AN INVESTIGATION OF PERFECTIONISM AND LIFE SATISFACTION WITH ELEMENTARY GIFTED STUDENTS

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by

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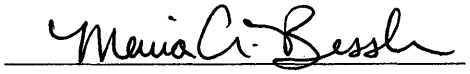

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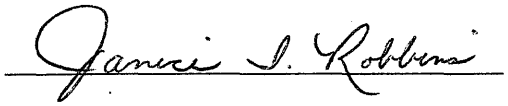

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AN INVESTIGATION OF PERFECTIONISM AND LIFE SATISFACTION WITH ELEMENTARY GIFTED STUDENTS

ABSTRACT

Perfectionism and life satisfaction were measured in a self-report survey study of students in grades 3-5 participating in an elementary school gifted program. Students completed the Almost Perfect Scale-Revised along with the Brief Multidimensional Students' Life Satisfaction Scale and a brief demographic questionnaire. Upon analysis, 55.3% of the sample was found to be non-perfectionists, 23.4% adaptive perfectionists, and 21.3% maladaptive perfectionists. Twice as many perfectionists were female compared to male. Females reported higher mean life satisfaction in five of six areas. Adaptive perfectionists reported the highest mean life satisfaction in all areas compared to maladaptive or non-perfectionists. These findings indicate a potential lower incidence in perfectionism in gifted elementary students than that has been previously measured in gifted middle school students. Additionally, perfectionism appears to be associated with higher life satisfaction, a potential reward associated with perfectionism.

Keywords: perfectionism, gifted, life satisfaction

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Chapter 1

Introduction of topic

Perfectionism can be a powerful motivator or a crippling condition, and it is one often associated with gifted students. This study examines the construct of perfectionism in a sample of young gifted students, and also examines the relationship between perfectionism and life satisfaction.

Statement of the Problem/Need for the Study

The aim of this study is to measure adaptive and maladaptive perfectionist tendencies in gifted students. Both maladaptive and adaptive perfectionists set high standards for themselves, but maladaptive perfectionists are much more frustrated and dissatisfied with their inability to reach such perfect standards, when compared to adaptive perfectionists (Slaney, Mobley, Trippi, Ashby, and Johnson, 2001). Several research questions will be used to drive this study. What percent of gifted children may be identified as adaptive versus maladaptive perfectionists? Are there any gender differences in perfectionism and gifted students? Is perfectionism related to gifted children's life satisfaction?

Brief Review of Relevant Literature

Over the years, defining perfectionism has evolved from defining it as an individual trait to a multidimensional construct. Burns (1980) defined perfectionism as having high personal standards and high expectations for personal performance, exhibited as continuous striving towards impossible goals. Hamachek (1978) introduced the idea of the existence of two categories of perfectionism: a normal, productive form of perfectionism in which individuals are motivated to achieve high standards for

themselves in certain, but not all areas, and a neurotic, maladaptive, type of perfectionism. Neurotic perfectionists expect perfection from themselves in all areas of their life, and do not accept that it is an impossible goal to reach (Gilman & Ashby, 2003). Frost, Marten, Lahart, and Rosenblate (1990) also define perfectionism as the setting of extremely high standards for personal performance, accompanied by excessively critical self-evaluation, and delved further into studying perfectionism by creating their own measure. Frost et al. (1990) developed the Frost-Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale (F-MPS), with subscales for personal standards, concern over mistakes, organization, doubting of actions, parent expectations, and parental criticism. However, most of these subscales address the negative view of perfectionism. Slaney, et al. (2001) worked to develop an innovative perfectionism scale that would not only identify maladaptive (neurotic) perfectionists, but adaptive (normal) perfectionists as well, and called it the Almost Perfect Scale-Revised (APS-R). Slaney et al. (2001) used their scales of standards and discrepancy to differentiate between adaptive and maladaptive perfectionists. Both adaptive and maladaptive perfectionists would hold themselves to high standards of excellence, scoring high on the standards subscale, but maladaptive perfectionists also would score highly on the discrepancy subscale, indicating high frustration with their inability to achieve such high standards.

Perfectionism is a trait often found in gifted individuals. Silverman (1999) attributes this to multiple reasons, such as asynchronous development, with gifted children setting standards for themselves appropriate to their advanced mental age. Gifted children also have limited experience with failure, and they are used to succeeding above the norm. Particularly if unchallenged at school, these students may also take mundane

school assignments and set goals for perfect work for themselves, as this may be the only motivation they have to complete the menial assignments tasked to them (Silverman, 1999).

Sample and Methodology

The APS-R will be used to measure perfectionism in this study (Slaney et al., 2001). The APS-R consists of 23 items that compose subscales for standards, order, and discrepancy. The APS-R uses a 7-point Likert scale, with responses ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. The Brief Multidimensional Students' Life Satisfaction Scale (BMSLSS) will be also administered to gauge students' life satisfaction (Seligson, Huebner, & Valois, 2002). Supported for use with elementary school children, the BSMLSS contains six items that asks respondents to rate their satisfaction with school, family life, friendships, self, living environment, and overall life. The BMSLSS has a multiple-choice response format, with seven answer choices for each question for children to rate how satisfied they are in these areas of their lives, with choices ranging from terrible to delighted.

Both scales, along with a few brief demographic questions regarding age, ethnicity, grade level, and gender will be given to a convenience sample consisting of approximately 60 students in grades 3-5 currently participating in a gifted education program at a public elementary school in a small southeastern Virginia city. A consent form will be sent home with the students for parents. Students who return signed consent forms will be given a copy of the survey packet to complete, and all responses will remain confidential. To encourage participation, students that return consent forms and complete the surveys will receive a small prize.

Contribution to Gifted Education

This study has the potential to provide evidence for the need of gifted children to access counseling services for social and emotional needs, including perfectionism. If a relationship is found between perfectionism in gifted students and their life satisfaction in certain areas, these areas can be targets for counseling services.

Application to Existing Concepts and Practices in Gifted Education

Perfectionism has previously had a negative connotation in gifted education, sometimes touted as a condition that can be cured (Callard-Szulgit, 2003). When gifted students develop characteristics of perfectionism, they are likely not being challenged at school. Instead of working on more advanced curricula or academic goals tasked to them by a teacher or mentor, gifted perfectionists set their own goals of perfecting every assignment (Silverman, 1999). Teaching gifted students to differentiate between striving for excellence and striving for perfection is important to a healthy social and emotional development. Pursuing excellence is a healthy goal that should be encouraged in gifted students, but having a goal of perfection is impossible, and leads to disappointment and a devaluing of self-worth (Burns, 1980). Mastery of material does not necessitate students earning a perfect score on every assignment; indeed, think of all of the non-gifted students each year who are promoted to the next grade at the end of each school year, who did not earn perfect scores, A's, or B's on their report cards, yet they have sufficiently learned the material. By helping increase awareness of the prevalence of perfectionism in gifted children, teachers of the gifted will be more prepared when interacting with these students. Perfectionism in gifted students can lead to gifted

underachievement, so it is important to identify signs of perfectionism early in these students, so that they can be compacted out of material that they have already learned.

Definition of Terms

For the purposes of this study, the following definitions will be used:

Perfectionism-In their development of the Almost Perfect Scale-Revised, Slaney et al. (2001) came to define perfectionism as a combination of having high standards, a sense of orderliness, and how an individual felt about the discrepancy between their expected and actual achievements.

Giftedness-For the purposes of this study, conducted at a public Virginia university, the Virginia Board of Education's definition of giftedness will be used. In section 8VAC20-40-20 of the Regulations Governing Educational Services for Gifted Students, the definition of gifted students reads as follows: "'Gifted students' means those students in public elementary, middle, and secondary schools beginning with kindergarten through twelfth grade who demonstrate high levels of accomplishment or who show the potential for higher levels of accomplishment when compared to others of the same age, experience, or environment. Their aptitudes and potential for accomplishment are so outstanding that they require special programs to meet their educational needs," (Virginia Department of Education, 2012).

Limitations and Delimitations

All survey data was collected via self-report. The fact that this study uses a convenience sample should be considered when evaluating the survey data. The participants in this sample were limited to students in grades 3-5 in one elementary school who were participating in the school's gifted education program.

Chapter 2

Review of the Literature

The construct of perfectionism has traditionally been viewed as a pathological obsession (Burns, 1980). A perfectionist is seen as someone who allows himself no satisfaction on a task unless he completes it without error, who continually strives towards high standards for himself. Much of the earlier research about perfectionism is theoretical in nature because it is a construct more easily discussed than measured, but more empirical research has been conducted over the past few decades. There has been a shift in thinking of perfectionism as a negative characteristic to a view of perfectionism as a multidimensional construct that manifests in positive as well as negative ways. Several measures have been developed over the last 30 years in attempt to better understand the abstractness of perfectionism, and this study aims to examine its relationship in context with gifted students through a multidimensional lens.

Perfectionism

Striving toward perfection can be stressful, as true perfection is impossible. Consequently, perfectionism has historically had a negative connotation. Burns (1980) defined perfectionism as being exhibited by people whose standards are impossibly high, yet who continually strain towards such standards and evaluate themselves according to their failure to reach them. The self-criticism that accompanies such strivings lends itself to much anxiety, and perfectionism has been associated with depression, low self-esteem, eating disorders, obsessive-compulsive disorder, and other mood disorders (Burns, 1980; Sassaroli et al., 2008).

Pacht (1984) stated that imperfection is part of what makes humans unique and loveable, but that perfectionists have the opposing view; they are not loveable unless they exhibit perfection. Pacht agreed with Burns' (1980) description of perfectionism as a negative trait, and defines the philosophy that perfectionists subscribe to as a 'God/scum' complex. In Pacht's description, perfectionists see achievement dichotomously; if they reach their goal perfectly, they are masters of the universe, but they feel like the scum of the earth if they achieve anything less than perfection. They feel this way even if their performance is still exemplary. These oscillating emotions of feeling powerful or powerless would seem to significantly impact self-esteem. The expectation of continually performing perfectly is concerning, especially considering all of the possible emotions that a perfectionist experiences when they ultimately do not reach their goal, yet still perform well.

