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ISBN

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Publication Date

2022

Peer reviewed

Chapter 2

Fear of making mistakes and perfectionism in adolescents: how much of it leads to an aggressive response to others?

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HIGHLIGHT

1. Having or developing high levels of perfectionism leads to living with outward-oriented aspects in both performance and personal efficacy, as well as in relationships with others.

2. Emergence of fears about the social relevance of the relationships (e.g., fear of failing others, fear of not being trusted), could a mediating element in the emergence aggressive responses.

3. Perfectionism reflected will vary in one way or another the self-esteem, the maladaptive processes (e.g., doubts, ruminations or worries, anguish) and consequently the behavior expressed in social relationships.

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ABSTRACT

For years, one of the areas of study of many researchers has been social relationships. It is clear that we are social beings and live in a completely social world, relating and communicating continuously with other people, and these connections involve a multitude of factors that determine our behavior. While it is true that there are many lines of study of very wide variety, there are some that focus on internal factors of the individual such as perfectionism (Fletcher & Shim, 2019; Öngen, 2009; Taylor et al., 2016). Although it is a less studied link, there are data showing the association between certain levels of perfectionism with aggressive responses in social relationships, whether with authorities, parents or peers (Lacunza et al., 2019). When investigating this relationship, it is worth highlighting the importance of these determinants in the way we relate to others, the influence of certain internal factors and the processes that occur to carry out the aggressive or non-aggressive behavior of a person in his or her social context. Recent studies with samples of Spanish youth (Vicent et al., 2018), based on the 2x2 Dispositional Perfectionism Model (Gaudreau & Thompson, 2010) indicate that high levels of aggressiveness (anger, hostility, and verbal and physical aggression) are strongly related to mixed perfectionism, with the combination of both being the most maladaptive. The present study explore the relationships between perfectionism, self-esteem and fear of failing others in a sample of 230 young (148 girls and 82 boys) university students (20.7 years; SD = 2.63). Perfectionism, fear of failure, aggressiveness and self-esteem was applicated. Results concluded that girls show greater scores in perfectionism, fear of failure while boys showed greater scores on self-esteem and aggressive behavior,

INTRODUCTION

For years, one of the areas of study of many researchers has been social relationships. It is clear that we are social beings and live in a completely social world, relating and communicating continuously with other people, and these connections involve a multitude of factors that determine our behavior. While it is true that there are many lines of study of very wide variety, there are some that focus on internal factors of the individual such as perfectionism (Fletcher & Shim, 2019; Öngen, 2009; Taylor et al., 2016).

Its role in social relationships is the subject of interest of many researchers, who have reported its relationship with stress mediating also self-esteem and coping (Park et al., 2010) and with the individual's mental health in general (DiBartolo & Rendón, 2012).

Although it is a less studied linkage, there are data that highlight the association between certain levels of perfectionism with aggressive responses in social relationships, whether with authorities, parents or peers (Lacunza et al., 2019). Inquiring into this relationship, it is worth highlighting the importance of these determinants in the way of relating to others, the influence of certain internal factors and the processes that occur to carry out the aggressive or non-aggressive behavior of a person in his or her social context.

School and university contexts, which facilitate much of the peer interactions, influence the development of adolescent identity through learning processes and social relationships (Espelage, et al., 2016; Gibbons, & Poelker, 2019; Krahé et al., 2011), as well as through the promotion and regulation of prosocial behaviors and reasoning (direct and indirect) (Carlo et al. , 2007). However, the increasingly competitive nature of the academic environment (Karayagiz et al., 2017) fosters processes such as social comparison (Zaky, 2017), aggressiveness (Dick, 2017), discrimination (Coffman, 2014) or bullying (Jan & Husain, 2015) among peers, different gender peers and authority figures (teachers, parents, etc.).

