

THE EFFECT OF PERFECTIONAL ATTITUDES AND COGNITIVE
FLEXIBILITY LEVELS OF EMERGING ADULTS ON THEIR DECISION-
MAKING STRATEGIES



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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that all information in this document has been obtained and presented in accordance with academic rules and ethical conduct. I also declare that, as required by these rules and conduct, I have fully cited and referenced all material and results that are not original to this work.

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ABSTRACT

The main purpose of this research is to examine the effect of perfectionism and cognitive flexibility levels of emerging adults on decision making strategies. The participants of the study consisted of 133 male and 250 female adults aged 18-30 years. Research data were collected through the Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale, the Cognitive Flexibility Inventory, and the Melbourne Decision-Making Strategies I-II and the Personal Information Form prepared by the researcher. Independent t-test was used to determine whether the emerging adults showed a significant difference according to the variables of gender, education level and place of residence, and one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used when comparing more than two independent groups. In addition, Pearson Correlation Analysis to determined correlations between research variables; Multiple Regression Analysis was performed to determine the predictive roles of the main variables. The post Hoc test was used to see the difference between the variables.

According to the research findings, it has been determined that perfectionism differs significantly according to gender and experiences. There was no significant difference between the participants according to the education level of perfectionism. It has been determined that cognitive flexibility differs significantly according to gender. There was no significant difference in cognitive flexibility among the participants according to the place of residence and education level. It has been determined that decision-making strategies differ significantly according to gender and place of residence. No significant difference was found in the decision-making strategy according to the education level. It was seen that there is a positive and significant relationship between the scores of the Multidimensional Perfectionist Attitude Scale sub-dimensions and the sub-dimension scores of the sub-dimensions of the Melbourne

Decision-Making Strategies Scale I-II. It is seen that the perfectionism levels and cognitive flexibility levels of emerging adults had a significant positive effect on their careful decision-making style. It was seen that the perfectionism levels and cognitive flexibility levels of emerging adults have a significant negative effect on the Avoidant decision-making style. It was seen that the perfectionism levels and cognitive flexibility levels of emerging adults had a significant effect on the procrastinating decision-making style. It was seen that the perfectionism levels and cognitive flexibility levels of emerging adults have a significant effect on the panic decision-making style.

Keywords: Emerging Adulthood, Perfectionism, Cognitive Flexibility, Decision Making Strategies

ÖZET

Bu araştırmanın temel amacı, beliren yetişkinlerin mükemmeliyetçilik, bilişsel esneklik düzeylerinin karar verme stratejileri etkisini incelemektir. Araştırmanın katılımcıları 18-30 yaş aralığındaki 133 erkek ve 250 kadın yetişkinlerden oluşmaktadır. Araştırma verileri, Çok Boyutlu Mükemmeliyetçilik Ölçeği, Bilişsel Esneklik Envanteri ve Melbourne Karar Verme Stratejileri I-II ve araştırmacı tarafından hazırlanmış olan Kişisel Bilgi Formu aracılığıyla toplanmıştır. Beliren yetişkinlerin cinsiyet, eğitim düzeyi ve yerleşim yeri değişkenlerine göre anlamlı farklılık gösterip göstermediğini belirlemek için bağımsız t-testi, ikiden fazla bağımsız grubun karşılaştırılmasında ise tek yönlü varyans analizi (ANOVA) kullanılmıştır. Ayrıca Pearson Korelasyon Analizi, araştırma değişkenleri arasındaki ilişkileri belirlemek için; ana değişkenlerin yordayıcı rollerini belirlemek için Çoklu Regresyon Analizi yapılmıştır. Değişkenler arasındaki farkı görmek için post Hoc testi kullanılmıştır.

Araştırma bulgularına göre, mükemmeliyetçiliğin cinsiyete ve yaşadıkları göre anlamlı farklılık gösterdiği tespit edilmiştir. Mükemmeliyetçiliğin eğitim durumuna göre katılımcılar arasında anlamlı bir fark bulunamamıştır. Bilişsel esnekliğin cinsiyete göre anlamlı farklılık gösterdiği tespit edilmiştir. Katılımcılar arasında bilişsel esnekliğin yaşadığı yer ve eğitim durumuna göre anlamlı bir fark bulunamamıştır. Karar verme stratejilerinin cinsiyete ve yaşanan yere göre anlamlı fark gösterdiği tespit edilmiştir. Karar verme stratejisinin eğitim durumuna göre anlamlı bir fark bulunamamıştır. Çok Boyutlu Mükemmeliyetçi Tutum Ölçeği alt boyutları puanları ile Bilişsel Esnekliğin alt boyutlarında alt boyut puanları arasında Melbourne Karar Verme Stratejileri Ölçeği I-II pozitif ve anlamlı bir ilişki olduğu görülmektedir. Beliren yetişkinlerin mükemmeliyetçilik düzeyleri ve bilişsel esneklik

düzeylerinin dikkatli karar verme stili üzerinde anlamlı bir pozitif etkisinin olduğu görülmektedir. Beliren yetişkinlerin mükemmeliyetçilik düzeyleri ve bilişsel esneklik düzeylerinin Kaçınan karar verme stili üzerindeki anlamlı bir negatif etkisinin olduğu görülmektedir. Beliren yetişkinlerin mükemmeliyetçilik düzeyleri ve bilişsel esneklik düzeylerinin erteleyici karar verme stili üzerinde anlamlı bir etkisi olduğu görülmektedir. Beliren yetişkinlerin mükemmeliyetçilik düzeyleri ve bilişsel esneklik düzeylerinin Panik karar verme stili üzerinde anlamlı bir etkisi olduğu görülmektedir.

Anahtar kelimeler: Beliren Yetişkinlik, Mükemmeliyetçilik, Bilişsel Esneklik, Karar Verme Stratejileri



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TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION	i
ABSTRACT.....	ii
ÖZET	iv
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	vii
TEŞEKKÜR BÖLÜMÜ	viii
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	ix
TABLE OF LIST	xiii
CHAPTER I.....	1
INTRODUCTION	1
1.1. Research Problem.....	1
1.2. Purpose of The Study	5
1.3. Significance of the Study	5
1.4. Assumptions	7
1.5. Limitations	8
1.6. Definition of Terms	8
CHAPTER II.....	9
LITERATURE REVIEW	9
2.1. THE CONCEPT EMERGING ADULthood	9
2.2. PERFECTIONISM	11
2.2.1. Concept of Perfectionism	11
2.2.2. Dimensions of Perfectionism	12
2.2.3. The Development of Perfectionism	14
2.2.4. Theoretical Perfectionism	16
2.4.1.1. Psychoanalytic Theory	16
2.4.1.2. The Theory of Individual Psychology	17
2.4.1.3. Behavioral Theory	17
2.4.1.4. Cognitive-Behavioral Approach and Rational-Emotional Approach.....	18
2.4.5. Holistic Approach.....	19
2.5. Consequences of Perfectionism.....	19

3. COGNITIVE FLEXIBILITY	23
3.1. The Concept of Cognitive Flexibility.....	23
3.2. Theories and Approaches to Cognitive Flexibility	24
3.2.1. Cognitive Behavioral Therapy.....	24
3.2.2. Rational Emotive Behavioral Therapy Model.....	26
3.2.3. Social Cognitive Theory	27
3.3. Related Studies.....	28
4. DECISION-MAKING STRATEGIES.....	32
4.1. Decision Making	32
4.2. Decision-Making Process.....	33
4.3. Decision-Making Styles	34
4.4. Theories Of Decision-Making.....	37
4.4.1. Gelatt's Decision-Making Model.....	37
4.4.2. Conflict Theory	38
4.4.3. Utility Theory	39
4.4.4. Social Learning Theory	39
4.4.5. Cognitive Theory.....	40
4.5. Related Studies	41
CHAPTER III	44
METHODOLOGY	44
3.1. Research Model.....	44
3.2. Samples	44
3.3. Data Collection Studies	45
3.3.1. Private Information Form	45
3.3.2. Multidimensional Perfectionist Attitude Scale (MPAS)	45
3.3.3. Cognitive Flexibility Inventory (CFI)	46
3.3.4 Melbourne Decision-Making Strategies Scale I-II (MDMS I-II).....	47
3.4. Data Collection Process	47
3.5. Data Analyses.....	48
CHAPTER IV	49
FINDINGS.....	49
4.1. Descriptive Statistics.....	49
4.2. Demographic Variables.....	50

4.2.1. Distribution of findings on the effect of perfectionist attitude in emerging adults by gender, place of residence, and education level	50
4.2.2. Findings on emerging adult's the effect of cognitive flexibility by gender, place of residence and education level.....	53
4.2.3. Findings on emerging adult's the effect of decision making by gender, place of residence and education level.....	54
4.3. Correlations	56
4.3.1. Findings between the scores of emerging adults' perfectionism and cognitive flexibility scales dimensions	56
4.3.2. Regression emerging adults among perfectionism and cognitive flexibility their decision-making strategies	60
CHAPTER V	65
RESULTS, DISCUSSION, SUGGESTIONS	65
5.1. Results	65
5.2. Discussion	68
5.2.1. Emerging adult's the effect of perfectionist attitudes and cognitive flexibility levels on decision-making strategies in terms of gender variable	68
5.2.2. Emerging adult's the effect of perfectionist attitudes and cognitive flexibility levels on decision-making strategies in terms of place of residence	70
5.2.3. Emerging adult's the effect of perfectionist attitudes and cognitive flexibility levels on decision-making strategies in terms of education level.....	70
5.2.4. There is a considerable relationship between the levels of perfectionism, cognitive flexibility and decision-making strategies of emerging adults	71
5.3. Suggestions	73
5.3.1. Suggestions for practitioners	74
5.3.2. Suggestions for researchers	74
REFERENCES	75
APPENDICES	92
Appendix-A: Demographic Information Form	92
Appendix-B- Multidimensional Scale of Perfectionism.....	93
Appendix-C - Cognitive Flexibility Inventory	96
Appendix-D: Melbourne Decision-Making Scale I-II	97
Appendix-E: Permission Letter for Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale	

Appendix-F: Permission Letter for Cognitive Flexibility Inventory	101
Appendix-G: Permission Letter for Melbourne Decision Making Strategies I-II.	102
Appendix-H: Yeditepe University Human Research Ethics Committee Certificate in Social Sciences	103



TABLE OF LIST

Table 1. Distribution of the participants participating in the study according to their socio-demographic characteristics	40
Table 2. The results of the normality analysis of the scales used in the research	45
Table 3: Descriptive statistics of the scales used in the study.....	45
Table 4. Comparison of Multidimensional Perfectionist Attitude Scale scores according to the socio-demographic characteristics of the participants.....	46
Table 5: Posthoc Tablosu Results Self- Oriented Perfectionsim by place of residence	48
Table 6. Comparison of Cognitive Flexibility Inventory scores according to the socio-demographic characteristics of the participants	49
Table 7. Comparison of Melbourne Decision-Making Strategies Scale I scores according to the socio-demographic characteristics of the participants.....	50
Table 8. Comparison of Melbourne Decision-Making Strategies Scale II scores according to the socio-demographic characteristics of the participants.....	51
Table 9. Relationship between scales and dimension scores	52
Table10. “Do emerging adults' levels of perfectionism and cognitive flexibility predict their procrastinating decision-making style?”	55
Table 11. “Do emerging adults' levels of perfectionism and cognitive flexibility predict avoidant decision-making style?”	56
Table 12. “Do emerging adults' levels of perfectionism and cognitive flexibility predict their procrastinating decision-making style?”	57
Table 13. “Do emerging adults' levels of perfectionism and cognitive flexibility predict panic decision-making style?”	58

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Research Problem

Emerging adulthood is considered to be one of the most critical early stages of lifelong improvement for adults. This term constitutes the most satisfying and challenging years of the individual's spiritual life (Aktu, 2016). Theorists have stated that there are some developmental tasks and duties in the developmental period of emerging adults covering the 18-30 age range. Some parts; getting a job and making a career, having a life partner and being able to live with a life partner, taking on responsibilities related to the spouse and home, having a child, raising a child, and having skills related to life (Yeşilyaprak, 2016).

Emerging adult individuals tend to build their own lives in this period when they question their identity search and life analysis. They focus on themselves, their intended life experiences and achievements; It is seen in how they evaluate their point of view of observing this period, which they prioritize intrapersonal and interpersonal, their expectations from themselves, their evaluations and how they approach themselves in cases of failure. It is thought that the perfectionist, strict, critical or understanding, compassionate approaches of individuals towards themselves are shaped by the relationships and experiences they have with their parents during childhood (Aydin, 2022).

Rapid change and innovation in today's world; Competition and competition affect societies in many ways. For this reason, the struggle, effort and haste of human beings to exist in spite of the difficulties of the conditions in which they live are for the sake of reaching the perfect person (Cesur, 2017). A personality disposition associated with striving for perfection and overly critical evaluations, as well as setting extremely high standards for performance was expressed by Frost and Hewitt and Flett (1991).

The range to which the goals set for the individual's mental health are realistic plays an important role. The concept of perfectionism, which is described as the tendency to be the best, appears in the literature. This concept has attracted attention and tried to be explained by many researchers since the early 1950s (Horney, 1951; Missildine,

1963; Hollender, 1965). The concept of perfectionism is characterized as setting difficult and superior standards in the evaluations of oneself and others, the endeavor to reach these standards, and keeping performance and sense self equal (Antony, Purdon, Huta & Swinson, 1998). In the research, it is seen that the first investigation determined and examined perfectionism as one-dimensional and psychopathological. These early studies focused on self-directed cognitions, such as strict self-criticism when the perfectionist could not perform well and achieve success. At the same time, it was argued that the effects of perfectionism are negative and destructive, and it was stated that the perfectionist personality is not healthy. (Burns, 1980; Patch, 1984; Sorotzkin, 1985). Contrary to these views, the studies implemented in the following years focused on the cognitions of the individual. It was thought that the one-dimensional perspective, which mostly deals with perfectionism with a negative content, is insufficient.

Over time, the focus has been on interpersonal dynamics as well as the individual's self-directed cognitions, and perfectionism has begun to be studied from a multidimensional perspective (Hewitt & Flett, 1991). When the studies that deal with the multidimensional and negative aspects of perfectionism are examined, it is recognized that perfectionism towards others, the sub-dimensions of multidimensional perfectionism towards self, and socially determined perfectionism are associated with various psychological disorders. (eg Sherry, et. al, 2014; Stoeber, et al, 2014). It is seen that an important variable affecting the perfectionism of the individual is the way of thinking that the person has.

Ellis (1987) stated that the generally accepted belief in perfectionism is self-criticism based on high expectations and this leads the person to some problems. Ellis (2002), the idea of being successful and competent in all possible situations, the tendency to over-perceive the outcome of situations where everything is not as one wishes, the idea that there is only one method of overcoming problems that is complete, clear and wonderful is directly related to perfectionism. In this sense, our cognitive experiences, which have an indispensable role, play a critical role in our lives. The stimuli around us and the meanings we attribute to them, what we forget, what we remember, and the thought patterns and schemas we develop about ourselves and our environment have an important place in our relations with the environment (Dökmen, 2010).

Burns (1980) defines perfectionism as a cognitive network that includes the individual's expectations, evaluations and interpretations of himself and others. He also argues that perfectionists set goals that are hard to reach and work hard to achieve them. According to Beck (1976), it is natural for people's opinions to vary towards a particular event. Because people have the right to behave differently in their current situation. A person should be aware of alternatives before committing a behavior. The person who sees the opportunity in a certain situation considers more than the person that sees the right act. Thus, the person can produce more than one solution against the event. The important point is not to see the most correct option, but to see that there are different options. This situation brings to mind the concept of cognitive flexibility (Bilgin, 2017). It can be said that the standard of cognitive flexibility is a significant determinant of whether cognitions are similar or opposite. Cognitive flexible individuals are more constructive and positive in their individual characteristics and attitudes in bilateral relations. It has been stated that the purpose of cognitive flexibility is not to see the truth, but to evaluate all possibilities before making a selection (Martin & Anderson, 1998; Bilgin, 2009: pp.143).

Cognitive flexibility is the individual's awareness that there are several different behavioral options in the face of the encountered situation. Individuals with this awareness may think differently than individuals who believe in the truth (Martin & Anderson, 1998). Individuals' flexibility skills are considerable while adapting to new situations, and individuals' perceptions may differ according to their flexibility. (Deák, 2003, pp. 272-275). Individuals which have cognitive flexibility; they get conscious their alternative choices, they are flexible in adapting to new positions, and they feel competent when they are flexible. (Matthew & Rebecca, 1995) Individuals who do not have cognitive flexibility; experience some obstacles in problem solving and planning. Each individual may have different decision-making situations in different situations and events that he or she experiences. Although the notion of cognitive flexibility is also a concept that comes into play here, it has a significant impact on the decisions we make in the problems or situations we encounter in daily life (traffic, work, stress, human relations, etc.) (Sapmaz & Doğan, 2013: pp.147). Individuals make an extensive assortment of decisions all through their lives, and as a result of these decisions, they test to continue their lives as good or bad. All decisions made may be of distinct levels and importance for the person. (Kıral, 2015).

Decision-making is defined as a complex set of stages, in which an individual identifies, evaluates, and chooses more than one alternative action alternative (Phillips et al., 1984). In accord with Kuzgun (1992), decision-making can be described as an conformance that will comfort the distress experienced when that is expected to meet a need, there is more than one option in a situation. Decision making is also a cognitive procedure (Von Winterfeld & Edwards, 1986). That procedure begins with the presentation of the issue and termination with the implementation of the decisions and the appraisal of the results (Adair, 2000). The competence of the decision-making continuum is bound up with the individual that executes the decision; therefore, the method and personality traits determined by the individuals in the decision-making process are important (Shiloh, et al., 2001).