Hamacheck (1978) was one of the first researchers to propose that the continual strivings towards high standards of individuals, as seen in master craftsmen and celebrated athletes, could also be viewed as positive manifestation of perfectionism. Hamachek specified that there were two types of perfectionism, normal and neurotic. Normal, or healthy perfectionists were described as having appreciation for a task well done, and focused on how to do things right with a careful attitude, whereas neurotic, or unhealthy perfectionists were preoccupied with how to avoid doing things wrong. Neurotic perfectionists would present with a more tense attitude and the feeling that they always should have done better. While normal perfectionists are able to celebrate their achievements, neurotic perfectionists never allow themselves satisfaction because their standards are set so high to the point that they are unreachable. While some researchers

continue to view perfectionism as a purely pathological trait (Greenspan, 2000), the majority of researchers in the field have embraced perfectionism as being a multidimensional construct that has the potential to lead to great productivity.

The multidimensional view of the nature of perfectionism and its display in individuals is intriguing. As perfectionism garnered more interest in the research community, multiple measures of perfectionism were developed. Burns' (1980) Perfectionism Scale for measuring perfectionism consists of self-report items that focus on how a person taking the measure might feel over failure to meet high standards, but his instrument focused more on the negative connotation of perfectionism.

Frost, Marten, Lahart, and Rosenblate (1990) developed a self-report measure of perfectionism that they believe more reflected the complexity of the nature of perfectionism, including the theory that perfectionism is partially due to parenting practices. The Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale (MPS; Frost et al., 1990) consists of six subscales, which measure an individual's concern over mistakes, personal standards, parental expectations, parental criticisms, doubts about actions, and organization. While the MPS was developed to reflect the multidimensionality of the perfectionism construct, the measure measures more negative than positive characteristics. While the MPS contains four subscales to measure neurotic perfectionism, their measurement of behaviors characteristic of the normal type of perfectionism are limited to only the subscales of personal standards and organization.

A second Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale (MPS) was developed by Hewitt and Flett (1991), and took a different approach to defining the multidimensionality of the construct. Rather than examining the positive and negative expressions of perfectionism

within a person, Hewitt and Flett developed a scale to assess three ways in which people might direct their perfectionism, in a self-oriented, other-oriented, or socially prescribed manner. Perfectionists assessed using the MPS (Hewitt & Flett, 1991) discover their display of perfectionism towards their own behaviors, the standards they held for other people, as well as how they perceived society to be evaluating them. This situational application of perfectionism differed from the other existing measures at the time.

Slaney and Ashby (1996) conducted a qualitative study in which 37 perfectionists engaged in one-hour interviews. Thirty of the participants cited one or both of their parents as a source of their perfectionism, which supports the idea that parents are thought to be an influence of perfectionism (Burns, 1980; Hamachek 1978; Pacht, 1984; Frost et al., 1990). Interestingly, almost all of the participants considered their perfectionism to be a source of distress in their lives, but 33 participants rated their perfectionism as a predominantly or completely positive trait. During informal follow-up questioning, none of the participants asked said that they would choose to give up their perfectionism. This indicates that despite being stressful, perfectionism can bring personal rewards.

Previous measures of perfectionism focused on the importance of personal standards, as well as the concern perfectionists felt over their mistakes (Burns, 1980; Frost et al., 1990). Considering the results of the study by Slaney and Ashby (1996) as well as existing measures of perfectionism, Slaney et al. (2001) developed the Almost Perfect Scale-Revised (APS-R) to identify both a positive, or adaptive form of perfectionism, as well as the negative, or maladaptive form that previous instruments prioritized. These two forms of perfectionism are reminiscent of Hamachek's thoughts on

normal versus neurotic perfectionism (1978). Slaney et al. examined and analyzed previous measures of perfectionism to develop and then revise the APS-R, which includes subscales of Standards, Discrepancy, and Order. Individuals completing the APS-R can be classified as an adaptive perfectionist, a maladaptive perfectionist, or non-perfectionist upon examination of their subscale scores. Having a measure of positive, adaptive perfectionism provides a healthier context in which to consider the multidimensionality of perfectionism. Holding high standards can be motivating and productive. How perfectionists cope with the discrepancy between their expected and actual performance, when considering such high standards, is how adaptive perfectionists are differentiated from the maladaptive.

The idea that perfectionism can manifest in both positive and negative ways is important to consider from an educational and counseling perspective. It is essential that before beginning counseling services with perfectionists to first examine how they consider their own perfectionism, and then prepare for counseling sessions accordingly (Slaney & Ashby, 1996). People may consider their perfectionism as part of their personality, and counseling that frames perfectionism as undesirable could be detrimental to developing students (Silverman, 1993). Teachers should similarly examine their students' behavior to observe if any perfectionist children are striving to reach healthy goals, or experience strong disappointment when reaching just shy of perfection, to provide appropriate guidance and support their emotional development. Gifted students' behavior should be monitored as well, as perfectionist tendencies in this population of students can be indicative of lack of a challenging curriculum.

Gifted Students and Perfectionism

Perfectionism is a trait often associated with gifted students, but not widely understood or valued (Silverman, 1993). While some researchers postulate that perfectionism manifests as a result of parenting practices (Burns, 1980; Frost et al., 1990; Hamachek 1978; Pacht, 1984), Silverman (1993) views perfectionism as an inherent characteristic that is a result of gifted children's asynchronous development. Gifted children have a higher capacity for abstract reasoning, and are often friends with older children as they are more apt to be their intellectual peers. As a result, gifted students are more likely to set standards for themselves according to their mental rather than physical age (Silverman, 1999). The ability to reason abstractly also contributes to gifted children's capacity for foresight, as even from a young age gifted children are able to observe and consider the factors of a situation to improve their chances for success, and avoid failure (Silverman, 2007). These characteristics of gifted individuals can contribute to the presence of perfectionism.

Empirical research examining perfectionism in gifted students has been primarily correlational in nature, and somewhat contradictory. A detailed record of the research included in this review of the literature can be seen in Appendix A, whereas a more concise version of empirical studies can be seen in Appendix B. Parker and Mills (1996) conducted a comparison study of a national sample of sixth grade students to examine the prevalence of perfectionism in gifted students compared with general education students. Six hundred academically talented students participating in a longitudinal study on talented youth by Johns Hopkins University were compared to 418 non-identified students from some of the same schools, and both samples were of similar socioeconomic

status. Males were found to exhibit greater concern over mistakes compared to females, regardless of the cohort. The majority of the gifted cohort were found to be either healthy or dysfunctional perfectionists, as seen in Appendix B. A later study by Parker (2000) surveyed a group of 820 academically talented gifted sixth grade students studying at the Institute for the Academic Advancement of Youth at Johns Hopkins University using the MPS by Frost et al. Four hundred of the completed surveys were randomly selected and analyzed through cluster analysis, with the majority of the sample scoring in the perfectionism range. These results, seen in Appendix B, are similar to those observed by Parker and Mills (1996) in a similar sample of gifted students. One limitation common to both studies, however, was that both samples were predominately composed of students in the middle to upper socioeconomic status range. Both Parker and Mills (1996) and Parker (2000) found healthy perfectionists to be almost twice as prevalent as dysfunctional perfectionists in their samples.

LoCicero and Ashby (2000a) found significant differences between gifted and general cohorts of students in their perfectionism study. A cohort of 83 identified gifted middle school students was compared to a cohort of 112 general education students in a rural Southeastern middle school. Gifted students were found to have scored significantly higher on the standards subscale compared to their general education peers, but also to have significantly lower scores on the discrepancy subscale. Similarly to findings in other studies (Parker & Mills, 1996; Parker (2000), the gifted students in this study were not only more likely to be perfectionists, but also adaptive ones. One possible explanation by LoCicero and Ashby for the outcomes of the study is the creativity observed in many gifted individuals. Creativity can be exhibited through the ability to evaluate products or

ideas, flexibility in thinking, originality, and sensitivity to finding and solving problems (Davis, Rimm, & Siegle, 2011). LoCicero and Ashby (2000a) propose that the gifted students in this study may have been more creative compared to the general cohort, and therefore may have been more flexible in accepting imperfections in their work. If those gifted students were highly creative individuals as well, they may have viewed their discrepancy in performance as merely a step in the creative process.

Other studies have also focused on observing the incidence of perfectionism in gifted individuals at the middle school level and beyond, often in conjunction with other variables. Siegle and Schuler (2000) performed a survey study of 391 gifted students in grades 6-8 from 3 different gifted programs from schools in the New England, Middle Atlantic, and Southern regions of the United States. Participants represented multiple socioeconomic strata, and were from urban and suburban environments. Siegle and Schuler examined perfectionism, birth order, and gender differences using an adaptation of Frost et al.'s (1990) MPS, called the Goals and Work Habits Survey. There were interesting results in terms of gender differences. Female students showed more concern over mistakes as age increased, while males reported high expectations from parents. Female students showed more concern over organization compared to males. The gender differences observed in this study of middle school gifted students prompt consideration of the developmental differences between male and female perfectionists.

Another study investigating the prevalence of different types of perfectionism conducted by Schuler (2000) sampled gifted middle school students from a rural Mid-Atlantic middle school. The majority of the students who completed the Goals and Work Habits Survey were found to be perfectionists, as seen in Appendix B. Twenty of the

perfectionists were selected for follow-up study. Through interviews, neurotic perfectionists (N=8) described their hypersensitivity to the reactions of others, and were preoccupied with not making mistakes, which they considered humiliations. In contrast, normal perfectionists (N=12) were motivated by their mistakes to work harder, and engaged in friendly competition with their peer group. Interestingly, 19 of the 20 perfectionists interviewed shared that although having perfectionism was at times a disadvantage, overall they believed it to be a healthy and helpful component in their lives. This supports the findings of the qualitative study done by Slaney and Ashby (1996). The idea that perfectionism brings personal rewards is far removed from the ideas of Burns (1980), and an exciting idea to explore in future research.