Aggressive behavior is a general response to circumstances such as defensiveness (Corr, 2013), academic ambition (Zach et al., 2016), dark personality traits (Thomaes et al., 2008) or negative self-concept (Jia et al., 2016). Both contextual and individual perspectives argue that in childhood some children and adolescents are more aggressive than others with the modulation of some factors (McAra & McVie, 2016). For example, while exposure to violence is a risk factor (Orue and Calvete, 2010), honesty (Gázquez-Linares et al., 2015; Volk et al., 2018) and resilience (Harms et al., 2018) are protective factors that reduce bullying.

During the last 30 years, studies on perfectionism have uncovered several theories and models on its development, effectiveness, functionality and influence on human relationships, being initially described as a single transdiagnostic trait (present in different disordered patterns of thinking; e.g., anxiety, mental rigidity,...). Some of the models have become obsolete, however the more modern ones provide a great deal of descriptive utility and implication, both theoretical and practical. Although they all agree on its multidimensional nature (Frost et al., 1990; Flett & Hewitt, 1991),

researchers still disagree on the organization of the various components that make it up, which according to their interaction can give rise to different classifications of the term, allowing functional processes that lead to behaviors with greater or lesser level of personal and social adaptation.

Frost's Multidimensional Model of Perfectionism (1990): following the line of the multidimensional construct of perfectionism, Frost makes a distinction in 6 most relevant aspects of perfectionism, considering concern about mistakes (overreaction to failures), personal standard (imposing too high demands on oneself), parental expectations (belief that parents will not approve/accept him/her if certain minimums are not met), parental criticism (perception of high parental criticism), doubts about actions (questioning the quality of one's actions, without reaching complete satisfaction) and organization (excessive preference for order and precision).

Thus, depending on the levels of the different components of perfectionism that predominate, it can be adaptive and functional, so that it benefits the person when performing an activity or acting in context, or it can be maladaptive, impairing the proper functioning in the person's life, and can lead to various consequences such as guilt, depression, low self-esteem, anxiety, inadequate coping strategies (Otto & Stoeber, 2006), social problems, stress or eating disorders (Park et al., 2010).

Flett & Hewitt's (1991) Multidimensional Model of Perfectionism: define the construct of perfectionism in a multidimensional manner categorized into self-oriented perfectionism (high self-imposed, "I must" statements), other-oriented perfectionism (high levels of demands on others), and socially prescribed perfectionism (belief that others expect me to be perfect, but will not accept me). Studies such as the one by Vicent et al. (2018) mentioned above reveal the positive association of, both socially prescribed and self-oriented perfectionism with some forms of aggressiveness, thus justifying the intra- and interpersonal facets of perfectionism. While self-oriented perfectionistic is the way linked with being more prosocial (using interest in others, cared about social norms and others' expectations, preferred affiliative humor), socially prescribed and oriented to others perfectionistic emerge as different forms combining antisocial tendencies with low self-esteem (mainly, showing low self-regard and felt inferior to others) (Stoeber, 2015).

Derived from those proposals, in the first decade of the 20th century some of the most current views appeared, such as the Tripartite Perfectionism Model (Stoeber & Otto, 2006) or the 2x2 Dispositional Perfectionism Model (Gaudreau & Thompson, 2010):

Tripartite Perfectionism Model (Otto & Stoeber, 2006): three categories are differentiated taking into account the dimensions of perfectionist concerns and efforts, being healthy perfectionism (high efforts and low perfectionist concern), unhealthy perfectionism (both efforts and high perfectionist concerns are maladaptive) and non-perfectionism (low levels of both effort and perfectionist concern).

2x2 Model of Dispositional Perfectionism (Gaudreau & Thompson, 2010): combines evaluative concerns and personal standards of perfectionism, resulting in 4 types of perfectionists: non-perfectionism (low concerns and few personal standards), pure perfectionism of evaluative concerns (high evaluative concerns and a low personal standards; results in maladaptive (Reeve & Jang, 2006)), pure perfectionism of personal standard (high self-imposed personal standards and a low evaluative concerns, the most adaptive of all) and mixed perfectionism (high levels of both personal standard and evaluative concerns). In a recent study with Spanish children and adolescents, Vicent et al. (2018) point out that high levels of aggressiveness (anger, hostility, and verbal and physical aggression) are strongly related to mixed perfectionism, with the combination of both becoming the most maladaptive. The most aggressive behaviors are much more related to evaluative concern perfectionism (more linked to perceived external pressures) than to personal standards perfectionism (more oriented to self-impositions).

