AN ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS OF

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In Psychology presented on May 8, 2002

Title: Subjective Well-Being, Achievement Striving Behavior, and Adaptive and Maladaptive Perfectionism

Abstract approved: Kenneth A. Weaver

Past research has unfolded many previously unknown aspects of personality, subjective well-being, and factors that interact among the two. Nonetheless, there remains a surfeit of information yet to be discovered. The current study investigated differences among subjective well-being, achievement striving behavior, and perfectionism. Analyses indicate that those who report high levels of achievement striving tendencies also tend to report higher levels of perfectionistic tendencies toward the self. Furthermore, achievement strivers reported higher levels of happiness and positive affect when compared to their non-achieving counterparts. Likewise, adaptive perfectionists tended to report higher levels of happiness, an essential component of subjective well-being. Results also suggest that maladaptive perfectionists experience higher levels of negative affect. Lastly, a significant disordinal interaction indicates that non-achievement strivers who are also maladaptive perfectionists have low satisfaction with life. Given this finding, those individuals who do not consider themselves achievement strivers but strive to live up to others' expectations may be experiencing cognitive dissonance and in turn doing a disservice to their own mental well-being.

SUBJECTIVE WELL-BEING, ACHIEVEMENT STRIVING BEHAVIOR, AND ADAPTIVE AND MALADAPTIVE PERFECTIONISM

A Thesis

Presented to

The Department of Psychology and Special Education

EMPORIA STATE UNIVERSITY

In Partial Fulfillment

Of the Requirements for the Degree

Master of Science

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by

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May 2002

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Sincere appreciation to Dr. Kenneth Weaver for reviewing my numerous drafts of this thesis and for continually challenging me to better my research abilities. Thanks to Dr. Cooper Holmes and Dr. Cathy Grover for having the patience and desire to read through my tremendously long drafts. A note of appreciation is expressed to Dr. Stephen Davis for acknowledging in me the ability to conduct research while I was an undergraduate student struggling to make sense of this area. Lastly, sincere thanks to my family for supporting and encouraging me throughout my many academic endeavors.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

For years, philosophers, scientists, and the general public have been intrigued by the notion of happiness. From Aristotle to Dr. Laura, speculations about happiness are copious. Articles saturate popular magazines claiming to hold the key to a happy lifestyle. Movies, commercials, and local programming depict many individuals living a fruitful and prosperous life, with the characters content and exultant. Likewise, scientific studies investigating happiness frequently appear in psychological journals. Nonetheless, the question "Who is happy?" continues to captivate many individuals.

As depicted in popular media, happy individuals appear to live successful and productive lives. Some would argue that setting goals, working toward those goals, and striving for excellence attaining those goals are characteristic of happiness. Although this appears to be the widespread belief among contemporary society, the components of happiness still remain to be fully identified by science. Consequentially, the current investigation begins with a review of the literature on subjective well-being (which includes happiness), achievement striving behavior as a component of the Type A Behavior Pattern, and perfectionism.

Review of the Literature

Subjective Well-Being

Subjective well-being (SWB) focuses primarily on why and how people experience their lives in positive ways (Diener, 1984). Subjective well-being consists of two broad aspects: An affective component of positive affect (PA) and negative affect (NA), and a cognitive component referred to as life satisfaction (Pavot & Diener, 1993).

Positive affect refers to the degree to which a person feels "enthusiastic, active, and alert," whereas NA refers to a "general dimension of subjective distress and unpleasurable engagements that subsumes a variety of aversive mood states" (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988, p. 1063). Moreover, life satisfaction is an integrated, global judgment of a person's quality of life based on comparing personal standards with perceived life circumstances, therefore making life satisfaction a "conscious cognitive judgment" (Pavot & Diener, 1993, p. 164). Furthermore, Diener (1984) reported happiness as being the influence of positive affect over negative affect with attention on the emotional evaluation of one's situation in life (i.e., an overall affective appraisal).

Understanding why and how some people experience subjective well-being and life satisfaction at higher levels than others is an ongoing task. Fordyce (1983) developed the "14 fundamentals of happiness" such as "(a) keep busy and be more active; (b) get better organized and plan things out; (c) be productive at meaningful work; and (d) develop positive, optimistic thinking" (p. 484). Furthermore, Csikszentimihalyi (1999) stated that understanding happiness comes from knowing one's quality of work and leisure experiences. Csikszentimihalyi (1990) also contended, through his research on the concept of "flow," that elevated positive moods more frequently occurred when participants were involved in challenging tasks rather than enjoying leisure time, with challenging tasks being a common characteristic of achievement strivers.

If a person's activity level influences positive affect (e.g., Bradburn, 1969), there might be evidence relating achievement striving, happiness, and SWB. Burke and Weir (1980) reported that persons with greater Type A behaviors experience less depression and greater life satisfaction. In addition, Bluen, Barling, and Burns (1990) suggested the

achievement striving component of the Type A behavior pattern is unrelated to depression. However, given that no relationship was found, it cannot be inferred that achievement striving individuals experience less or no depression when compared to their counterparts.

If "work-oriented achievement strivings...remain significantly related to students' high academic performance" (Spence, Pred, & Helmreich, 1989, p. 176), then persons who exhibit AS behaviors possess the tendency to be goal directed, as seen in high academic achievement. Emmons and Diener (1985) found that setting goals and working to achieve those goals were predictors of SWB. Moreover, DeNeve and Cooper's (1998) meta-analysis revealed that conscientiousness, which includes goal directed behavior, "obtained the strongest positive association with life satisfaction" (p. 220).

McKibban and Nelson (2001) predicted positive correlations between happiness and life structure (i.e., the amount to which one is dedicated to a routine daily schedule) and happiness and achievement striving. In their study, 86 undergraduate student volunteers (18 men and 68 women) completed the achievement striving subscale of the revised student version of the Jenkins Activity Scale (JAS; Spence, Helmreich, & Pred 1987) and four measures of happiness (Fordyce Happiness Measure, Satisfaction with Life Scale, and the Positive and Negative Affect Scales). All three happiness scales were significantly, positively correlated with the JAS (rs = 0.44, 0.32, and 0.59, respectively). Additionally, life structure and positive affect were also positively related. These results suggest that achievement striving persons who perceive their life as structured report greater levels of happiness and subjective well-being.

