2022

Perfectionism and Honors Students: Cautious Good News

Jennifer S. Feenstra

Perfectionism and Honors Students: Cautious Good News

Jennifer S. Feenstra
Northwestern College

Abstract: Psychoeducational research differentiates adaptive and maladaptive forms of perfectionism. This study considers personal-strivings and evaluative-concerns perfectionism in relation to procrastination, stress, anxiety, well-being, and academic achievement among students (n = 147) of all undergraduate levels and across disciplines, with honors representing a little over a quarter. While results show evaluative-concerns perfectionism to positively correlate to stress and anxiety and negatively correlate with well-being, no correlation is found relative to procrastination and GPA. Conversely, personal-strivings perfectionism negatively correlates with procrastination and stress and positively with well-being and GPA. Honors students show a higher degree of the more adaptive personal-strivings perfectionism than their undergraduate counterparts but do not differ in the maladaptive form. Data suggest that this is good news for honors students: they have more adaptive perfectionism and are in no more danger from its maladaptive type than other students.

Keywords: psychology of college students; adaptability; well-being; Frost Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale (FMPS); Northwestern College (IA)—Honors Program

Citation: *Journal of the National Collegiate Honors Council*, 2022, 23(1): 237–49

Perfection is a lofty goal that can motivate hard work and perseverance. Attempting to achieve such a lofty goal, however, may come at the expense of a person's well-being (Rice et al., 2003). As high-achieving students throughout their academic careers, college honors students might be expected to show more perfectionism (Mendaglio, 2007) and potentially pay the price for it. The purpose of this research was to explore perfectionism in

honors students, along with a comparison group of non-honors students, and assess positive and negative outcomes of perfectionism.

Early work on the concept of perfectionism focused on the negative impact perfectionism could have on individuals (Blatt, 1995; Flett & Hewitt, 2002; Pacht, 1984), but even then, some researchers suggested perfectionism could have adaptive qualities (Frost et al., 1993; Hamachek, 1978). Perfectionism is best understood as a multidimensional construct with different aspects associated with different outcomes (Blankstein & Dunkley, 2002). Although the number of dimensions can vary depending on the theorist (e.g., Hewitt & Flett's 1991 theory has three dimensions), a division into adaptive and maladaptive components fits well with most models (Bieling et al., 2004; Frost et al., 1993).

The more adaptive form of perfectionism is personal-strivings perfectionism (Bieling et al., 2004; Blankstein et al., 2008), which involves setting high standards for oneself and being strongly motivated to reach those standards (Drizinsky et al., 2016; Madigan, 2019). The more maladaptive form of perfectionism is evaluative-concerns perfectionism. Individuals high in evaluative-concerns perfectionism believe others have imposed high standards on them and are concerned that others will evaluate them based on those high standards. They may feel they lack the motivation or ability to achieve those standards and anticipate failure (Blankstein et al., 2008).

As can be logically concluded from the description of evaluative-concerns perfectionism, it is related to a number of negative outcomes whereas positive-strivings perfectionism tends to relate to more positive outcomes. Procrastination, when a person deliberately puts off tasks that need to be done (Steel, 2010), may occur when a perfectionist cannot complete a task for fear it will not be perfect. Evaluative-concerns perfectionism and procrastination have been correlated in past research (Rice et al., 2012; Smith et al., 2017). Personal-strivings perfectionism is associated with less procrastination (Xie et al., 2018). Stress, the feeling that one is unable to meet the demands of life, is correlated with evaluative-concerns perfectionism (Chang, 2006; Rice et al., 2006), but maladaptive perfectionists often have more chronic stress (Richardson et al., 2014). Students with more positive-strivings perfectionism tend to use more adaptive coping strategies in response to stress (Mofield et al., 2016) and may thus report it less often. Anxiety, involving feelings of tension or worry, has also been associated with perfectionism generally. When people believe that others expect perfection from them and are aware they cannot reach that level, they are likely to feel anxiety. This apprehension about the expectations of others is the hallmark of evaluative-concerns

perfectionism and has been associated with anxiety in previous research (Flett et al., 1994; Wimberley & Stasio, 2013). Maladaptive perfectionism can even lead to feelings of hopelessness as one's best efforts are never seen as good enough (Rice et al., 2003). Personal-strivings perfectionism, on the other hand, is negatively correlated with anxiety (Flett et al., 1994; Wimberley & Stasio, 2013).