Triggers of social disconnection

One possible factor explaining aggressiveness is perfectionism. Models such as the Perfectionism Social Disconnection (PSDM) (Hewitt et al. , 2017), the Perfectionism Social Reaction (Flett et al., 2016), or the Multidimensional Model of Perfectionism (Frost et al., 1990) have shown that perfectionism may entail difficulties in establishing a social goal and having adequate social relationships, which may be a source of vulnerability during adolescence (García-Fernández et al., 2017). Despite this, the links between aggressive behavior and perfectionism in educational contexts (where the relevance of social comparison, or the evaluation of successes versus failures may be dominant), has not been systematically investigated (Tarasova et al., 2016).

In the school context, for example, perfectionism entails the estimation of academic achievement and the perceived competence to achieve it, and interferes with the understanding of peer relationships (e.g., cooperation vs. dependence) (Allgaier et al., 2015) or authority figures (e.g., teachers), turning educational competitiveness into a willingness to strive to meet standards of excellence under social evaluation processes (Chen et al., 2019;

Deshpandé et al., 2012) or triggered by external influences from parents, teachers or peers (Harvey et al., 2015). The scientific literature points to the existence of functional versus dysfunctional patterns in the definitions of perfectionism (Frost et al., 1990; Cowie et al., 2018).

Within contexts that naturalize violence, dysfunctional perfectionist patterns favor the emergence of antisocial behaviors and attitudes (Barnett and Johnson, 2016) that can lead to social stigmatization, which in turn can interfere with socioeducational adjustment. This lack of adjustment may translate into more aggressive responses (e.g., in the case of a youth with a disability). On the other hand, adequate adjustment can lead to the use of conflict resolution strategies vs bullying, popularity, trust groups (Jang & Pak, 2017; Rubin et al., 2017), as well as the use of prosocial resources and greater possibilities for cooperation, facilitating psychological adjustment for maturation and the implementation of individual resources (Benita et al., 2017; Spinrad & Gal, 2018).

Predominantly, people will tend to be perfectionists especially in the field of academic and social work or in the performance of some skill (e.g., sports, artistic activity) under patterns oriented to demand and devaluation (see Figure 1). This can affect by reducing learning effectiveness and behavioral efficiency, being the prelude to disruptive elements such as difficulty in emotional adjustment, cognitive skills (e.g., concentration or decision making), relationships with peers or authority environments, inattention or procrastination. On the other hand, it also entails a high cost of disconnection from one context to another, resulting in the constant occurrence of rumination and physical and psychological discomfort (Stoeber & Damian, 2016).
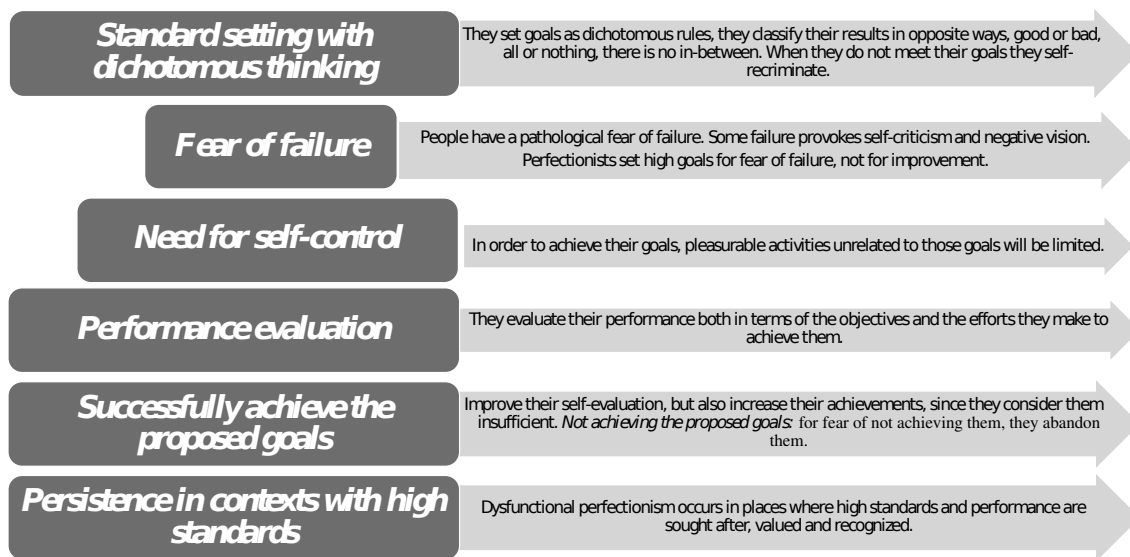
Standard setting with dichotomous thinking	They set goals as dichotomous rules, they classify their results in opposite ways, good or bad, all or nothing, there is no in-between. When they do not meet their goals they self-recriminate.
Fear of failure	People have a pathological fear of failure. Some failure provokes self-criticism and negative vision. Perfectionists set high goals for fear of failure, not for improvement.
Need for self-control	In order to achieve their goals, pleasurable activities unrelated to those goals will be limited.
Performance evaluation	They evaluate their performance both in terms of the objectives and the efforts they make to achieve them.
Successfully achieve the proposed goals	Improve their self-evaluation, but also increase their achievements, since they consider them insufficient. *Not achieving the proposed goals:* for fear of not achieving them, they abandon them.
Persistence in contexts with high standards	Dysfunctional perfectionism occurs in places where high standards and performance are sought after, valued and recognized.