Perhaps personal benefits to perfectionism include emotional rewards, as it has been observed in conjunction with emotional intelligence. Chan (2009) measured perfectionism and emotional intelligence in a sample of 280 Chinese gifted students participating in a summer enrichment course at the Chinese University of Hong Kong. Students completed the MPS (Frost et al., 1990) as well as an emotional intelligence scale. As observed in previous studies, there were more healthy perfectionists than in either the unhealthy perfectionists or non-perfectionists categories. The students identified as being healthy perfectionists significantly outscored the unhealthy perfectionists in terms of emotional intelligence, and the unhealthy perfectionists outscored the non-perfectionists as well. The healthy perfectionists scored especially high on subscales for self-management of emotions and social skills. The benefits gained through advanced emotional intelligence may be part of the reason that participants in other studies value their perfectionism despite its challenges (Slaney & Ashby, 1996;

Schuler, 2000). However, this study relied entirely on self-report to gather data on participants' emotional intelligence. Future studies on the topic should include multiple sources to assess emotional intelligence, in order to better assess the complexity of this concept and how it relates to perfectionism.

While many of these studies examine the multidimensional nature of perfectionism, they sample students in grade 6 and beyond. Few studies exist that examine the incidence of perfectionism in gifted elementary school students, and this is an area of needed research (Spiers Neumeister, 2007). Greater understanding of the multidimensionality of perfectionism and its relationship to other psychological and behavioral characteristics is needed in order to be aware of challenges facing perfectionist youth. Additional research in perfectionism, especially with populations of gifted students, would benefit educators, parents, and students. Becoming more knowledgeable about perfectionism could help educators to combat unwarranted social stigma towards a trait that is capable of manifesting itself in the positive pursuit of high standards. In the study by Schuler (2000), although the 33 participants identified as neurotic perfectionists reported anxiety, none of their teachers contacted through follow-up study considered them to be distressed. Equally concerning was the perfectionists' perceptions of counseling services; they viewed counselors as people who worked primarily with students who had problems. Emphasis on the benefits of counseling should be incorporated into staff professional development as well as student classes in order to de-stigmatize the need for counseling. Researchers have emphasized the need for educators and counselors to familiarize themselves with the different manifestations of perfectionism, and how it presents itself in each perfectionist (Schuler, 2000; Silverman,

1999; Slaney & Ashby, 1996). As depicted in Appendix B, multiple researchers have probed the incidence of perfectionism in gifted students, and observed that adaptive or healthy perfectionism is slightly more prevalent than non-perfectionism or maladaptive or dysfunctional perfectionism. A few researchers (Slaney & Ashby, 1996; Schuler, 2000) who have observed that in their samples, perfectionists would not choose to give up their perfectionism, perhaps indicating a level of life satisfaction that correlates with perfectionism that counselors and researchers should investigate when working with gifted perfectionists. Greater awareness of the different types of perfectionism and their characteristics is needed for counselors to best meet tailor their services to the individual needs of these students.

Life Satisfaction and Perfectionism

There is a paucity of research examining perfectionism and life satisfaction in gifted students. Even perfectionism and life satisfaction have only been studied in conjunction to an extent. Life satisfaction is considered a key component to subjective well-being and overall happiness (Diener, 2000). This could have important implications for the classroom performance of gifted students. Brown et al. (1999) conducted a survey study with 90 undergraduate women at a private women's college in the Northeast. Participants completed the MPS (Frost et al., 1990) as well as other measures of affect and depressive behaviors over 6 intervals during the semester in the psychology course. Subjects who scored high on the personal standards subscale were associated with better grades, studied more often, and placed a higher emphasis on the importance of the course. Subjects who scored high on the concern over mistakes subscale also correlated with studying more, but these participants reported more anxiety and a more negative

mood before exams, and were not associated with better grades. These results suggest a potential affective relationship between life satisfaction and type of perfectionism. Perhaps the students who reported more anxiety and high concern over mistakes would have had less life satisfaction, but Brown et al. examined the participants' perfectionism only in terms of a psychology course. Additionally, this study was limited to a sample of women only. Regardless, the observation of anxiety and mood to greater concern over mistakes could be related to less life satisfaction in maladaptive or dysfunctional perfectionists.

Perfectionism has also been studied in conjunction with self-efficacy to support the idea that it can bring positive personal rewards. LoCicero and Ashby (2000b) conducted a correlational study of undergraduate students, and had participants complete the APS-R and a self-efficacy scale measuring general and social self-efficacy. As shown in Appendix B, Adaptive perfectionists showed higher general and social self-efficacy compared to both maladaptive and non-perfectionists. Adaptive perfectionists demonstrated greater task commitment in the face of adversity, and believed strongly in their ability to interact with others well socially. This evidence of high self-esteem in adaptive perfectionists supports adaptive perfectionism as a positive behavioral trait. Ashby and Rice (2002) surveyed college students and observed a significant relationship between maladaptive perfectionism and low self-esteem, whereas adaptive perfectionism was associated positively with self-esteem. These results provide further evidence of a potential relationship between adaptive perfectionism and positive life behaviors, as well as maladaptive perfectionism with less positive ones. If adaptive perfectionism is found

to be associated with positive self-esteem, it may likewise be associated with increased life satisfaction.

A few studies have specifically studied the relationship between life satisfaction and perfectionism. A study by Gilman, Ashby, Sverko, Florell, and Varjas (2005) compared samples of American and Croatian students on perfectionism and multidimensional student life satisfaction. When comparing the life satisfaction of adaptive perfectionists to the maladaptive or non-perfectionists, Croatian and American adaptive perfectionists self-reported higher satisfaction in more areas of life than maladaptive or non-perfectionists, as described in Appendix B. Additionally, maladaptive perfectionists reported higher life satisfaction with their family, school, and living environment than non-perfectionists. These findings that adaptive perfectionists reported higher life satisfaction than maladaptive perfectionists, who in turn reported higher life satisfaction than non-perfectionists, supports the idea that perfectionism can bring some personal rewards, but more so for adaptive perfectionists.

A study by Chang, Watkins, and Banks (2004) examined how perfectionism related to positive and negative psychological functioning in samples of Black and White female college students. Participants were given the MPS (Frost et al., 1990) along with multiple other measures for perceived stress, life satisfaction, suicide ideation, and affect. Results for both groups of participants indicated that maladaptive perfectionism was associated with stress, but adaptive perfectionism was not. Interestingly, adaptive perfectionism predicted greater life satisfaction in White females, but this was not true for the sample of Black female students. While this study was limited to a female sample, its effort to survey perfectionism in non-European or White individuals is valuable. More

perfectionism studies should make the effort to observe its incidence in other ethnic populations. The observation by Chang et al. that adaptive perfectionism was associated with higher life satisfaction in White females is just one ethnic difference recorded, and there may be many more still undiscovered.

The multidimensionality of perfectionism can also be exhibited through the different life domains that perfectionists select to perfect. A study from the United Kingdom by Stoeber and Stoeber (2009) sampled university students and Internet users for perfectionism (MPS; Hewitt & Flett, 1991) and satisfaction with life, incorporating a checklist into their measures of 22 separate domains in which participants self-reported in which aspects of their life they were perfectionists. Work, studies, and personal hygiene were areas that both samples ranked within their top four choices on the domain measure. In this study, socially prescribed perfectionism reportedly felt by participants was negatively related to life satisfaction. If competition at work or school is driving their perfectionism, perhaps they feel unsatisfied in either those or other areas of life. When examining the results of this study in relation to elementary school students, work and studies can be likened to satisfaction with school, whereas personal hygiene would likely fall under a self-satisfaction category. If work ethic, academics, and personal appearance are areas that adults commonly apply their perfectionism toward, grade school students may be of similar opinion, and may contribute towards their satisfaction with themselves and their school performance. Elementary school students exhibiting maladaptive or dysfunctional perfectionism at such a young age could certainly benefit from counseling services so early on, in order to provide them a perspective in which to view or apply their perfectionism more productively and help them to celebrate their accomplishments.

Research that most closely aligns with the goals of the present study is that of Ongen (2009). Ongen studied a sample of Turkish high school students from a predominantly middle to upper class background. Although Ongen's study does not deal specifically with gifted students, the school in Antalya, Turkey that the sample derives from does include a competitive entrance exam as part of its admission requirement, so it can be assumed that the students in this sample are of high ability. Students self-reported on a perfectionism and a multidimensional student life satisfaction measure. Results of the study indicated that holding high standards and having a sense of order were associated with higher life satisfaction, and having a greater reaction to the discrepancy between expected and actual achievement was associated with lower life satisfaction. As seen in Appendix B, adaptive perfectionists reported more life satisfaction in multiple areas when compared to maladaptive or non-perfectionists. Ongen also examined the data from the Croatian and American samples in Gilman et al.'s (2005) study, and found that holding high standards predicted school satisfaction in the Turkish, Croatian, and American subgroups. These results provide support for a hypothesis that adaptive perfectionists are associated with greater life satisfaction, when compared to maladaptive or non-perfectionists.

Recent research (Gilman et al., 2005; Ongen, 2009) indicates that not only does perfectionism appear to be a construct that exists across the globe, it has been found to have significant connections with life satisfaction in multiple dimensions of life. However, very little research exists connecting both constructs. Additionally, while there are many studies examining perfectionism in secondary schools, very little research exists examining perfectionism in elementary school students. No studies are found to examine

perfectionism and life satisfaction in gifted elementary school students. Perfectionism has been well documented to exist in middle school gifted students, but there is little evidence to determine if it exists in younger children. Certainly students at this age would benefit from counseling services for maladaptive perfectionism to help them learn to celebrate their high, if not highest, achievements. Nugent (2000) suggests that classroom teachers use strategies such as art and discussion activities to address the affective needs of students. Studies by Gilman et al. (2005) and Stoeber and Stoeber (2009) did not observe gender differences in perfectionism or life satisfaction, but these samples were composed of high school and college students, and adults. Perhaps gender differences would be present in a younger sample, and if maladaptive perfectionists were identified younger and could be counseled for their perfectionism, it may positively impact their life satisfaction and prevent underachievement in gifted students. Currently the lack of research with elementary age students marks them as an important population of study. In order to better understand gifted children, how they perceive their achievements and the standards they hold for themselves, and ultimately how satisfied they are with different domains of their life, this study poses the following research questions. What percent of gifted children may be identified as adaptive or maladaptive perfectionists? Are there any gender differences in perfectionism and gifted students? Is perfectionism related to gifted children's life satisfaction?