Other element that affects the decision-making process of people is their decision-making style. Decision-making style: It is the situation in which a person approaches, reacts and acts in a decision-making position (Phillips et al., 1984). At the same time, decision-making style assigns to individual differences in evaluating information for decision-making and problem solving (Thunholm, 2004).

Individuals use different styles in the decision-making process. According to Deniz (2004), individuals in the decision-making process; use mindful, avoidant, procrastinating and panic decision-making styles. Individuals practicing the mindful decision-making style attentively seek relevant knowledge before making a decision and make choices after cautiously considering selections. Individuals who practice avoidant decision-making styles do not want to make decisions and leave the responsibility to others. Individuals who prefer the procrastinating decision-making style; frequently try to postpone, delay and procrastinate the decision. Individuals who use the panic decision-making style feel below time oppression when encountered with a decision situation. As a result, they tend to display thoughtless behaviors and reach solutions quickly (Deniz, 2004). As having superior personal standards, following these standards no substance how hard they are to reach, and strictly criticizing one's performance is described perfectionism (Hamaheck, 1978).

When the cognitive development of the individual is examined, cognitive flexibility, which represents one of the executive functions, emerges in infancy and reaches its highest level in late adolescence or emerging adulthood (Zelazo, Craik, & Booth,

2004). Cognitive flexibility affects decision-making and problem-solving mechanisms that are effective in individuals' lifelong behaviors. A person who adapts to environmental conditions flexibly shows decision-making behavior to meet his needs (Kuzgun, 1992). Decision-making processes represent a conscious turn to someone when it comes to alternative ways to meet one's needs. However, this preference process may involve some stressful processes (Janis & Mann, 1976).

1.2. Purpose of The Study

The objective of this research is to investigate the effects of perfectionism and cognitive flexibility levels of emerging adults between the ages of 18-30 emerging adults on decision-making strategies.

1. How do emerging adults' cognitive flexibility levels, perfectionist attitudes and decision-making strategies show a distribution according to gender, education level and place of residence?
2. Is there a important difference of emerging adults' perfectionism, cognitive flexibility levels and decision-making strategies according to their gender, age, education level and place of residence?
3. Is there a important relation between the perfectionism levels, cognitive flexibility levels and decision-making strategies of emerging adults?
4. Do emerging adults' levels of perfectionism and cognitive flexibility predict their decision-making strategies?

1.3. Significance of the Study

Emerging adulthood is a term in which many changes and developments are experienced in a person's life, roles and responsibilities increase, and an independent life is in question (Saruhan, 2018). In this period, the individual takes important steps that will shape his life in many different areas of his life. With the speedily developing and advancing life, it is seen that individuals focus on being the best in many different areas such as business, social and private life and lead people towards perfectionism. Perfectionism is interpret as a personality trait shaped by patterns of desire to be perfect, fear of failure, setting superior standards for each performance, and excessive self-criticism (Frost et al., 1990).

Emerging adulthood is a term in which many changes and developments are experienced in a person's life, roles and responsibilities increase, and an independent life is in question (Saruhan, 2018). In this period, the individual takes important steps that will shape his life in many different areas of his life. With the swiftly advancing and developing life, it is realized that individuals focus on being the best in many different areas such as business, social and private life and lead people towards perfectionism. Perfectionism is characterized as a personality trait shaped by patterns of desire to be perfect, fear of failure, setting high standards for each performance and excessive self-criticism (Frost et al., 1990). As a result of their forms, they become the lifestyle of the individual. These ways of thinking, namely our cognitions, significantly affect our way of life and perception. The notion of cognitive flexibility also comes into play here. Cognitive flexibility is described as the ability to get conformity new states and find alternative options in individuals. In addition, this concept significantly affects the life of the individual, where it will determine the perfectionist attitude in the individual and who has to make continuous decisions at every moment of life. Individuals should be aware of alternative solutions while producing solutions to problems. Individuals should use their brains flexibly in order to be aware of alternative solutions. This situation is related to the individual's capacity to have cognitive flexibility (Polatoğlu, 2018).

Decision making is a complex process. Although cognitive processes such as reasoning, complex thinking and problem solving are thought to be intense in the decision-making process, it has been understood by many studies in the field of mental health that emotional and motivational functions play an important role. When making decisions, individuals formulate their cognitive judgments based on their own emotional experiences (Lerner, Li, Valdesolo, & Kassam, 2015). People in a decision-making situation can identify various behavioral choices, evaluate them, and eventually take decisions and take action. This process depends on how the individual handles the decision problem. People's decisions, problem-solving methods, and decision-making methods may differ from each other. The path people make decisions in the decision-making process, the way they follow a certain decision style and the solutions they follow are called decision-making strategies (Avşaroğlu, 2007; Kuzgun, 2014; Nas, 2006) Decision making style concept; individuals describe to internalize methods, reactions and actions (Thunholm, 2004). At the same time,

decision-making style refers to individual differences in making decisions and evaluating information to solve problems (Bakırcıoğlu, 2000). Individuals use different styles in the decision-making process (Avşaroğlu, 2007).

Humans go through various developmental stages from birth to death. Emerging adulthood can be said to be a period that significantly determines the remaining life of the person and that decisions are made. In this period, the individual can form a certain personality pattern according to the conditions of the period in which he lives. Looking from the past to the present, it has been seen that perfectionist tendencies have emerged as a result of efforts to improve many things that people have. It is seen that this trend is a versatile feature from the point of including many dimensions. The notion of cognitive flexibility emerges as a concept that explains being flexible and open to different alternatives in times of rapid change. Finally, when we look at the decision-making strategies, it has been seen that the fact that people are in a constant state of decision-making in their daily life is a component that significantly affects the lives of individuals. In this sense, the relationship between the concept of perfectionism, cognitive flexibility and decision-making strategies in the emerging adulthood will be beneficial for mental health professionals working in the part to understand the decision-making tendencies of individuals. In today's conditions, it is aimed to guide educators to thrive their creative and different thinking skills in order to raise awareness of parental environment attitudes that support the perfectionist tendencies of individuals. In addition, just as the letters researches are perused, there are studies on perfectionism, cognitive flexibility and decision-making strategies in emerging adults, and no research has been found in which all these variables are considered together. It is realized that there are limited and little studies investigating the relation between cognitive flexibility and decision-making strategies. Considering the importance of the variables in our research, more research on these issues is considered necessary. In this respect, the results of the research can complete this cavity in the literature and contribute to the field by adding new research to the field.

1.4. Assumptions

The findings of this research are based on some suppositions:

1. It will be assumed to represent the universe of the research group.

2. It will be assumed that emerging adults who participated in the research answered the Multidimensional Perfectionist Attitude Scale, the Cognitive Flexibility Scale, and the Melbourne Decision-Making Strategies Scale I-II candidly and in a way that reflects their real situation.

3. It will be assumed that the data collection instruments in the research meet the validity and reliability conditions.

1.5. Limitations

This research has some limitations in terms of measurement tools and sample used. The limitations of the research are discussed below. These research results:

1. It is limited to examining the perfectionism, levels, cognitive flexibility levels and decision-making strategies of emerging adults.
2. The research is limited to the information obtained from the adults who appeared in the 2022-2023 academic year in terms of time and sample.
3. Research, in terms of measurement tools used in data collection; It is limited to the qualities measured by the "Multidimensional Perfectionist Attitude Scale", the "Cognitive Flexibility Scale", and the "Melbourne Decision-Making Strategies Scale I-II".

1.6. Definition of Terms

Perfectionist Attitude: The concept of perfectionism is described as setting difficult and superior standards in the evaluations of the individual and others, efforts to reach these standards, and equating performance with self-perception (Antony & Swinson, 2000).

Cognitive Flexibility: It is the individual's awareness of alternative opportunities, being supple in adapting to new situations, and feeling competent when flexible (Martin & Rubin, 1995).

Decision-Making Strategies: The condition in that individual approaches, reacts and acts in a decision-making condition. (Phillips, Ferrin, & Pazienza, 1984). Personal characteristics and value attribution styles have an impact on individuals' decision-making styles (Payne, Bettman, & Johnson, 1993).

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

In this department, the technical construction of the study is explained and the literature on the studies in this field is examined. Firstly, emerging adulthood, perfectionism, cognitive flexibility and decision-making strategies will be presented and explained.

2.1. THE CONCEPT EMERGING ADULTHOOD

The life process of a person, from birth to death, is divided into certain periods, considering the biological and physical changes. These periods are prenatal, infancy, childhood, adolescence, adulthood, and old age. Recently, in addition to these known developmental periods, a new period extending from the late teens to the twenties has been emphasized. This period, which is called the "Emerging Adulthood", mostly covers the age range of 18-25, but can extend up to the age of 28-29, was first put forward by the American Developmental Psychologist Jeffrey Jensen Arnett. Arnett mentions that the emerging adulthood period for most young people living in industrialized countries includes radical changes and important events. During this period, most young people reach the level of education and training that will form the basis of the financial support and success they will reach in their adult working lives, they experience the permanent results of the choices they make at the end of their twenties, and they state that these choices affect their lives in the long run (Arnett, 2000; 2001).

According to Levinson (1986: pp.7), emerging adulthood is in the age scope of 17-45 years, which begins with the transition to early maturity and ends with the transition to middle age. This age is considered to be the peak years of the life cycle up to the age of 30 from a biological point of view, and these years were seen as a means to fulfill our youthful desires. Emerging adulthood, which includes the completion of adolescence and indeed the transition to adulthood, can be age uncertain. 29-year-olds between 19-year-olds who have reached adulthood especially in terms of demographics and identity formation, define young adulthood well. Emerging young

adulthood is different from both adolescence and adulthood. In other words, emerging adulthood is the transition term to adulthood, adults rising differently, reaching adulthood at different points (Arnett, 2000: pp. 477).

During this term, the individual have time his childhoods and his adolescence and experiment to become an independent individual by last his matrial and spiritual dependence on his parents and other environment (Eryılmaz & Ercan, 2011; Aydın, 2019). The main feature of this period, which is considered as one of the very significant milestones in the life of the individual and is important, is that it represents the entrance to adulthood (Gönül, 2008).



2.2. PERFECTIONISM

2.2.1. Concept of Perfectionism

The concept of perfectionism is the focus of attention of various personality theorists (Hamachek, 1978; Hollender, 1965; Pacht, 1984) and contemporary researchers (Frost, Marten, Lahart, & Rosenblate, 1990; Hewitt & Flett, 1991). Although it attracts the attention of many researchers, there is no single definition of perfectionism that is accepted by everyone. Many researchers have introduced various definitions in the letters since the beginning of this concept.

In the dictionary of the Turkish Language Association (2015), the meaning of the vocable perfection is explained as “completeness, perfection and competence”, and the word perfectionist is defined as “a person who makes excessive efforts to be perfect”.

It is the individual's adjusting very high standards for himself and striving relentlessly to reach them even though it causes problems. This includes basing the individual's self-worth almost entirely on how hard he strives for these standards and how well they are met (Shafran, Egan, & Wade, 2020). Another definition of perfectionism is that in order to achieve very high and unrealistic goals, one's critical questioning of oneself and an attitude that gives a feeling of defeat is explained (Frost et al., 1990).

Burns (1980) defines perfectionism as a cognitive network that includes the individual's expectations, evaluations, and interpretations of himself and others, and argues that perfectionists set goals that are hard to reach and work hard to achieve them.

Perfectionism is based on the fear of failure, with the continuation of an excessive and continuous effort for success in the individual. Perfectionist individuals constantly control themselves and evaluate their performance in order to reach the high standards they aim for. These individuals who have all or nothing thinking tend to focus more on their failures (Barrow & Moore, 1983; Patch, 1984; Shafran et al., 2002).

Consequently, this self-evaluation, negative self-perception is reinforced when the person experiences failure, and then commitment to high standards and the effort to

reach them increases. On the other hand, when the individual achieves success, he tends to attribute it to the outside for reasons such as the goal is not difficult enough. As a result, this strict self-assessment, which causes the difference between performance and standards despite excessive efforts to meet the standards, reduces the self-confidence of individuals in success (Eum and Rice, 2011; Rice et al., 2003; Shafran et al., 2002).

Just as the relevant letters is perused, it can be realized that the notion of perfectionism was handled as one-dimensional at the beginning and its destructive effects were emphasized, but as a result of recent studies, when this concept is considered as one-dimensional, it has been quite insufficient. In current findings, perfectionism has begun to be examined as a versatile personality variable (Frost et al., 1990).

2.2.2. Dimensions of Perfectionism

Hamachek (1978) is the first person to consider perfectionism multidimensional. Unlike other researchers, he mentioned two dimensions as normal and neurotic. According to Hamachek (1978), while normal perfectionists are defined as individuals who strive to reach high standards, are happy with their success and feel good for this reason, neurotic perfectionists are defined as individuals who are not happy when they reach high standards and think that they should do better each time. At the same time, Adler (1964) emphasized that human beings are born with a sense of lack, they strive for superiority to get out of this feeling, and Maslow (1987) emphasizes that human beings are in an effort to perfect their abilities in order to get self-actualization themselves. Adler (1964) and Maslow (1987)'s views are considered to be the predecessors of the thought that perfectionism should not be viewed as a one-dimensional and only negative trait.

According to Kottman (2000), one of the researchers who considers perfectionism multidimensional, positive perfectionists do not experience excessive anxiety in order to reach high standards. They are willing to work smarter when they cannot achieve their goals. On the other hand, negative perfectionists, experience excessive anxiety about reaching high standards and feel a destructive effect on themselves when they do not reach their goals. Similarly, Slade & Owens (1998) divided perfectionism into two as positive and negative parts. Positive perfectionism is the

individual's endeavor to achieve positive results, such as reaching his goals and high standards. Negative perfectionism is the individual's effort to avoid negative consequences, such as the desire to avoid failure. At the same time, negative perfectionism was found to be associated with unrealistic evaluation, dissatisfaction and neuroticism due to high standards of self and others' expectations.

In addition to the dimensions of perfectionism, the personality traits of perfectionist individuals have also been the subject of research. Antony and Swinson (2000) defined the personality traits of perfectionist individuals.

1) Exaggerate: It is the individual's repeating a behavior until he is sure that he is without mistakes.

2) Procrastination: When the individual is worried about a mistake, he prefers to avoid his job. Thus, he gets rid of to do this job perfection.

3) Over-organizing and making lists: Before starting a task, the individual is too busy with the to-do list by behaving in a certain order. This will make it difficult to finish a job.

4) Over-controlling and seeking assurance: The individual exhibits excessive control behavior and constantly seeks assurance until he is sure that he has done a job perfectly.

5) Decision-making difficulty: The one wants to get rid of the possibility of making a mistake by deciding on the most correct one among various options.

6) Inability to delegate: Since the individual is not sure that someone else will do his/her job perfectly, he/she cannot trust anyone, give authority and cannot work in a group.

7) Giving up quickly: When the individual believes that he cannot do a job perfectly and without mistakes, he gives up on completing it. In this way, the individual is freed from the possibility of failure.

While other scientists, Hewitt and Flett (1991) define perfectionism as the endeavor to be perfect in the multidimensional conceptualization of perfectionism, they suggested that perfectionism is a personality feature, and this is reflected in interpersonal

relationships as well. In their study, the researchers mentioned that perfectionism consists of three different categories. These;

1. *Self-directed perfectionism*; It is the individual's setting extremely high standards for himself. Individuals can be punishing towards themselves when they fail.

2. *Perfectionism towards others*; It is the individual's setting unrealistic standards for others and their expectations in this direction. When other people fail, the individual may feel blaming and hostile towards them.

3. *Socially determined perfectionism*; It is the individual's attempt to meet the standards set by the society. The person thinks that society has certain expectations for him and may feel intense anger towards society when he fails.

In accordance this information, it is noteworthy that there are many studies dealing with the concept of perfectionism from the past to the present. Researches that will contribute to the conceptualization of perfectionism seem to be up to date. One reason for this is thought to be due to the lack of consensus among researchers in definitions of perfectionism. Because the most important obstacle encountered in defining perfectionism is the inability to distinguish between the characteristics of successful and talented people and perfectionist individuals (Frost, Marten, Lahart, & Rosenblate, 1990).

2.2.3. The Development of Perfectionism

It is known that both environmental and biological factors play a mission in the formation of personality traits. Environmental and biological factors are also effective in the formation of perfectionism. Studies have concluded that perfectionism able to be passed on inherited (Tozzi et al., 2004). Criticism and feedback received from the environment of a person who is genetically inclined to be a perfectionist can affect the progress of the person's perfectionism (Antony & Swinson, 2000).

Family is another important element in the development of perfectionism. The effects of the family have also been examined under various headings. First of all, attention was drawn to the perfectionist features in the family. Parents' desire and insistence from their children to do the best of everything and to be the most successful allows the development of perfectionist features on the child. On the other hand, since the

attitudes and acts of the perfectionist parents are ascertained by the children through modeling and imitation, without coercion or pressure, it paves the way for the formation of a perfectionist personality structuring for the child (Frost & Marten, 1990).

Hutchinson and Yates (2008) made mention of the impact of maternal attitudes on perfectionism. According to the study, mothers have direct expectations for children, controlled expectations, and attitudes of encouraging effort. There are two types of expectations. Direct expectation does not take into account the characteristics of the child, and ideal, expectations are dictated. In the other expectation, controlled, the characteristics of the child are taken into account and presented to the child. Finally, by encouraging effort, perfectionist features are reinforced, and the acquisition process accelerates.

Birth order and number of siblings also play a mission in the improving of perfectionism. The eldest child in the family spends more time with their parents and is seen as the first model for the family to realize their ideals. In addition to the pressure felt by the family, the desire to be a good model for siblings pushes the person to perfectionist features. On the other hand, being an only child causes the person to experience all the pressure because there is no other option for the expectations of the family, and perfectionist features develop in order to become the desired child (Kağan, 2006).