Figure 1. Factors that maintain perfectionism

Perfectionism, social relations and tendency to aggressiveness among peers

This construct of perfectionism that we have been talking about is crucial when relating to others in certain environments, as it influences the way we behave and perceive our social relationships. The different levels of the 6 dimensions described by Frost in his model are also combined with other internal psychological processes that determine our behavior. Some act as moderators in subsequent negative emotional responses, such as fear of failure, as highlighted by Pineda-Espejel et al. (2019) in their study with perfectionist athletes, specifically interpersonal perfectionism, or Elison & Partridge (2012) relating maladaptive perfectionism and fear of failure in college athletes.

The influence of other factors that play an important role in behavior has thus been proven, which is why in recent years the relationship between perfectionism and different internal mental processes that may intervene has been investigated, in order to find out how these variables that give rise to certain behavioral responses of people (e.g., fear of failure) are associated, establishing cause and consequence, which moderates one or another variable and the degree of influence of these (van der Helm et al., 2011).

In this way, several investigations have found an important psychological process that influences the way in which we relate to others, perceive our social relationships, ourselves and our environment in general. For many years, self-esteem has been studied in different fields of psychology, and its role in moderating behavior in countless contexts of daily life (e.g., academic, work, sports, social, etc.) has been demonstrated.

Studies such as Park et al. (2010) investigated the effects of self-esteem and its relationship with perfectionism, and found that it is a more complex connection than is apparent. These internal processes can result in poor emotional management that can lead to negative and dysfunctional emotions, and it is also very common to observe frustration, impulsivity, stress, etc., which can consequently manifest itself through aggressive behavioral responses, resulting in aggressive behavior (physical, verbal or psychological).

At this point, it is worth distinguishing more specific aspects of each of the factors mentioned. Thus, regarding perfectionism, different associated patterns have been discussed either as a trait or a cognition. Several authors used it in their research as a personality trait (Caputto et al., 2015; García-Fernández et al, 2016) being able to differentiate between adaptive and maladaptive, however, others (Oros, 2013; Roselló & Maysonet, 2016) gave it a more cognitive application coming to affirm that it is a thought learned by different environmental influences.