Chapter 3

Method

Participants

This study uses a convenience sample of 47 students participating in a gifted education program at a public elementary school located in a small southeastern Virginia city. The school's gifted program includes students in grades K-5. For the purposes of this study, in order to be age-appropriate with regard to reading abilities, students in the third through the fifth grade will comprise the sample.

Since this study draws its sample from students participating in a public school gifted program, this sample is not representative of the national population of gifted students of this age level, but does reflect the local population of gifted students to a degree.

Procedures

Permission to complete this study with the gifted program students was obtained from the principal of the participating elementary school and the director of gifted services for the school division. Approval for human subject research is shown in Appendix C. A researcher distributed consent forms to the school's gifted resource teacher. The consent form, as seen in Appendix D, described the study and was sent home with students. Parents or guardians who wished their child to participate in the study signed and returned the consent form to their child's gifted resource teacher. Students who returned signed parental consent forms and assent forms were given a copy of the survey packet by a researcher, to complete at the beginning of a gifted resource class period. Directions to student participants reviewed how to answer a Likert scale

question, and are included in Appendix E. Survey completion took approximately 10-15 minutes. To encourage participation, students who participated received a small prize for returning consent forms and completing the surveys.

Students completed the surveys anonymously to protect their identities. Completed surveys are kept in a locked file cabinet for the duration of the study, and to remain there for five additional years. No student or teacher names are reported in this study. Results of the study are available to the school's principal, gifted resource teacher, the director of the county's gifted education program, and to parents and guardians upon request.

Measures

Students were given three questionnaires to complete for the purposes of this study. The instruments include the Almost Perfect Scale-Revised (APS-R: Slaney et al., 2001), the Brief Multidimensional Student Life Satisfaction Scale (BMSLSS: Seligson, Huebner, & Valois, 2002), as well as a brief demographic questionnaire collecting information on student age, grade level, ethnicity, and gender. The demographic questionnaire can be viewed in Appendix F.

APS-R. The APS-R is a self-report measure consisting of 23 items designed to measure maladaptive and adaptive components of perfectionism. A copy of the APS-R is included in Appendix G. Participants use a 7-point Likert scale to respond to the items (varying from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 7 = "strongly agree"). The APS-R consists of three subscales: Standards, Discrepancy, and Order. Slaney, et al. (2001) reported Cronbach's coefficient alphas for the three previously mentioned subscales as .85, .91, and .82, respectively, displaying the merit and reliability of the instrument.

The Standards subscale is made up of seven items which assess the degree to which students set high standards for themselves, as an indicator of perfectionism. Rice and Ashby (2007) used cluster analyses to determine cutoff scores for the APS-R, and determined that a score of 42 or higher on the Standards subscale would indicate perfectionism, and that participants who scored less than 42 would be considered non-perfectionists.

The Discrepancy subscale is composed of twelve items, which probe the extent to which participants feel frustrated or dissatisfied with their performance or their inability to meet their own high standards. Rice and Ashby (2007) recommend that of the participants who score a 42 or above on the Standards subscale into the perfectionism range, those with an accompanying score of 42 or higher on the Discrepancy subscale should be categorized as maladaptive perfectionists, and those perfectionist participants with a score of less than 42 on the Discrepancy subscale would be considered adaptive perfectionists.

Although the APS-R does include a third subscale, Order, composed of four items, the subscale has not been found to be relevant in classifying maladaptive or adaptive perfectionists, or non-perfectionists (Rice & Ashby, 2007), and will be given to this study's participants but not analyzed further as it is not pertinent to the purposes of this study.

The readability of the APS-R has been determined to be at the fourth grade reading level (Gilman, Ashby, Sverko, Florell, & Varjas, 2005), but since it is being used with a population of gifted students, the instrument was considered appropriate to be used with students as young as the third grade, especially since the study was conducted at the

end of the third quarter of the academic school year. However, two revisions were made to the APS-R for use with this population of gifted children. The first was in Question #1: "I have high standards for my performance at work or at school," (Standards subscale) with the phrase "at work or" removed since the instrument was given to a sample of elementary school children, who are not employed. The other revision was in Question #19: "I am seldom able to meet my own high standards of performance," (Discrepancy subscale) with the word "seldom" replaced with the word "rarely," as it may be an unfamiliar word for students. The word "rarely" is used in another Discrepancy subscale question (#9) and was considered an appropriate synonym.

BMSLSS. The BMSLSS is a six item, self-report instrument designed to measure students' life satisfaction in different dimensions of life. A copy of the BMSLSS is included in Appendix H. The BMSLSS includes one item each for students to describe satisfaction with their family life, their friendships, their school experience, themselves, and their living environment, and a final item asking students to report their overall life satisfaction. Each multiple-choice item includes an identical set of seven response choices, which include: terrible, unhappy, mostly dissatisfied, mixed (about equally satisfied and dissatisfied), mostly satisfied, pleased, and delighted. Coefficient alphas calculated by Seligson et al. (2002), for each of the respective items ranged from .63-.75, displaying sufficient reliability for the instrument. The BMSLSS has been previously used with students as young as the third grade (Seligson, Huebner, & Valois, 2005).

Chapter 4

Results

The data were compiled and analyzed using Microsoft Excel 2007. In the event that a survey item was left blank or answered twice, that item was not coded with a response and therefore could not contribute towards subscale totals. All students in grades 3-5 participating in a southeastern public elementary school's gifted program were invited to participate in this study. A total of 60 students were invited to participate in the study, and 47 students returned signed parental consent forms, signed assent forms, and completed the surveys. This resulted in a response rate of 78.3%.

The final sample included 55.3% female (N=26) and 44.7% male (N=21) students. Student ages ranged from 8 to 11, with an average age of 9.64 (SD=0.97). When asked to report their ethnicity, 36 students reported as White, 3 reported as Black, 1 reported as Asian, 3 reported as being of Mixed ethnicity, and 4 students reported as Other.

What percent of gifted children may be identified as adaptive or maladaptive perfectionists?

Scores were calculated for the Standards and Discrepancy subscales in the APS-R. Subscale scores of 42 or higher on the Standards subscale were read as an indication of perfectionism. Of these, scores with an accompanying score of 42 or higher on the Discrepancy subscale were considered indicating maladaptive perfectionism, with perfectionism scores with an accompanying score of less than 42 on the Discrepancy subscale were considered indicating adaptive perfectionism. Surveys with subscale scores for Standards less than 42 were considered those of non-perfectionists. Frequencies and

percentages for each type of perfectionism are displayed in Table 1. Slightly more than half of the sample scored as non-perfectionists, with the remaining perfectionists split almost evenly between adaptive and maladaptive perfectionists.

Table 1

Perfectionism Type Totals and Percentages

Groups	*n*	%
Non-perfectionists	26	55.3
Adaptive Perfectionists	11	23.4
Maladaptive Perfectionists	10	21.3
Total	47	100

Are there any gender differences in perfectionism and gifted students?

Each category of perfectionism was analyzed for gender differences. Table 2 displays the frequency and percentages of males and females for each category of perfectionism. Of all of the male participants, only one-third were perfectionists. More than half of the female participants were perfectionists. Additionally, there were about twice as many females than males in both the adaptive and maladaptive categories.

Table 2

Perfectionism Type by Gender

		Non-perfectionists	Adaptive Perfectionists	Maladaptive Perfectionists	Total
Gender					
Males					
	n	14	4	3	21
	%	66.7	19.0	14.3	100
Females					
	n	12	7	7	26
	%	46.2	26.9	26.9	100

Although not initially a research question for this study, areas of life satisfaction were examined for gender differences. As shown in Table 3, female participants had higher average satisfaction scores in the areas of satisfaction with family, friends, school, living environment, and overall satisfaction. Male participants reported a higher average satisfaction with self.

Table 3

Means and Standard Deviations for Satisfaction Scores on the BMSLSS by Gender

		Family Satisfaction	Friend Satisfaction	School Satisfaction	Self Satisfaction	Living Environment Satisfaction	Overall Satisfaction
Gender							
Males							
	Mean	5.57	5.81	5.10	5.62[a]	6.05	5.48
	(SD)	(1.63)	(1.25)	(1.55)	(1.66)	(1.02)	(1.44)
	n	21	21	21	21	21	21
Females							
	Mean	6.19[a]	5.92[a]	5.19[a]	5.50	6.27[a]	5.92[a]
	(SD)	(1.06)	(1.02)	(1.44)	(1.36)	(1.31)	(1.16)
	n	26	26	26	26	26	26

Note. [a] denotes the highest mean score for each life satisfaction category.

Is perfectionism related to gifted children's life satisfaction?

Adaptive perfectionists reported the highest mean satisfaction levels compared to maladaptive or non-perfectionists for all six of the life satisfaction areas surveyed, as shown in Table 4. Non-perfectionists reported the lowest mean satisfaction levels in the areas of family, friend, living environment, and overall life satisfaction. Maladaptive perfectionists reported the lowest mean satisfaction levels in the categories of school and self-satisfaction.

Life satisfaction by perfectionism category by gender was also examined. As displayed in Table 5, female adaptive perfectionists had the highest mean scores for family satisfaction, satisfaction with their living environment, and overall life satisfaction. Male adaptive perfectionists had the highest mean scores for satisfaction with friends, school satisfaction, and self-satisfaction. As seen in Table 5, when comparing genders of each perfectionism type to the six different categories of life satisfaction, school satisfaction had the lowest mean score out of all six satisfaction categories for male and female non-perfectionists, male and female maladaptive perfectionists, and female adaptive perfectionists. Male adaptive perfectionists rated family satisfaction with their lowest mean satisfaction score. This suggests a possible link between male adaptive perfectionists and some unknown familial variable which does not affect females, non-perfectionists, or maladaptive perfectionists as much, which could be a topic for future research.