Overall well-being, including positive mental health and life satisfaction, has been correlated with personal-strivings perfectionism (Molnar et al., 2020; Suh et al., 2017). In a study of university students, Stoeber and Corr (2016) found that socially prescribed perfectionism (similar to evaluative-concerns perfectionism) had a negative association with flourishing while a more self-oriented perfectionism (on par with personal-strivings perfectionism) was positively associated with flourishing.

Perfectionism may be associated with academic achievement for students (Stoeber, 2012). Evaluative-concerns perfectionism often shows no correlation with academic achievement, but personal-strivings perfectionism is positively correlated with achievement (Madigan, 2019; Osenk et al., 2020; Rice et al., 2016; Stoeber, 2012). Park et al. (2020) found that perfectionistic concerns about being evaluated by others can lead to inaccurate self-assessment while personal-strivings perfectionism allows people to accurately assess their own abilities, providing better prediction of academic achievement.

Although there has long been concern about the maladaptive nature of perfectionism among gifted and talented children and college honors students, maladaptive perfectionism is only occasionally found to be higher in those populations (Neumeister, 2007). Most researchers find no greater evaluative-concerns perfectionism in gifted adolescents or honors students than in non-honors students (Parker, 2000; Parker et al., 2001). The more adaptive form of perfectionism is more often found among gifted and talented adolescents and college honors students. These groups tend to exhibit more personal-strivings perfectionism than comparable students (Closson & Boutilier, 2017; Mofield & Parker Peters, 2015; Wimberley & Stasio, 2013).

Previous research on perfectionism led to four hypotheses. First, the more evaluative-concerns perfectionism students report, the more procrastination, stress, and anxiety they report and the lower their sense of well-being. Second, the more personal-strivings perfectionism students report, the less procrastination, stress, and anxiety they report and the higher their sense of well-being. Third, personal-strivings perfectionism, but not evaluative-concerns perfectionism, is related to more positive academic achievement. The

final hypothesis is that honors students show a similar degree of evaluative-concerns perfectionism as non-honors students but more personal-strivings perfectionism than non-honors students.

METHOD

Participants

A total of 147 college students at a small midwestern college in the U.S. participated in the study, with 31% identifying as male, 69% as female, and 0% as non-binary or other. Just under half (48%) were first-year students, 29% second-year, 18% third-year, and 4% fourth- or fifth-year students. Honors students made up roughly 27% of the sample, with the remaining (73%) being non-honors students.

Procedure

Before data were collected Institutional Review Board approval was obtained. All participants provided informed consent and were offered a debriefing at the end of their participation. Participants were recruited through an email to honors students and students in psychology classes as well as announcements in psychology classes. A link to a Qualtrics survey was provided if the student expressed an interest in participating. All participants received a candy bar in appreciation for their participation. Some psychology students also received extra credit in their courses. Because the recruitment focused heavily on psychology courses and a reward was offered, the sample is not random and may be more heavily weighted to students who like to be helpful or are strongly motivated by chocolate.

After providing informed consent and basic demographic information, surveys of perfectionism, procrastination, stress, anxiety, and well-being were administered. To assess academic achievement, students were asked to provide their cumulative GPA. To assess perfectionism, the brief version of the Frost Multidimensional Perfectionism Scales was used (Burgess et al., 2016). The 8-item scale provides scores for evaluative-concerns perfectionism and personal-strivings perfectionism. Cronbach's alpha for evaluative-concerns perfectionism was .83 and for personal-strivings .84, showing that both had acceptable internal reliability. Procrastination was measured with the 12-item Pure Procrastination scale (Steel, 2010). Students responded with items such as "I generally delay before starting on work I have to do." Cronbach's alpha for the procrastination scale was .92.