Results of various research studies have supported both patterns. We can speak of perfectionism as a trait, so that this excessive desire to achieve success, constant worries, high standards, perfectionist efforts, give rise to a certain degree of frustration after not achieving the imposed demands, so it influences the self-esteem of the person modifying the value and concept of oneself.

On the other hand, taking into account a more cognitive application, perfectionist thoughts are influenced by external patterns (either people or the context itself), so that the levels of self-esteem that the person has are determinant in establishing their perfectionist behavior patterns. Thus, according to the different views of the constructs, it can be stated that both influence each other.

Other researchers, such as Helguera and Oros (2018), noted that Argentine university students presented levels of adaptive perfectionism along with higher self-esteem, although as has been found in other previous studies, self-

esteem levels varied differently depending on the dimension of perfectionism on which we focus.

Self-esteem and fear of failing others as mediating elements in social relationships.

Psychological research has considered that high or low self-esteem is an element present in the development of personality and the capacity to show/learn adaptive or maladaptive behaviors in social relationships. For example, low self-esteem has been described within the frustrating individual response leading to aggressive behavior (Donnellan et al., 2005), while high self-esteem has been linked to greater kindness and prosocial behaviors (Zuffianò et al., 2014; Fu et al., 2017).

Social life, mainly with peers or circles of trust, is an opportunity to demonstrate both competence and skill in relationships and expressions of self. The adolescent develops a selective search for referents, through psychosocial processes such as rivaling or defining personal and social goals, with which to build his or her identity. Throughout this evolutionary task, the logical inefficiency or social incompetence of the novice, until now under the norms and criteria of the family, together with other elements of the evolutionary stage (e.g., impulsivity or interest in more immediate rewards, experiencing multiple and new sensations, social dependence, acceptance, popularity), draws in adolescent cognitions elements that pay attention to the need not to fail others or the appearance of the feeling of shame.

The developmental process in adolescence has been associated in the scientific literature towards stereotyped behavioral patterns such as rebelliousness, instability or conflict (Casco & Oliva, 2005; Liau, 2007), search for autonomy (Cid et al, 2013; Mayseless & Scharf, 2007, Zacarés et al., 2009), selfishness (Baker & Palmer, 2006; Gardner et al., 2008), or risk-taking behaviors (Freitas-Rosa et al., 2015; Ratcliff et al., 2011). In such a way, the lifestyle developed by the adolescent is greatly influenced by the goal typology present (López-Mora et al., 2017).

Such processes, characteristic of adolescence, lead to a certain degree of insecurity, anxiety or stress and avoidance behaviors (due to what others may say or think), especially in the most intimate relationships, thus causing either a decrease in social relationships or the generation of conflictive relationships. The fear of failing the closest people appears when the adolescent allows others to be responsible for controlling his or her behavior, seeking their approval and/or fearing disapproval (Carlo et al., 1996; Silke et al., 2018). According to Conroy et al. (2007) and Sagar et al. (2007), this

emotion appears in childhood and is positively associated with the age of the athlete. Therefore, failure in itself, would not have negative connotations if it were not for the valuation of others and the aversive consequences experienced by the athlete on his or her self-esteem.

As a consequence of this fear of failing others, the person feels less competent and tries to avoid situations of achievement (Nicholls, 1989), generating excuses for not performing tasks in the short term (making it very difficult to protect their self-esteem), but which in the long term will have a negative impact on their state of health and well-being and consequently on their level of competence, mood and intrinsic motivation (Zuckerman & Tsai, 2005).

A review of the literature reveals the influence of self-esteem as an internal process for preconceived ideas about the social relationship, associated with meeting norms, standards and lifestyles within an already predetermined social functioning (Collins & Strelan, 2021). Although the association between the two processes is clear, contradictions remain as to which influences which, i.e., whether it is perfectionism that causes self-esteem to vary, or whether it is self-esteem that determines the different levels of perfectionism that appear in social relationships (Hall et al., 2009; Deuling & Burns, 2017).

According to the above, we can clearly define two styles of harassment:

Direct Harassment. It is the most detectable style, since it is carried out through clear actions that can be of two types: Physical or Verbal.