Table 4

Means and Standard Deviations for Satisfaction Scores on the BMSLSS by Perfectionism Type

		Family Satisfaction	Friend Satisfaction	School Satisfaction	Self Satisfaction	Living Environment Satisfaction	Overall Satisfaction
Non-perfectionists							
	M	5.77[b]	5.69[b]	5.00	5.46	5.88[b]	5.50[b]
	(SD)	(1.48)	(1.23)	(1.47)	(1.63)	(1.37)	(1.48)
	n	26	26	26	26	26	26
Adaptive Perfectionists							
	M	6.18[a]	6.45[a]	5.73[a]	6.00[a]	6.55[a]	6.36[a]
	(SD)	(1.25)	(0.82)	(1.01)	(1.00)	(0.69)	(1.03)
	n	11	11	11	11	11	11
Maladaptive Perfectionists							
	M	6.00	5.70	4.90[b]	5.30[b]	6.50	5.60
	(SD)	(1.25)	(0.95)	(1.85)	(1.57)	(0.97)	(0.84)
	n	10	10	10	10	10	10

Note. [a] denotes the highest mean score for each life satisfaction category. [b] denotes the lowest mean score for each life satisfaction category.

Table 5

Mean Satisfaction Scores by Perfectionism Type and Gender

		Family Satisfaction	Friend Satisfaction	School Satisfaction	Self Satisfaction	Living Environment Satisfaction	Overall Satisfaction
Non-perfectionists							
	Males	5.50[b]	5.43[b]	5.07	5.36	5.71	5.29[b]
	Females	6.08	6.00	4.92	5.58	6.08[b]	5.75
Adaptive Perfectionists							
	Males	5.50[b]	7.00[a]	6.00[a]	6.75[a]	6.50	6.00
	Females	6.57[a]	6.14	5.57	5.57	6.57[a]	6.57[a]
Maladaptive Perfectionists							
	Males	6.00	6.00	4.00[b]	5.33	7.00	5.67
	Females	6.00	5.57	5.29	5.29[b]	6.29	5.57

Note. [a] denotes the highest mean score for each life satisfaction category. [b] denotes the lowest mean score for each life satisfaction category.

Chapter 5

Discussion

Summary of Findings

What percent of gifted children may be identified as adaptive or maladaptive perfectionists?

Results of this study included a sample of students that was composed of slightly more non-perfectionists than perfectionists. These are lower percentages of perfectionism than those found previously in other samples of gifted students. Schuler (2000) observed 87.5% of a sample of gifted students to be perfectionists, and Parker (2000) found perfectionism present in 67% of gifted students. The result of only 44.7% of participants as perfectionists in the current study is perhaps due to its considerably smaller sample size when compared to other studies described in Appendix B.

About half of the perfectionists in this study were adaptive perfectionists and about half were maladaptive perfectionists. This result differs from previous studies of perfectionism in gifted students. Other researchers have found positive forms of perfectionism to be almost twice as prevalent as negative forms of perfectionism in populations of gifted students (Chan, 2009; Parker, 2000; Parker & Mills, 1996; Schuler, 2000). This is again potentially affected by this study's relatively small sample size.

Are there any gender differences in perfectionism and gifted students?

A higher percentage of male participants scored as non-perfectionists, than compared to female participants who scored as non-perfectionists. There were three more female adaptive perfectionists than male adaptive perfectionists, and four more female maladaptive perfectionists than male maladaptive perfectionists. Although Gilman et al.

(2005) and Stoeber and Stoeber (2009) did not find perfectionism to be associated with gender, the results of this study did find twice as many female perfectionists compared to male perfectionists, as seen in Table 2. However, both Gilman et al. and Stoeber and Stoeber sampled populations of middle school gifted students. There is potential for female perfectionists to outnumber male perfectionists at the elementary school level, and future research should examine this possibility.

Is perfectionism related to gifted children's life satisfaction?

Adaptive perfectionists reported the highest mean life satisfaction scores in all six categories, as seen in Tables 4 and 5. Maladaptive perfectionists reported the lowest mean life satisfaction scores for school and self-satisfaction. Non-perfectionists reported the lowest mean life satisfaction scores for family, friend, living environment, and overall life satisfaction. It is concerning that maladaptive perfectionists had the lowest mean scores in the areas of school and life satisfaction, as most students are in school eight hours a day for nine months out of the year. The ramifications of maladaptive perfectionists spending such a great amount of their young lives less satisfied with school than their peers could be monumental. Maladaptive perfectionists report experiencing more angst in being unable to reach their high standards. They may have achieved very good results, but are unable to appreciate this progress. Male maladaptive perfectionists reported the lowest mean life satisfaction score of all at 4.00, on the survey a response of "Mixed-about equally satisfied and dissatisfied." Students participating in the elementary gifted program only receive instruction in a gifted resource room for part of the day. Lack of satisfaction with school or self could be contributing factors to maladaptive perfectionism. Interestingly, females in this study were more likely to be perfectionists

and also reported higher satisfaction in five out of six areas when compared to males. The possibility of gender differences in gifted students is valuable information for teachers when considering how to best meet students' affective needs. Ultimately, the goal is not to give students an additional label, but to use the information gained about students to help better meet their individual needs. Teachers might find that adaptive perfectionists benefit from and enjoy dynamic academic competition with their peers, whereas maladaptive perfectionists might benefit significantly from non-graded activities or creative thinking exercises that are less empirically measured.

Implications for Gifted Education

If this lower satisfaction with school and self persists over time in maladaptive perfectionists, these gifted students may be at risk for underachievement. If in the future, perfectionists decide they are done with trying to be perfect and decide not to try at all, this would be a great waste of their abilities. Additionally, perfectionism has been considered as possible contributing factor to major psychological issues such as obsessive-compulsive disorder, eating disorders, and major depression (Sassaroli et al., 2008). Additional perfectionism research in conjunction with other life variables relating to emotional state is essential to gain increased understanding of these issues.

All students could benefit from increased counseling services in elementary schools. In many instances, guidance counselors have a multitude of responsibilities, but the education of students in psychological and emotional issues can greatly impact students' personal development. Students need to be provided with the information available so that they understand some of the confusing aspects of growing up. Gifted students especially are up to this challenge by often thinking about and questioning the

world around them. In the event that counseling services are not readily available, there are many classroom-based interventions that teachers can use to address perfectionism with their students. Nugent (2000) encourages teachers to share their own challenges with dealing with perfectionism, to employ active listening to their students, to teach students about metacognition, and to use bibliotherapy, art activities, humor, and goal setting to discuss the perfectionism and its impacts. Teachers present different learning strategies when teaching academic content such as math. Students can choose the strategy they prefer to find the answer. Similarly, during writing instruction, a class of students can produce widely varying products as the result of a single writing prompt. This does not mean that many students answered the prompt incorrectly; it is a result of creativity and individuality. Teachers can show students how multiple ways of thinking can result in success, and that not every activity results in a dichotomous right or wrong result. Nugent encourages teachers to aid in restructuring students' and families' concepts about perfectionism to become more multidimensional, and to help students learn to set and achieve reasonable goals. There are multiple paths to and definitions of success, and teachers can use their position to bring their students this information. Perfectionists are prone to self-evaluation by their nature, so teachers can foster metacognition easily through the incorporation of rubrics and reflection papers with assignments. Having students create concrete representations of their highly abstract thinking processes will help the teacher better understand the students, and the students to better understand themselves. Creating a tangible record of work through a portfolio, chart, or graph helps students to document their progress. These strategies can be used to set goals as well, and

when achieved, deflects the attention away from not being perfect by celebrating valuable accomplishments.

Limitations

There are multiple limitations within this research study. The participants were chosen as a convenience sample, and therefore are not representative of the national population of elementary gifted students. The sample is also composed of predominately White participants, and does not provide insight into the prevalence of perfectionism in other non-European or non-White ethnicities, an area of research that Chang et al. (2004) began exploring in their comparison of Black and White female students on perfectionism and life satisfaction. Greater awareness of the manifestation of perfectionism in more ethnically diverse communities remains an area of research largely untapped. An additional limitation of this study was that it relied on participant self-report for data collection. In multiple surveys on the APS-R, Likert scale some of the questions were left blank or answered twice. This may have been preventable by enlarging the font of the APS-R for students and spreading the questions over multiple pages. Since those questions were not counted towards students' subscale total scores, there may have been additional adaptive or maladaptive perfectionists than were actually calculated. This could potentially increase the incidence of perfectionism in this sample to more closely resemble its presence in gifted students as observed by Gilman et al. (2005) and Stoeber and Stoeber (2009).

Recommendations for Future Research

It is recommended that future researchers of similar methodology consider conducting a longitudinal study. Students taking the life satisfaction questionnaire may

have been influenced by recent life events. Gathering life satisfaction data from students periodically throughout the year would better establish the true nature of students' life satisfaction, than a one-time sampling event. Additionally, future research with perfectionism in gifted students could triangulate data by having teachers complete behavior observation checklists, and conducting follow-up interviews with gifted students found to be perfectionists. Although labor intensive, the qualitative interview study conducted by Slaney and Ashby (1996), resulted in novel information that would have been difficult to obtain otherwise, including the surprising answers by participants who would not give up their perfectionism if given a choice. It would be extremely interesting to conduct interviews with elementary school gifted students regarding their perfectionism to learn what they believe to be the trials and rewards of perfectionism.