The perceived stress scale (Cohen et al., 1983) was used to assess stress. Participants answered questions such as "[over the last month] how often have you felt that you were unable to control the important things in your life?" The Cronbach's alpha for the 10-item perceived stress scale used in this study was .87. A 20-item scale was used to measure anxiety (Zung, 1971). The scale showed acceptable internal reliability with a Cronbach's alpha of .81. Diener et al.'s (1985) subjective well-being scale was used to asses well-being. The Cronbach's alpha for the scale was .84.

RESULTS

Bivariate correlations were performed to evaluate the correlation of evaluative-concerns perfectionism and personal-strivings perfectionism with procrastination, stress, anxiety, well-being, and GPA. Procrastination was not significantly correlated with evaluative-concerns perfectionism, $r(144) = .13$, $p = .12$ but was negatively correlated with personal-strivings perfectionism, $r(144) = -.37$, $p < .001$. Stress was positively correlated with evaluative-concerns perfectionism, $r(147) = .47$, $p < .001$ and negatively correlated with personal-strivings perfectionism, $r(147) = -.18$, $p = .026$. Anxiety was positively correlated with evaluative-concerns perfectionism, $r(141) = .42$, $p < .001$ but not significantly correlated with personal-strivings perfectionism, $r(141) = -.06$, $p = .49$. Well-being was negatively correlated with evaluative-concerns perfectionism, $r(146) = -.24$, $p = .004$ but positively correlated with personal-strivings perfectionism, $r(146) = .24$, $p = .003$. GPA had no significant correlation with evaluative-concerns perfectionism, $r(146) = .002$, $p = .98$ but a positive correlation with personal-strivings perfectionism, $r(146) = .43$, $p < .001$.

Independent samples t-tests were performed to determine if honors students showed more evaluative-concerns or personal-strivings perfectionism. Honors students ($M = 11.0$, $SD = 4.38$) were no different from non-honors students ($M = 11.6$, $SD = 4.08$) in their evaluative-concerns perfectionism, $t(145) = -0.71$, $p > .05$. However, honors students showed more personal-strivings perfectionism ($M = 17.3$, $SD = 2.63$) than non-honors students ($M = 15.5$, $SD = 3.04$), $t(145) = 3.22$, $p < .01$.

DISCUSSION

Evaluative-concerns perfectionism was associated with negative outcomes, including greater stress, more anxiety, and lower well-being, an expected

response given previous work showing it as a maladaptive type of perfectionism (Chang, 2006; Richardson et al., 2014; Wimberley & Stasio, 2013). The good news for honors students from this study is that they are no more likely to be high in evaluative-concerns perfectionism than non-honors students. However, honors students did show more personal-strivings perfectionism, as anticipated from previous research (Closson & Boutilier, 2017; Mofield & Parker Peters, 2015; Wimberley & Stasio, 2013); this is good news as personal-strivings perfectionism was associated with less procrastination, less stress, higher well-being, and higher GPA.

While the maladaptive form of perfectionism is no higher in honors students than in non-honors students, it is not entirely absent and should cause concern because of the danger it poses for anxiety, stress, and well-being. Evaluative-concerns perfectionism tends to be stable over time (Rice et al., 2006; Wimberly & Stasio, 2012), akin to a personality trait. Without intervention, therefore, this type of perfectionism is unlikely to change. Along with the anxiety, stress, and lower well-being found in the present study, previous research has found connections between evaluative-concerns perfectionism and depression and suicide (de Jonge-Heesen et al., 2021; Hewitt et al., 2006; Kawamura et al., 2001; Smith et al., 2018).

Although personal-strivings perfectionism has been labeled an adaptive form of perfectionism, some have questioned that label. If the goals being pursued are overly idealistic, this type of perfectionism could be associated with negative outcomes (Shafran et al., 2002). Greenspon (2000) argues that even labeling personal-strivings perfectionism as perfectionism demonstrates a misunderstanding of the concept. Striving for excellence in one's work is not, in and of itself, perfectionism but may be better described as conscientiousness (Flett & Hewitt, 2006). Personal-strivings perfectionism has been associated with suicidal ideation, especially in the presence of other stressors, although there is some question of whether this association results from high evaluative-concerns perfectionism overlapping with personal-strivings perfectionism (Smith et al., 2018).

