uyum indekslerinin kabul edilebilir düzeyde olduğu bulunmuştur. Bu faktörler orijinal ölçekte olduğu gibi Standartlar, Uyuşmazlık ve Düzen olarak adlandırılmıştır. Ayrıca, betimleyici ve doğrulayıcı faktör analizi ile iki-boyutlu bir yapı da test edilmiştir. Bu analizlerde Standartlar alt ölçeğinin olumlu, Uyuşmazlık alt ölçeğinin de olumsuz mükemmelliyetçiliği temsil ettiği görülmüştür. Bunun yanı sıra, Türkçe formun alt ölçeklerinin birbirleriyle olan korelasyonları hesaplanmış,

Standartlar ve Düzen alt ölçeklerinin .30, Uyuşmazlık ve Standartlar alt ölçeğinin de .16 düzeyinde ilişkili olduğu bulunmuştur.

Uyum geçerliği için, öncelikle Olumlu-Olumsuz Mükemmelliyetçilik Ölçeği ve Hewitt ve Flett'in (1991a) Çok Boyutlu Mükemmeliyetçilik Ölçeği üzerinde varimaks döndürülmüş temel bileşenler analizi uygulanmıştır. Bulgular, bazı çift yüklü maddeler olmasına rağmen, OOMÖ Standartlar alt ölçeği maddeleri ile kendine yönelik mükemmeliyetçilik alt ölçeği maddelerinin aynı faktörde, OOMÖ Uyuşmazlık alt ölçeği maddeleri ile de sosyal olarak belirlenen mükemmeliyetçilik alt ölçeği maddelerinin aynı faktörde toplandığını göstermiştir. Aynı işlem Olumlu-Olumsuz Mükemmelliyetçilik Ölçeği ve Frost ve arkadaşlarının (1990) Çok Boyutlu Mükemmeliyetçilik Ölçeği ile tekrarlanmış; OOMÖ Uyuşmazlık alt ölçeği maddeleri ile ebeveyn eleştirisi, performansın niteliğinden şüphe duyma alt ölçek maddelerinin tümünün, ebeveyn beklentileri ve hatalara aşırı duyarlılık alt ölçek maddelerinin ise bazılarının aynı faktör altında toplandığı görülmüştür. Bu analizde, ikinci faktörde ise OOMÖ Standartlar ve Çok Boyutlu Mükemmeliyetçilik Ölçeği'nin kişisel standartlar alt ölçeği maddelerinin tümü ile hatalara aşırı duyarlılık ve ebeveyn beklentileri alt ölçeklerinin bazı maddelerinin yer aldığı bulunmuştur. Tüm bu sonuçlar, olumlu ve olumsuz mükemmelliyetçilik boyutlarının varlığını ortaya koymuştur.

Türkçe ölçeğin ölçüte-dayalı geçerliğini belirlemek amacıyla, Olumlu-Olumsuz Mükemmelliyetçilik Ölçeği, Kısa Semptom Envanteri ve Üniversite Yaşamına Uyumda Kendine Yeterlilik Ölçeği arasındaki korelasyonlar hesaplanmıştır. Sonuçlar, OOMÖ Standartlar alt ölçeğinin, Üniversite Yaşamına Uyumda Kendine Yeterlilik Ölçeği'nin bütün alt ölçekleriyle .32 ile .54 arasında değişen düzeyde ilişkili olduğunu; Kısa Semptom Envanteri alt ölçekleri ile anlamlı düzeyde ilişkili olmadığını göstermiştir. Buna karşılık, OOMÖ Uyuşmazlık alt ölçeğinin Üniversite Yaşamına Uyumda Kendine Yeterlilik Ölçeği alt ölçekleri ile anlamlı düzeyde ilişkili olmadığı; Kısa Semptom Envanteri tüm alt ölçekleri ile .37 ile .51 arasında değişen katsayıda ilişkili olduğu bulunmuştur.

Türkçe ölçeğin güvenirliği iç tutarlık ve test-tekrar test yöntemiyle araştırılmıştır. İç tutarlık için Cronbach alfa katsayıları hesaplanmıştır. Değerler,

ölçeğin toplamı için .83, Standartlar alt ölçeği için .78, Uyuşmazlık alt ölçeği için .85 ve Düzen alt ölçeği için .86 olarak bulunmuştur. 40 kişilik bir öğrenci grubunda hesaplanan test-tekrar test korelasyonları, Standartlar alt ölçeği için .67, Uyuşmazlık alt ölçeği için .73 ve Düzen alt ölçeği için .86 olarak bulunmuştur. Bu sonuçlar ölçeğin Türkçe formunun yeterli düzeyde iç tutarlık ve kararlılığa sahip olduğunu göstermiştir.