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Appendix A: Table of Specifications

Research Strand	Reference	Summary
Perfectionism	Burns, D. D. (1980). The perfectionist's script for self-defeat. *Psychology Today, 14*, 34-52.	Defines perfectionism as being present in people whose standards are impossibly high, yet continually strain towards them and evaluate themselves in terms their failure to accomplish such goals. Perfectionists respond to failure with a loss of self-esteem that can bring on depression or anxiety. Law students exhibiting perfectionism were panicked and depressed due to what is known colloquially as the "big fish little pond" concept (highly competitive entrance requirements, but then having to compete with the highly qualified others who got in as well). Perfectionists react defensively to criticism due to their fear of rejection. This can alienate others who would help them. Perfectionists become preoccupied with self-criticism leading to negative self-images, leading to psychological distress. Learned from perfectionist parents?
	Sassaroli, S., Lauro, L. J. R., Ruggiero, G. M., Mauri, M. C., Vinai, P., & Frost, R. (2008). Perfectionism in depression, obsessive-compulsive disorder and eating disorders. *Behavior Research and Therapy, 46*(6), 757-765.	Participants in Italy with OCD (37), major depression (25) and eating disorders (39) were recruited and matched with 44 control participants on age, gender, education, and marital status. Participants were interviewed using the Structural Clinical Interview for DSM-IV to confirm diagnoses, and were given the Frost Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale. Concern over mistakes was much greater among all three groups compared to the control participants. Sample was 92% female, average age 32.7 years old.
	Pacht, A. R. (1984). Reflections on perfection. *American Psychologist, 39*(4), 386-390.	Personal reflections on his therapy with perfectionistic patients in the criminal justice system as well as in the private patient sector. Views perfectionism as an undesirable, dehabilitating goal, but being imperfect is part of humanity. Human imperfection is what makes us loveable, but perfectionists view themselves as unloveable unless they are perfect. Perfectionists do not count previous successes; they are not able to celebrate their successes; anything accomplished less than 100% is seen as a failure. Lays it out as the "God or scum phenomenon". Many perfectionists feel their parents would love them if they were perfect, but don't

		realize this is an impossible goal. Suggestions for therapy are included.
	Hamachek, D. E. (1978). Psychodynamics of normal and neurotic perfectionism. *Psychology, 15,* 27-33.	Differentiating between normal and neurotic perfectionism. Normal appreciate hard work on a task, and have relaxed but careful attitudes. Neurotic feel that they should have done better, and have deliberate and tense attitudes. While neurotics focus on how to avoid doing things wrong, normals are preoccupied on how to do things right.
	Greenspan, T. S. (2000). Healthy perfectionism is an oxymoron! *Journal of Secondary Gifted Education, 11*(4), 197-208.	Diatribe on why perfectionism is not healthy. People with perfectionism would benefit from feeling unconditional acceptance of themselves as people, rather than focusing on the people that they have or will disappoint.
	Frost, R. O., Marten, P., Lahart, C., & Rosenblate, R. (1990). The dimensions of perfectionism. *Cognitive Therapy and Research, 14*(5), 449-468.	Development of the Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale (Frost et al.). Overview of the perfectionism literature to 1990. Emphasis on setting high standards as well as concern over mistakes to identify perfectionism, and include parental expectations/criticism scales due to prevalence of this thought in the literature. Developed MPS with an entirely female sample of college students. Purpose of scale was to examine the multidimensional measure of the construct of perfectionism. MPS measures primarily the neurotic form of perfectionism. Perfectionists found to be associated with procrastination.
	Hewitt, P. L., & Flett, G. L. (1991). Perfectionism in the self and social contexts: Conceptualization, assessment, and association with psychopathology. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 60*(3), 456-470.	Development of the Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale (Hewitt & Flett) and description of three dimensions of perfectionism: self-oriented, other-oriented, and socially prescribed perfectionism.
	Slaney, R. B., & Ashby, J. S. (1996). Perfectionists: Study of a criterion group.	Qualitative study of 37 individuals (36 White, 21 women, 16 men, age ranged from 12-62, mean age 28.37, volunteers who were recruited to the study through advertising at a College of Education at a major eastern research university.

	Journal of Counseling & Development, 74(4), 393-398.	Participants either self-referred themselves as perfectionists or considered perfectionists by people close to them. Review of the literature on perfectionism seems to have been centered primarily on people in clinical treatment for perfectionism, and also of people having high personal standards, and measures have primarily focused on negative components. 1 hour interviews. 30/37 participants cited parents as a source of their perfectionism. 33 rated perfectionism as only/primarily positive, 24 rated it as having both positive and negative aspects, but almost all considered it a source of distress in their lives. Yet none who were asked (informally) would choose to give up their perfectionism. Women cited perfectionism as being more distressing than men. Implications for counselors include first finding out how a client with perfectionism defines it for themselves and what about it they find distressing.
	Slaney, R. B., Rice, K. G., Mobley, M., Trippi, J., & Ashby, J. S. (2001). The revised Almost Perfect Scale. *Measurement and Evaluation in Counseling and Development, 34*, 130-145.	Development of the Almost Perfect Scale-Revised to create an empirically grounded measure of perfectionism, that measures the variables that define perfectionism rather than those which it is related to. Order and high standards were decided upon as the positive components of perfectionism, with the feeling about the discrepancy between standards held and performance as a negative aspect of perfectionism. Developed with a sample of N=809 gathered from three universities across the country.
Gifted Students and Perfectionism	Silverman, L. K. (1993). Counseling the gifted and talented. Denver, CO: Love.	Perfectionists might consider their perfectionism as part of their own "make-up," and counselors who attempt to remove it could cause harmful emotional affects. Perfectionism is abstract, and associated with giftedness but not well understood or much valued. Perfectionism in gifted children can be viewed as a product of their asynchronous development. Gifted children are more often around older people and aim to achieve at those levels.
	Silverman, L. K. (1999). Perfectionism. *Gifted Education International, 13*, 216-225.	A theoretical examination of perfectionism within the context of the experience of being gifted. It is often misunderstood. Society applauds people who use their perfectionism to perform on national or international levels, but disapproves when the person focuses their perfectionism in an area less socially acceptable. Children are told to do their best, but perfectionism has negative connotations. Perfectionism is a result of asynchronous development, with gifted students setting

		standards for themselves according to their mental age. Gifted students focus on turning out perfect work when school work is too easy. Gifted children are good at predicting the results of their own actions, and are subsequently used to avoiding failure.
	Silverman, L. K. (2007). Perfectionism: The crucible of giftedness. *Gifted Education International, 23*(3), 233-245.	Views perfectionism as an energy that can be positive or negative, and can be a catalyst for either moving people forward towards creative achievement or can cause underachievement and paralysis. Therapists should discuss the positive and negative aspects of perfectionism with their clients, and prioritize which aspects of perfectionism, or areas, they would like to keep being perfectionistic about. Also discussed in the context of Dabrowski's theory of positive disintegration, that perfectionism can be viewed as a dynamism of growth, leading people towards personal development.
	Parker, W. D., & Mills, C. J. (1996). The incidence of perfectionism in gifted students. *Gifted Child Quarterly, 40*(4), 194-199.	A comparison study of a national sample of sixth grade students, comparing the prevalence of perfectionism in gifted students and a general cohort using the Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale (Frost et al.). 600 academically talented students gathered through a Johns Hopkins University longitudinal study on talented youth, compared to 418 non-identified students in a comparison group gathered nationally from some of the same schools that the gifted cohort attended, of similar SES. Gifted group (66.5% male, mean age 11.98) general cohort (56.7% male, mean age 11.97). Males scored higher than females on concern over mistakes, regardless of group. Little difference was observed between gifted and general cohorts on measures of perfectionism.
	Parker, W. D. (2000). Healthy perfectionism in the gifted. *Journal of Secondary Gifted Education, 11*(4), 173-182.	Survey study at the Institute for the Academic Advancement of Youth of Johns Hopkins University. 820 academically gifted sixth grade students were given the Frost Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale. 400 students were randomly selected and 38% of the sample were non-perfectionists, 42% were healthy perfectionists, and 25% were dysfunctional perfectionists. Cluster analysis.
	LoCicero, K. S., & Ashby, J. S. (2000a). Multidimensional perfectionism in middle	A correlational survey design between a rural southeastern sample of 83 gifted students (34 male, 49 female, 91.8% Caucasian, 8.2% African-American, mean age 13, age range 12-15) and 112 general cohort of students (42 male, 70 female, 64.6% Caucasian, 31.3% African-American, mean age 13, age range 12-17).

	school age gifted students: A comparison to peers from the general cohort. *Roeper Review, 22*(3), 182-185.	Students took the APS-R. Gifted students scored significantly higher on the standards scale (more adaptive perfectionists) but not on the discrepancy subscale. So, gifted were more likely to be perfectionists, but adaptive ones, compared to the general cohort. Possible explanation: maybe gifted students work more creatively, so they may be more flexible in accepting imperfections in their work?
	Davis, G. A., Rimm, S. B., & Siegle, D. (2011). Education of the gifted and talented. Boston, MA: Pearson.	Creative abilities include flexibility, fluency, originality, problem finding/sensitivity/defining, transformation of ideas or objects, intuition, evaluation, etc. (p.211).
	Siegle, D., & Schuler, P. A. (2000). Perfectionism differences in gifted middle school students. Roeper Review, 23(1), 39-45.	A survey study of 391 gifted students in grades 6-8 from 3 different gifted programs from 3 schools in the New England, Middle Atlantic, and Southern regions of the US. Participants represented multiple SES ranging from high to low, and were from urban and suburban settings. 223 females, 164 males (4 unidentified). Study compared perfectionism, birth order, grade level, and gender differences in gifted students. Goals and Work Habits Survey (5-point Likert scale) was used. Male students reported higher expectations from parents; female students showed more concern over organization. Females showed more concern over mistakes as age increased. First borns reported the highest levels of parental criticism and expectations.
	Schuler, P. A. (2000). Perfectionism and gifted adolescents. *Journal of Secondary Gifted Education, 11*(4), 183-196.	Quantitative and qualitative study of gifted middle school students from a rural Mid-Atlantic middle school in grades 6-8. 112 gifted students took the Goals and Work Habits Survey and an adaptation of the Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale (Frost et al.). 87.5% (98) were perfectionists. 12.5% (14) were non-perfectionists. 58% (65) were normal perfectionists and 29.5% (33) were neurotic perfectionists. Twenty students of the 98 were chosen for follow-up study and interviews (12 normal and 8 neurotic). Of the 112, 66 female and 46 male. Non-perfectionists (9 males, 5 females), normals (21 males, 44 females), neurotics (16 males, 17 females). Normal perfectionists considered perfectionism as "doing everything right" and "trying your hardest" and were very organized, and had a goal of doing their personal best. Mistakes for normals spurred them to work harder. Neurotics were preoccupied with not making mistakes, which were considered humiliations, and were hypersensitive to the reactions of others. They