Type A Behavior Pattern

Pike (as cited in Larose, 1999) once said "life is not measured in hours but in accomplishments." Possessing a need for achievement dictates a desire to do well and to demonstrate personal competence (Reeve, 1997). Consequently, accomplishment denotes achievement. Achievement motivation research encompasses Type A behavior, which includes two subsets: achievement striving and impatience and irritability (Barling & Charbonneau, 1992; Spence et al., 1987; Spence et al., 1989).

History of the Type A Behavior Pattern. Type A behavior pattern (TABP) is not a personality trait but a combination of explicit behaviors elicited by a challenging environment. TABP is a set of behaviors ranging from extreme Type A behavior to extreme Type B behavior (i.e., individuals who do not exhibit any behaviors that are characteristic of Type A individuals) rather than a typology. In this formulation, Type A individuals possess: (1) an intense desire to attain self-selected but poorly defined goals; (2) an eagerness to compete; (3) a longing for acknowledgment and advancement; (4) a continuous involvement in multiple tasks subject to stringent time restrictions; (5) a chronic inclination to accelerate the rate of completion of most mental and physical tasks; (6) astounding alertness; (7) achievement orientation; and (8) aggressive and hostile emotions (Matthews, 1982; Rosenman, Swan, & Carmelli, 1988). Accordingly, Rosenman et al. (1988) defined TABP "as an action-emotion complex involving behavioral dispositions (e.g., ambitiousness, competitiveness), specific behaviors (e.g., muscle tension, alertness), and emotional responses (e.g., irritation, hostility)" (p. 9).

TABP is composed of three separate dimensions: job involvement, competitiveness, and impatience (e.g., Matthews, Glass, Rosenman, & Bortner, 1977).

Three potential determinants of the relationship between the latter dimensions and the TABP have been suggested by prior research: (1) feelings of self-efficacy, which is the personal judgment of how well one can accomplish a task at hand; (2) performance standards and goals; and (3) an inclination to work on more than one project at a time (Taylor, Locke, Lee, & Gist, 1984). The study of TABP primarily focuses on performance-based behavior. One such study investigated the relation between Type A behavior and research productivity of university faculty (Taylor et al., 1984). University faculty ($N = 278$) completed the Individual Behavior Activity Profile (TABP measure) and a questionnaire containing items that targeted self-efficacy; the extent to which participants become involved with multiple projects; the extent to which participants set austerely acceptable goals in regards to publications, rank and salary; and actual quantity of publications. They found a significant positive correlation ($p < .01$ in all cases) between Type A behavior and (a) self-efficacy ($r = .18$), (b) number of simultaneous projects ($r = .23$), (c) number of performance goals ($r = .22$), and (d) number of faculty publication citations ($r = .25$). Volkmer and Feather (1991) also report Type A individuals who are strong in achievement striving tendencies are more likely to have an internal locus of control, stating that individuals who report high levels of Type A behavior tend to "perform better at work, both with respect to quantity and quality of performance" (p. 412). They also experience "rapid career advancement, are more educated, attain a higher occupational status" (Matthews, 1982, p. 302), and attain more rewards from work (Matthews, Helmreich, Beane, & Lucker, 1980).

TABP includes countering probable failure on a performance task with persistent effort to succeed, even if it requires a slower work rate. Concisely, individuals who

exhibit TABP insist on and appear to have greater success in school and work (Glass, 1977; Matthews et al., 1980). Individuals who exhibit TABP focus their attention, disregarding distractions that might lower task effort and performance (Matthews & Brunson, 1979). Type A students spend more time studying and tend to work for paid employment rather than volunteering (Glass, 1977). They also report being more active in extracurricular events, maintaining leadership positions, and receiving more academic honors than Type B college students. TABP individuals thrive on the need for success and will work accordingly to achieve it.

Given that Type As tend to work hard, remain persistent, and maintain control over their environment (Furnham, Hillard, & Brewin, 1985), do they outperform Type B individuals? Matthews (1982) reported that Type As tend to outperform Type Bs in difficult tasks requiring persistence and endurance. However, Type Bs do better when the task calls for unhurried, meticulous responses (Glass, Snyder, & Hollis as cited in Matthews, 1982), a general focus of attention (Matthews & Brunson, 1979), or unremitting performance after extended salient failure (Brunson & Matthews, 1981). When the failure is not highly salient (i.e., not significant or prominent), Type As outperform Type Bs (Brunson & Matthews, 1981; Krantz, Glass, & Snyder, 1974). Thus, Type As might not continue to outperform Type Bs in tasks requiring persistence and endurance when failure is salient. In support of this not-so-optimistic prediction for competitive achievement-striving behavior, Perry, Kane, Bernesser, and Spicker (1990) concluded that when Type A students are "in situations in which their expectancies for success cannot be reached by exerting additional effort, they will use other means," precisely, cheating (p. 463). Accordingly, Weiss, Gilbert, Giordano, and Davis (1993)

suggested students who score high on measures of Type A behavior appear to be more preoccupied with the consequences of achievement rather than the means of achievement. This last finding might lend support for the notion that Type A individuals thrive on the need for success, therefore working accordingly to achieve it and employing procedures to avoid failure.

If Type As set significantly higher performance standards and goals on tasks (Grimm & Yarnold, 1984; Ovcharchyn, Johnson, & Petzel, 1981), constructive consequences should arise if these standards and goals lead to actual greater performance levels, but would maladaptive consequences for Type As result from failure to achieve? Friedman and Ulmer (as cited in Ward & Eisler, 1987) proposed that failure to attain performance goals could result in inadequate self-esteem, which may be the basis for Type A achievement striving. Ward and Eisler (1987) tested this relationship by asking Type A and Type B participants to establish performance goals for two general information tests and for the combined test. In advance of completing the tests, participants were informed that the scores predicted intelligence and academic success. After completing the test, participants received feedback on their performance scores. Type As were less likely to achieve their performance goals for both the combined scores and each individual test. Furthermore, Type As set significantly higher goals, performed no differently, and obtained a greater achievement discrepancy for both tests when compared to their Type B counterparts. This pattern of results suggests that Type As fall short of achieving their personal performance goals because they are inclined to set goals beyond their capabilities. The latter results support Friedman and Ulmer's aforementioned proposal that Type A achievement striving tends to be characterized by

failure to attain elevated performance goals or standards, because the goals are in fact elevated too high. This study also corroborates previous findings that Type A achievement striving is positively related to measures of achievement influenced by effort (e.g., Work and Family Orientation Scale, grade point average) rather than measures influenced by ability (e.g., Scholastic Aptitude Test). In addition, Feather and Volkmer (1991) investigated the relationship between task preference and the achievement striving component of the TABP. Participants who scored high on achievement striving behavior (as indicated by the modified student version of the JAS) tended to prefer more difficult tasks that involve effort. These results insinuate that Type A individuals "actively seek out situations that match their personalities" (p. 26).