Another important element in the development of perfectionism is the child's level of development. In field index studies, it has been stated that gifted children are prone to develop perfectionist features. Silverman (2007) explained the perfectionism seen in gifted children with the following information:

- ✓ Perfectionism is an abstract concept and requires advanced abstract thinking skills to be understood and grasped. Gifted children have this skill more than their peers.
- ✓ Perfectionism consists of high features and standards. Gifted children have these characteristics and standards more than their peers.
- ✓ Since gifted children tend towards future planned actions and behaviors, their perfectionism is compatible with the future tense thinking structure.

- ✓ Gifted children prefer competitive and challenging activities. This trait corresponds to perfectionism, which requires excessive effort for the target behavior.

In addition to the family, learning and reinforcement behaviors in social and daily life also have an important state in the improvement of perfectionist characteristics. While the conditions in which he is successful in his friends or education lifetime are reinforced, the child may besides develop a distorted cognition that being successful is a necessity. For this reason, the beliefs that he developed that he should do the best in order to be popular among friends and to gain respect and prestige in educational life lay the groundwork for perfectionism (Egan et al., 2014).

2.2.4. Theoretical Perfectionism

2.4.1.1. Psychoanalytic Theory

Freud, the founder of psychoanalytic theory, which is one of the leading theories that form the basis of studies on perfectionism, explained perfectionism by associating human effort to be perfect and the reason for this effort with the functions of the superego. It states the childhood period as the beginning of the individual's desire to be perfect and to look perfect. He stated that it is a process that continues with the internalization of the rewards and punishments given by the child's parents (Gençtan, 2002).

It is known that Freud explained five different developmental stages in his theory of development. The anal stage, which is one of these periods and is thought to be the basis of perfectionist behaviors, is the period when the child begins to dominate the anus muscles and with it, toilet training is started. One of the most defining features of this period is the experiences in the process of giving toilet training to the child. If there is no harmony between the mother and the child during toilet training and the mother behaves unsympathetically, one of the situations that may occur in the next developmental period is a distinctive character development with features such as stubbornness, excessive regularity, rigid-mindedness and stinginess, which is called anal conservatism (Gençtan, 2002). Similarly, Ayhan (2007) states that the hard and

critical attitude of the parents to the child during toilet training will lead to the development of features related to perfectionism.

2.4.1.2. The Theory of Individual Psychology

Adler (2002) states that the first step of perfectionism is the first moment when a person is born. He explains the baby, who has just come to the world and is in need of care, as a weak being. The child's inadequacy and dependence on his environment can cause feelings of helplessness and reveal feelings of inferiority.

It becomes difficult for a person to struggle with all these emotions and causes perfectionist feelings. Adler states that people with these feelings have problems in their social relationships. In this case, the fact that individuals with negative features of perfectionism achieve unsuccessful results despite their exaggerated or excessive efforts to excel in terms of the goals they set, affect these individuals negatively.

Adler also explained the "healthy and unhealthy" aspects of perfectionism. Perfectionist individuals who progress in line with attainable goals define healthy, perfectionists who pursue unrealistic goals as unhealthy. While unhealthy perfectionists establish more negative relationships, healthy perfectionists are better in human relations and always want to improve these aspects (Eskiili, 2015).

2.4.1.3. Behavioral Theory

Other approach related to the notion of perfectionism is the "Behavioral Theory".

Skinner emphasizes the role of the environment in shaping and continuation of behavior. According to Skinner, it can increase when the individual's behavior is positively reinforced and results in reward. Similarly, when people show behaviors that do not have rewarding consequences or are punished, they tend to exhibit the same behavior less and less (Nelson-Jones, 1982: pp.119). According to this theory, the concept of perfectionism can be explained simply by the need for reinforcers.

Social learning theory, which is seen as a continuation of the behaviorist school, argues that perfectionism is learned by taking role models and imitating behaviors by observing them. According to this theory, the individual observes and evaluates perfectionist personality traits in his early life, in his family, later in school, and then through the media. After seeing the positive results of the behavior, the individual will have learned and adopted the perfectionist features (Yüçetürk, 2018). According to Bandura as perfection is arrived, the person will learn perfection entirely this

experience as a need to gain reinforcement if reinforcement is given only. When non-perfect results consist, the person will wait punishment, which is a humiliating effect. Therefore, having the maximum standards in all fields arising from behavioral reinforcements results in perfectionist propensities (Borynack, 2003:7).

2.4.1.4. Cognitive-Behavioral Approach and Rational-Emotional Approach

Ellis thinks human beings as both rational and irrational. People are easily affected by events and, they can feel negative emotions (such as anxiety, guilt, hostility). That's why he claims that man's emotional problems are also tied to his irrational thoughts. Individuals also have a set of irrational thoughts or beliefs that cause problems and neurotic symptoms. When individuals do not change or stretch these irrational thoughts, they may show neurotic symptoms (Altıntaş & Gültekin, 2005). Ellis, who pioneered the Rational-Emotional Approach, included many features that are closely related to the perfectionist personality structure and especially the perfectionist thinking styles (Graf, 1997). Ellis emphasizes that many disturbing emotions are based on irrational beliefs, and particularly emphasizes three main irrational beliefs. One of these irrational beliefs is “the individual's desire to do everything well and to be appreciated for successes, or the tendency to see himself as useless”. Some of the irrational beliefs that Ellis (1977) listed under 12 headings, which are related to the perfectionist mindset, can be listed as follows:

- 1) You should always be loved and appreciated by all the people you care about.
- 2) You must demonstrate that you are successful, competent and competent, or at least really close to perfection in some aspects.
- 3) People's work must be better than they are, if you can't find immediate and good solutions to life's difficulties and difficulties, you should see it as a very bad and terrible thing.
- 4) You must be extremely organized and not relaxed.
- 5) Your self-worth and self-acceptance as a human being, your overall worth; It depends on your good performance and the degree of people's appreciation of you (Nelson-Jones, 1982:52-53).

According to Ellis, they accept the values of their parents who meet their needs from their early childhood experiences. If the child is told that he must be perfect or he will

not be loved, the child accepts this as a universal truth without criticism, and when he does not meet this expectation, he thinks that he is worthless, inadequate and guilty, and experiences anxiety. This leads to self-destructive thoughts and feelings (Altınyazar & Gültekin, 2005).

Common features of these beliefs, as well as Ellis's irrational beliefs, are closely related to perfectionism. In particular, the expectations of the individual for the satisfaction of his wishes and preferences include the expressions "must" and "property", either explicitly or implicitly. The term "appropriation", which Ellis uses to describe unreasonable demands, and the words "excellence", "extraordinary" and "intolerance" also indicate this feature (Graf, 1997: pp.21).

2.4.5. Holistic Approach

Horney (1995), one of the theorists who come to mind with the holistic psychology approach, differs from Freud with her views on the concept of perfectionism. Horney emphasizes that perfection has an important place in the development of the ideal self. The concept of perfectionism, which is influenced by the behavior of the environment and family, is very effective in the personality of the individual. (cited in Shultz and Shultz, 2002).

According to Horney (1975), the need for perfection is defined as a motivation for realizing the ideal self. The individual has a neurotic ambition to gain power and fame in order to realize the ideal self. Perfectionism, on the other hand, describes a neurotic need as a result of insecurity. In the formation of personality, the relationship of the child with the environment is observed. (Shultz& Shultz, 2002).

2.5. Consequences of Perfectionism

One of the possible consequences of perfectionism is depression. Studies have shown that perfectionism poses a risk for depression because it causes more cognitive rumination. In addition, failure to achieve high-standard target behavior and even the smallest obstacles cause negative thinking, fear and anxiety of perfectionists to develop depressive symptoms (Flett et al., 1995).

Rice et al. (1998) stated that the self-esteem of perfectionists is low. These individuals had an inflated sense of self. For this reason, they can be hurt very quickly in the face of a negative situation. In addition, the fact that it is almost impossible to achieve the

exaggerated goals set explains the decrease in self-esteem. Finally, it was stated that high perfectionist traits lower self-esteem, as well as cause depressive symptoms.

Perfectionists have exaggerated beliefs and goals regarding social environments and performances. The inflexibility of these thoughts and goals causes more anxiety about failure. For this reason, the perfectionist will want to be seen as the best in social situations and will want to be the most successful in public performances. As a result of all these exaggerated demands and standards, people will experience symptoms of social anxiety (Rosser et al., 2003).

As one of the results of perfectionism, irrational beliefs are seen in individuals. As the relationship with reality is not deteriorated, the goals and thoughts created become very extreme, even close to impossible. As a result of not realizing these goals, the individual feels ashamed of himself, feels guilty, experiences indecisive feelings and lowers his self-esteem. As a result of these, the motivation and positive mood necessary for daily life disappear (Dilmaç et al., 2009).

The perfectionist tendency in individuals may pave the way for various psychological disorders. One of them is anxiety. Perfectionists show signs of extreme anxiety as a result of their failure or thoughts they have developed as a result of their behaviors. There is anxiety in every behavior and thought for perfectionism, and there is a faith that this anxiety will decrease only as the target act is accomplished (Demirci, 2017).

2.6. Related Studies

Aydemir and Bayram Arlı (2020), in their research examining the relationship between multidimensional perception of perfectionism and self-esteem and stress, established that the sub-dimensions of perfectionism, extra attention to faults, suspicious behavior, familial criticism, and familial expectation, have an increasing effect on stress. In addition, while the positive order and personal standards dimensions of perfectionism affect self-esteem positively, it has been found that the sub-dimensions of perfectionism, excessive interest in mistakes, suspicious behavior, familial criticism and familial expectation affect self-esteem negatively.

Sotardi and Dubien (2019) examined about perfectionism studying in New Zeland. As a consequent of the research, it has been concluded that the negative effects of high

expectations on the wellbeing of the individual are higher in men, although the scale is a valid and reliable tool. It has also been found that perfectionism is related with the individual's performance.

Curran and Hill (2019), in their meta-analysis study, investigated whether cultural changes in university students over 27 years (1989-2016) overlap with an enhancement in multidimensional perfectionism. Generally, based on the requesting of the observed increase, the findings suggest that the last generation of youth perceive others to be more demanding of them, more demanding than others, and more demanding of themselves.

In the examination conducted by Başsayın (2018) on married individuals, it was determined that there was a considerable difference between the scores acquired from the "socially determined perfectionism" and "other-oriented" dimensions and the scores obtained from the "marriage adjustment" and "marriage adjustment" and "self-directed perfectionism" dimensions.

Smith et al. (2017) investigated the relationship of perfectionism with suicide in the direction of its harms by conducting a meta-analysis study. According to the findings; Close positive associations were found between self-identified perfectionism, worry about making mistakes, suspicions about actions, inconsistency, self-directed perfectionism, and high personal standards and suicidal ideation. At the same time, parental criticism and parental prospects were also found to have a small positive relationship with suicidal ideation.

Abuhanoğlu et al. (2015) examined perfectionism in a university that trains health workforce. According to the findings, Self-directed and self-determined perfectionism is higher in males than females. In addition, it was revealed that perfectionism (self-directed, others-oriented, determined by others) differs according to school type, family income, father's education level, where people live and number of siblings.

In the study conducted by Dişbudak (2016), it was specified that the "perfectionism dimensions" differed significantly in line with the demographic characteristics of the instructors. Moreover, it was specified that the sub-dimensions of "suspicious behavior", "excessive attention to mistakes", "family expectations", "personal standards" and "family criticism" in the perfectionism scale differed positively from "sub-dimensions of burnout" and "burnout".

Multidimensional perfectionism and burnout in a meta-analysis between is studied by Hill & Curran (2015). According to the findings obtained from 43 studies; It was observed that there were little or non-significant negative correlations between perfectionist restrictions and general burnout and burnout symptoms. In addition, on the contrary, it was determined that there were medium-large positive correlations between perfectionist concerns and general burnout and burnout symptoms.

In the study prepared by Pirinççi (2009), it was examined whether there is a considerable relationship between perfectionism levels and anxiety levels. The sample of the research take place a secondary education institution. According to the findings, it was finalized that there is a positive relationship between self-directed perfectionism and levels of state anxiety and trait anxiety. In other words, it means that students with high self-perfectionism also have high levels of anxiety.

Periasamy and Ashby (2002) research was investigated perfectionism and locus of control. Reserarchers' unperfectionists have significantly lower internal control scores than adaptive and maladaptive perfectionists. They found that non adaptive perfectionists had a significantly higher external locus of control than those who were compatible and not perfect.

Flett et al. (2002) investigated the relationship between perfectionism cognitions, repetitive thoughts, and psychological stress. Many scales, including perfectionism, were applied to the sample of 65 students. The intent of the study was to determine the relationship between automatic thoughts involving perfectionist themes characterized by repetitive thoughts and intrusive thoughts following a stressful experience. High levels of perfectionism cognitions, socially perceived perfectionism, and repetitive thoughts were found to be associated with measures representing worry and depression.

Wittenberg and Norcross (2001) examined the relationship between perfectionism, uncertainty in conducting psychotherapy, and psychotherapy satisfaction in general practitioners working in the field of psychology. The pattern of the study consisted of 197 private practice psychologists at the doctoral level. Results showed that high, socially oriented perfectionism and low uncertainty tolerance were associated with less enjoyment of psychotherapy practices.

3. COGNITIVE FLEXIBILITY

3.1. The Concept of Cognitive Flexibility

The "cognitive" part of the theory of cognitive flexibility refers to recalling previous information from memory during the acquisition of information, and the "flexibility" part expresses to the individual's ability to use this information flexibly in different situations. The person should be able to use his knowledge and cognition flexibly regardless of the situation and transfer this knowledge in different ways depending on the situation (Karadeniz, 2008). In the developing and changing universe, the necessity of raising not only individuals who produce and learn information, but also flexible individuals who can see different options in difficult situations and choose the most suitable one among them has emerged. At this point, cognitive flexibility is one of the considerable concepts of cognitive processes in healthy individuals. In the improving and changing world, the necessity of raising not only individuals who produce and learn information, but also flexible individuals who can see different options in difficult situations and choose the most suitable one among them has emerged. At this point, cognitive flexibility is an major framework in the cognitive processes of healthy individuals. Examining the factors that may be effective in the functioning of this system will make the cognitive flexibility structure more understandable (Laçın & Yalçın, 2019). In today's world, where life is moving very fast, the strategies that people have developed to solve the problems they face are an indicator of the level of cognitive flexibility. According to Beck (1976), it is natural for people's opinions to vary towards a particular event. Since people have the right to behave differently in the situation they are in. A person should be aware of alternatives before committing a behavior. The person who sees the alternatives in a certain situation thinks more than the person who sees the right behavior. Thus, the person can find more than one solution to the event. The important point is not to see the most correct option, but to see that there are different options (Bilgin,2017).

Just as the literature is investigated, it is seen that more than one definition of the notion of cognitive flexibility has been made. According to Canas (2006), cognitive flexibility in general is the capacity to organize someone's information processing strategies in order to use them in new and unexpected situations around them. The individual has the potential and right to behave differently in any situation. At this

point, the notion of cognitive flexibility gets to the fore. According to Martin and Anderson (1998), cognitive flexibility is the one's cognizance of alternative resolutions and choices regarding any situation, being flexible to new conditions and feeling competent in these situations. Cognitive flexibility is based on 3 basic items; experience, information processing strategy adaptation, adaptation to environmental variables. Based on this concept map, cognitive flexibility can be developed with experience, it can vary according to the individual's information processing perception strategy, and it can affect the ability to cope with changing external conditions. Cognitive flexibility is a multi-component process, often referred to as the mental set-up, ability, ability to shift thought or attention, or respond to situations to perceive, process in different ways. cognitive flexibility explain the capability to adapt to different situations, the ability to switch from one thought to another, or the talent to look at different issues with versatile strategies (Stevens, 2009). According to Denis and Vander Wal (2009), cognitive flexibility covers three basic areas. These;

«Firstly, The tendency to perceive difficult situations as controllable, secondly, The ability to perceive that there are possible alternatives to life situations and human behaviors, and lastly, It is the ability to produce multiple solutions to solve difficult situations. »

Individuals who get cognitive flexibility are realized choices, can influentially cope with new and hard conditions, produce different thoughts and ideas, and are competent in adapting to new conditions (Altunkol, 2011; Bilgin, 2009; Martin & Rubin, 1995; Stahl & Pry, 2005).

3.2. Theories and Approaches to Cognitive Flexibility

The notion of cognitive flexibility has been tried to be clarified from different perspectives and has been covered by most theories. Some of the theories that deal with cognitive flexibility are given below.

3.2.1. Cognitive Behavioral Therapy

Aaron T. Beck's "cognitive behavioral therapy model"; It is a model that states that the emotions, behaviors and physiology of individuals are directly affected by the way they perceive the events. The cognitive model covers all of our cognitive distortions and reactions, the way we perceive situations and events, our automatic thoughts, in

other words. In cognitive behavioral therapy, individuals' emotions and behaviors in the face of an incident or situation determine their thoughts towards that event. In other words, the existing situation or the events experienced do not directly determine how the person feels, the way the person perceives the event determines his feelings and behaviors (Beck, 2018).

Beck emphasizes the effect of thought and belief systems, namely cognitive processes, in determining emotions and behaviors, and is based on the "Computing Model" (Rmanerö & Törneke, 2018, p. 21). Therapeutically, it focuses on the individual's information processing strategy or the way the individual thinks about a situation, and examines how the individual feels and behaves depending on this thinking mechanism (Rassmusen, 2005, p. 3). According to the cognitive model, the cause of all psychological illness is the patient's distorted or dysfunctional minds that affect his psychological state and behavior. Realistically revising and changing these thoughts helps improve feelings and behaviors. However, permanent improvements may occur when the patient changes their dysfunctional basic beliefs (Beck, 2005).