Honors students and those who work with them can make changes that will help honors students reap the benefits of and avoid the costs of perfectionism. For students high in evaluative-concerns perfectionism, use of maladaptive coping strategies such as rumination and catastrophizing results in greater distress, depression, and suicidality (de Jonge-Heesen et al., 2021; Park et al., 2010). Learning and applying more adaptive coping strategies, such as planning and putting things into perspective, can be helpful. Turning to others in times of stress can also be helpful. However, evaluative-concerns

perfectionism, along with feelings of inferiority and inadequacy that can come with it, may lead to less well-developed social networks (Rice et al., 2006). Providing opportunities for social connection to honors students can help lessen perfectionism's impact.

Self-compassion, mindfulness, and cognitive-behavioral therapy interventions can also be helpful for dealing with perfectionism. Self-compassion involves focusing one's kindness and care on oneself. Neff (2009) includes three pieces in her definition of self-compassion: being kind to oneself, rather than judging oneself; recognizing that human beings make mistakes and fail as part of our common human condition; and having mindful awareness of the present moment. The practice of self-compassion can reduce the relation between maladaptive perfectionism and depression (Ferrari et al., 2018). Mindfulness itself has also been shown to reduce stress, negative feelings, and maladaptive perfectionism (Wimberley et al., 2016). In looking at interventions for perfectionism, cognitive-behavioral therapeutic strategies have been shown to be effective (Arana et al., 2017; Grieve et al., 2022). In a meta-analysis of studies of interventions, Lloyd et al. (2015) found that they reduced maladaptive perfectionism as well as symptoms of anxiety and depression.

Honors professionals should be aware of the origin of maladaptive perfectionism. Evaluative-concerns perfectionism is influenced in adolescence by parental expectations (Damian et al., 2013). Damian et al. speculated that adolescents may also believe that others besides their parents have expectations of them, increasing their evaluative-concerns perfectionism. Given these findings, the expectations of honors instructors and directors may increase maladaptive perfectionism. Communication that supports students' own goals and personal-strivings perfectionism may be helpful to students rather than communication that expresses high expectations and thus increases evaluative-concerns perfectionism.

Overall, what this study and previous research on perfectionism and honors students shows is that perfectionism does relate to negative outcomes in one of its forms: evaluative-concerns perfectionism. As a maladaptive form of perfectionism, evaluative-concerns perfectionism is associated with negative outcomes and should be of concern to honors students and those working with them. However, because honors students are at no greater risk for evaluative-concerns perfectionism than non-honors students, we can temper our concerns with hope. Honors students are not of special concern when it comes to maladaptive perfectionism. Instead, honors students are higher in another type of perfectionism: personal-strivings perfectionism. Fortunately, personal-strivings perfectionism is mostly associated with adaptive outcomes

such as high well-being and lower stress. While this type of perfectionism can, in some circumstances, still be problematic, for the most part the news about perfectionism and honors students is positive.

REFERENCES

Arana, F. G., Miracco, M. C., Galarregui, M. S., & Keegan, E. G. (2017). A brief cognitive behavioral intervention for maladaptive perfectionism in students: A pilot study. *Behavioral and Cognitive Psychotherapy, 45*(5), 537–42. <http://doi.org/10.1017/S1352465817000406>

Bieling, P. J., Israeli, A. L., & Antony, M. M. (2004). Is perfectionism good, bad, or both? Examining models of perfectionism construct. *Personality and Individual Differences, 36*(6), 1373–85. <https://doi.org/10.1016/S0191-8869(03)00235-6>

Blankstein, K. R., & Dunkley, D. M. (2002). Evaluative concerns, self-critical, and personal standards perfectionism: A structural equation modeling strategy. In G. L. Flett, & P. L. Hewitt (Eds.) *Perfectionism: Theory, research, and treatment* (pp. 5–31). American Psychological Association.