Achievement Striving Component. Achievement striving tendencies are distinct and noticeable in TABP. Spence et al. (1987, 1989) first reported TABP as measured by the JAS actually consisted of two distinct components, Achievement Striving (AS) and Impatience and Irritability (I/I), which could operate independently of each other rather than concomitantly. Their work was later corroborated by Barling and Charbonneau (1992). Spence et al. (1987) conducted a factor-analytic study involving college students on the JAS (Jenkins, Zyzanski, & Rosenman, 1971). I/I scores were positively related ($p < .05$) to number of self-reports of incidence of illness for both men ($r = .31$) and women ($r = .18$) but were unrelated to their GPA. Conversely, students' GPAs were positively associated ($p < .05$) with scores on the AS factor scale (e.g., hard working, active) for both men ($r = .36$) and women ($r = .33$) but unrelated to the illness self-reports. Two years after these findings were published, Spence et al. (1989) reported that "the kind of work-oriented achievement strivings measured by the AS scale...remains

related to students' academic performance over a period spanning two or more years of their undergraduate careers" (p. 177). These findings support the notion that AS scores can predict future academic performance during students' undergraduate degree. As mentioned previously, Barling and Charbonneau (1992) substantiated the latter findings by providing data to support the claim that AS behavior, in relation to the TABP, is positively related to students' grades and also proofreading performance. After completing a modified version of the JAS, Barling and Charbonneau had students read four double-spaced typed pages that consisted of 103 errors. Students were asked to underline, without correcting, as many errors as they could find within five minutes. The number of errors underlined was used as the criterion variable. This proofreading task measured performance quality, given the "number of errors found reflects concentration and attention during the five minute period" (p. 373). AS is significantly correlated with GPA ($r = 0.32, p < .01$) and proof-reading ($r = 0.17, p < .05$). AS (measured by the modified version of the JAS by Spence et al., 1987) is also correlated with the quantity and quality of research productivity (Helmreich, Spence, & Pred, 1988; Matthews et al., 1980; Taylor et al., 1984), the number of insurance policies sold and job satisfaction (Bluen et al., 1990), and academic performance and decreases in performance dysfunction (Lee, Jamieson, & Earley, 1996).

Perfectionism

Given that individuals who score high on Type A behavior tend to be driven by the desire for success and will work accordingly to achieve it, and that those who specifically score high on the AS aspect of the TABP tend to have high academic and career success (both in quantity and quality), a reasonable inference is that AS and

perfectionism are positively related. Several research studies have investigated perfectionism (e.g., Frost, Heimberg, Holt, Mattia, & Neubauer, 1993; Hamachek, 1978; Lynd-Stevenson & Hearne, 1999; Terry-Short, Owens, Slade, & Dewey, 1995). Early studies of perfectionism proposed numerous definitions of the construct, primarily because this construct was related to various psychopathologies (Terry-Short et al., 1995). Nevertheless, the unidimensional, self-directed notions of perfectionism have been replaced by multidimensional models (e.g., Hewitt & Flett, 1991; Hamachek, 1978).

At present, perfectionism appears to be a multidimensional personality variable, with two different facets that emerge, namely maladaptive and adaptive. "Neurotic" (i.e., maladaptive) perfectionists set unrealistic expectations and are never satisfied with their work (Hamachek, 1978). A person with "normal" (i.e., adaptive) perfectionism thrives for excellence but is tolerant and accepts individual limitations. Adkins and Parker (1996) described maladaptive perfectionism in terms of "passive" perfectionists who second guess their decisions, have a fear of making mistakes, and procrastinate. In contrast, adaptive or "active" perfectionism describes those for whom perfectionistic strivings stimulate and impel them to engage in achievement related strivings. Terry-Short et al. (1995) differentiated between maladaptive and adaptive perfectionism in terms of "negative" perfectionism in which individuals avoid aversive consequences and "positive" perfectionism in which individuals achieve to gain positive consequences. Although the latter studies give different categorical labels to the two dimensions that have been shown to emerge from the perfectionism construct, they all have the same underlying tone; one dimension is adaptive and the other maladaptive, with maladaptive perfectionism predisposing individuals to depression (Adkins & Parker, 1996;

Hamachek, 1978; Lynd-Stevenson & Hearne, 1999). More specifically, maladaptive perfectionists insist on a higher level of performance from themselves than is usually possible to attain, hence severely reducing the possibility of feeling good about themselves (Hamachek, 1978).

Recent researchers have defined adaptive and maladaptive perfectionism in more directive terms. Flett, Hewitt, Blankstein, and Dynn (1994) proposed a dichotomy of maladaptive perfectionism: self-oriented perfectionism (perfectionistic tendencies directed toward the self) and socially-prescribed perfectionism (apprehension with living up to the expectations of others and the view that others are too insistent). Self-oriented perfectionism is commonly referred to as maladaptive perfectionism, that is self-oriented individuals tend to set unrealistic goals for themselves and to focus on failures and limitations with great self-scrutiny. Socially-prescribed has also been referred to as maladaptive perfectionism; specifically, social perfectionists tend to strive to meet expectations of others despite the feeling that others are too insistent (Hewitt & Flett, 1991). As measured by the Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale (Hewitt & Flett, 1991), Flett et al. (1994) reported that self-oriented and socially-prescribed perfectionism significantly correlated with both Achievement Striving (AS; $r = .36$) and Impatience and Irritability (I/I; $r = .18$). Correspondingly, Hill, McIntire, and Bacharach (1997) found an association between the Big Five factor of neuroticism (specifically, the anger-hostility sub-factor included in measures of I/I) and self ($r = .14$) and socially-prescribed ($r = .24$) perfectionism. In addition, they found self-oriented perfectionism to have a strong achievement striving component ($r = .65$), a subscale of the Big Five factor of conscientiousness, including characteristics such as setting high personal standards and a