In the cognitive behavioral therapy model, people's cognitions are classified as schemas and automatic thoughts. The schema separates, encodes and reevaluates external stimuli. If schemas are flexible, open, and permeable, one's ability to perceive and organize information is fast and successful. Otherwise, it is thought that if the schemas are closed, rigid and not permeable, organizing the information may fail and the mental health of the individual may be adversely affected. In short, it is thought that individuals whose schemas are flexible and open have high cognitive flexibility. In this regard, Bochner & Kelly (1974) also stated that, pursuant the cognitive behavioral therapy model, the schemas of ones who are cognitively flexible are flexible. These individuals can look at things from different perspectives and can quickly adapt to different situations according to needs. In other words, according to cognitive behavioral therapy, cognitive flexibility is the opposite of rigid and inconsistent attitudes. Individuals with low cognitive flexibility have been shown to have a higher risk of depression because they are quite rigid in their thinking and frequently use various cognitive distortions. The concept expressed as rigid thoughts is that the person has an "all or nothing" way of thinking about a situation. For these people, there is only one way, only one right (Moore, 1996).

Based on all these explanations, cognitive therapy aims to reach a flexible and stable thinking system that is far from an 'all or nothing' thinking style. Counseling sessions are shaped accordingly. For this reason, we can say that one of the most considerable goals of cognitive therapies is to increase the cognitive flexibility of individuals (Dennis & Vander, 2010).

Because, ultimately, cognitive therapists also think that individuals who are cognitively flexible are happier and make healthier decisions.

3.2.2. Rational Emotive Behavioral Therapy Model

The rational emotional behavioral therapy model, thoughts, feelings, and behaviors constantly affect each other like a cog in a wheel. Ellis argues that people are born with the potential to think both logically and illogically or distortedly. According to this model, it is emphasized that the nature of individuals is prone to make mistakes. However, even if the individual continues to make mistakes, the major purpose of this therapy model is for individuals to accept themselves (Corey, 2008).

Rationality is a concept that qualifies an individual's beliefs. In REBT, rational beliefs are flexible and central to psychological health and consistent with reality, reason, self and relationship development. This approach: accepts that cognition, emotion and behavior are not separate from each other and interact with each other (Dryden, 2005, p. 321).

Rational emotional behavioral therapy provides psychological counseling to clients in the A-B-C model. In this model, the letter A is defined as an event or initiating factor experienced by the individual. The letter C takes its place in the model as a result of the current event. Ellis argues that the initiating event does not lead to the result. What needs to be examined are the beliefs of the person who takes his place in the model as B and between A and C. Since the change in the beliefs of the person changes the way of interpreting the events, it also affects the possible results (Köroğlu & Türkçapar, 2013).

These beliefs, which are examined in the therapy process as irrational beliefs, are rigid cognitive thought patterns. The therapist's approach to these irrational beliefs is an effort to make them more flexible and applicable to different situations.

Confronting one's irrational beliefs, analyzing false results, and experiencing positive

results by recognizing possible alternative ways of thinking are techniques applied for cognitive flexibility. In addition, providing an adequate level of psychoeducation for irrational beliefs will also facilitate the therapy environment (Dryden & David, 2008).

Cognitive Behavior and Rational Emotional Behaviorist approach; indicates criteria for psychological health. These are personal attention, social interest, self-direction, high vulnerability tolerance, participation, self-acceptance, accepting uncertainty, setting realistic expectations, taking responsibility for oneself, taking risks. Flexibility is also defined among them. In this context, psychologically healthy individuals are flexible in their thoughts, open to change, and adopt a pluralistic and broader perspective towards other people (Ellis & Dryden, 2007, pp. 18-19). Therefore, cognitive flexibility is very important for adopting a more fulfilling and healthy life. It is possible to say that if a person evaluates situations and events from a wider perspective and more flexible, he will display a rational method (Altunkol, 2017, p. 20).

3.2.3. Social Cognitive Theory

Social Cognitive Theory, developed by Bandura, is a theory that considers cognitive processes as well as reinforcement-based learning of behavioral approaches in explaining human behavior. Social cognitive theory; It includes some basic assumptions such as indirect learning, mutual determination and self-regulation. According to Bandura, he said that learning is not only possible through the behavior of individuals, but also by observing the behavior of others and seeing the results of their behavior, and explained this with the concept of indirect learning (İnanç & Yerlikaya, 2014). The concept of indirect learning examines the behaviors and attitudes of individuals through imitation and observation and applies them by trial and error. This practice then ends with the internalization or abandonment of related attitudes (Yiu, Cheung, & Siu, 2012). In the process of creating the behavior, the individual creates internal criteria, observes his own behavior, evaluates his behavior in line with these criteria, and changes his behavior when it is necessary. This is called self-regulation. According to Zimmerman (1986), self-regulation; it is the degree of metacognitive, motivational and behavioral participation of the individual in the behavior acquisition process (as cited in Risemberg & Zimmerman, 1992, p. 98). According to the self-regulation mechanism, the individual both exists in social life

and creates social life (İnanç & Yerlikaya, 2014). The individual, the environment and the behavior trio are in an interactive relationship. It is not possible to talk about a symmetrical power or effect in this interaction, it is shaped by the power of factors (Zimmerman, 1989). This relationship, based on the principle of reciprocity, serves the self-regulation mechanism by providing the individual with the capacity to regulate his own life, such as creating expectations, developing different thoughts, and developing personal standards to evaluate his behaviors (İnanç & Yerlikaya, 2014).

People's ability to act continues throughout life. Behaviors are both regulated to be compatible with individuals' internal criteria, and new criteria/targets are constantly set and an imbalance arises. Individuals use their own skills to achieve balance. Belief in efficacy is very important especially in skills such as problem solving and coping, where cognitive flexibility is required. Because individuals' perceptions of their own competence directly affect how much or what kind of effort they will make in the face of events (Türkçapar & Sargın, 2011).

3.3. Related Studies

Liu and Wei (2020) aimed to investigate the mediating effect of cognitive flexibility and the mitigating effect of relative appreciation on the relationship between students' acculturation stress and ethnocultural empathy. The sample of the study consists of 199 international students between the ages of 18-34. As a result of the research, it was stated that there was no significant difference between the cognitive flexibility of the students and their age.

The design of their research by Sinnott, Hilton, Wood, & Douglas (2020) is a relational study that tests the hypothesis that there will be positive linear relationships between flow, awareness, cognitive flexibility, and informal thinking. The research group consists of 46 undergraduate students between the ages of 18-32. As a result of the research, it was stated that there was no significant difference between the genders of undergraduate students and their cognitive flexibility.

In the study prepared by Ekici & Balcı (2019), it was determined that the cognitive flexibility levels of pre-school teacher candidates did not differ remarkably pursuant to various variables such as "age, class level, income level, number of siblings and place of residence".

Bozkurt (2019) aimed to determine the significance between the psychological resilience, exam anxiety level and cognitive flexibility level of 749 students between the ages of 12-16 in his study. There was no considerable distinction in cognitive flexibility level pursuant to age, gender and number of siblings. A considerable difference was found between cognitive flexibility and economic status. It was determined that the cognitive flexibility level of those with good economic situation was higher than those with needy economic situation.

In the research of Yelpeze & Yakar (2019); They examined whether university students' life satisfaction and cognitive flexibility show a considerable difference pursuant to their gender, department, grade level and academic achievement. A total of 545 university students participated in the study. As a result of the research; It was observed that the cognitive flexibility levels of female students, students studying at the faculty of education and those with low academic achievement were significantly lower. At the same time, it was observed that there was a positive and significant relationship between cognitive flexibility and life satisfaction.

In their study, Üzümcü and Muezzin (2018) examined the relationship between teachers' cognitive flexibility and their professional satisfaction levels. Data were collected from 529 teachers in the study. According to the results of the research; It has been observed that as the cognitive flexibility of teachers increases, their professional satisfaction also increases.

In the study conducted by Buğa, Özkamalı, Altunkol, Wise, & Çekiç (2018), it was determined that university students' social problem-solving skills, their attitudes towards the problem and their problem-solving styles significantly affect their "cognitive flexibility" levels. In addition, it has been determined that students with higher "cognitive flexibility" level are more effective in problem solving skills.

In Kaya's (2018) study, it was found that the cognitive flexibility levels of special education specialists and psychologists were considerably higher than physiotherapists. Besides, it was found that the difference between "cognitive flexibility" and "psychological resilience" showed significant results.

Gürbüz (2017) conducted a study to measure the relationship between self-efficacy levels and cognitive flexibility of students taking pedagogical formation, and a study was conducted with 699 students who took pedagogical formation in 2015-2016. It is

seen that there is no considerable difference between the general cognitive flexibility score and the gender and department variable. There is a considerable difference between the common cognitive flexibility score according to the age variable, and it was stated that the averages of the 20-25 and 26-30 age groups were lower than the averages of the 31-35 age group.

In a study conducted by Cardom (2016, p. 35), there was founded positive and considerable relationship between individuals' cognitive flexibility levels and their mental well-being. Also, according to the results; cognitive flexibility and mental well-being levels of individuals did not differ significantly according to their genders.

Çelikkaleli's (2014) study showed that there is a positive relation between academic, social, and emotional self-efficacy scores and cognitive flexibility. In addition, as a result of regression analysis, it was found that social and sentimental self-efficacy significantly predicted cognitive flexibility.

In a study conducted by Soltani et al. (2013), they collected data from university students to see the relationship between cognitive flexibility, depression, and resilience. According to the research findings, they concluded that there is a negative relationship between depression and cognitive flexibility, and a positive relationship between resilience and cognitive flexibility.

In a study conducted by Shimogori in (2013), they investigated that the levels of self-efficacy and cognitive flexibility of individuals differ significantly depending on whether they are bicultural or not. Biculturalism can be defined as the situation in which a person is under the influence of a completely different culture apart from the culture he or she has inherited. He concluded that the cognitive flexibility levels of individuals who have lived in the United States for many years are significantly higher than those who have lived for a shorter period of time. In addition, a moderately positive relationship was observed between "biculturalism", "self-efficacy" and "cognitive flexibility".

Ritter et al. (2012) in their research; The effect of unusual and unexpected experiences on individuals' cognitive flexibility levels was examined. The research was carried out with two experimental groups. The first group consisted of 61 people (15 men, 46 women), and the second group consisted of 81 people (68 women and 13 men). Participants were allowed to experience unusual and unexpected events through

virtual reality. Experiments with both groups were compared with the control groups. Consequently the comparisons, it has been observed that the cognitive flexibility levels of individuals who experience unusual and unexpected experiences outside the routine of daily life increase.

In the research conducted by Altunkol (2011) the sample consisted of bachelor students. Consequently, the analyzes, it was determined that there was no significant difference between the economic situation and cognitive flexibility. According to the correlation analysis, it was determined that there was a negative correlation between cognitive flexibility and stress level. It is also reported that as age increases, the level of cognitive flexibility also increases.



4. DECISION-MAKING STRATEGIES

4.1. Decision Making

The individual has to make decisions in many situations from birth to death. In today's living conditions, daily life flows rapidly. This rapid flow brings with it decision making at the same speed. Decide; It is an orientation that will solve the situation when there are many alternatives that can reach an object that is expected to meet a need (Kuzgun, 1992).

Decision-making is the choice of the most attractive option for the event in which the existing options are in order to meet this need in a situation where the individual needs it (Gürçay, 1998). Decision-making is defined as a complex set of stages in which a person identifies, evaluates, and chooses a large number of action alternatives to implement one of these alternatives (Phillips et al., 1984).

In accordance with Kuzgun (1992), decision making can be described as a tendency to eliminate the distress experienced when there is more than one option that will lead to an object that is thought to meet a need.

Decision making is one of the most important skills in an individual's life. While timely, appropriate, correct and appropriate decisions affect the life of the individual positively, the wrong decisions affect the life of the individual negatively. Individuals look for problem-solving ways to overcome many difficulties in their daily lives (Tathioğlu, 2014).

Since man is not a alive that adapts automatically and instinctively to the events around him, he makes decisions in all periods of his life (Kuzgun, 1992). Decision-making is the sum of cognitive, emotional and behavioral processes related to choosing among options that will reach various goals (Eren, 2009: 197-198). According to Kuzgun (1992), three conditions must exist for the emergence of decision-making behavior:

1. "The existence of a difficulty that reveals the need for decision-making and the individual's feeling of this difficulty",
2. "Having more than one option to solve the difficulty",
3. "The individual has the freedom to choose one of the alternatives."

Decision-making is a situation that starts with the emergence of a situation that requires decision-making, and determines how to decide by evaluating the options in the face of this situation, and decision-making is considered as a process consisting of several stages (Candangil, 2005). The effect of the decision can change according to the environmental conditions, the developmental stages of the person and the characteristics of the process that requires decision making (Norfolk, 1989, cited in Avşaroğlu, 2007). In order for us to make ideal decisions, the problem must be properly understood and defined. It is also important to have enough information about the problem before making a decision (Genç, 1994).

When the letters is examined, it is seen that many different definitions of the concept of decision making have been made. While Janis and Mann (1977) define it as the behavior done to resolve the conflict that arises during the selection process and to reduce stress, according to Etzioni (1992), decision making is defined as the point reached on the way of logic and values. Miller and Byrnes (2001) described decision making as the process of choosing between various alternatives meanwhile trying to achieve the goal. According to Tosun (1992), decision making is all of the efforts made to find more than one alternative solution to a problem and to choose one of these options. Kuzgun (2005), on the other hand, defined decision making as the activity of turning to an object that is thought to meet this need in case of a need.

4.2. Decision-Making Process

As a social being, human is in constant interaction with other people. In social relations, which are complex by nature, individuals often face difficulties and problems that need to be overcome. In this sense, in order to maintain and maintain the relationship, the individual has to make the most appropriate decision by determining the options and solutions. Decision-making, which includes the stages of thinking about the problem and determining the options for the decision, is the behavior of deciding on one of the available options in case of need, which basically includes cognitive processes (Güçray, 1998).

The decision-making process, when faced with a situation that needs to be decided, the individual; It is defined as the situation of determining when and how to make a decision regarding this situation. It is stated that decision-making behavior consists of a process and successive phases. In the first stage of the process, the individual encounters a problem situation. The second stage, he focuses on solutions by

producing the necessary options to eliminate this problem situation. Last stage, the individual reviews the positive and negative aspects of the problem situation and analyzes the problem. Individuals put one into practice and completes the decision-making process (Candangil, 2005).

The decision-making process consists of three steps in terms of time: The first step is the past time when a problem arose and it was understood that a decision was needed. The second step is the present time when options are determined and one of them is chosen, and the last step is the future time when the decisions are put into action and the results are evaluated. According to these time steps, the phases of the decision-making process can be listed as follows: Recognizing the problem and defining the problem, creating and evaluating the options, choosing the best option, and evaluating the decision. (Günay, 2000: pp.133-134).

Decision-making is defined as deciding on one of the alternative options in order to reach the final goal under the conditions of the individual (Deniz, 2011). Decision-making provides opportunities to choose between different behaviors. It is stated as all of the efforts in both thought and behavior dimensions. Each individual may have to make decisions many times in line with his own needs and desires among the endless options that life offers him. It is stated that when a choice cannot be made among the options in the decision-making process, the individual sometimes can get stressed. In this sense, making a decision, deciding on one of the many existing options, is expressed as a kind of orientation activity that removes the stress experienced by the individual (Kuzgun, 1992). People who can adapt flexibly to the environment almost always show decision-making behavior while trying to meet their own needs. Since humans are not alive that can automatically adapt to the environment with instinctive reactions, they usually make decisions (Kuzgun, 2014). Therefore, it can be said that decision making is an action that can be felt at every moment of life (Ulufer, 2013).

4.3. Decision-Making Styles

The expression “decision making style” refers to individual thought practices that are fundamental to understanding the decision process (Thunholm, 2004). Personal characteristics and value attribution styles affect individuals' decision-making styles (Payne, Bettman, & Johnson, 1993). The expectations of individuals about life and the dynamics in their lives, and the fact that they are in search of new ones after the goals

they have acquired, make them have to use new situations that need to be decided and to use strategies against these situations. For this reason, it is noteworthy that the approach used by the individual while making a decision and the strategies and styles used in the decision-making situation are of great importance (Ersever, 1996).

One of the first classifications of decision-making styles was introduced by Dinklage. Eight decision-making styles have been identified by Dinklage;

1. "*Planned decision-making style*: In the decision-making situation, the individual follows the options obtained by certain methods and chooses the appropriate one according to his balance with the possibilities" (Rubinton, 1980).
2. "*Intuitive decision-making style*: The individual decides accordingly by prioritizing his motives and feelings when making a decision (Rubinton, 1980). Individuals who adopt this style are sure of the correctness of their decision" (Can, 2009).
3. "*Submissive decision-making style*: The individual is submissive to the plans and suggestions of others when making a decision (Rubinton, 1980). Individuals who adopt this style cannot assert their own opinions and will" (Deveci, 2011).
4. "*Fatalistic decision-making style*: Instead of making a decision, the individual prefers to leave the events to fate (Rubinton, 1980) and the solution is left to the flow of environmental events" (Can, 2009).
5. "*Impulsive decision-making style*": While making a decision, the individual chooses the first option (Rubinton, 1980) and the decisions are based on sudden emotions" (Deveci, 2011).
6. "*Postponing decision-making style*:" The individual, who knows that he has to make a decision, prefers to procrastinate instead of making the decision (Rubinton, 1980). The individual suspends the problems (Can, 2009).
7. "*Painful decision-making style*:" In the decision-making situation, the individual spends energy by doing too much research and is overwhelmed by the excess information he has obtained at the end (Rubinton, 1980).
8. "*Frozen decision-making style*:" The individual accepts responsibility for decision-making but does not fulfill the behaviors required by responsibility (Rubinton, 1980).