Özet olarak, pilot çalışmada elde edilen tüm bulgular, OOMÖ Türkçe formunun geçerli ve güvenilir bir ölçme aracı olduğunu ve olumlu ve olumsuz mükemmeliyetçiliği ölçmek için kullanılabileceğini ortaya koymuştur.

2. İlişki Ölçekleri Anketi

İlişki Ölçekleri Anketi (İÖA) Griffin ve Bartholomew (1994) tarafından geliştirilmiş, 30 maddeden oluşan, yakın ilişkilerdeki bağlanma stillerini belirlemeyi amaçlayan bir ölçektir. İÖA farklı bağlanma ölçeklerinin maddelerinin biraraya getirilmesi ile oluşturulmuştur. Bu nedenle farklı bağlanma stilleri ve boyutları ile ilgili puanlar hesaplanabilmektedir. İÖA Türkçe'ye Sümer ve Güngör (1999a) tarafından uyarlanmıştır. Ölçeğin orijinal ve Türkçe formunun yeterli düzeyde tutarlılığa ve geçerliliğe sahip olduğu rapor edilmiştir (Griffin ve Bartholomew, 1994a; Sümer ve Güngör, 1999a).

Bu araştırmada, İÖA bağlanma stilleri Cronbach alpha değerleri, güvenli bağlanma için .23, kayıtsız bağlanma için .44, saplantılı bağlanma için .35 ve korkulu bağlanma için .63 olarak bulunmuştur. Düşük güvenirlik katsayıları yüzünden, kaygı ve kaçınma puanları hesaplanmış, bu boyutların alfa katsayıları, kaygı için .77, kaçınma için .64 olarak bulunmuştur. Araştırmanın istatistik analizlerinde kaygı ve kaçınma puanları kullanılmıştır.

3. Beş Faktör Envanteri

Beş Faktör Envanteri John, Donahue ve Kentle (1991) tarafından geliştirilmiş, 44 maddeden oluşan, dışadönüklük, uyumluluk, özdisiplin, deneyime açıklık ve nevrotiklik kişilik özelliklerini ölçmeyi hedefleyen bir ölçektir. Geçerlik ve güvenirliği John, Donahue ve Kentle (1991) tarafından rapor edilmiştir. Ölçeğin

Türkçe'de iki ayrı çevirisi bulunmakla birlikte bu çalışmada Alkan'ın çevirisi kullanılmıştır (Alkan, 2006; Sümer, aktaran Sümer ve arkadaşları, 2005). Ölçeğin bu araştırmada elde edilen alfa değerleri, dışadönüklük alt ölçeği için .81, uyumluluk için .64, özdisiplin için .79, nevrotiklik için .80, deneyime açıklık için .81'dir.

4. Demografik Bilgi Formu

Demografik bilgi formu, cinsiyet, yaş, bölüm ve hazırlık okulundaki kur bilgilerini içermektedir.

İşlem

Uygulamaya başlanmadan önce hazırlık okulu yönetiminden gerekli izinler alınmıştır. Anketler öğrencilere, normal okul gününde, sınıflarında uygulanmıştır. Uygulamalar 30-35 dakika sürmüştür. Bilgilerin gizliliği garanti edilmiştir.

Verilerin Analizi

Verileri analiz etmek için betimleyici ve doğrulayıcı faktör analizi, Cronbach alfa katsayısı, test-tekrar test korelasyonları, Pearson korelasyon katsayısı, çoklu varyans analizi ve çoklu regresyon analizi istatistiksel yöntemleri kullanılmıştır. Bütün analizler SPSS/PC 11.0 ve LISREL 8.30 programları kullanılarak yapılmıştır.