		were always anxious and doubting themselves. 19 of the 20 stated that although it was sometimes a disadvantageous behavior to have, overall it was healthy and helpful to them in their lives. Teachers did not consider perfectionists to be distressed, and perfectionists viewed counselors as people who worked with students with problems.
	Chan, D. W. (2009). Dimensionality and typology of perfectionism: The use of the Frost Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale with Chinese gifted students in Hong Kong. *Gifted Child Quarterly, 53*(3), 174-187.	Use of the Frost Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale and the Emotional Intelligence Scale with a sample of 380 Chinese gifted students in Hong Kong (225 male, 155 female, age range 8-19, mean age 12.19), nominated by their schools to participate in summer enrichment courses at the Chinese University of Hong Kong. 500 nominations with 380 volunteers gave a response rate of 76%. Unhealthy (101), non-perfectionists (111), and healthy perfectionists (168). Results not reported by gender. Healthy perfectionists significantly outscored unhealthy perfectionists on emotional intelligence, especially in subscales for self-management of emotions and social skills. Unhealthy perfectionists outscored non-perfectionists on emotional intelligence.
	Speirs Neumeister, K. L. (2007). Perfectionism in gifted students: An overview of current research. *Gifted Education International, 23*(3), 254-263.	Recommends that research be conducted on perfectionism in gifted elementary school students. Perhaps the disagreement in the literature on perfectionism boils down to semantics. There is a need for research to be done on interventions for reducing maladaptive perfectionism.
Life Satisfaction and Perfectionism	Diener, E. (2000). Subjective well-being: The science of happiness and a proposal for a national index. *American Psychologist, 55*(1), 34-43.	Proposal for a national index of subjective well-being. In conjunction with positive affect, life satisfaction is a key component to subjective well-being, how people cognitively and affectively evaluate their personal lives.
	Brown, E. J., Heimberg, R. G., Frost, R. O., Makris, G.	A survey study involving 90 undergraduate women in a psychology course at a private liberal arts women's college in the Northeast. Participants completed the

	S., Juster, H. R., & Leung, A. W. (1999). Relationship of perfectionism to affect, expectations, attributions and performance in the classroom. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology, 18*(1), 98-120.	Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale (Frost et al.) and the Beck Depression Inventory and the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule, examining two subscales of the MPS: personal standards and concern over mistakes . Subjects were surveyed six times over the course of a semester, to retrieve information about subjects' mood, behaviors, self-evaluation, and attributions about their course performance. Subjects scoring high on the personal standards subscale were associated with better academic performance through GPAs, studied more often, and evaluated the course as being very important, and had higher expectations for their course performance. Subjects high in concern over mistakes was also correlated with studying more often, but had more anxiety and greater prevalence of negative moods before exams, and was not linked with better grades.
	LoCicero, K. A., & Ashby, J. S. (2000b). Multidimensional perfectionism and self-reported self-efficacy in college students. *Journal of College Student Psychotherapy, 15*(2), 47-56.	Correlational survey study of 199 undergraduate students from a mid-sized Midwestern university (69 male, 129 female, 1 unidentified, mean age 19.81, age range 18-33). Participants completed the APS-R and the Self-Efficacy Scale (subscales of general and social self-efficacy). 31 adaptive, 33 maladaptive, and 135 non-perfectionists. Adaptive perfectionists showed higher general and social self-efficacy compared to non-perfectionists of maladaptive perfectionists. Adaptive perfectionists reported a greater task commitment when facing adversity, a strong willingness to initiate and put forth effort to accomplish behaviors, and a strong belief in their own ability to interact effectively with others. Maladaptive perfectionists did not differ significantly from non-perfectionists in self-efficacy.
	Ashby, J. S., & Rice, K. G. (2002). Perfectionism, dysfunctional attitudes, and self-esteem: A structural equations analysis. *Journal of Counseling & Development, 80*(2), 197-203.	This correlational survey study examined adaptive perfectionism and its relationship to self-esteem. 282 college students from a midsized, midwestern university (mean age 21.7, 95% White, 180 female) were given the APS-R, the Dysfunctional Attitude Scale (DAS) and the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Inventory. Maladaptive perfectionism was a significant indicator of low self-esteem, and adaptive perfectionism was associated positively with self-esteem. Implication of the study is for support of perfectionism as an adaptive (positive) trait, in context of its relationship to self-esteem.
	Gilman, R., Ashby, J. S., Sverko, D., Florell, D., &	341 American students (57% female, 87% Caucasian, mean age 14.59) from a Southeastern school district and 291 Croatian students (63% female, mean age

	Varjas, K. (2005). The relationship between perfectionism and multidimensional life satisfaction among Croatian and American youth. *Personality and Individual Differences, 39*(1), 155-166.	15.14) from three cities in Croatia were given the APS-R and the MSLSS in this correlational study. Both Croatian (global, family, school, and self) and American (family, living environment, and self) adaptive perfectionists indicated higher satisfaction in more areas than maladaptive and non-perfectionists did. Maladaptive American perfectionists reported higher satisfaction with family, school, and living environment than non-perfectionists. No gender differences in satisfaction levels except for females reporting higher friendship satisfaction compared to males.
	Chang, E. C., Watkins, A. F., & Banks, K. H. (2004). How adaptive and maladaptive perfectionism relate to positive and negative psychological functioning: Testing a stress-mediation model in Black and White female college students. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 51*(1), 93-102.	A correlational, cross-sectional survey study of Black and White college females, (150 of each, matched on age and college social class) currently enrolled in a psychology course. Black participants attended a small, historically Black college and White participants were drawn from a large, primarily White university from unspecified regions. Subjects took the Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale (Frost et al.), the Perceived Stress Scale, Positive and Negative Affect Scale, Satisfaction with Life Scale, and the Adult Suicide Ideation Questionnaire. Results showed that for both groups of participants, maladaptive perfectionism was associated with stress (but adaptive perfectionism was not). White women only reported an association of adaptive perfectionism with greater life satisfaction, as well as an association of less life satisfaction with maladaptive perfectionism.
	Stoeber, J., & Stoeber, F. S. (2009). Domains of perfectionism: Prevalence and relationships with perfectionism, gender, age, and satisfaction with life. *Personality and Individual Differences, 46*(4), 530-535.	United Kingdom study done with two samples: 109 university students (14 males, 95 females, mean age 21.1) and 289 Internet users (79 males, 210 females) to see which 22 life domains they were perfectionistic in. Related to Slaney & Ashby (1996) study. Found work, studies, and personal hygiene were areas that both samples were perfectionistic in. Most perfectionists were so in only certain domains, not all. Given the MPS (Hewitt & Flett) and the Satisfaction with Life Scale (Diener et al.). Socially prescribed perfectionism (pressure from society) in both samples had a negative correlation with life satisfaction. Perfectionism was not related to age or gender.
	Ongen, D. E. (2009). The relationship between	Study of 445 high school students from a high school in Antalya, Turkey (205 female, 240 male, age range 15-18, mean age 16.07) from predominantly middle

	perfectionism and multidimensional life satisfaction among high school adolescents in Turkey. *Journal of Multicultural Counseling and Development, 37*(1), 52-64.	to upper class background. School admission includes a competitive entrance exam---[so high-ability/gifted?]. Students took APS-R and MSLSS. High standards and a sense of order were associated with high life satisfaction, and high discrepancy was associated with lower life satisfaction. Adaptive perfectionists reported significantly higher global, family, self, and school satisfaction than maladaptive or non-perfectionists. Ongen compared data to Gilman et al. (2005) data, and having high standards predicted school satisfaction in Turkish, Croatian, and American samples.
	Nugent, S. A. (2000). Perfectionism: Its manifestations and classroom-based interventions. *Journal of Secondary Gifted Education, 11*(4), 215-221.	Suggests bibliotherapy, group discussion techniques, art activities, goal setting, teaching of metacognition, teacher sharing of personal struggles with perfectionism with students to help them re-frame their thinking of perfectionism and help students to reach realistic goals.

Appendix B: Empirical Research in Perfectionism

Citation	Perfectionism Measure	Sample	Results	
Parker & Mills (1996)	MPS (Frost)	N=600 gifted N=418 general Grade 6 National sample	Gifted sample: Non-perfectionists: 30.5% Healthy: 43.2% Dysfunctional: 26.3%	General sample Non-perfectionists: 23.7% Healthy: 48.6% Dysfunctional: 27.8%
Parker (2000)	MPS (Frost)	N=400 gifted Grade 6	Non-perfectionists: 38% Healthy: 42% Dysfunctional: 25%	
LoCicero & Ashby (2000a)	APS-R	N=83 gifted N=112 general Grades 6-8 Southeastern rural school	Gifted means Standards: 41.21 Discrepancy: 36.55	General means Standards: 38.67 Discrepancy: 41.46
Siegle & Schuler (2000)	Goals and Work Habits Survey	N=391 gifted Grades 6-8	Females more concerned over mistakes, organization Males reported higher parent expectations	
Schuler (2000)	Goals and Work Habits Survey	N=112 gifted Grades 6-8	Non-perfectionists: 12.5% Normal: 58% Neurotic: 29.5%	
Chan (2009)	MPS (Frost)	N=380 gifted Hong Kong Mean age 12.19	Non-perfectionists: 29.2% Healthy: 44.2% Unhealthy: 26.6%	
Brown et al. (1999)	MPS (Frost)	N=90 females College students (Northeast)	High personal standards associated with increased studying and better academic performance High concern over mistakes associated with increased studying, more anxiety, and negative mood	
LoCicero & Ashby (2000b)	APS-R	N=199 College students (Midwest)	Non-perfectionists: 67.8% Adaptive: 15.6% Maladaptive: 16.6%	

			Adaptive perfectionists showed the highest general and social self-efficacy, greater task commitment
Ashby & Rice (2002)	APS-R	N=282 College students (Midwest)	Maladaptive perfectionists associated with low self-esteem Adaptive perfectionists associated with positive self-esteem
Gilman, Ashby, Sverko, Florell, & Varjas (2005)	APS-R	N=341 Americans Mean age 14.59 N=291 Croatians Mean age 15.14	Croatian adaptive perfectionists reported higher global, family, school, and self-satisfaction American adaptive perfectionists indicated higher family, living environment, and self-satisfaction American maladaptive perfectionists reported higher satisfaction with family, school, and living environment compared to non-perfectionists
Chang, Watkins, & Banks (2004)	MPS (Frost)	N=150 Black females N=150 White females College students	Maladaptive perfectionism associated with stress in both samples Adaptive perfectionism associated with greater life satisfaction in the sample of White females only
Stoeber & Stoeber (2009)	MPS (Hewitt)	N=109 U.K. College students N=289 Internet users	Most perfectionists ranked work, studies, and personal hygiene in the top 4 of 22 areas of their lives in which they exhibited perfectionism
Ongen (2009)	APS-R	N=445 Turkish high school students Mean age 16.07	High standards associated with higher life satisfaction High discrepancy associated with lower life satisfaction Adaptive perfectionists reported significantly higher global, family, self, and school satisfaction than maladaptive or non-perfectionists

Appendix C: Human Subjects Approval

From: compli@wm.edu
Date: 3-23-2012
Re: Status of protocol EDIRC-2012-03-19-7863-mabess set to active

This is to notify you on behalf of the Education Internal Review Committee (EDIRC) that protocol EDIRC-2012-03-19-7863-mabess titled An investigation of perfectionism and life satisfaction in gifted students. has been EXEMPTED from formal review because it falls under the following category(ies) defined by DHHS Federal Regulations: 45CFR46.101.b.2.