Another classification of decision-making strategies was made by Scott and Bruce (1995). As a result of their research, they defined four decision-making styles (Yiğit, 2005).

1. *“Rational Decision-Making Style”*: It is the situation in which alternative options are explored and evaluated rationally.
2. *“Intuitive Decision-Making Style”*: It is the decision-making style in which intuition and trust in emotions are at the forefront while making a decision.
3. *“Dependent Decision Making Style”*: An approach in which the suggestions and directions of others are taken into account in decision making.
4. *“Avoidant Decision-Making Style”*: The approach used in situations where avoidance is used without making a decision.

Harren states that in decision-making situations, the individual uses one of the styles of rational decision making, dependent decision making and intuitive decision making. The rational decision-making style is to make the decision by thinking rationally. Dependent decision-making style is making decisions by considering the ideas and expectations of the people around them. Intuitive decision-making style is emotional decision making (Yaşar, 2016: pp. 40).

According to the decision strategies scale developed by Kuzgun (1992: pp. 163), five decision strategies are defined:

1. Intuitive Decision-Making Strategy: While making a decision, the individual believes that her feelings will lead to the right option and tends to the pleasant option.
2. Dependent Decision-Making Strategy: When making decisions, caring about the opinions of others, believing that they know the truth.
3. Logical Decision-Making Strategy: Carefully examining all options, evaluating all their positive and negative aspects.
4. Hasty Decision-Making Strategy: Feeling distressed in the case of uncertainty caused by being indecisive and making a hasty decision immediately.
5. Indecision: It is the state of being dissatisfied with the decisions made and wanting to change their decisions.

Deniz (2004) stated that individuals who have a "careful decision-making strategy" before making a decision, make their choices after they have accessed information by researching, carefully sorting the options starting from the most possible, and carefully evaluating the alternatives. People with "avoidant decision-making style"; They may hesitate to make decisions and choose to separate the decisions to others. In this way, they aim to avoid decision-making on the condition that responsibility is transferred to someone else. If individuals have a "procrastinating decision-making style"; wants to frequently postpone, delay and lengthen the decision. Although it circulates around the decision, it does not provide clarity. It constantly tries to postpone the decision without a valid reason. Individuals with a "panic decision making style" think that they are under time pressure when faced with a decision situation. For this reason, Deniz (2004) emphasized that they act recklessly and try to reach solutions quickly. It has been seen from research on decision-making strategies that people use very dissimilar techniques in their decision-making. Individuals make decisions from different points with the combination of their personal skills and personalities, and they use their decision-making styles while doing this.

Bacanlı and Sürücü (2005) mention that the phenomenon of indecision about decision making styles is handled and examined as a separate field by some decision theorists and that indecision should be avoided. It has been seen that individuals who have adopted the indecision style also make decisions, but they do not like the decision they make, they are individuals who are uncomfortable with their decision. When we look at the researches related to decision making styles, it is seen that the most appropriate style for effective decision making is efficient decision making.

4.4. Theories Of Decision-Making

4.4.1. Gelatt's Decision-Making Model

It is stated by Gelatt (1978) that there are three basic elements in the decision-making period: the predictive system, the value system, and the decision system. In the individual predictive system, He emphasized that it is necessary to obtain information about possible actions, the possible consequences of actions and the likelihood of these consequences. In the value system, the individual who specifically evaluates the possible outcomes of the options, in the decision system, must consider the priorities or rules within the decision-making situation. According to this theoretical view, the

individual should have accurate and complete information about the aforementioned systems in order to make decisions. It is stated that as the individual begins to have better knowledge, the individual makes more appropriate decisions.

The concept of “positive uncertainty” was also mentioned by Gelatt (1989) in the decision-making duration. Three parts of decision making are information, process and choice. In order to be able to make decisions, individuals need to constantly improve and review their knowledge. Although the individual makes a decision with a logical decision strategy, it is possible that the decision he has made may lose its validity in the future due to the change in society. For this reason, it is necessary for the individual to make a decision by adapting to the uncertainty situation he is faced with. In the use of the concept of positive uncertainty, it has been stated that the decision-maker should not be sure of the future, should not define uncertainty as a negative process, and should accept and believe it as an existing reality and process.

4.4.2. Conflict Theory

Janis and Mann (1977) explain the self-esteem and stress level of individuals, depending on the decision styles and styles, in the decision-making situation, with the conflict theory. They describe their decision-making styles in five headings:

1. “Commitment without Conflict”: The individual perceives that the current situation does not pose a threat and sticks to his decision (Develioğlu, 2006). Stress can be experienced at the lowest level (DeLorenzo, 1998).
2. “Conflict-Free Change”: If the continuation of the current situation is a risk, and change is not a risk, alternatives are evaluated and the decision with a high recommendation rate is selected (Çolakkadioğlu, 2003).
3. “Defensive Avoidance”: When the individual is faced with a situation whose continuation or change is a risk, he postpones his choice to make a choice, leaves the responsibility to someone else, and avoids the conflict by supporting the less likely option. Limited decision-making time causes anxiety in the individual (DeLorenzo, 1998).
4. “Extreme Arousal Decision Style”: Individuals with time constraints prefer the option with the least risk without doing much research (Develioğlu, 2006). Due to limited time, individuals can experience stress and make wrong decisions (Çolakkadioğlu, 2003).

5. “Prudent Decision-Making Style”: The individual carefully collects information and conducts research. It tries to make the right decision by making an objective evaluation in sufficient time.

The above-mentioned styles are grouped under two headings as compatible or incompatible. While the prudent decision style is the harmonious decision style; conflict-free change, defensive avoidance, and hyperarousal are maladaptive decision styles (Deveci, 2011).

4.4.3. Utility Theory

Utility Theory: It has an important place among the opinions that have been put forward about decision making. It states that the individual tends towards options that provide high benefits in the face of situations where he has to make a decision (Deveci, 2011). The individual evaluates the possible outcomes and assigns some value to the results in line with their purposes. As a result, the individual reaches a decision by balancing the most loaded value and possible consequences (Develioğlu, 2006). Baron (1994) gathers utility theory under three main headings:

1. “Expected Utility” Theory: It is the benefit of the person as a result of a decision that will benefit the individual.
2. The Theory of “Multiple Attributable Utility”: It is about directing towards one of the different purposes.
3. “Utilitarianism”: It is about the decisions that individuals make when there is conflict between their goals and objectives.

4.4.4. Social Learning Theory

Krumboltz et al. developed a model in line with the concept of decision making. They organized this theory they developed based on their career decisions (Çolakkadıoğlu, 2003).

It is suggested that career decisions emerge as a result of the interaction of the four factors with each other (Kuzgun, 2009):

1. Hereditary Factors- Special Abilities
2. Learning Experiences
3. Environmental Conditions and Events

4. Performance Skills

Genetic factors and special abilities: They are innate tendencies in individuals and can limit the preferences of the individual (Çolakkadioğlu, 2003). For example, musical talent becomes more favorable with the interaction of the genetic potential and career possibilities of the individual (DeLorenzo, 1998).

Environmental conditions and events: These are the elements that the individual cannot control but are affected by (Çolakkadioğlu, 2003). Individuals also have effects on environmental factors such as employers' hiring status (DeLorenzo, 1998).

Learning experiences: They are learned experiences (Çolakkadioğlu, 2003). Learned experiences affect the probabilities of behavior in the future and shape them with sequential reinforcement (Deveci, 2011).

Performance skills: Performance standards, skills, mental abilities, work habits and emotional reactions enable individuals to act more carefully in new problem situations (Çolakkadioğlu, 2003).

Krumboltz et al. present the decision-making process with steps (Kuzgun, 2009):

1. Identifying the problem
2. Determining an action plan
3. Explaining values
4. Getting to know the options
5. Discovering appropriate results
6. Eliminate options

4.4.5. Cognitive Theory

Human behavior occurs with environmental motives. Cognitive vision behaviors deal with the progress of individuals towards their goals in a way that they become aware of. A plan is made by including risks and possibilities. In this direction, it is clear what will be done to achieve the goal. As the individual tries new options, he can change his goals in this direction (Atkinson, 2002).

Cognitive views on motivation consider behavior as a person's directing towards consciously chosen goals. The individual makes some plans, expectations,

possibilities and risks are clear in these plans. The individual also knows what actions to take to achieve them. The cognitions of the individual play a decisive role in determining these goals and the means to reach them (Atkinson, 1999).

Purposeful behavior is defined as a type of behavior in which the individual knows what he wants, the difficulties and risks he will face in getting what he wants. This definition includes the opinions, plans and decisions of the individual regarding his/her future (Atkinson, 1999).

4.5. Related Studies

Osipow and Reed (1985) carried out their research titled "Examination of decision-making styles and professional indecision of college students" with the participation of 203 psychology students. They applied the vocational decision inventory and the Johnson decision making inventory to the students. According to the data obtained, a significant relationship was found between professional indecision and decision-making strategies. In the career decision making scale, the highest score was spontaneous and external decision making, followed by spontaneous and internal decision making. University students experiencing career indecision use spontaneous external decision-making strategies (Birdal, 2013).

Brown and Mann (1990) examined the relationship of some variables with the participation of adolescents in family decisions and careful decision making. They found that the positive family environment is effective in the careful decision making of the adolescent (Deniz, 2002).

Kuzgun (1992) developed the "Decision Strategies Scale" to determine the strategies people use when making decisions, and while conducting this research, she conducted its validity and reliability with students aged 16-18 and adults aged 25-40. As a end of the research, no significant difference was found between students and adults. In addition, it was found that male students use more impulsive decision-making, while females use more dependent decision-making and less indecision strategies.

Eldeleklioğlu (1996) conducted his doctoral thesis on 500 university students, in which he examined the relationship between decision strategies and parental attitudes. According to the results obtained from the research, a positive relationship was found between democratic parental attitude and rational and independent decision making, and a negative relationship was found between being indecisive. A positive

relationship was found between protective, demanding and authoritarian parent attitudes and indecision, and a negative relationship was found between authoritarian parental attitudes and rational decision making. These relationships were significant at the 0.01 level (Eldeleklioğlu, 1996).

Deniz (2004), who examined whether there is a relationship between decision-making self-esteem, problem-solving ability and decision-making styles of university students, according to the results of his research, a negative significant relationship was found between university students' problem-solving abilities in decision-making and self-esteem. In addition, a significant relationship was found between procrastinating, panic, avoidant and careful decision-making styles and problem-solving ability (Deniz, 2004, p.34).

Orhan (2011) in his study; examined the vocational maturity levels and decision-making strategies of high school students according to the variables of the grade level of the students participating in the research and the type of school they attend. In the research, as the vocational maturity level of high school students increases, their rational decision-making situation also increases; It has been concluded that it decreases as it decreases, that is, there is a positive relationship. However, it was concluded that between the "professional maturity levels" and "impulsive decision-making levels" of high school students, "dependent decision-making situations" and "indecisiveness situations" decreased as their "professional maturity" increased.

Riaz, Riaz& Batool (2012) aimed to examine the role of the five-personality type in predicting the decision-making styles of college students. 300 university students participated in the research. As a result of the analyzes made after the application of the relevant scales to the students, it was seen that the extraversion personality type positively predicted the intuitive and spontaneous decision-making style. Openness to experiences personality type predicts intuitive decision-making style positively, adaptability personality type predicts dependent decision-making style in decision making, conscience (responsibility) predicts rational decision-making style; On the other hand, neuroticism predicted the avoidant decision-making style positively. This research provided an insight into the role of personality in decision making.

In a study conducted by Karaca (2013), the difficulty experienced by individuals within the scope of professional decision making; The variables that differ on the

students studying in the Computer and Instructional Technologies Teaching program in Izmir were examined. In the study, data were collected by using the "Vocational Decision-Making Difficulty Scale". As a result of the research, it was determined that the students of the Computer and Instructional Technologies Teaching program "have a high level of general indecision and dysfunctional belief in choosing a profession" and that the students need vocational guidance during their university education. However, it has been concluded that the need for vocational guidance and external conflicts are closely related to many factors that reveal the difficulties experienced by the student in making professional decisions.

In this study, Fabio and Saklofske (2014) investigated the effect of decision making skills and some variables on career decision making. 194 high school students participated in the research. Made in Italian high school. According to the findings, it was revealed that emotional intelligence has a role in determining career decision.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This division includes information on the pattern of the research, sample, data collection instruments, and analysis of the data.

3.1. Research Model

The research model is a correlational survey model that it is purposed to investigate the relation of perfectionism and cognitive flexibility levels with decision-making strategies in emerging adults. Correlational survey model is a surveying method. It intends to determine the existence of co-variance between two or more variables. Studies in the correlational survey model reveal the relationship between two or more variables without intervening in any way; These are studies that reveal the relations between them and the degrees of these relations (Büyüköztürk et al., 2012).

3.2. Samples

The universe of this research consists of emerging adults aged 18-30 in Turkey.

Table 1: According to their socio-demographic characteristics distribution of the participants participating in the study.

Variables		n	%
Gender	Female	250	65,3
	Male	133	34,7
Place of Residence	Metropolitan city	223	58,2
	City	69	18,0
	County/Town	91	23,8
	High School/Middle School	46	12,0
Education Level	Associate's degree	34	8,9
	Undergraduate	253	66,1
	Master/PhD	50	13,1
Total		383	100,0

When the gender distribution of the participants is examined, it is seen that 65.3% are female and 34.7% are male. When the places where the participants live are examined, it is seen that 58.2% are metropolitan, 18% are cities, 23.8% are districts/towns. When the educational status of the participants is examined, it is

realized that 12% of them are high school/secondary school, 8.9% are associate degree, 66.1% are undergraduate, 13.1% are graduate/PhD.

3.3. Data Collection Studies

To obtain the necessary data in the research; “Personal Information Form”, “Cognitive Flexibility Scale (Dennis & Vander Wall, 2010)”, “Multidimensional Perfectionist Scale (Flett & Hewitt, 1991)”, “Melbourne Decision-Making Scale I-II (Deniz, 2004).” used. These scales are explained below in order.

3.3.1. Private Information Form

In the Private Information Form, the participants were asked about their gender, education level, and place of residence. At the beginning of the form, the purpose of the research was given, and it was stated that the participants should not write their identity information. This form is included in Appendix A.

3.3.2. Multidimensional Perfectionist Attitude Scale (MPAS)

The perfectionism scale developed by Hewitt and Flett (1991) was adapted to Turkish by Oral (1999) and the Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale was used. It was used. MPAS is a 7-point Likert kind scale and consists of 45 items. The scale, which was developed to measure the perfectionist personality traits of adults in the scale, "self-directed perfectionism (1, 6, 8, 12, 14, 15, 17, 20, 23, 28, 32, 34, 36, 40 and 42 items)", " perfectionism towards others (2, 3, 4, 7, 10, 16, 19, 22, 24, 26, 27, 29, 38, 43, and 45)" and "socially determined perfectionism (5, 9, 11, 13) , 18, 21, 25, 30, 31, 33, 35, 37, 39, 41 and 44. items) " and there are 15 items in each dimension. A 7-point Likert-type scale consisting of 45 items is scored between 1: strongly agree and 7: strongly disagree. The purpose of the self-directed perfectionism sub-dimension is to measure the high standards and self-critical evaluation of the individual. The scores obtained from the items in this scale can vary between 19 and 133. The purpose of the perfectionism for others sub-dimension is to measure the high standards that the person sets for others and their expectations for meeting these standards. The scores obtained from the items in this scale vary between 10 and 70. The purpose of the socially determined perfectionism sub-dimension measures the beliefs that other people expect high standards from them. The scores that can be obtained from the

items in this scale can vary between 15 and 105. The total score obtained from the scale can vary between 44 and 308. The increase in the scores of each subscale indicates an increase in the perfectionist personality trait (Flett & Hewitt, 1991).

The Turkish adaptation of this scale was carried out with 333 college students. (Oral, 1999) The Cronbach Alpha internal consistency coefficients of the scale were 0.91 for the "self-directed perfectionism" sub-dimension, 0.80 for the "other-oriented perfectionism" sub-dimension, 0.73 for the "socially determined perfectionism" sub-dimension, and 0.91 for the whole scale. When the item-total correlation coefficients of the sub-dimensions in the scale were examined, it was found that it ranged from 0.20 to 0.75 for the "self-directed perfectionism" sub-dimension, between 0.22 and 0.60 for the "perfectionism towards others" sub-dimension, and between 0.31 and 0.52 for the "socially perceived perfectionism" sub-dimension (Oral, 1999). In this research, the Cronbach Alpha coefficient of the scale was defined as 0.72. This form is included in Appendix B.

3.3.3. Cognitive Flexibility Inventory (CFI)

The inventory developed by Dennis and Vander Wal (2010); It was adapted into Turkish by Gülüm & Dağ (2012). The Cognitive Flexibility Inventory consists of two sub-extents: "alternatives" and "control". The Cronbachh Alpha value of the alternatives subscale is .91 for the first and last measurement. The Cronbach's Alpha values of the control subscale were .86 in the first measurement and .86 in the last measurement. It is 84. The scale is in 5-point Likert type and the articles are 1 = Not at all suitable, 2 = Not very suitable, 3=Undecided, 4=Appropriate, and 5=Completely appropriate. There are reverse scored items in the scale.