Bulgular

1. Betimleyici İstatistik Analizi Bulguları

Tablo 4.1.'de, çalışmada kullanılan değişkenlerin (standartlar, uyuşmazlık, düzen, bağlanmanın kaygı ve kaçınma boyutları, dışadönüklük, uyumluluk, özdisiplin, deneyime açıklık ve nevrotiklik kişilik özellikleri) ortalama ve standart sapmaları, cinsiyet ve toplam örneklem için ayrı ayrı gösterilmiştir. Buna göre, erkek öğrencilerin mükemmeliyetçilik alt ölçekleri için ortalama puanları 17.94 ile 39.90, kız öğrencilerin ortalama puanları ise 18.22 ile 39.74 arasında değişmektedir. Bağlanma boyutları ile ilgili olarak, erkek öğrencilerin puan ortalamaları kaygı için 15.92, kaçınma için 28.34, kız öğrencilerin puan ortalamaları ise sırasıyla 13.93 ve

29.34'dür. Beş faktör kişilik özellikleri için, erkek öğrencilerin ortalama puanları 2.84 ile 3.65, kız öğrencilerin ortalama puanları ise 3.18 ile 3.88 arasında değişmektedir.

2. Korelasyon Analizi Bulguları

Tablo 4.2.'de görüleceği gibi, Olumlu-Olumsuz Mükemmelliyetçilik Ölçeği alt ölçekleri birbirleriyle .16 ile .31 arasında değişen düzeylerde ilişkili bulunmuştur. Alt ölçeklerin diğer değişkenlerle ilişkilerine bakıldığında, Standartlar alt ölçeğinin bağlanmanın kaygı ve kaçınma boyutları ile anlamlı düzeyde ilişkisi olmadığı, beş faktör kişilik özelliklerinden dışadönüklük (r = .19, p < .01), özdisiplin (r = .41, p < .01) ve deneyime açıklıkla (r = .32, p < .01) pozitif yönde ilişkili olduğu görülmüştür. Uyuşmazlık alt ölçeği, bağlanmanın kaygı (r = .40, p < .01) ve kaçınma (r = .25, p < .01) ve nevrotiklik kişilik özelliği (r = .40, p< .01) ile anlamlı ve pozitif yönde, dışadönüklük kişilik özelliği (r = -.16, p < .01) ile ise negatif yönde ilişkilidir. Son olarak Düzen alt ölçeği, bağlanmanın kaçınma boyutu (r = .15, p < .01), uyumluluk (r = .19, p< .01) ve özdisiplin (r = .64, p < .01) kişilik özellikleri ile pozitif yönde, dışadönüklük kişilik özelliği (r = -.14, p < .01) ile ters yönde ilişkili bulunmuştur.

3. Çoklu Varyans Analizi Bulguları

Çalışma değişkenleri ile ilgili cinsiyet farkı olup olmadığını test etmek için çoklu varyans analizi yapılmış ve cinsiyet grupları arasında anlamlı fark olmadığı bulunmuştur (Wilk's Lambda = .99, p = .14).

4. Çoklu Regresyon Analizi Bulguları

Çalışmada, bağımsız değişkenlerin (bağlanmanın kaygı ve kaçınma boyutları, beş faktör kişilik özellikleri, dışadönüklük, uyumluluk, özdisiplin, deneyime açıklık ve nevrotiklik) bağımlı değişkenler (standartlar, uyuşmazlık, düzen) üzerindeki etkilerini yordamak için üç ayrı çoklu regresyon analizi yürütülmüştür. Analizler yürütülmeden önce çoklu regresyon analizinin temel sayıltıları Tabachnick ve Fidell (2001) tarafından önerildiği şekilde test edilmiş ve gerekli düzeltmeler yapılmıştır.

İlk analizde, Standartlar alt ölçeği ile ölçülen olumlu mükemmelliyetçilik bağımlı değişkendir. Tablo 4.3'de görüldüğü gibi, bulgular, bu boyutun özdisiplin, deneyime açıklık ve dışadönüklük kişilik özellikleri tarafından yordandığını göstermiştir. Bir başka değişle, özdisiplin, deneyime açıklık ve dışadönüklük kişilik özelliklerinde yüksek puan alan öğrencilerin standartlar alt ölçeği puanları da yüksektir. Bu değişkenler toplam varyansın 0.25'ini açıklamaktadır.