need to excel. These characteristics also describe AS and tend to overlap conscientiousness. Conscientious people are dutiful, ordered, and goal-directed (DeNeve & Cooper, 1998; Hill et al., 1997). Although self-oriented perfectionism is strongly related to maladaptive perfectionism, conscientiousness "help[s] document some of the adaptive features of self-oriented perfectionism related to constructive striving and resourcefulness" (Hill et al., 1997, p. 267). It is noteworthy that Hill et al. (1997) reported a relationship ($r = .59$) between conscientiousness and self-oriented perfectionism. If certain dimensions of perfectionism (e.g., dissatisfaction with performance and failure to achieve personal standards) predispose individuals to depression (Adkins & Parker, 1996; Hamachek, 1978; Lynd-Stevenson & Hearne, 1999), and perfectionists tend to be achievement strivers, then what factors constitute whether or not achievement strivers experience subjective well-being or depression?

Literature Review Summary and Hypotheses

The scientific study of subjective well-being (SWB) and happiness is relatively new; however, speculations about these concepts are decades old. For example, the quality of one's work and the frequency of involvement in challenging tasks appear to greatly influence one's level of subjective well-being. Although much of the research within the last decade has primarily focused on aspects of life, aspects of personality may also affect one's level of subjective well-being. Consequentially, researchers are shifting their focus to the relationship between personality and subjective well-being.

Another research trend over the last several decades has been to focus on the negative, rather than positive, characteristics of human behavior. Paradoxically, examples of characteristics having potentially detrimental effects on human behavior are

achievement striving (i.e., setting numerous goals and working toward accomplishing them) and perfectionism (i.e., striving for excellence), which many would associate with success, accomplishment, and subjective well-being. Hence, the paradox raises the need to clarify the relationship by investigating subjective well-being in those who continually strive for achievement and excellence.

Studying individuals who continually strive for achievement has recently led to some possible connections between achievement striving and perfectionism. For example, those who actively strive for achievement tend to aspire to academic and career success and prefer challenging tasks. In addition, perfectionists tend to strive for excellence and are impelled to achieve in order to gain positive consequences. Hence, achievement strivers may also tend to be perfectionists. Despite similarities between these two characteristics, support for a relationship is scant.

Furthermore, if achievement strivers tend to experience more academic and career success and involve themselves in tasks that require effort, then those who strive for achievement might also experience higher levels of subjective well-being. In addition, if achievement strivers tend to be perfectionists, it might be possible that they experience higher levels of subjective well-being. Once again, the research investigating this possible connection is sparse. Clearly, past research has unfolded many unknown aspects of personality, subjective well-being, and factors that interact between the two. Nonetheless, there remains a surfeit of information yet to be discovered. The scant amount of research within the areas of human behavior discussed above provides a sense of importance in continued efforts to investigate such areas.

As evident in this literature review, many possible relationships exist among SWB, achievement striving, and perfectionism. If achievement striving individuals demonstrate a tendency to set high performance goals, prefer to partake in tasks that require effort, and aspire to academic and career success, and if adaptive perfectionists tend to thrive for excellence and are impelled to achieve in order to gain positive consequences, then Hypothesis 1 is achievement striving individuals also tend to be adaptive perfectionists.

Furthermore, if achievement strivers tend to experience more academic and career success and involve themselves in tasks that require effort, and if SWB depends on knowing one's quality of work and frequency of involvement in challenging tasks, then Hypothesis 2 is achievement strivers relative to non-achievement strivers should report higher levels of SWB. Hypothesis 3 is adaptive relative to maladaptive perfectionists will report higher levels of SWB, given achievement strivers tend to be perfectionists and also tend to report higher levels of SWB.

Consequently, perfectionism contains a maladaptive component. If achievement striving is related to maladaptive perfectionism and if maladaptive perfectionism predisposes individuals to depression, then Hypothesis 4 is that maladaptive in contrast to adaptive perfectionists should experience lower levels of SWB and higher levels of negative affect. Mongrain and Zuroff (1995) supported this prediction by reporting that persons who are self-critical report lower levels of positive affect. Maladaptive perfectionists tend to be self-critical, continually doubting their ability and second-guessing their decisions (Adkins & Parker, 1996; Hamachek, 1978). If achievement strivers tend to also be perfectionists, does the specific component of their perfectionistic

tendencies (i.e., maladaptive or adaptive) determine their level of SWB? Wong and Csikszentmihalyi (1991) stated that it is important to "consider several personality characteristics together" (p. 543). This appears to be essential in differentiating between the possible relationships presented. Thus, the intent of the current study was to determine the relationships among SWB, achievement striving, and adaptive and maladaptive perfectionism.

CHAPTER 2

METHOD

Participants

Participants consisted of 180 undergraduate students (76 men and 104 women) enrolled in introductory and developmental psychology classes at a mid-sized Midwestern university. Participants ranged in age from 18 to 52 year ($M = 21.55$, $SD = 5.54$). The sample consisted of freshmen (58.9%), sophomores (17.8%), juniors (13.9%), and seniors (9.4%). Participation partially satisfied a departmental research requirement.

Experimental Design

Given the scant amount of data on the relationships among subjective well-being (SWB), achievement striving, and perfectionism, a 2 x 2 quasi-experimental design was employed. The sample was divided into achievement and non-achievement strivers and adaptive and maladaptive perfectionists, for the independent variables. The dependent variables included the four scores on the SWB measures: Satisfaction with life, happiness, positive affect, and negative affect. For Hypothesis 1, AS and perfectionism scores were correlated. For the remaining hypotheses, 4 2 x 2 ANOVAs were performed using the four dependent variables listed above.

External validity. As with many studies that utilize college freshman for data collection, generalizability of the results is a concern. Although the target population is college students, the accessible population differs on several notable characteristics. First, a large percentage (approximately 80%) of the accessible population is classified as freshman with an average age of 21. Moreover, these students primarily come from a middle-class Caucasian background. Hence, the results are strictly generalizable to

college students with similar demographics. Furthermore, ecological generalizability is restricted to those college students enrolled in mid-sized Midwestern universities.