The adaptation studies of the scale into Turkish were carried out with 266 university students. In the validity and reliability study for the Turkish Form of CFI; The internal consistency coefficients of the scale were .90, .89 in the alternatives sub-dimension, and .85 in the control sub-extent. When the correlations between the Positive and Negative Affect Scale, Beck Anxiety Scale, and Cognitive Flexibility Scale were evaluated in testing the concordance validity of the CFI for all scale and subscale items; It was determined that the correlations of all BDI and its sub-dimensions with the related scales ranged from -.13 to -.48. When the scores obtained from the scale are evaluated; it is accepted that as the score value increases, cognitive flexibility

increases. (Gülüm & Dağ, 2012). In this research, the Cronbach Alpha coefficient of the scale was defined as 0.8. This form is included in Appendix C.

3.3.4 Melbourne Decision-Making Strategies Scale I-II (MDMS I-II)

In this research process, "Melbourne Decision Making Scale I-II" (MDMS I-II), which was developed by Mann et al. in 1998. This scale was adapted into Turkish by Deniz (2004). The first part of the scale is to determine self-esteem in the decision-making process. It consists of six items. The highest score is 12. MDMS-II consists of 22 items. Here, decision-making styles are measured. The scale measures decision making styles. It has four subscales. These; mindful (6 items), avoidant (6 items), procrastinating (5 items) and panic (5 items) decision making styles. In this scale, it is answered like MDMS I. High scores indicate the use of the relevant decision-making style. The reliability coefficients of the subscales were calculated as .80 for attentiveness, .87 for avoidance, .81 for procrastination and .74 for panic (Mann et al., 1998).

In the reliability study conducted on university students, the reliability of MDMS I-II was calculated separately by repetition of the test and internal consistency methods. The reliability coefficients obtained from the subscales by the repetition method ranged from $r = .68$ to $r = .87$. Internal consistency coefficients of MDMS I-II range from $\text{Alpha} = .65$ to $\text{Alpha} = .80$. A similar scale validity study of MDMS I- II was conducted with the Decision Strategies Scale developed by Kuzgun (1992). Significant correlations with correlation coefficients between $r = .15$ and $r = .71$ were found between MDMS I-II and SSQ subscales (Deniz, 2004). In this research, the Cronbach Alpha coefficient of the scale was determined as 0.8. This form is included in Appendix D.

3.4. Data Collection Process

Firstly, essential permissions were taken from Yeditepe University Ethics Committee (E.50532705-302.14.01-1051). Quantitative data was obtained through The Private Information Form, The Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale, Cognitive Flexibility

Inventory and Melbourne Decision Making Styles I-II by the researcher. Firstly, data collection, all participants were informed about the goal of the research and assured of the secrecy and anonymity of the study. Participation was completely voluntary. In the questionnaire form, there is an informed consent form for the participants. Filling out the questionnaire takes approximately 10-15 minutes. In order to reach more people during the application phase of the research, the questionnaire created through Google forms was applied online to adult individuals.

3.5. Data Analyses

The data obtained in the study were analyzed using the SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) for Windows program. Descriptive statistical procedures (number, percentage, min-max values, mean and standard deviation) were used while appraising the data.

In the syllogism of quantitative data in normally distributed data, independent t-test was used for the distinction between two independent groups, and one-way analysis of variance was implemented when comparing more than two independent groups. Pearson correlation coefficient in normally distributed data to test the relationship between quantitative variables. Multiple lineal regression analysis was applied to investigate the effect of independent variables on the dependent variable.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

4.1. Descriptive Statistics

Table 2: *The results of the normality analysis of the scales used in the research*

Scales and Dimensions	Kurtosis	Distortion	Situation
Multidimensional Perfectionist	3,357	0,828	Not Normal
Attitude Scale			
Self-directed perfectionism	1,071	-0,282	Normal
Perfectionism towards others	3,341	0,815	Not Normal
Socially determined perfectionism	0,920	0,489	Normal
Cognitive Flexibility Inventory	-0,651	-0,105	Normal
Control	-0,392	-0,410	Normal
Alternative	-0,083	-0,644	Normal
MDMS-I	2,227	0,745	Normal
MDMS- II	-0,201	-0,853	Normal
Careful decision-making style	-0,448	0,510	Normal
Avoidant decision-making style	-0,505	0,332	Normal
Procrastinating decision-making style	-0,474	0,193	Normal

The results of the normality analysis of the scales used in the study are given in the Table 2. Skewness and Kurtosis values between ± 3 are related to the normal distribution of the data used. (Shao, 2002).

Variables	<i>Multidimensional Perfectionist</i>	<i>Self-directed perfectionism</i>	<i>Perfectionism towards others</i>	<i>Socially 50 determined</i>
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Table 3: *Descriptive statistics of the scales used in the study.*

Scales and Dimensions	Min	Max	Average	Standard Deviation
Multidimensional Perfectionist Attitude Scale	125,00	315,00	198,06	23,92
Self-directed Perfectionism	39,00	105,00	71,72	9,68
Perfectionism towards others	35,00	105,00	63,79	8,72
Socially determined perfectionism	36,00	105,00	62,56	11,06
Cognitive Flexibility Inventory	47,00	96,00	76,64	10,52
Control	7,00	32,00	20,94	5,93
Alternative	30,00	65,00	55,70	7,26
Melbourne Decision-Making Strategies Scale I	1,00	12,00	5,61	1,54
Careful decision-making style	3,00	12,00	9,83	2,17
Avoidant decision-making style	0,00	12,00	4,27	2,93
Procrastinating decision-making style	0,00	10,00	4,41	2,51
Panic decision making style	0,00	10,00	4,50	2,43

4.2. Demographic Variables

4.2.1. Distribution of findings on the effect of perfectionist attitude in emerging adults by gender, place of residence, and education level.

Table 4: *Comparison of Multidimensional Perfectionist Attitude Scale scores according to the socio-demographic features of the applicants.*

		<i>Attitude Scale</i>						<i>perfectionism</i>					
		<i>$\bar{X}$</i>	<i>SS</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>$\bar{X}$</i>	<i>SS</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>$\bar{X}$</i>	<i>SS</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>$\bar{X}$</i>	<i>SS</i>	<i>M</i>
Gender	Female	196,47	21,98	195,50	71,40	9,38	73,00	63,41	7,94	63,00	61,66	10,48	61,00
	Male	201,06	27,05	197,00	72,31	10,22	72,00	64,50	10,02	64,00	64,25	11,95	63,00
	Test Value	15562,000 ^u			-0,874 ^t			16014,500 ^u			-2,194 ^t		
	p	0,303			0,383			0,554			0,029*		
Place of Residence	Metropolitan ¹	198,88	22,64	198,00	72,65	9,27	73,00	63,78	8,55	63,00	62,45	10,90	62,00
	City ²	198,88	25,32	197,00	71,42	10,02	72,00	64,72	9,08	64,00	62,74	10,71	63,00
	County/Town ³	195,43	25,91	191,00	69,64	10,14	70,00	63,11	8,90	63,00	62,68	11,82	61,00
	Test Value	2,529 ^H			3,218 ^F			2,019 ^H			0,026 ^F		
	p	0,282			0,041*			0,364			0,975		
Education Level	Post Hoc	-			1>3			-			-		
	High School/Middle School	199,85	21,23	200,50	71,15	8,44	72,00	64,78	8,16	65,00	63,91	11,06	63,00
	Associate degree	204,38	31,58	204,00	74,76	11,11	76,00	63,47	11,81	64,00	66,15	13,13	65,00
	Undergraduate	197,45	23,01	195,00	71,43	9,43	72,00	63,75	8,58	64,00	62,26	10,68	62,00
	Master/PhD	195,24	24,77	196,50	71,58	10,83	72,50	63,28	7,61	63,00	60,38	11,12	61,00
Test Value		2,438 ^H			1,254 ^F			0,831 ^H			2,150 ^F		

p	0,487	0,290	0,842	0,094
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**p<0,05* ^F: one-way analysis of variance ^H: Kruskal Wallis H test ^u: Mann Whitney U test ^t: independent sample t test

It is seen that there is a statistically important distinction between the socially determined perfectionism sub-dimension scores according to the gender of the participants ($p<0.05$). It is seen that the socially determined perfectionism sub-dimension scores of male participants are higher than female participants.

It is seen that there is a statistically considerable difference between the self-directed perfectionism sub-extent scores of the participants according to the places they live ($p<0.05$). Consequently, the one-way test, which was conducted to determine which group the distinction originated from, it is seen that the self-directed perfectionism sub-dimension scores of the participants who live in a metropolitan area are higher than the participants whose place of residence is a district/Town.

It is realized that there is no statistically considerable distinction between the scores of the Multidimensional Perfectionist Attitude Scale and its sub-dimension according to the educational status of the participants ($p>0.05$).

Table 5: Posthoc Tablosu Results Self- Oriented Perfectionsim by place of Residance

Dependent Variable	(I) Place of Residance	(J) Place of Residance	Average difference (I-J)		p	95% trust range	
			STD. Mistake			Lower limit	Upper limit
Self-Oriented Perfectionism	Metropolitan	City	1,23442	1,32536	1,000	-1,9526	4,4214
		County/Town	3,01735*	1,19677	,036	,1396	5,8951
	City	Metropolitan	-1,23442	1,32536	1,000	-4,4214	1,9526
		County/Town	1,78293	1,53580	,739	-1,9101	5,4760
	County/Town	Metropolitan	-3,01735*	1,19677	,036	-5,8951	-,1396
		City	-1,78293	1,53580	,739	-5,4760	1,9101

4.2.2. Findings on emerging adult's the effect of cognitive flexibility by gender, place of residence and education level.

Table 6: Comparison of Cognitive Flexibility Inventory scores according to the socio-demographic features of the participants.

Variables		Cognitive Flexibility Inventory			Control			Alternative		
		$\bar{X}$	SS	M	$\bar{X}$	SS	M	$\bar{X}$	SS	M
Gender	Female	75,	10,	76,	20,	5,6	21,0	55,	7,4	56,00
		61	33	00	12	8	0	49	2	
	Male	78,	10,	78,	22,	6,1	23,0	56,	6,9	56,00
		58	63	00	49	1	0	09	4	
	t-testi	-2,653			-3,791			-0,768		
	p	0,008*			0,000*			0,443		
Place of residence	Metropolitan	77,	10,	78,	21,	5,8	22,0	56,	7,2	56,00
		56	42	00	40	0	0	16	1	
	City	74,	10,	73,	20,	5,7	21,0	54,	7,3	54,00
		65	50	00	19	8	0	46	5	
	County/Town	75,	10,	76,	20,	6,3	21,0	55,	7,2	56,00
		89	60	00	38	3	0	51	6	
	F-testi	2,335			1,625			1,489		
	p	0,098			0,198			0,227		
Education Level	High School/Middle School	75,	10,	73,	20,	6,1	21,0	54,	7,9	56,00
		28	48	50	33	1	0	96	9	
	Associate degree	75,	10,	74,	19,	6,2	21,0	56,	8,0	57,00
		85	05	00	82	9	0	03	4	
	Undergraduate	76,	10,	76,	21,	5,9	21,0	55,	7,1	56,00
		41	69	00	00	7	0	41	5	
	Master/PhD	79,	9,6	81,	21,	5,2	22,0	57,	6,3	60,00
		60	7	50	96	8	0	64	6	
	F-testi	1,690			1,067			1,519		
	p	0,169			0,363			0,209		

* $p < 0,05$ *F-test: one-way analysis of variance* *t-test: independent sample t test*

It is seen that there is a statistically considerable distinction between the Cognitive Flexibility Inventory points and the control sub-extent scores according to the gender of the participants ($p < 0.05$). It is seen that the Cognitive Flexibility Inventory scores and control sub-extent points of male participants are higher than female participants.

It is seen that there is no statistically considerable distinction between the Cognitive Flexibility Inventory and sub-dimension scores according to the place of residence and educational status of the participants ($p > 0.05$).

4.2.3. Findings on emerging adult's the effect of decision making by gender, place of residence and education level.

Table 7: Comparison of Melbourne Decision-Making Strategies Scale I scores according to the socio-demographic features of the participants

	V riables	Melbourne Decision-Making Strategies Scale I		
		$\bar{X}$	SS	M
Gender	Famale	5,50	1,48	6,00
	Male	5,83	1,63	6,00
	t-testi		-1,954	
	p		0,052	
Place of Residence	Metropolitan	5,58	1,51	6,00
	City	5,70	1,62	6,00
	County/Town	5,62	1,55	5,00
	F-testi		0,141	
	p		0,868	
Education Level	High School/Secondary School	5,50	1,47	5,50
	Associate degree	6,15	1,69	6,00
	Undergraduate	5,55	1,49	5,00
	Master/ PhD	5,64	1,71	6,00
	F-test		1,589	
	p		0,191	

* $p < 0,05$ F-test: one-way analysis of variance t-test: independent sample t test

It is seen that there is no statistically considerable distinction between the Melbourne Decision-Making Strategies Scale I scores according to the gender, place of residence and education level of the participants ($p>0.05$).

Table 8: Comparison of Melbourne Decision-Making Strategies Scale II points according to the socio-demographic features of the participants.

Variables	Careful decision-making style			Avoidant decision-making style			Procrastinating decision-making style			Panic decision making style		
	$\bar{X}$	SS	M	$\bar{X}$	SS	M	$\bar{X}$	SS	M	$\bar{X}$	SS	M
Gender	Female	9,74	2,23	10,50	4,26	2,95	4,37	2,56	4,00	4,69	2,40	5,00
	Male	10,01	2,05	11,00	4,29	2,90	4,48	2,41	5,00	4,13	2,46	4,00
	t-testi	-1,150			-0,106			-0,420			2,171	
	p	0,251			0,916			0,674			0,031*	
Place of Residence	Metropolita n ¹	10,09	2,11	11,00	3,84	2,81	4,14	2,61	4,00	4,23	2,42	4,00
	City ²	9,42	2,30	10,00	4,35	2,84	4,52	2,40	5,00	4,54	2,41	5,00
	County/Town ³	9,53	2,14	10,00	5,27	3,05	5,97	2,22	5,00	5,12	2,40	5,00
	F-test	3,711			8,090			3,627			4,434	
	p	0,025*			0,000*			0,028*			0,012*	
	Post Hoc	1>2			3>1			3>1			3>1	
Education Level	High School/Secondary School	9,83	2,04	10,00	4,61	2,76	4,59	2,33	5,00	4,85	2,56	5,00
	Associate degree	9,15	2,13	9,00	4,38	2,57	4,06	2,30	4,00	4,32	2,56	4,00
	Undergraduate	9,84	2,27	11,00	4,36	3,08	4,57	2,51	5,00	4,52	2,42	4,00
	Master/PhD	10,26	1,69	11,00	3,42	2,40	3,64	2,66	3,00	4,18	2,33	5,00
	F-test	1,792			1,722			2,252			0,664	
	p	0,148			0,162			0,082			0,575	

**p<0,05 F-test: one-way analysis of variance t-test: independent sample t test*

It is seen that there is a statistically considerable distinction between the panic decision-making sub-dimension scores according to the gender of the participants ($p<0.05$). It is seen that the panic decision-making style sub-dimension scores of female participants are higher than male participants.

It is seen that there is a statistically ($p<0.05$) significant difference between the sub-dimension scores of the participants' "careful, avoidant, procrastinating and panic decision making styles according to where they live. As a consequence of the Bonferroni test, which was conducted to determine which group the difference originated from, it is seen that the participants whose place of residence is a metropolitan city have higher scores for the careful decision-making style sub-dimension than those whose place of residence is a city. It is seen that the avoidant, procrastinating and panic decision-making style sub-extent points of the participants whose place of residence is a district/town are higher than the participants whose place of residence is a metropolitan city.

There is no statistically significant difference between the sub-dimension scores of the MDMS I-II scale according to the educational status of the participants. ($p>0.05$).

4.3. Correlations

4.3.1. Findings between the scores of emerging adults' perfectionism and cognitive flexibility scales dimensions.

Table 9: *Relationship between scales and dimension scores.*

Scales and Dimension Scores		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1- Multidimensional Perfectionist Attitude Scale	r	1											
	p												
2- Self-directed perfectionism	r	0,748**	1										
	p	0,000											
3- Perfectionism towards others	r	0,689**	0,300**	1									
	p	0,000	0,000										
4- Socially determined perfectionism	r	0,824**	0,496**	0,427**	1								
	p	0,000	0,000	0,000									
5- Cognitive Flexibility Inventory	r	-0,038	0,118*	-0,077	-	1							
	p	0,459	0,021	0,133	0,150**	0,003							
6-Control	r	-	-0,130*	-	-	0,746**	1						
	p	0,270**		0,246**	0,342**								
7-Alternative	r	0,000	0,011	0,000	0,000	0,000							
	p	0,182**	0,278**	0,104*	0,063	0,839**	0,264**	1					
	p	0,000	0,000	0,041	0,220	0,000	0,000						

8- Melbourne Decision-Making Strategies Scale I	r	0,217**	0,229**	0,083	0,315**	-0,059	-0,099	-0,005	1				
	p	0,000	0,000	0,107	0,000	0,248	0,054	0,921					
9- Careful decision-making style	r	0,126*	0,255**	0,018	0,003	0,522**	0,219**	0,577**	0,034	1			
	p	0,013	0,000	0,726	0,950	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,509				
10- Avoidant decision-making style	r	0,130*	-0,008	0,162**	0,211**	-	-	-	0,199**	-	1		
	p	0,011	0,871	0,001	0,000	0,479**	0,504**	0,283**	0,000	0,188**			
11- Procrastinating decision-making style	r	0,103*	-0,010	0,112*	0,178**	-	-	-	0,134**	-0,080	0,637**	1	
	p	0,043	0,849	0,029	0,000	0,378**	0,427**	0,199**	0,008	0,118	0,000		
12- Panic decision making style	r	0,152**	-0,008	0,141**	0,248**	-	-	-	0,104*	-	0,595**	0,622**	1
	p	0,003	0,883	0,006	0,000	0,570**	0,645**	0,299**	0,043	0,165**	0,000	0,000	

*p<0,05

**p<0,01



There is a one-way relation between Multidimensional Perfectionist Attitude Scale scores and its sub-components, self-directed perfectionism and others-oriented perfectionism ($r:-0.246$; $p<0.01$), were statistically significantly negatory between control sub-extent points ($r:-0.270$; $p<0.01$). Between Multidimensional Perfectionist Attitude Scale points and Alternative sub-extent points ($r:0.182$; $p<0.01$), between Melbourne Decision-Making Strategies Scale I scores ($r:0.217$; $p<0.01$), Mindful decision-making style sub-extent scores ($r:0.126$; $p<0.05$), between avoidant decision-making sub-extent scores ($r:0.130$; $p<0.05$), between procrastinating decision-making style sub-extent scores ($r:0.103$; $p<0.05$), panic decision-making style sub-extent scores ($r:0.152$; $p<0.01$). There is a statistically considerable positive correlation.