İkinci çoklu regresyon analizinde, Uyuşmazlık alt ölçeği ile ölçülen olumsuz mükemmelliyetçilik bağımlı değişkendir. Tablo 4.4'de görüldüğü gibi, bulgular, bu boyutun nevrotiklik kişilik özelliği ve bağlanmanın kaygı ve kaçınma boyutları tarafından yordandığını ifade etmektedir. Bir başka deyişle, nevrotiklik, bağlanma kaygısı ve kaçınma boyutlarında yüksek puan alan öğrenciler uyuşmazlık alt ölçeğinden de yüksek puan alma eğilimindedirler. Bu değişkenler toplam varyansın 0.24'ünü açıklamaktadır.

Son analizde, Düzen alt ölçeği bağımlı değişkendir. Tablo 4.5'de görüldüğü gibi, bulgular, bu boyutun özdisiplin, nevrotiklik, dışadönüklük ve deneyime açıklık kişilik özellikleri tarafından yordandığını göstermiştir. Dışadönüklük ve deneyime açıklık kişilik özellikleri ile olan ilişki ters yöndedir. Bir başka değişle, özdisiplin ve nevrotiklik alt ölçeklerinden yüksek puan alan öğrencilerle, dışadönüklük ve deneyime açıklık alt ölçeklerinden düşük puan alan öğrencilerin, düzen puanları da yüksektir. Bu değişkenler toplam varyansın 0.46'sını açıklamaktadır.

Tartışma

Bu çalışmanın temel amacı mükemmelliyetçiliğin olumlu ve olumsuz boyutlarını tanımlamak, bağlanma boyutları ve beş faktör kişilik özelliklerinin bu boyutlar üzerindeki etkisini incelemektir. Mükemmelliyetçiliğin olumlu ve olumsuz boyutlarını ölçmek için Slaney ve arkadaşları (2001) tarafından geliştirilen mükemmelliyetçilik ölçeği (Almost Perfect Scale-Revised; OOMÖ) Türkçe'ye çevrilmiş, bir pilot çalışma ile geçerlik ve güvenirliği saptanmıştır. Betimleyici ve doğrulayıcı faktör analizi, uyum ve ölçüt geçerliği bulguları, olumlu ve olumsuz mükemmeliyetçilik boyutlarını ortaya koymuştur. Bulgulara göre olumlu

mükemmelliyetçilik Standartlar alt ölçeği ile, olumsuz mükemmelliyetçilik ise Uyuşmazlık alt ölçeği ile ölçülmektedir. Ayrıca, OOMÖ'nin üçüncü alt ölçeği olan Düzen alt ölçeği de ayrı bir boyut olarak ele alınmıştır. Daha sonra, ana çalışmada, bu boyutların bağlanmanın kaygı ve kaçınma boyutları ve dışadönüklük, uyumluluk, özdisiplin, deneyime açıklık ve nevrotiklik kişilik özellikleri ile ilişkisi araştırılmıştır.

Çoklu regresyon analizi sonuçlarına göre Standartlar alt ölçeği ile ölçülen olumlu mükemmelliyetçiliğin yordayıcıları özdisiplin, deneyime açıklık ve dışadönüklük kişilik özellikleridir. Bunlar arasında en güçlü yordayıcının özdisiplin olduğu görülmüştür. Başarı odaklılık, rekabet, kurallara uyma, sorumluluk sahibi olma, düzen, disiplin ve planlama gibi özelliklerle ilişkili olan özdisiplin kişilik özelliğinin yüksek performans standartları belirleme ile ölçülen olumlu mükemmelliyetçilikle ilişkili olması beklenen bir sonuçtur. Literatürde de bu yönde bulgular mevcuttur (Ashby, Slaney ve Mangine, 1996, aktaran Slaney ve arkadaşları, 2002; Campbell ve Di Paula, 2002; Hill ve McIntire, 1997; Slade ve Owens, 1998; Stumpf ve Parker, 2000). Olumlu mükemmelliyetçiliğin bir diğer yordayıcısı da merak, hayal gücü, orjinallik, sanata ve duygulara önem verme gibi özellikleri içeren deneyime açıklık kişilik boyutudur. Bu bulgulara dayanılarak, deneyime açıklık kişilik özelliğine sahip olan kişilerin yüksek performans standartları oluşturma eğiliminde olduğu söylenebilir. Bunun devamında, yüksek performans hedefleri belirlemenin kişinin kaynaklarını geliştirmesine, kapasitesi ve yaratıcılığını artırmasına yardımcı olduğu düşünülebilir. Son olarak, enerji, yüksek aktivite düzeyi, girişkenlik, olumlu ruh hali, diğer insanlarla yakın olma isteği gibi özellikler içeren dışadönüklük kişilik boyutunun da olumlu mükemmelliyetçiliği yordadığı bulunmuştur. Bağlanma ile ilgili bulgulara bakıldığında, beklenenin aksine, Standartlar alt ölçeğinin bağlanma boyutları tarafından yordanmadığı görülmüştür. Literatürde olumlu mükemmelliyetçiliğin güvenli bağlanma ile ilişkili olduğunu gösteren araştırmalar bulunmaktadır (Andersson ve Perris, 2000; Rice ve Mirzadeh, 2000) fakat bu araştırmalarda bağlanma, çocuk-ebeveyn ilişkilerine dayanılarak ölçülmüştür. Bu çalışmada ise yakın ilişkilerdeki bağlanma tarzları ölçülmüştür. Dört bağlanma kategorisini hesaplamada kullanılan alt ölçeklerin güvenirliği düşük bulunduğundan, analizlerde bu kategoriler yerine, bu kategorilerin altında yatan boyutlar olduğu düşünülen kaygı ve kaçınma boyutları için hesaplanan puanlar