Instrumentation

Consent form. An informed consent document (see Appendix A) explaining the rights to confidentiality and the procedure of the study was given to each participant. The participant was required to read, sign, and date the document prior to completing the demographic questionnaire and battery of scales.

Demographic questionnaire. A demographic questionnaire (see Appendix B) was used to gather relevant information about the participants. This instrument was used to gather information regarding the participants' age, gender, and school classification in an attempt to exclude atypical participants from the sample.

Achievement Striving Scale (AS). The adapted Achievement Striving Scale (Spence et al., 1987) consists of 14 items that measure the achievement striving component of the Type A behavior pattern (e.g., *I get highly involved in my work*). The participants respond to the 14 items on a Likert-type scale, ranging from 5 (*very much like me*) to 1 (*not at all like me*). Addition of the item scores yields a single, aggregate achievement striving score for each participant ranging from 14 to 70, with higher scores indicating higher achievement striving tendencies.

The AS scale attempts to measure the activity level of the participants in their work and academics (i.e., their achievement striving behaviors). Internal consistency of the AS scale is satisfactory ($r = .71$). Additionally, AS scores are significantly higher for undergraduates who remain in college as compared to those who withdraw before

graduation, thus supporting the predictive validity of the AS scale (Barling & Charbonneau, 1992).

Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale (MP). The Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale (Hewitt & Flett, 1991) is a 45-item measure that consists of three separate dimensions (each comprised of 15 items): self-oriented perfectionism, socially-prescribed perfectionism, and other-oriented perfectionism. The scale does not provide an overall, aggregate perfectionism score; rather, it provides a separate score for each dimension. Participants indicate the extent to which each item reflects their own personal views on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). Addition of the subscale items provides three separate perfectionistic scores, ranging from 15 to 105, with higher scores indicating higher levels of perfectionism.

The dimension of self-oriented perfectionism entails setting high personal standards, which has been associated with positive achievement striving, and rigorously evaluating one's own behavior (e.g., *One of my goals is to be perfect in everything I do*). The self-oriented subscale has shown adequate internal consistency, with an alpha coefficient of .86 when tested using a college student sample (Hewitt et al., 1991). Furthermore, the self-oriented subscale has been shown to correlate significantly with self importance of performance and self importance of goal attainment. Additional evidence for discriminant validity is no significant correlations among the three subscales, suggesting the subscales are relatively distinct.

Socially-prescribed perfectionism indicates an apprehension with living up to the expectations of others and the view that others are too insistent (e.g., *My family expects me to be perfect*). The socially-prescribed subscale has shown adequate internal

consistency, with an alpha coefficient of .87 when tested using a college student sample (Hewitt et al., 1991). Lastly, other-oriented perfectionism involves the expectations one has for the actions of others, typically setting high standards for those with which they are involved (e.g., *If I ask someone to do something, I expect it to be done flawlessly*). The other-oriented subscale also possesses adequate internal consistency, with an alpha coefficient of .82.

Subjective Well-Being

Subjective well-being (SWB) consists of two broad aspects: (a) an affective component of positive affect (PA) and negative affect (NA), and (b) a cognitive component referred to as life satisfaction (Pavot & Diener, 1993). Moreover, life satisfaction is an integrated, global judgment of a person's quality of life based on comparing personal standards with perceived life circumstances, therefore making life satisfaction a "conscious cognitive judgment" (Pavot & Diener, 1993, p. 164). Furthermore, Diener (1984) reported happiness as being the influence of positive affect over negative affect with attention on the emotional evaluation of one's situation in life (i.e., an overall affective appraisal). Given this description of subjective well-being and happiness, three measures were used in this study: The Fordyce Happiness Measure, the Satisfaction with Life Scale, and the Positive and Negative Affect Schedules.

Fordyce Happiness Measure (HM). The Fordyce Happiness Measures provides a global measure of happiness; it consists of "two, self-reporting items measuring emotional well-being: an 11-point, happiness/unhappiness scale, and a question asking for the time spent in happy, unhappy, and neutral moods" (Fordyce, 1988, p. 357). The 11-point scale ranges from *extremely happy* (10) to *extremely unhappy* (0). Participants

check the one option that best describes their "average" happiness, which will provide a "measure of intensity or quality of happiness" (Fordyce, 1988, p. 359). The second self-reporting item measures, in percentage estimates, the amount of time the participants spend in happy, unhappy, and neutral moods, which will provide a "measure of its frequency or quantity" (Fordyce, 1988, p. 359).

The HM has demonstrated strong test-retest reliability, 0.98 ($n = 111$) for a two day period, and 0.67 ($n = 27$) for a four month period (Fordyce, 1988). The HM has been correlated to a wide assortment of other instruments used to measure happiness, well-being, and emotion. According to Fordyce (1988) such instruments include, but are not limited to, the "Affectometer-2 (Kammann & Flett), the Subjective Well-Being Inventory (Nagpal & Sell), the Wessman and Ricks Scale, and a number of simple happiness scales" (p. 363). The latter comparisons found the HM "to be among the strongest in convergent validity of all measures, and the strongest of the single-item measures they compared" (p. 364).

Construct validity for the HM is quite high. According to Fordyce (1988), "the HM has accumulated more validational data than any other well-being measure" (p. 365). This validational data has been gathered through the comparison of the HM to an immense number of well known tests and inventories. A few of these inventories and tests, together with their respective correlations ($p < .05$ in all cases), include the Affectometer-2 Happiness score, ($r = 0.71$); Beck Depression Inventory, ($r = -0.54$); and the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory Depression subscale, ($r = -0.38$).

Lastly, the HM has shown high discriminative validity (i.e., the capability to distinguish between happy and unhappy persons). Fordyce (1987) and Cullington and

Plummer (1984, as cited in Fordyce, 1988) have conducted inter-socioeconomic studies in which the results corroborate predictions from past research that state persons of higher socioeconomic status score higher on the HM. Also noteworthy, data from other studies reveal "significant differences between HM scores obtained from various troubled populations (e.g., hospitalized depressives, individuals or couples seeking counseling, etc.) and those of more normal samples" (Fordyce, 1988, p. 371).

Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS). The Satisfaction with Life Scale measures the cognitive component of subjective well-being by using a 5-item instrument (Pavot & Diener, 1993). Rather than measuring satisfaction with particular domains, the items on the SWLS are global (e.g., *In most ways my life is close to my ideal*). These types of items allow the participants to measure domains in their life using their own standards for happiness or success, therefore "arriving at a global judgment of life satisfaction" (Pavot & Diener, 1993, p. 164). The participants indicate their degree of agreement with each of the five statements using a scale ranging from 1 (*strongly agree*) to 7 (*strongly disagree*). Scores range from 5 to 35, with higher scores indicating higher levels of life satisfaction.

In a number of studies, the SWLS has shown good convergent validity with other types of measures of subjective well-being, including self and non-self-report measures, such as the Life Satisfaction Index-A, $r = .81$, $p < .01$, (LSI-A; Neugarten, Havighurst, & Tobin, as cited in Pavot, Diener, Colvin, & Sandvik, 1991). In addition, evidence has indicated good discriminative validity with emotional well-being measures, (Pavot & Diener, 1993; Pavot et al., 1991). Several studies show significant internal and temporal reliability (e.g., Pavot & Diener, 1993; Pavot et al., 1991). Pavot et al. (1991) reported a coefficient alpha of .85 and a 2-week test-retest stability coefficient of .83 for the scale.

Positive and Negative Affect Schedules (PANAS). The Positive and Negative Affect Schedules (Watson et al., 1988) measure the affective components of subjective well-being. The two schedules each consist of a list of 10 feelings and emotions (e.g., *interested, alert, hostile*). The participant rates each feeling/emotion using a 5-point Likert scale that ranges from 1 (*very slightly or not at all*) to 5 (*extremely*). Addition of the scores from each schedule yields two separate scores, ranging from 10 to 50 with higher scores indicating higher levels of either PA or NA.

Watson et al. (1988) have determined that these 10-item scales "are internally consistent and have excellent convergent (.89 to .95) and discriminant (-.02 to -.18) correlations with lengthier measures of the underlying mood factors" (p.1069). They also indicate that such lengthier measures include the Beck Depression Inventory and the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory State Anxiety Scale. These researchers also stated that the general ratings may be used as trait measures of affect, as supported by high stability coefficients. In particular, the PANAS-PA yielded a stability coefficient of .68 and the PANAS-NA yielded a stability coefficient of .71 ($p < .002$ in both cases).

Procedure

Upon approval from the thesis committee, the researcher presented an application to the Institutional Review Board. Once approved, data collection took place. The researcher attended introductory psychology (PY100) and developmental psychology (PY211) classes to administer the battery of counterbalanced scales with the permission of the instructor. Participation was on a voluntary basis and fulfilled a partial research requirement for the class. Upon attendance to each class, the researcher administered the informed consent document and answered any questions that arose. Following the

completion of the informed consent documents, the battery of counterbalanced scales were administered. Upon handing in the battery, participants were given the option of signing up for a debriefing session.

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS

The Pearson product-moment correlation was calculated to determine the relation between achievement striving and self-oriented and socially-prescribed perfectionism (Hypothesis 1). These correlations are shown in Table 1. As can be seen in Table 1, achievement striving and self-oriented perfectionism scores correlated, $r(180) = .52$, $p < .01$. That is, participants who scored high on the achievement striving scale also tended to report higher scores on the self-oriented perfectionism scale. Concisely, achievement strivers tend to possess perfectionistic tendencies toward the self.

To test Hypotheses 2, 3, and 4 two independent variables were used in analyses: (1) Achievement striving: present or absent and (2) Perfectionism: adaptive or maladaptive. Four 2 x 2 ANOVAs were performed on each dependent variable, with a minimum cell size of 20.

Assignment to the cells followed completion and scoring of the battery of scales. Each participant was categorized as achievement striving or non achievement striving for data analyses. The mean and standard deviation for the 121 participants' achievement striving scores was 53.99 and 9.23, respectively. Participants' ($n = 121$) AS scores had to be lower than (non-achievement striving) or higher than (achievement striving) the mean $\pm .5$ standard deviations for categorization. Furthermore, each participant was also categorized as an adaptive or maladaptive perfectionist. Given that social-oriented perfectionism is primarily maladaptive (e.g., Hewitt et al., 1991), this score was used in the analysis to determine categorization. Categorization was established by computing the mean and standard deviation of the socially oriented perfectionism scores ($n = 106$)

Table 1

Correlations Between Achievement Striving and Perfectionism Measures

Measure	Self-Oriented	Socially-Prescribed
Achievement Striving	.52**	-.04
Self-Oriented		.25*

$n = 180$, $^*p < .01$

and dropping participants who scored ± .5 standard deviations the mean. Maladaptive perfectionists scored .5 standard deviations above the mean and adaptive perfectionists scored .5 standard deviations below the mean. The mean and standard deviation for the 106 participants' perfectionism scores was 52.47 and 14.66, respectively.

Four 2 (Achievement Striving) x 2 (Perfectionism) ANOVAs were calculated to determine if there were differences in satisfaction with life, happiness, positive affect, and negative affect among the four groups. Using the Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS) as the first dependent variable, analyses yielded a marginally significant interaction between achievement striving and perfectionism, $F(1, 74) = 3.76$, $p = .06$. Using the Tukey test set at the $p < .05$ level, non achievement strivers who are maladaptive perfectionists (i.e., perfectionistic tendencies to live up to others' expectations; $M = 21.09$, $SD = 5.71$) differed significantly from the three other conditions, which did not differ (See Table 2). Eta squared was calculated to determine effect size. A small (.05) effect was found (Cohen, 1977), suggesting a weak statistical difference in satisfaction with life.

Using the Happiness Measure (HM) as the dependent variable, analyses yielded significant main effects for achievement striving, $F(1, 74) = 4.65$, $p < .05$ and perfectionism, $F(1, 74) = 10.46$, $p < .01$. Achievement strivers ($M = 71.81$, $SD = 15.80$) were happier than non-achievement strivers ($M = 61.42$, $SD = 19.92$), and adaptive perfectionists ($M = 73.76$, $SD = 12.18$) were happier than maladaptive perfectionists ($M = 59.83$, $SD = 21.11$; See Table 3). Eta squared yielded a medium effect magnitude (.06) for achievement and a large effect magnitude (.12) for perfectionism, suggesting practical significance.