There is a statistically considerable positive correlation between Cognitive Flexibility Inventory scores and mindful decision making style sub-dimension scores ($r:0.522$; $p<0.01$). Between Cognitive Flexibility Inventory scores and Avoidant decision-making style sub-dimension scores ($r:-0.478$; $p<0.01$), Between procrastinating decision-making style sub-dimension scores ($r:-0.378$; $p<0.01$), Panic decision making style sub-dimension scores ($r:-0.570$; $p<0.01$), there is a statistically significant negative correlation.

Between Melbourne Decision-Making Strategies Scale I scores and socially determined perfectionism with the Multidimensional perfectionism sub-extent ($r:0.315$; $p<0.01$), between Avoidant decision-making style sub-dimension scores ($r:0.315$; $p<0.01$), There is a statistically considerable affirmative correlation between procrastinating decision-making style sub-dimension scores ($r:0.178$; $p<0.01$) and panic decision-making style sub-dimension scores ($r:0.248$; $p<0.01$).

4.3.2. Regression emerging adults among perfectionism and cognitive flexibility their decision-making strategies.

Table10: “Do emerging adults' levels of perfectionism and cognitive flexibility predict their procrastinating decision-making style?”

Independent variable	Dependent Variable: Careful decision-making style								
	β	SH	Beta	t	p	F	Model (p)	R ²	Durbin Watson
Stable	-0,697	10,040		-0,670	0,503	41,79	0,000*	0,348	1,907

Self-				8	
directed					
perfection	0,038	0,011	0,167	3,324	0,001*
ism					
Perfection					
ism					
towards	-0,007	0,013	-0,029	-,569	0,570
others					
Socially					
determine					
d	-0,014	0,011	-0,073	-1,351	0,178
perfection					
ism					
Control	0,025	0,017	0,069	1,463	0,144
Alternativ					
e	0,156	0,014	0,521	11,415	0,000*
*p<0,05					

Multiple linear regression analysis was pursued to investigate the impact of perfectionism levels and cognitive flexibility levels of emerging adults on careful decision-making style. In accordance the conclusion of the regression analysis, it is realized that the established model is statistically important ($F=41.798$; $p<0.05$). Self-directed perfectionism and Alternative sub-dimension scores were found to have a statistically significant impact on the Careful decision-making style scores ($p<0.05$). It is seen that 34.8% of the variation on the careful decision-making style scores is explained by the model (Adjusted $R^2=0.348$). A 1-unit increase in self-directed perfectionism scores causes an increase of 0.038 ($\beta=0.038$) on the Careful decision-making style scores, 1-unit increase in the Alternative sub-dimension scores, an increase of 0.156 ($\beta=0.156$) on the Careful decision-making style scores. There is no autocorrelation problem in the model (DW:1,907).

Table 11: “Do emerging adults' levels of perfectionism and cognitive flexibility predict avoidant decision-making style?”

Independent	Dependent Variable: Avoidant decision making style
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t variable						F	Model (p)	R ²	Durbin Watson
	β	SH	Beta	t	p				
Stable	11,142	1,473		7,563	0,000*				
Self-directed perfectionism	-0,027	0,016	-0,091	-1,717	0,087				
Perfectionism towards others	0,029	0,018	0,085	1,580	0,115	30,963	0,000*	0,282	2,031
Socially determined perfectionism	0,020	0,015	0,076	1,345	0,179				
Control	-0,207	0,024	-0,420	-8,496	0,000*				
Alternative	-0,065	0,019	-0,162	-3,385	0,001*				

*p<0,05

Multiple linear regression analysis was conducted to investigate the effects of emerging adults' perfectionism levels and cognitive flexibility levels on Avoidant decision-making style. In accordance with the end of the regression analysis, it is realized that the established model is statistically considerable ($F=30,963$; $p<0.05$). It is seen that the Control and Alternative sub-dimension scores have a statistically significant effect on the Avoidant decision-making style scores ($p<0.05$). It is seen that 28.2% of the change in avoidant decision-making style scores is clarified by the model (Adjusted $R^2=0.282$). A 1-unit increase in the control scores causes a 0.207 decrease ($\beta=-0.207$) on the Avoidant decision-making style scores, a 1-unit decrease in the Alternative sub-dimension scores, and a 0.065 decrease ($\beta=-0.065$) on the Avoidant decision-making scores. There is no autocorrelation problem in the model (DW:2,031).

Table 12: “Do emerging adults' levels of perfectionism and cognitive flexibility predict their procrastinating decision-making style?”

Independent t variable	Dependent Variable: Procrastinating decision-making style								
	β	SH	Beta	t	p	F	Model	R ²	Durbin

	(p)					Watson		
Stable	9,583	1,341		7,146	0,000*			
Self-directed perfectionism	-0,022	0,015	-0,084	-1,488	0,138			
Perfectionism towards others	0,000	0,016	0,001	0,024	0,981	18,607	0,000*	0,187
Socially determined perfectionism	0,021	0,014	0,091	1,514	0,131			1,968
Control	-0,163	0,022	-0,386	-7,330	0,000*			
Alternative	-0,028	0,018	-0,080	-1,565	0,118			

*p<0,05

Multiple linear regression analysis was conducted to investigate the effect of perfectionism levels and cognitive flexibility levels of emerging adults on the procrastinating decision-making style. In accordance the ends of the regression analysis, it is seen that the established model is statistically remarkable ($F=18.607$; $p<0.05$). It is realized that the control sub-dimension scores have a statistically significant impact on the procrastinating decision-making style scores ($p<0.05$). It is seen that 18.7% of the change in procrastinating decision-making style scores is explained by the model (Adjusted $R^2=0.187$). A 1-unit increase in the control scores causes an increase of 0.163 ($\beta=-0.163$) on the procrastinating decision-making style scores. There is no autocorrelation problem in the model (DW:1,968).

Table 13: “Do emerging adults' levels of perfectionism and cognitive flexibility predict panic decision-making style?”

Independent variable	Dependent Variable: Panic decision making style								
	β	SH	Beta	t	p	F	Model (p)	R ²	Durbin Watson
Stable	12,524	1,084		11,550	0,000*				
self-directed	-0,024	0,012	-0,097	-2,072	0,039*	60,182	0,000*	0,437	1,997

perfection

ism

Perfection	-0,009	0,013	-0,032	-0,663	0,508
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ism

towards

others

Socially	0,026	0,011	0,117	2,316	0,021*
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determine

d

perfection

ism

Control	-0,244	0,018	-0,596	-13,606	0,000*
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Alternativ	-0,040	0,014	-0,118	-2,778	0,006*
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e

*p<0,05

Multiple linear regression analysis was conducted to investigate the effects of emerging adults' levels of perfectionism and cognitive flexibility on panic decision-making style. In accordance the conclusions of the regression analysis ($F=60,182$; $p<0.05$), Self-directed perfectionism, Socially determined perfectionism, Control and Alternative sub-dimension scores were found to have a statistically significant effect on Panic decision-making style scores ($p<0.05$). It is seen that 43.7% of the change in panic decision-making points is clarified by the model (Adjusted $R^2=0.437$). A 1-unit increase in self-directed perfectionism scores causes a 0.024 increase ($\beta=-0.024$) on Panic decision-making style scores, a 1-unit decrease in their scores, a 1-unit increase in socially determined perfectionism scores causes a 0.026 increase in Panic decision-making style scores ($\beta=0.026$), 1-unit increase in Control scores, 0.244 increase in Panic decision making style scores ($\beta=-0.244$), 1-unit decrease in Alternative sub-dimension scores, 0.040 decrease in Panic decision-making style scores ($\beta=-0.040$) causes. There is no autocorrelation problem in the model (DW:1,997).

CHAPTER V

RESULTS, DISCUSSION, SUGGESTIONS

In this chapter, the results, discussion, and suggestions are listed.

5.1. Results

1. According to the findings of the investigating, there was a considerable positive correlation between the age of the participants and the self-directed perfectionism sub-dimension scores. It was realized that there is a positive relation between the scores of the “Cognitive Flexibility Inventory”, the points of the control and alternative sub-extentss, and the numbers of careful decisions making. In the research, a negatory relationship was pursued between the sub-extents of decision-making styles, avoidant, procrastinating and panic decision making style scores.
2. According to the findings of the research, it was realized that the socially determined perfectionism sub-scores of male participants are considerably higher than females. It was seen that male participants are higher than female participants between cognitive flexibility inventory scores and control sub-scores. It was seen that female participants are higher than male participants in the decision-making styles and panic sub-dimension.
3. According to the place where the participants live, it was realized that the self-directed perfectionism sub-dimension scores of the participants who live in a metropolitan area were considerably higher than those who live in a district/town. There was no considerable distinction between the cognitive flexibility inventory and its sub-extents pursuant to the place of residence of the participants.
4. According to the detections of the research, it was seen that Multidimensional Perfectionism Attitude Scale did not differ meaningfully in accordance with the educational level. Likewise, it was determined which the Cognitive Flexibility Inventory Scale did not differ significantly according to education level. It was realized that there was no statistically significant difference between the Melbourne Decision-Making Strategies Scale II sub-dimension scores according to the educational status of the participants.
5. According to research findings, a negative relationship was obtained between Multidimensional Perfectionist Attitude Scale scores and Cognitive Flexibility

Inventory Control sub-dimension scores. It was seen that there is a statistically expressive positive correlation between the Multidimensional Perfectionist Attitude Scale scores and the cognitive flexibility inventory alternative sub-dimension scores. It was seen that there was a statistically remarkable affirmative relation between the Multidimensional Perfectionist Attitude Scale scores and the sub-extents of the Melbourne Decision-Making Strategies Scale I scores: mindful, avoidant, procrastinating, and panic decision-making styles.

6. It was seen that there is a positive relation between Self-directed perfectionism scores, that are sub-extents of the Multidimensional Perfectionism Inventory, CFI numbers, and between Alternative sub-dimension numbers. It was seen that there was a statistically considerable positive correlation between the self-directed perfectionism scores, one of the sub-extents of the Multidimensional Perfectionism Inventory, the MDMI-I sub-extents scores, and between the Mindful decision-making style sub-extent points. It was seen that there was a statistically important minus correlation between self-directed perfectionism sub-extent scores and Control scores, which is one of the sub-extents of cognitive flexibility.

7. It was seen that there was a considerable negatory relation between perfectionism scores for others, which was one of the sub-dimensions of the Multidimensional Perfectionism Inventory, and Control scores, which was the sub-dimension of cognitive flexibility. Likewise, it was seen that there was a statistically significant positive correlation between perfectionism towards Others sub-dimension scores and Alternative scores from Cognitive Flexibility sub-dimensions. It was seen that there was a statistically considerable positive correlation between Avoidant, procrastinating decision making styles scores from Decision Making Styles sub-dimensions, Panic decision making style scores and Alternative scores from Cognitive Flexibility sub-dimensions.

8. It was seen that there was a statistically important minus relation among the Socially determined perfectionism scores, which were the sub-dimension of the Multidimensional Perfectionism Inventory, and the Cognitive Flexibility Inventory scores, and the Control sub-dimension scores. It was seen that there was a significant positive relation between the Socially determined perfectionism scores, which were the sub-dimension of the Multidimensional Perfectionism Inventory, and the

Melbourne Decision-Making Strategies Scale I scores and its sub-dimensions, Avoidant decision-making style scores, Procrastinating decision-making style scores, Panic decision-making style scores, statistically.

9. It was seen that there was a statistically prominent positive relation among “Cognitive Flexibility Inventory” scores and the mindful decision-making style scores, one of the sub-dimensions of the Melbourne Decision-Making Strategies Scale. It was seen that there was a statistically considerable minus relationship between Cognitive Flexibility Inventory points and Avoidant decision-making style points from the sub-extents of Melbourne Decision-Making Strategies Scale, between procrastinating decision-making style scores and between Panic decision-making style scores.

10. It was seen that there was a statistically prominent positive correlation between the Control scores, which were one of the sub-extents of the Cognitive Flexibility Inventory, and the Careful Decision-Making Style sub-dimension scores. It was realized that there was a statistical analysis considerable minus relationship between Control dimension scores and Avoidant decision-making style sub-dimension scores, between Procrastinating decision-making style sub-dimension scores, and Panic decision-making style sub-dimension scores.

11. It was seen that there was a statistically considerable positive correlation between the Alternative scores, that were one of the sub-extents of the Cognitive Flexibility Inventory, and the Careful decision-making style scores, which were the Decision-Making Strategies sub-dimensions. It was seen that there was a statistically considerable negatory relation between the alternative dimension scores and the Avoidant decision-making style sub-dimension scores, the procrastinating decision-making style sub-dimension scores, and the panic decision-making style sub-dimension scores.

12. According to findings, multiple lineal regression analysis was conducted to investigate the effects of emerging adults' levels of perfectionism and cognitive flexibility on mindful decision-making style, one of the sub-extents of Decision-Making Strategies. It was seen that self-directed perfectionism and Alternative sub-dimension scores had a statistically significant effect on Mindful decision-making style scores. It was seen that there is a considerable affirmative relation between self-

directed perfectionism sub-dimension scores and Cognitive Flexibility Inventory scores, between Alternative sub-dimension scores, between Melbourne Decision-Making Strategies Scale I sub-dimension scores, and between mindful decision-making style sub-dimension scores.

13. Multiple linear regression analysis was conducted to investigate the effects of emerging adults' levels of perfectionism and cognitive flexibility on the avoidant decision-making style, which was the sub-dimension of decision-making strategies. There was a significant positive relationship between the perfectionism towards others sub-dimension scores and the Alternative sub-dimension scores, and between the Avoidant decision-making style sub-dimension scores and the Alternative sub-dimension scores.

14. Multiple linear regression analysis was conducted to investigate the on the procrastinating decision making style, one of the sub-dimensions of decision-making strategies. There was a considerable positive relations between the perfectionism towards others sub-extent scores and the Alternative sub-extent scores, and between the Procrastinating decision-making style sub-dimension scores and the Alternative sub-extent scores.

15. Multiple linear regression analysis was conducted to investigate the effect of emerging adults' levels of perfectionism and cognitive flexibility on Panic decision making style, that is one of the sub-extents of decision-making strategies. There was a significant positive relationship between the perfectionism towards others sub-dimension scores and the Alternative sub-dimension scores, and between the Panic decision-making style sub-dimension scores and the Alternative sub-dimension scores.

5.2. Discussion

In this division, the results of the study will be discussed.

5.2.1. Emerging adult's the effect of perfectionist attitudes and cognitive flexibility levels on decision-making strategies in terms of gender variable.

In this study, it was found that there was a significant difference according to gender in the socially oriented perfectionism dimension of perfectionism. This differentiation showed that men's level of Socially Oriented Perfectionism was higher than women.

(Tuncer-Voltan Acar, 2006; Pirinçci, 2009; Büyükbayraktar, 2011; Otrar & Tezcan, 2015; Küçü, 2018; Zengin, 2019) found that it was thought that the cause for the superior level of socially determined perfectionism of men could be explained by traditional gender roles. Similar to this study, Yılmaz, Erişen, & Banaz (2019) determined that perfectionism differed significantly according to gender, and the perfectionism levels of men were found to be higher than women. On the contrary, it was concluded in many studies that perfectionism did not differ between male and female students (Dönmez, 2019; Aşçı, 2021; Ener, 2021; Blankstein & Lumley, 2008; Kawamura, Hunt, Frost, & DiBartolo, 2001).

There is a considerable distinction between the Cognitive Flexibility Inventory scores and control scores according to the gender of the participants. It was observed that male participants were higher in the control dimension than male participants. According to these findings, it was seen that there was a difference between sub-dimensions according to gender (Sapmaz & Doğan, 2013, p. 159; Asıcı & İkiz, 2015, p. 201). Similarly, (Hatipoğlu, 2022) it was seen that the total score of cognitive flexibility did not differ between male and female participants, and the control sub-dimension was higher in men than in women. Contrary to the result of the research, there were also studies showing that cognitive flexibility did not change according to gender (Martin, Rubin, 1995; Doğan Laçın, Yalçın, 2019; Çuhadaroglu, 2013).

In the study, there was no considerable distinction between the MDMS-I points of the participants according to their gender. Only panic decision making is also higher in women. Similarly, (Tathioğlu, 2014) reached a similar conclusion in his research. Some duties and responsibilities attributed to genders in society can push individuals towards perfectionism in different areas. The perception of perfectionism towards the expectations of the society in order to be successful in men and to support their families is high. The reason why women have a higher perception of perfectionism towards themselves than men may be the effort to adapt to certain female roles attributed by society.