Blankstein, K. R., Dunkley, D. M., & Wilson, J. (2008). Evaluative concerns and personal standards perfectionism: Self-esteem as a mediator and moderator of relations with personal and academic needs and estimated GPA. *Current Psychology, 27*, 29–61. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12144-008-9022-1>

Blatt, S. J. (1995). The destructiveness of perfectionism. *American Psychologist, 50*, 1003–20. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.50.12.1003>

Burgess, A. M., Frost, R. O., & DiBartolo, P. M. (2016). Development and validation of the Frost Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale—Brief. *Journal of Psychoeducational Assessment, 34*(7), 620–33. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0734282916651359>

Chang, E. C. (2006). Conceptualization and measurement of adaptive and maladaptive aspects of performance perfectionism: Relations to personality, psychological functioning, and academic achievement. *Cognitive Therapy and Research, 30*(6), 677–97. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10608-006-9060-7>

Closson, L. M., & Boutilier, R. R. (2017). Perfectionism, academic engagement, and procrastination among undergraduates: The moderating role

of honors status. *Learning and Individual Differences, 57*(1), 157–62. <https://doi.org/10/1016/j.lindif.2017.04010>

Cohen, S., Kamarck, T., & Mermelstein, R. (1983). A global measure of perceived stress. *Journal of Health and Social Behavior, 24*(4), 385–96. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2136404>

Damian, L. E., Stoeber, J., Neru, O., Baban, A. (2013). On the development of perfectionism in adolescence: Perceived parental expectations predict longitudinal increases in socially prescribed perfectionism. *Personality and Individual Differences, 55*(6), 688–93. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2013.05.021>

de Jonge-Heesen, K. W. J., Rasing, S. P., Vermulst, A. A., Engels, R. C. M. E., & Creemers, D. H. M. (2021). How to cope with perfectionism? Perfectionism as a risk factor for suicidality and the role of cognitive coping in adolescents. *Journal of Rational-Emotive & Cognitive-Behavioral Therapy, 39*, 201–16. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10942-020-00368-x>

Diener, E., Emmons, R. A., Larsen, R. J., & Griffin, S. (1985). The satisfaction with life scale. *Journal of Personality Assessment, 49*, 71–75. <https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327752jpa4901_13>

Drizinsky, J., Zülch, J., Gibbons, H., & Stahl, J. (2016). How personal standards perfectionism and evaluative concerns perfectionism affect the error positive and post-error behavior with varying stimulus visibility. *Cognitive, Affective, & Behavioral Neuroscience, 16*, 876–87. <https://doi.org/10.3758/s13415-016-0438-z>

Ferrari, M., Yap, K., Scott, N., Einstein, D. A., & Ciarrochi, J. (2018) Self-compassion moderates the perfectionism and depression link in both adolescence and adulthood. *PLoS ONE 13*(2): e0192022. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0192022>

Flett, G. L., Endler, N. S., Tassone, C., & Hewitt, P. L. (1994). Perfectionism and components of state and trait anxiety. *Current Psychology, 13*, 326–50. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02686891>

Flett, G. L., & Hewitt, P. L. (2002). Perfectionism and maladjustment: An overview of theoretical, definitional, and treatment issues. In G. L. Flett, & P. L. Hewitt (Eds.) *Perfectionism: Theory, research, and treatment* (pp. 5–31). American Psychological Association.

Flett, G. L., & Hewitt, P. L. (2006). Positive versus negative perfectionism in psychopathology: A comment on Slade and Owens's dual process model. *Behavior Modification, 30*(4), 472–95. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0145445506288026>

Frost, R. O., Heimberg, R. G., Holt, C. S., Mattia, C. S., & Neubauer, A. L. (1993). A comparison of two measures of perfectionism. *Personality and Individual Differences, 14*(1), 119–26. <https://doi.org/10.1016/0191-8869(93)90181-2>

Greenspon, T. S. (2000). "Health perfectionism" is an oxymoron! Reflections on the psychology of perfectionism and the sociology of science. *Journal of Secondary Gifted Education, 11*(4), 197–208. <https://doi.org/10.4219/jsge-2000-631>

Grieve, P., Egan, S. J., Andersson, G., Carlbring, P., Shafran, R., & Wade, T. D. (2022). The impact of internet based cognitive behavior therapy for perfectionism on different measures of perfectionism: A randomized controlled trial. *Cognitive Behavioral Therapy, 51*(2), 130–42. <https://doi.org/10.1080/16506073.2021.1928276>

Hamachek, D. E. (1978). Psychodynamics of normal and neurotic perfectionism. *Psychology, 15*, 27–33.