kullanılmıştır. Olumlu mükemelliyetçilik ve bağlanma arasında bir ilişki bulunamaması araştırmada kullanılan bağlanma ölçeği ile ilgili olabilir.

İkinci çoklu regresyon analizi bulguları, Uyuşmazlık alt ölçeği ile ölçülen olumsuz mükemmelliyetçiliğin nevrotik kişilik özelliği ile bağlanmanın kaygı ve kaçınma boyutları tarafından yordandığını göstermiştir. Bu çalışmada, kişisel standartlar ve performans arasındaki farkın yarattığı huzursuzluk olarak tanımlanan olumsuz mükemmelliyetçiliğin nevrotik kişilik özelliği ile ilişkisi beklenen bir sonuçtur. Literatürdeki birçok çalışmada da olumsuz mükemmelliyetçilik nevrotiklikle, özellikle de suçluluk, üzüntü, umutsuzluk, yalnızlık gibi özellikler içeren depresyon alt ölçeği ile ilişkili bulunmuştur (Ashby, Slaney ve Mangine, 1996, aktaran Slaney ve arkadaşları, 2002; Campbell ve Di Paula, 2002; Hill ve McIntire, 1997; Stumpf ve Parker, 2000). Olumsuz mükemmelliyetçiliğin bağlanma kaygısı ve kaçınma ile olan ilişkisi de beklenen yöndedir. Bağlanma kaygısı ve kaçınma olumsuz benlik ve olumsuz diğerleri modeli ile ilgilidir. Bu da olumsuz mükemmelliyetçiliği yüksek olan kişilerin, kaçınma boyutunun yansıttığı gibi olumsuz başkaları modeline sahip oldukları, bu yüzden de diğer insanlardan gelebilecek olumsuz tepkilere karşı duyarlı olabilecekleri ve yakın ilişkilerden kaçınma eğiliminde olabileceklerini düşündürebilir. Bu kişiler diğer insanların sevgi ve onayını almak, kendilerini iyi ve bağımsız hissetmek için yüksek standartlar belirlemeleri ve yaptıkları herşeyde başarılı olmaları gerektiğini düşünebilirler. Ayrıca olumsuz mükemmelliyetçilik ve bağlanma kaygısı arasındaki ilişki, kişisel standartlar ve performans arasındaki uyuşmazlığın olumsuz benlik modeli ile ilişkili olduğunu ve kişinin performans göstermesi gereken yeni durumlarla karşılaştığında kendine güvenmediği için kaygı yaşama eğiliminde olabileceğini ifade edebilir. Bu sonuçlar, olumsuz mükemmelliyetçilik ve güvensiz bağlanma arasındaki ilişkiyi destekleyen birçok ve amprik çalışmada da ortaya konmuştur. Hollander (1965, aktaran Greenspon, 2000) mükemmele ulaşma ihtiyacının düşük benlik değerinin bir sonucu olduğunu, daha iyi bir benlik izlenimi yaratma ve diğer insanlarının onayını alma çabasıyla sürdüğünü öne sürmüştür. Literatürdeki amprik çalışma bulguları da olumsuz mükemmelliyetçiliğin kayıtsız bağlanma, kaygılı bağlanma, terk edilme korkusu ve onay alma ihtiyacı ile ilişkili olduğunu desteklemiştir (Andersson ve Perris, 2000; Brennan ve Shaver, 1995; Wei ve arkadaşları, 2004; 2006).