Table 2

Summary of Means, Standard Deviations, and Cell Sizes of Satisfaction with Life Scale for Achievement Striving and Perfectionism

	Adaptive	Maladaptive	Total
Non-Achievement Striving	25.38 (5.00) 16	21.09 (5.71) 23	22.85 (5.77) 39
Achievement Striving	25.14 (5.50) 22	25.88 (6.34) 17	25.46 (5.81) 39
Total	25.24 (5.23) 38	23.13 (6.38) 40	

Table 3

Summary of Means, Standard Deviations, and Cell Sizes of Happiness Measure for Achievement Striving and Perfectionism

	Adaptive	Maladaptive	Total
Non-Achievement Striving	69.06 (13.38) 16	56.11 (22.16) 23	61.42 (19.92) 39
Achievement Striving	77.18 (10.22) 22	64.85 (19.09) 17	71.81 (15.80) 39
Total	73.76 (12.18) 38	59.83 (21.11) 40	

The last two two-way ANOVAs were calculated using Positive Affect and Negative Affect as the dependent variables. For positive affect, achievement striving was significant, $F(1, 74) = 29.11, p < .00$. That is, achievement strivers ($M = 40.87$, $SD = 5.72$) reported higher levels of positive affect than non-achievement strivers ($M = 33.69$, $SD = 5.56$; See Table 4). Eta Squared yielded a large effect magnitude (.28), suggesting practical significance. Analyses for negative affect yielded a significant main effect for perfectionism, $F(1,74) = 11.26, p < .001$. Specifically, maladaptive perfectionists ($M = 25.78$, $SD = 8.25$) reported higher levels of negative affect than adaptive perfectionists ($M = 20.29$, $SD = 4.88$; See Table 5). Eta squared yielded a large effect magnitude (.13), suggesting practical significance.

Table 4

Summary of Means, Standard Deviations, and Cell Sizes of Positive Affect for Achievement Striving and Perfectionism

	Adaptive	Maladaptive	Total
Non-Achievement Striving	35.31 (4.47) 16	32.57 (6.04) 23	33.69 (5.56) 39
Achievement Striving	40.68 (4.47) 22	41.12 (7.15) 17	40.87 (5.72) 39
Total	38.42 (5.17) 38	36.20 (7.74) 40	

Table 5

Summary of Means, Standard Deviations, and Cell Sizes of Negative Affect for Achievement Striving and Perfectionism

	Adaptive	Maladaptive	Total
Non-Achievement Striving	20.13 (4.16) 16	27.87 (8.65) 23	24.69 (8.07) 39
Achievement Striving	20.41 (5.44) 22	22.94 (6.95) 17	21.51 (6.19) 39
Total	20.29 (4.88) 38	25.78 (8.25) 40	

CHAPTER 4

DISCUSSION

Previous research in the area of subjective well-being (SWB), achievement striving, and perfectionism has demonstrated numerous significant findings. For example, Type A behavior pattern, which contains an achievement striving component, is detrimental to the physical and mental well-being of individuals (e.g., Rosenman et al., 1988). Furthermore, perfectionism has been linked to numerous mental health disorders, such as depression (Adkins & Parker, 1996; Hamachek, 1978; Lynd-Stevenson & Hearne, 1999). Paradoxically, achievement striving and perfectionism are associated with success, accomplishment, and subjective well-being. The results of the current study may clarify the relationship between subjective well-being and those who continually strive for achievement and excellence.

Hypothesis 1

Achievement striving individuals demonstrate a tendency to set high performance goals, prefer to partake in tasks that require effort, and aspire to academic and career success (e.g., Ward & Eisler, 1987). Similarly, perfectionists tend to thrive for excellence and are impelled to achieve in order to gain positive consequences (Adkins & Parker, 1996). Given the later state of affairs, Hypothesis 1 was achievement strivers tend to be perfectionists. This prediction was supported in the results of the current investigation. Those who reported higher levels of achievement striving tendencies also tended to report higher levels of perfectionistic tendencies toward the self. This finding corroborates Flett et al's. (1994) study that reported a significant positive correlation between achievement striving scores and self-oriented perfectionism scores. Specifically, those who strive for

achievement tend to set high personal standards and rigorously evaluate their own behavior, as indicative of self-oriented perfectionists.

Hypothesis 2

If achievement strivers tend to experience more academic and career success and involve themselves in tasks that require effort (Ward & Eisler, 1987), and if SWB depends on knowing one's quality of work and frequency of involvement in challenging tasks (Csikszentimihalyi, 1999), then achievement strivers should report higher levels of SWB. This hypothesis was supported by the current data. Specifically, achievement strivers reported higher levels of happiness when compared to their non-achieving counterparts. Furthermore, achievement strivers reported higher levels of satisfaction with life and positive affect.

Given happiness, satisfaction with life, and positive affect are essential parts of the equation for SWB, one can conclude that achievement strivers experience higher levels of SWB. This finding is supported in light of Emmons and Diener (1985) who found that setting meaningful goals and working to achieve those goals were predictors of SWB. Csikszentimihalyi (1990) also contended that elevated positive moods more frequently occurred when participants were involved in challenging tasks. Hence, one may suggest that individuals who are in search of higher levels of subjective well-being set goals and work toward achieving those goals. Furthermore, these goals should be challenging, with one continually evaluating their meaningfulness.

Hypotheses 3 and 4

Given achievement strivers tend to be perfectionists and also tend to report higher levels of SWB, adaptive perfectionists, relative to maladaptive perfectionists (i.e., those

who strive to live up to others' expectations), might also report higher levels of SWB. This hypothesis was partially supported by the current investigation. Concisely, adaptive perfectionists tended to report higher levels of happiness, an essential component of subjective well-being. Moreover, adaptive perfectionists also tended to report slightly higher levels of satisfaction with life and positive affect. Conceivably, individuals who do not strive for perfectionism in order to live up to others' expectations may be more content and secure with themselves, therefore experiencing higher levels of happiness.