It can be said that the higher cognitive flexibility in men may be due to the fact that there are more areas where they can express themselves in the society.

Among the decision-making strategies, the panic decision-making style was higher in women. The reason for this may be that they approach certain situations more emotionally and are under pressure in certain situations.

5.2.2. Emerging adult's the effect of perfectionist attitudes and cognitive flexibility levels on decision-making strategies in terms of place of residence.

The self-directed perfectionism sub-extent was found to differ significantly by place of residence. The self-directed perfectionism sub-dimension of the people living in the metropolitan cities were found to be higher than those living in the district/town.

It was established that cognitive flexibility points did not diverges significantly in accordance with the place of residence.

It was seen that the sub-dimension points of avoidant decision-making style, procrastinating decision-making style and panic decision-making style are higher than the person whose place of residence is a metropolitan city. Contrary to this study (Dursun B., 2021); Careful decision making scores were found to be higher in emerging adults living apart from their families than emerging adults living with their families.

It is a finding that supports the emerging adulthood process that an emerging adult, who is on the way to autonomy by leaving his family, takes a more careful decision by considering all the possibilities in the decision-making process. The place we live in can have an impact on our personality and the decisions we make in life. In this sense, it can also affect our decision-making strategies. It can be said that the society we live in and the characteristics of that society may experience differences in the decision-making process, and people living in cities will use the strategy of careful decision making more when making decisions because they have the opportunity to act more individually and women to act more freely than those living in small places.

5.2.3. Emerging adult's the effect of perfectionist attitudes and cognitive flexibility levels on decision-making strategies in terms of education level.

It was seen that there is no difference between the Multidimensional Perfectionist Attitude Scale and sub-dimension points according to the educational conditions of the participants. Kiral (2012) Primary School Managers, Şahiner (2011) in the work of the school administrators about the perfectionist behavior of all sub -dimensions, primary school managers of the perceptions of perfectionism did not find a significant difference according to the education level variable.

It was seen that there was no statistically significant difference between the Cognitive Flexibility Inventory and sub-dimension scores according to the educational conditions of the participants. Effects of cognitive flexibility and emotion work-life balance regulation: the role of mediating job creation similar results are found in the study. It was not thought that education level would have a relationship with any variable. Cognitive Flexibility variable was also included (Genç, 2022).

It was seen that there was no considerable distinction between the Melbourne Decision-Making Strategies Scale I scores according to the educational status of the participants. there was no difference between the Melbourne Decision-Making Strategies Scale II sub-dimension scores as visitors, according to the educational conditions of the participants.

According to Çetinkaya's (2013) study, when the decision-making scores of the shooters were examined according to their educational status, although the graduate group's decision-making scores were found to be higher than those of high school and university education, these differences did not create a statistically significant difference.

Gacar (2011) found that the decision-making styles of physical education and sports teachers in Turkey (attentive, avoidant, procrastinating, panic) differ according to their education level.

The fact that there was no considerable distinction in the decision-making strategies of individuals according to their educational status can be said to be different factors affecting the decision-making strategies of the individual. It could be said that there are different factors that affect decision-making strategies in the life process, although the level of education gives the person different perspectives in terms of thinking skills and different evaluations of events.

5.2.4. There is a considerable relationship between the levels of perfectionism, cognitive flexibility and decision-making strategies of emerging adults.

According to the findings of the research, there was a negative relationship between perfectionism and the control dimension of cognitive flexibility. Emerging adults with a top level of perfectionist had a low level of control of cognitive flexibility sub-dimension. (Atayeter, 2020) found in her study that as parents' perfectionism levels increase, cognitive flexibility levels decrease. Multidimensional Perfectionist Attitude Scale scores and Alternative subscale scores, Melbourne Decision-Making Strategies Scale I scores, mindful decision-making style sub-dimension scores, Avoidant

decision-making style sub-dimension scores, Procrastinating decision-making style sub-dimension scores, Panic decision-making style sub-dimension among is seen that there was a positive significant relationship between the scores. No other study was found similar to this result of the study.

It was seen that there was a significant positive relationship between self-directed perfectionism sub-dimension and Cognitive Flexibility Inventory scores, Alternative sub-dimension scores, Melbourne Decision-Making Strategies Scale I sub-dimension scores, and careful decision-making style sub-dimension scores. It was seen that there was a significant negative relationship between self-directed perfectionism sub-dimension scores and Control sub-dimension scores. No other study was found similar to this result of the study. This result of the research was interpreted as individuals' thinking in more detail on events or situations and trying to look at them from different angles in the structuring of perfectionism towards themselves may be proportional to the alternative dimension. In addition, since it was assumed that individuals will act more carefully while making decisions in this process, it could be interpreted as being proportional to their careful decision-making style.

According to findings, there was a considerable positive relation between control and alternative sub-dimensions of Cognitive Flexibility Inventory and careful decision-making style sub-dimension. Similarly, as a consequence of the analysis carried out to state the relationship between the athletes' decision-making styles scores and their cognitive flexibility scores, a positive relationship was found between cognitive flexibility and careful decision making. In a similar study conducted by Kara (2020) with athletes, it was found that cognitive flexibility and careful decision making were positively related. There was also a significant relationship between other decision-making styles. Similarly, (Kara, 2020) As cognitive flexibility increases, other decision styles, except careful decision making, decrease.

5.2.5. It predicts the perfectionism levels, cognitive flexibility levels and decision-making strategies of emerging adults significantly.

According to the findings of the study, it was realized that self-directed perfectionism and alternative sub-dimension scores got a significant impact on careful decision-making style scores. There was a positive and significant effect between self-directed perfectionist disposition and careful decision-making style. The increase in the self directed perfectionist level of the among adults causes an increase in the careful decision making style.

It was seen that control sub-dimension scores had a significant impact on avoidant decision-making style scores. This is seen that Control and Alternative sub-dimension scores have a considerable influence on Avoidant decision-making style scores. When the control dimension of cognitive flexibility decreased, the avoidant decision-making style also decreased. Decision-making about the outcome is expressed as the process of reducing suspicions and uncertainties while making the convenient choice among the options (Tekin, et al., 2009). In addition, in the study (Dursun B., 2021), it was found that panic decision-making style predicted cognitive flexibility control sub-dimension negatively.

It was seen that the control sub-dimension points possess a significant impact on the procrastinating decision-making style scores. When the control dimension of cognitive flexibility increased, the procrastinating decision-making style also increased.

Self-directed perfectionism, socially determined perfectionism, it is seen that there is a considerable impact on both sub-dimensions of cognitive flexibility on panic decision-making style scores.. When the control sub-extent of cognitive flexibility increases, panic decision-making style also increases. It was inversely proportional to the alternative subscale. When self-directed perfectionism and social perfectionism, that are sub-extents of perfectionism, increase, panic decision-making style also increases. Contrary to the research (Dursun B., 2021), it was found that panic decision-making styles predicted cognitive flexibility control sub-dimension negatively.

Individuals who could think flexibly and are self-directed perfectionists were able to better reason events and situations. Based on this, it could be seen that they use the strategy of careful decision making more. It was realized that people with high cognitive flexibility had less avoidant decision-making style. This means that individuals will not use the avoidant decision style because they can look multidimensionally while making a decision about a situation. Panic decision-making style differs according to self-or socially determined perfectionism. It can be said that this depends on whether individuals prioritize themselves or society's expectations and make decisions accordingly.

5.3. Suggestions

The pursuing suggestions can be made to practitioners and researchers based on the discovers got as a result of the research, other research results, and the literature.

5.3.1. Suggestions for practitioners

- It is recommended to include lessons that support cognitive flexibility in educational institutions and group work.
- It may be recommended to carry out studies to develop cognitive flexibility and decision-making skills with group or individual counseling studies.
- It is recommended to plan studies in these areas related to teachers.
- Psychoeducational studies can be planned to improve individuals' decision-making skills during school periods.

5.3.2. Suggestions for researchers

- This research is limited in that it is carried out only with individuals between the ages of 18-30. In this respect, it can be suggested that the research sample be developed to cover different age groups.
Long-term studies can be conducted with the variables of perfectionism, cognitive flexibility and decision-making strategies.
- A study between Cognitive Flexibility and emotion regulation is recommended.
- It is suggested to conduct a study on personality types that affect our decision-making skills.
- The origins of this structuring can be investigated in more detail by examining the parental attitudes variable in the development of perfectionist attitude in individuals.
- A study can be made between education level and perfectionism variables.

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APPENDICES

Appendix-A: Demographic Information Form

Değerli katılımcı,

Bu çalışma Prof. Dr. Nilüfer Şehriban Özabacı danışmanlığında, genç yetişkinlerde mükemmeliyetçilik ve bilişsel esneklik düzeyleri ile karar verme stilleri üzerindeki etkisinin inceleneceği yüksek lisans tezi kapsamında yapılmaktadır. Verdiğiniz bilgiler toplu olarak değerlendirilecek, gizli tutulacak ve bu çalışma dışında hiçbir yerde kullanılmayacaktır. Formlardaki soruları boş bırakmadan tamamını içten, dürüst bir şekilde cevaplamanız yapılan bilimsel araştırmaya çok önemli katkılar sağlayacaktır. Verdiğiniz destek için teşekkür eder, saygılar sunarım. Araştırmayla ilgili yapılan açıklamaları anladım, araştırmaya katılmayı

() kabul ediyorum.

() kabul etmiyorum.

Gülten Gizem Özbahçeci

Yeditepe Üniversitesi

Eğitim Bilimleri Anabilim Dalı

Rehberlik ve Psikolojik Danışmanlık

Yüksek Lisans Öğrencisi

Kişisel Bilgi Formu

1. Yaşınız:

2. Cinsiyetiniz:

3. Yaşadığınız Şehir: Kasaba () İlçe () Şehir () Büyükşehir ()

4. Eğitim Durumunuz: İlkokul () Ortaokul () Lise ()

Lisans () Yüksek Lisans () Doktora ()

Appendix-B- Multidimensional Scale of Perfectionism

Bölüm 2. Çok Boyutlu Mükemmeliyetçilik Ölçeği

Aşağıda kişilik özellik ve davranışlarına ilişkin bir dizi ifade bulunmaktadır. Her ifadeyi okuduktan sonra o maddede belirtilen fikre katılma derecenizi **1** ve **7** arasında değişen rakamlardan size uygun olanının üzerine **(X)** işareti koyarak belirleyiniz. (**1 Hiç Katılmıyorum, 7 Tamamen Katılıyorum**).

		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	Yakınlarımla başarılı olmaları gerekmez.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
4	Arkadaşlarımı en iyisinden aşağısına 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 kabul eder.	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 işte başarılı olmamı beklerler.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
19	Çevremdekiler 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	Her konuda üstün başarı göstermesem de başkaları benden hoşlanacaktır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22	Kendilerini geliştirmek için uğraşmayan kişilerle ilgilenmem.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23	Yapığım işte hata bulmak beni huzursuz 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 isterim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27	Yakınlarımin hata yapmasına tahammül edemem.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28	Hedeflerimi belirlemede mükemmeliyetçiyimdir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29	Değer verdiğim kişiler beni hiç bir zaman hayal kırıklığına uğratmamalıdır.	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 beklediğini 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 işte 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 ikoyarım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
41	İnsanlar benden varabileceğimden 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 çalışması 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	Başkalarının yaptığı her şeyde üstün başarı göstermelerini nadiren beklerim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7



Appendix-C - Cognitive Flexibility Inventory

Aşağıdaki ifadelerin size ne kadar uygun olduğunu göstermek için lütfen ifadelerin solunda yer alan ölçeği kullanınız.		Hiç uygun değil	Pek uygun değil	Kararsızım	Uygun	Tamamen uygun
1.	Durumları "tartma" konusunda iyiyimdir.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	Zor durumlarla karşılaştığımda karar vermekte güçlük çekerim.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Karar vermeden önce çok sayıda seçeneği dikkate alırım.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Zor durumlarla karşılaştığımda kontrolümü kaybediyormuşum gibi hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Zor durumlara değişik açılardan bakmayı tercih ederim.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	Bir davranışın nedenini anlamak için önce, elimdeki dışında ek bilgi edinmeye çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	Zor durumlarla karşılaştığımda öyle strese girerim ki sorunu çözecek bir yol bulamam.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	Olaylara başkalarının bakış açısından bakmayı denerim.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	Zor durumlarla baş etmek için çok sayıda değişik seçeneğin olması beni sıkıntıya sokar.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	Kendimi başkalarının yerine koymakta başarılıyım.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	Zor durumlarla karşılaştığımda ne yapacağımı bilemem.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	Zor durumlara farklı açılardan bakmak önemlidir.	1	2	3	4	5
13.	Zor durumlarda nasıl davranacağıma karar vermeden önce birçok seçeneği dikkate alırım.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	Durumlara farklı bakış açılarından bakarım.	1	2	3	4	5
15.	Hayatta karşılaştığım zorlukların üstesinden gelmeyi becerebilirim.	1	2	3	4	5
16.	Bir davranışın nedenini düşünürken mevcut bütün bilgileri ve gerçekleri dikkate alırım.	1	2	3	4	5
17.	Zor durumlarda, şartları değiştirecek gücümün olmadığını hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5
18.	Zor durumlarla karşılaştığımda önce bir durup çözüm için farklı yollar düşünmeye çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
19.	Zor durumlarla karşılaştığımda birden çok çözüm yolu bulabilirim.	1	2	3	4	5
20.	Zor durumlara tepki vermeden önce birçok seçeneği dikkate alırım.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix-D: Melbourne Decision-Making Scale I-II

BÖLÜM 1

YÖNERGE: Kişiler, karar verme aşamasında kendilerini ne derece rahat hissettikleriyle ilgili olarak farklılık gösterirler. Lütfen karar verme konusunda kendinizi ne derece rahat hissettiğinizi sizin için en uygun olan yanıtı işaretleyerek belirtiniz. Yardımlarınız ve katılımınız için teşekkür ederim.

		Doğru	Bazen Doğru	Doğru Değil
(1)	Karar verme yeteneğime güvenirim.	☐	☐	☐
(2)	Karar verirken kendimi birçok kişiden aşağı görürüm.	☐	☐	☐
(3)	Kendimi karar vermede başarılı biri olarak düşünürüm.	☐	☐	☐
(4)	Kendimi o kadar cesaretsiz hissederim ki, karar verme uğraşından vazgeçerim.	☐	☐	☐
(5)	Verdiğim kararlar iyi sonuçlanır.	☐	☐	☐
(6)	Diğer insanların, benim kararımdan ziyade, kendi kararlarının doğru olduğu konusunda beni ikna etmeleri kolaydır.	☐	☐	☐

BÖLÜM II

Yönerge: Kişiler karar verirken izledikleri yol konusunda farklılık gösterirler. Lütfen aşağıdaki her bir soruya, sizin sitilinize en iyi uyan yanıtı işaretleyerek nasıl karar verdiğinizi gösteriniz.

Karar verirken,

				98
		Doğru	Bazen Doğru	Doğru Değil
(1)	Karar verirken kendimi, sanki büyük bir zaman baskısı altındaymışım gibi hissederim.	[]	[]	[]
(2)	Bütün alternatifleri göz önünde tutmayı severim.	[]	[]	[]
(3)	Kararları diğer kişilere bırakmayı tercih ederim.	[]	[]	[]
(4)	Bütün alternatiflerin dezavantajlarını ortaya çıkarmaya çalışırım.	[]	[]	[]
(5)	Son kararı vermeden önce, önemsiz konular üzerinde çok zaman harcarım.	[]	[]	[]
(6)	Kararı en iyi şekilde nasıl uygulayabileceğimi enine boyuna düşünürüm.	[]	[]	[]
(7)	Bir kararı verdikten sonra bile kararı uygulamayı geciktiririm.	[]	[]	[]
(8)	Karar verirken, karar hakkında pek çok bilgi toplamaktan hoşlanırım.	[]	[]	[]
(9)	Karar vermekten kaçınırım.	[]	[]	[]
(10)	Karar vermek zorunda olduğum zaman, karar üzerinde düşünmeye başlamadan önce uzun süre beklerim.	[]	[]	[]
(11)	Karar verme konusunda sorumluluk üstlenmeyi sevmem	[]	[]	[]
(12)	Karar vermeden önce amaçlarımı netleştirmeye çalışırım.	[]	[]	[]
(13)	Önemsiz, küçük olayların yolunda gitmeyebileceği olasılığı, benim aniden tercihlerimden dönüş yapmama neden olur.	[]	[]	[]
(14)	Bir karar benim tarafımdan veya başka biri tarafından verilecekse, ben karar vermeyi diğer kişiye bırakırım.	[]	[]	[]

(15)	Ne zaman zor bir kararla karşı karşıya gelsem, iyi bir çözüm yolu bulma konusunda kendimi kötümser hissederim.	☐	☐	☐
(16)	Seçim yapmadan önce çok fazla dikkatli davranırım.	☐	☐	☐
(17)	Zorunda kalmadıkça karar vermem.	☐	☐	☐
(18)	Son ana kadar karar vermeyi geciktiririm.	☐	☐	☐
(19)	Çok daha bilgili kişilerin benim yerime karar vermelerini tercih ederim.	☐	☐	☐
(20)	Karar verdikten sonra, kararın doğru olduğuna kendimi inandırmak için çok zaman harcarım.	☐	☐	☐
(21)	Karar vermeyi ertelerim.	☐	☐	☐
(22)	Acilen karar vermem gereken bir durumda doğru düşünemem.	☐	☐	☐

Appendix-E: Permission Letter for Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale

Appendix-F: Permission Letter for Cognitive Flexibility Inventory

Appendix-G: Permission Letter for Melbourne Decision Making Strategies I-II

**Appendix-H: Yeditepe University Human Research Ethics Committee
Certificate in Social Sciences**