Son olarak, mükemmelliyetçiliğin temeli olmasa da önemli bir boyutu olarak düşünülebilecek Düzen boyutunun özdisiplin, nevrotiklik, dışadönüklük ve deneyime açıklık boyutları tarafından yordandığı bulunmuştur. Düzenlilik, titizlik ile ölçülen bu alt boyutun en güçlü yordayıcısı disiplin, düzen, sorumluluk sahibi olma, işleri organize etme gibi özelliklerle ilişkili olan özdisiplin kişilik özelliğidir. Bu ilişkiye bakınca, Düzen boyutunun olumlu özellikler taşıdığı düşünülebilir. Buna karşılık, bu boyut, yüksek aktivite düzeyi, girişkenlik, olumlu duygudurum, yaratıcılık, zengin hayal gücü gibi özelliklerle ilişkili olan dışadönüklük ve deneyime açıklık kişilik özellikleriyle ters yönde ilişkili bulunmuştur. Daha da önemlisi, nevrotiklikle olan ilişkisi mükemmelliyetçiliğin Düzen boyutunun, olumsuz yönleri de olabileceğini düşündürmüştür. Tüm bu bulgular göz önüne alındığında, özdisiplin ile olan güçlü ilişkisi Düzen boyutunun çoğunlukla olumlu bir özellik olduğu düşündürse de, düzene, titizliğe aşırı önem vermenin düşük yaratıcılık, düşük olumlu duygudurum ve stresle ilişkili olabileceğini göstermiştir. Bu nedenle, Düzen boyutu Slaney ve arkadaşlarının da (2002) belirttiği gibi daha fazla araştırılmalıdır.

Özetlemek gerekirse, OOMÖ ile ölçülen farklı mükemmelliyetçilik boyutlarının, bağlanmanın kaygı ve kaçınma ve beş faktör kişilik özellikleri ile farklı ilişkiler gösterdiği bulunmuştur. Bütün boyutların en güçlü yordayıcısı beş faktör kişilik özellikleridir. Yüksek performans standartları ile ölçülen olumlu mükemmelliyetçiliği tanımlayan özellikler özdisiplin, deneyime açıklık ve dışadönüklükken, performans ve standartlar arasındaki uyuşmazlık ile ölçülen olumsuz mükemmelliyetçiliği tanımlayan özellikler nevrotiklik, bağlanma kaygısı ve kaçınmadır. Düzen boyutu ile ilgili bulgular çok net değildir. Standartlar ve Düzen alt boyutları bağlanma boyutları ile ilişkili bulunmazken, Uyuşmazlık ile kaygı ve kaçınma arasındaki ilişki, bu boyutun daha çok kişilerarası özelliğe sahip olduğunu, olumsuz benlik algısı ve diğer insanlar tarafından onay ve kabul görme ihtiyacı ile ilgili olduğunu ortaya koymuştur.

Bu çalışmanın kurama ve uygulamaya yönelik birçok doğurguları vardır. Elde edilen bulgular, sadece üniversiteye yeni başlayan öğrencilerden elde edilen verilere ve korelasyona dayalı analizlere dayandığı için dikkatli yorumlanmalıdır.

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FOREIGN LANGUAGES

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PUBLICATIONS

1. Ulu, P.İ. & Fışıloğlu, H. (2002). The relationship between Turkish children's perceptions of marital conflict and their internalizing and externalizing problems. *International Journal of Psychology*, 37(6), 369-378.

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TRAINING AND SEMINARS

- **Yeditepe University**

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    Medical Hypnosis

- **Cognitive and Behavior Therapy Association**

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    Cognitive and Behavior Therapies Certificate Program

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    Eye Movement Desensitization and Reprocessing Training

(1999 September) Trauma Training

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(1998 May) Communication Skills Workshop

- **Ankara University Psychiatry Clinic**

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- **Psychiatry Assistants Association**

  (1995 April)   Treatment of Sexual Dysfunctions Workshop