Work on this protocol may begin on 2012-03-23 and must be discontinued on 2013-03-23.

Should there be any changes to this protocol, please submit these changes to the committee for determination of continuing exemption using the Protocol and Compliance Management channel on the Service tab within myWM (http://my.wm.edu/).

Please add the following statement to the footer of all consent forms, cover letters, etc.:

THIS PROJECT WAS FOUND TO COMPLY WITH APPROPRIATE ETHICAL STANDARDS AND WAS EXEMPTED FROM THE NEED FOR FORMAL REVIEW BY THE COLLEGE OF WILLIAM AND MARY PROTECTION OF HUMAN SUBJECTS COMMITTEE (Phone 757-221-3966) ON 2012-03-23 AND EXPIRES ON 2013-03-23.

You are required to notify Dr. Ward, chair of the EDIRC, at 757-221-2358 (EDIRC-L@wm.edu) and Dr. Kirkpatrick, Chair of the PHSC at 757-221-3997 (PHSC-L@wm.edu) if any issues arise during this study.

Good luck with your study.

COMMENTS

No comments available

BASIC INFO

Title: An investigation of perfectionism and life satisfaction in gifted students.
Start Date: 2012-03-23
Year Number: 1
Years Total: 1
Campus: Main
Committee(s): EDIRC
Cc: Emails:

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Protocol modified by tjward on 2012-03-23 07:44:38

Appendix D: Consent Form

Consent Form for Participation in a Research Study

Principal Investigators: Maria Bessler, M.A.Ed. Candidate, and Carol Tieso, Ph.D.
Study Title: An investigation of perfectionism and life satisfaction in gifted students.

1. Invitation to Participate in a Research Study

Students in grades 3-5 participating in the Visions program at Matthew Whaley have been selected to participate in a special research project on perfectionism with researchers at The College of William and Mary and the Center for Gifted Education.

2. Purpose of the Research Study

This study will allow researchers to observe attitudes or feelings that may impact students' goals and learning.

3. Description of Procedures

Participation in this study involves completing three questionnaires which may take 10-15 minutes to complete. Students will complete these questionnaires during the first few minutes of their Visions class on April 11. All students in third through fifth grade in the Visions class will be completing the questionnaires so little educational time will be lost. There are no anticipated risks to participation. The only inconvenience is the time that the student spends completing the questionnaires.

5. Benefits

The primary benefit of participation is the opportunity to contribute to research about how perfectionism may affect gifted students' attitudes towards life, so that researchers can help educators and parents address the needs of these students.

6. Confidentiality

The questionnaires that the students complete will be anonymous; no one will have access to students' names. IDs will be used instead of names and no names will be used in any articles or reports about this research study. Students' completed questionnaires will be kept in a locked file cabinet in a secure office for the duration of the study and for an additional five years in case of potential need for verification. This is done to protect student privacy and to ensure the confidentiality of responses.

You should also know that The College of William and Mary Institutional Review Board (IRB) may inspect study records, but these reviews will only focus on the researchers and not on your responses or involvement. The IRB is a group of people that reviews research studies to make sure they are safe for participants.

7. Voluntary Participation

You do not have to be in this study if you do not want to. If you agree to be in the study, but later change your mind, you may drop out at any time. There are no penalties or consequences of any kind if you decide that you do not want to participate.

8. Do You Have Any Questions?

Take as long as you like before you make a decision. We will be happy to answer any question you have about this study. If you have further questions about this project, would like information about the results of this study, or if you have a research-related problem, you may contact the principal investigators, Maria Bessler at (804) 436-2993 (mabess@email.wm.edu), and Carol Tieso at 757-221-2461 (clties@wm.edu), or IRB representative Tom Ward (tjward@wm.edu).

If you decide to participate, please sign and return the attached consent form to your child's Visions teacher, Andrea Alley, by April 10, 2012.
Consent (Parent or Guardian):

I have read this form and decided that my son/daughter may participate in this study of *An investigation of perfectionism and life satisfaction in gifted students.* Its general purposes, the particulars of involvement and possible hazards and inconveniences have been explained to my satisfaction. My signature also indicates that I have received a copy of this consent form.

Signature of Parent or Guardian:_____

Date: _____

_____

Signature of Primary Investigator Phone

****

Assent (Student Participant):

I have read this form and decided that I would like to participate in this study of *An investigation of perfectionism and life satisfaction in gifted students.* Its general purposes, the particulars of involvement and possible hazards and inconveniences have been explained to my satisfaction. My signature also indicates that I have received a copy of this consent form.

Signature of Participant:
_____

Date: _____

_____

Signature of Primary Investigator Phone

Appendix E: Directions to Student Participants

Today you will be given three surveys. Your participation is voluntary and you can withdraw at any time. You can write on the surveys, but please do not put your name on them. They will be anonymous.

For the first survey, you will be using a special scale called a Likert scale. Here is an example of a Likert scale, just like the one on the survey:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

A Likert scale like this one measures how much you agree or disagree to a statement. Here is an example statement:

Example: **I like ice cream.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
O	O	O	O	O	O	O

After reading the statement, "I like ice cream," you would need to decide if you agree or disagree with the statement, and how strongly you feel about it.

- If I like ice cream, but only a little bit, I might answer "slightly agree" by shading the circle underneath the 5.
- If I really hate ice cream, I might answer "strongly disagree" by shading the circle underneath the 1.

"Neutral" means that you don't agree or disagree with the statement.

If you want to answer "strongly disagree," shade in the circle under the 1.
If you want to answer "disagree," shade in the circle under the 2.
If you want to answer "slightly disagree," share in the circle under the 3, & so on.

Please shade only one circle for each statement!
Do you understand how to answer the statement on the first survey?

The questions on survey #2 and survey #3 are multiple choice. Please circle one answer for each question. Do you have any questions about any of the surveys?

When you are done with the survey, please bring it over to me.
Thank you for your participation!

Appendix F: Demographic Questionnaire

Demographic Questionnaire

Directions: Please fill in your answer for Questions 1 and 2.

1) I am _____ years old.

2) I am in the _____ grade.

Directions: Please circle your answer for Questions 3 and 4.

3) I am a:

a) boy
b) girl

4) I am:

a) White
b) Black
c) Asian
d) Hispanic
e) Mixed
f) Other

Appendix G: APS-R

Almost Perfect Scale-Revised
APS-R

Attitudes Toward School

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. I have high standards for my performance at school.	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
2. I am an orderly person.	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
3. I often feel frustrated because I can't meet my goals.	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
4. Neatness is important to me.	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
5. If you don't expect much out of yourself, you will never succeed.	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
6. My best just never seems to be good enough for me.	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
7. I think things should be put away in their place.	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
8. I have high expectations for myself.	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
9. I rarely live up to my high standards.	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
10. I like to always be organized and disciplined.	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
11. Doing my best never seems to be enough.	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
12. I set very high standards for myself.	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
13. I am never satisfied with my accomplishments.	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
14. I expect the best from myself.	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
15. I often worry about not measuring up to my own expectations.	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
16. My performance rarely measures up to my standards.	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
17. I am not satisfied even when I know I have done my best.	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
18. I try to do my best at everything I do.	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
19. I am rarely able to meet my own high standards of performance.	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
20. I am hardly ever satisfied with my performance.	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
21. I hardly ever feel that what I've done is good enough.	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
22. I have a strong need to strive for excellence.	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
23. I often feel disappointment after completing a task because I know I could have done better.	O	O	O	O	O	O	O

Appendix H: BMSLSS

Brief Multidimensional Students' Life Satisfaction Scale
(Huebner, 1997)

These six questions ask about your satisfaction with different areas of your life. Circle the best answer for each.

1. I would describe my satisfaction with my family life as:
   a) Terrible
   b) Unhappy
   c) Mostly dissatisfied
   d) Mixed (about equally satisfied and dissatisfied)
   e) Mostly satisfied
   f) Pleased
   g) Delighted

2. I would describe my satisfaction with my friendships as:
   a) Terrible
   b) Unhappy
   c) Mostly dissatisfied
   d) Mixed (about equally satisfied and dissatisfied)
   e) Mostly satisfied
   f) Pleased
   g) Delighted

3. I would describe my satisfaction with my school experience as
   a) Terrible
   b) Unhappy
   c) Mostly dissatisfied
   d) Mixed (about equally satisfied and dissatisfied)
   e) Mostly satisfied
   f) Pleased
   g) Delighted

4. I would describe my satisfaction with myself as:
   a) Terrible
   b) Unhappy
   c) Mostly dissatisfied
   d) Mixed (about equally satisfied and dissatisfied)
   e) Mostly satisfied
   f) Pleased
   g) Delighted

5. I would describe my satisfaction with where I live as:
   a) Terrible
   b) Unhappy
   c) Mostly dissatisfied
   d) Mixed (about equally satisfied and dissatisfied)
   e) Mostly satisfied
   f) Pleased
   g) Delighted

6. I would describe my satisfaction with my overall life as:
   a) Terrible
   b) Unhappy
   c) Mostly dissatisfied
   d) Mixed (about equally satisfied and dissatisfied)
   e) Mostly satisfied
   f) Pleased
   g) Delighted