Of particular interest was the finding that non-achieving, maladaptive perfectionists reported lower levels of life satisfaction. Non-achieving, maladaptive perfectionists are conceivably defined as individuals who do not consider themselves achievement strivers, yet tend to strive for perfectionism when attempting to live up to others' expectations. Those individuals who do not consider themselves achievement strivers, but strive to live up to others' expectations may be experiencing cognitive dissonance. That is, their perception of themselves (non-achievement striver) conflicts with their behavior (striving for perfectionism). Lower levels of life satisfaction may be the result of the previously mentioned state of affairs. In partial support of these results, Lynd-Stevenson and Hearne (1999) reported that maladaptive perfectionists are in fact predisposed to depression. Correspondingly, Bluen et al. (1990) found that the achievement striving component of the Type A behavior pattern was unrelated to depression.

Hypothesis 4 tested the latter finding, which suggests non-achieving maladaptive perfectionists tend to report lower levels of life satisfaction. That is, maladaptive perfectionists should experience higher levels of negative affect, and in turn lower levels

of SWB. Results directly support this contention, showing that maladaptive perfectionists reported higher levels of negative affect and slightly lower levels of satisfaction with life, happiness, and positive affect. This prediction has been supported by previous findings that suggest maladaptive perfectionists are predisposed to depression, a state characterized by higher levels of negative affect (e.g., Adkins & Parker, 1996; Hamachek, 1978; Lynd-Stevenson & Hearne, 1999).

Those individuals who continually strive to meet the expectations' of others' (maladaptive perfectionists) may be putting their own needs on hold; hence, experiencing higher levels of negative affect. Furthermore, Mongrain and Zuroff (1995) reported that persons who are self-critical report lower levels of positive affect. Perhaps maladaptive perfectionists, those who strive to meet others' expectations, do so in order to contest doubts they have about their own abilities through positive feedback from others. These findings could provide a framework for those in the clinical field. More specifically, mental health professionals may need to look at the motivation behind perfectionistic tendencies (e.g., trying to please others) and build a treatment plan around modification of the cognitive processes behind these tendencies.

Implications

Given that research has primarily focused on the negative consequences of the previously mentioned behaviors, it is important to reverse this trend and determine positive consequences. This broadening of scope is consistent with psychology's current expansion of its focus on disease (i.e., the negative consequences of human behavior) to include more positive aspects of human behavior, a trend referred to as positive

psychology. In short, the current investigation complements this newfound emphasis in the psychological community.

Additionally, the importance of this research can be seen at the clinical level. For decades, happiness has been looked on as the ultimate goal of life, yet this goal has eluded many people. Consequentially, these individuals often turn to psychiatrists and/or therapists for assistance. Being cognizant of the possibility that achievement strivers and adaptive perfectionists tend to experience higher levels of subjective well-being and that maladaptive perfectionists tend to experience higher levels of negative affect will assist therapists in developing appropriate treatment plans, therefore providing assistance to individuals in their pursuit of subjective well-being.

Limitations and Future Research

Over the past decade, researchers have attempted to determine why and how persons experience their lives in a positive manner. This study contributes to that ongoing task. However, certain aspects of this study need further investigation. As mentioned in the introduction, data clarifying the relationships among the achievement striving subset of Type A behavior pattern, perfectionism and subjective well-being was not readily available in the literature. This deficit points to the need for studies to investigate the (a) characteristics of persons who report high levels of the achievement striving subset of the Type A behavior pattern, (b) positive consequences of adaptive perfectionism, and (c) the relation between these characteristics and subjective well-being.

Other limitations in the present study that are worthy of further investigation are the high percentage of college freshman (58.9%) and the large number of participants between the ages of 18 and 23 (85.6%). These percentages limit the possibility of

generalization to other populations, specifically working class adults over the age of 23. Furthermore, the predominance of college freshman in the sample might have lead to higher, or lower, scores on the subjective well-being scales and other measurements in this study due to the transition from home to college.

Research on SWB complements the "times" our society currently experiences. Specifically, it is becoming more obvious that our culture has turned to exterior possessions in an attempt to increase the feeling of happiness. However, William Cowper (as cited in Myers, 2000) seemed to be correct when he stated "Happiness depends, as Nature shows, less on exterior things than most suppose" (p. 65). In order to achieve the scientific pursuit of happiness, researchers must continue to investigate the many personality and lifestyle facets that influence the construct of subjective well-being.

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Appendix A

Informed Consent Document

Read this consent form. If you have any questions ask the experimenter and she will answer the question.

The Department of Psychology and Special Education supports the practice of human subjects participating in research and related activities. The following is provided so that you can decided whether you wish to participate in the present study. You should be aware that even if you agree to participate, you are free to withdraw at any time, and that if you do withdraw from the study, you will not be subjected to reprimand or any other form of reproach.

In order to help determine certain aspects of personality you are being asked to complete a packet of surveys. All participants will remain anonymous. The procedure will take approximately twenty minutes.

"I have read the above statement and have been fully advised of the procedures to be used in this project. I have been given sufficient opportunity to ask any questions I had concerning the procedures and possible risks involved. I understand the potential risks involved and I assume them voluntarily. I likewise understand that I can withdraw from the study at any time without being subjected to reproach."

_____ _____

Participant Signature Date

Appendix B

Directions: Provide the requested information.

1. Age _____

2. Gender (circle one):

   Male Female

3. School Classification (circle one):

   Freshman Sophomore Junior Senior

4. Indicate how you currently feel by circling the number which best reflects your current mood state.

   1 – Very Sad
   2 – Sad
   3 – A Little Sad
   4 – Neutral
   5 – A Little Happy
   6 – Happy
   7 – Very Happy

5. GPA (Grade Point Average) _____

6. Below, list the grades you made in your courses last semester (please do not include the course name)

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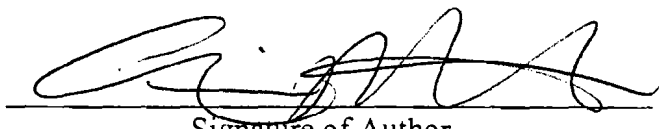

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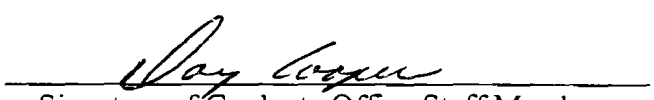

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