Hewitt, P. L., & Flett, G. L. (1991). Dimensions of perfectionism in unipolar depression. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology*, 100(1), 98–101. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-843X.100.1.98>

Hewitt, P. L., Flett, G. L., Sherry, S. B., & Caelian, C. F. (2006). Trait perfectionism dimensions and suicide behavior. In T. E. Ellis (Ed.), *Cognition and suicide: Theory, research, and practice* (pp. 215–35). American Psychological Association.

Kawamura, K. Y., Hunt, S. L., Frost, R. O., & DiBartolo, P. M. (2001). Perfectionism, anxiety, and depression: Are the relationships independent? *Cognitive Therapy and Research, 25*, 291–301. <https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1010736529013>

Lloyd, S., Schmidt, U., Khondoker, M., & Tchanturia, K. (2015). Can psychological interventions reduce perfectionism? A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Behavioural and Cognitive Psychotherapy, 43*, 705–31. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S1352465814000162>

Madigan, D. J. (2019). A meta-analysis of perfectionism and academic achievement. *Educational Psychology Review, 31,* 967–89. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10648-019-09484-2>

Mendaglio, S. (2007). Should perfectionism be a characteristic of giftedness? *Gifted Education International, 23,* 89–100. <https://doi.org/10.1177/026142940702300303>

Mofield, E. L., & Parker Peters, M. (2015). The relationship between perfectionism and overexcitabilities in gifted adolescents. *Journal for the Education of the Gifted, 38*(4), 405–27. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0162353215607324>

Mofield, E. L., Parker Peters, M., & Chakraborti-Ghosh, S. (2016). Perfectionism, coping, and underachievement in gifted adolescents: Avoidance vs. approach orientations. *Educational Sciences, 6*(3), 21. <https://doi.org/10.3390/educsci6030021>

Molnar, D. S., Sirois, F. M., Flett, G. L., & Sadava, S. (2020). A person-oriented approach to multidimensional perfectionism: Perfectionism profiles in health and well-being. *Journal of Psychoeducational Assessment, 38*(1), 127–42. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0734282919877754>

Neff, K. D. (2009). The role of self-compassion on development: A healthier way to relate to oneself. *Human Development, 52*(4), 211–14. <https://doi.org/10.1159/000215071>

Neumeister, K. S. (2007). Perfectionism in gifted students: An overview of current research. *Gifted Education International, 23*(2), 254–63. <https://doi.org/10.1177/026142940702300306>

Osenk, I., Williamson, P., & Wade, T. D. (2020). Does perfectionism or pursuit of excellence contribute to successful learning? A meta-analytic review. *Psychological Assessment, 32*(10), 972–83. <https://doi.org/10.1037/pas0000942>

Pacht, A. R. (1984). Reflections on perfection. *American Psychologist, 39,* 386–90.

Park, Y., Heo, C., Ki, J. S., Rice, K. G., & Kim, Y.-H. (2020). How does perfectionism affect academic achievement? Examining the mediating role of accurate self-assessment. *International Journal of Psychology, 55*(6), 936–40. <https://doi.org/10.1002.ijop.12659>

Park, H.-J., Heppner, P. P., & Lee, D.-G. (2010). Maladaptive coping and self-esteem as mediators between perfectionism and psychological distress.

Personality and Individual Differences, *48*(4), 469–74. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.11.024>

Parker, W. D. (2000). Healthy perfectionism in the gifted. *Journal of Secondary Gifted Education*, *11*(4), 173–82. <https://doi.org/10.4219/jsge-2000-632>

Parker, W. D., Portesova, S., & Stumpf, H. (2001). Perfectionism in mathematically gifted and typical Czech students. *Journal for the Education of the Gifted*, *25*(2), 138–52. <https://doi.org/10.1177/016235320102500203>

Rice, K. G., Bair, C. J., Castro, J. R., Cohen, B. N., & Hood, C. A. (2003). Meaning of perfectionism: A quantitative and qualitative analysis. *Journal of Cognitive Psychotherapy*, *17*(1), 39–58. <https://doi.org/10.1891/jcop.17.1.39.58266>

Rice, K. G., Leever, B. A., Christopher, J., & Porter, J. D. (2006). Perfectionism, stress, and social (dis)connection: A short-term study of hopelessness, depression, and academic adjustment among honors students. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, *53*(4), 524–34. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0167.53.4.524>

Rice, K. G., Richardson, C. M. E., & Clark, D. (2012). Perfectionism, procrastination, and psychological distress. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, *59*(2), 288–302. <https://doi.org/10.137/a0026643>

Rice, K. G., Richardson, C. M. E., & Ray, M. E. (2016). Perfectionism in academic settings. In F. Sirois & D. Molnar (Eds.), *Perfectionism, health, and well-being* (pp. 245–64). Springer. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-18582-8_11>

Richardson, C. M. E., Rice, K. G., & Devine, D. P. (2014). Perfectionism, emotion regulation, and the cortisol stress response. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, *61*(1), 110–18. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0034446>

Shafran, R., Cooper, Z., & Fairburn, C. G. (2002). Clinical perfectionism: A cognitive-behavioral analysis. *Behavioral Research and Therapy*, *40*, 773–91. <https://doi.org/10.1016/S0005-7967(01)00059-6>

Smith, M. M., Sherry, S. B., Chen, S., Saklofske, D. H., Mushquash, C., Flett, G. L., & Hewitt, P. L. (2018). The perniciousness of perfectionism: A meta-analytic review of perfectionism-suicide relationship. *Journal of Personality*, *86*(3), 522–42. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jopy.12333>

Smith, M. M., Sherry, S. B., Saklofske, D. H., & Mushquash, A. R. (2017). Clarifying the perfectionism-procrastination relationship using a 7-day, 14-occasion daily diary study. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *112*(1), 117–23. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2017.02.059>

Steel, P. (2010). Arousal, avoidant and decisional procrastinators: Do they exist? *Personality and Individual Differences*, *48*(8) 926–34. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2010.02.025>

Stoeber, J. (2012). Perfectionism and performance. In S. M. Murphy (Ed.), *The Oxford handbook of sport and performance psychology* (pp. 294–306). Oxford University Press.

Stoeber, J., & Corr, P. J. (2016). A short empirical note on perfectionism and flourishing. *Personality and Individual Difference*, *90*, 50–53. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2015.10.036>

Suh, H., Gnilka, P. B., Rice, K. G. (2017). Perfectionism and well-being: A positive psychology framework. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *111*, 25–30. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2017.01.041>

Wimberley, T. E., Mintz, L. B., & Suh, H. (2016). Perfectionism and mindfulness: Effectiveness of a bibliotherapy intervention. *Mindfulness*, *7*, 433–44. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12671-015-0460-1>

Wimberley, T. E., & Stasio, M. J. (2013). Perfectionistic thoughts, personal standards, and evaluative concerns: Further investigating relationships to psychological distress. *Cognitive Therapy and Research*, *37*, 277–83. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10608-012-9462-7>

Xie, Y., Yang, J., & Chen, F. (2018). Procrastination and multidimensional perfectionism: A meta-analysis of main, mediating and moderating effects. *Social Behavior and Personality*, *46*(3), 395–408. <https://doi.org/10.2224/sbp.6680>

Zung, W. W. K. (1971). A rating instrument for anxiety disorders. *Psychosomatics*, *12*, 371–79. <https://doi.org/10.1016/S0033-3182(71)71479-0>

The author may be contacted at

jfeenstr@nwciowa.edu.