Indirect harassment. Indirect harassment is the one that can have the greatest psychological impact on the victim, with behaviors such as social isolation and, more seriously, social exclusion.

Direct Physical Harassment	Direct Verbal Harassment
• Open attacks on the victim • Physical assaults (tripping, ball-busting, deliberate fouls, pushing, etc.) • Invading the victim's personal space • Hazing (egging, taking clothes off in the showers, etc.)	• Nicknames and nicknames with the objective of belittling the victim (pack, blanket, bad, bad guy, etc.). • Teasing and taunting • Extortions • Blackmail • Hazing (taunts and nicknames)

Indirect Harassment
• Social Isolation • Social exclusion (victims are purposely removed from groups on the team). Most difficult behavior to report • Stalking outside the sporting arena • Dissemination of derogatory and insulting stories • Comments to others about the victim • Phone calls • Insulting messages • Graffiti on lockers

Figure 2. Types of harassment in social relationships

The present study

With the purpose of establishing connections between the emergence of perfectionist patterns and aggressive peer response, the present work aims to contemplate the mediation exerted by both self-esteem and fear of failing others in a sample of young adults (university students). It is expected that those young adults with high self-esteem and low fear of failure will be positively related to a low aggressive response for those perfectionist profiles that are more self-oriented and socially prescribed, whereas those profiles that are more other-oriented will show higher aggressive responses.

METHODS

Participants and procedure

A sample of 230 young adult Spanish university students between 18 and 23 years of age was reached, with a mean age of 20.7 years (SD = 2.63). The gender distribution was 148 girls (65%) and 82 boys (35%).

Data collection and analysis was performed between 2019 and 2020, using the Google Forms platform. Different academic (announcements on the study platform, university mass mailing) and general (social networks) channels were used for recruitment. At the start of data collection, participants were informed of the objectives of the study, the voluntary nature of participation and the absolute freedom to leave the study at any time. Moreover, the informed consent included the form of contact with the researchers and the commitment to confidentiality and anonymity of the participants, as well as the methodological rigor of the information provided. The questionnaires, submitted randomly, complied with the provisions of the approval of the ethics committee of the University of Granada 1726/CEIH/2020 .

Measures

Physical and verbal aggression. For the measurement of this variable we used the Physical and Verbal Aggression Questionnaire (AFV; Del Barrio, Moreno and López, 2001), which consists of 20 items that present typical situations that can occur in daily life, 5 of which function as controls that are not computed in the results. These items describe both physical and verbal aggressive behaviors, accompanied by a Likert-type graduated scale in three levels of frequency: (3) "often"; (2) "sometimes"; (1) "never". The scale provides a total aggression score and three factor scores: physical aggression, verbal aggression and control of aggressive behavior. The internal consistency of the questionnaire has been shown to be high, with a Cronbach's alpha of 0.80 (see Table 1).

Fear of failure. The Performance Failure Assessment Inventory (PFAI) (Conroy et al., 2002), in its version adapted to Spanish by Moreno-Murcia and Conte (2011), is used. Headed by the phrase "In my social relationships.....", the scale includes 25 items grouped into five dimensions: (a) fear of experiencing embarrassment (e.g., "When I am failing, *it is embarrassing if others are there to see it"*), (b) fear of devaluing their own self-esteem (e.g., "When I am failing, *it is often because I am not smart enough to perform successfully"), (c) fear* of having an uncertain future (e.g.., "When I am failing*, I think my plans for the future will change"), d)* Fear that significant others will lose interest (e.g., *"When I am not successful, some people are no longer interested in me"*), and, d) Fear of upsetting significant others (e.g., *"When I am failing, significant others are disappointed"*). Responses were collected on a Likert-type scale, ranging from (1) not

believing at all to (5) believing 100% of the time. In addition, a second-order factor (Fear of failure) is set as the mean of the first-order factors. All scales show very considerable internal consistency (see Table 1).

Perfectionism. The Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale (MPS) by Hewitt and Flett (1991) in its Spanish version adapted by Campayo et al. (2009), is a measurement instrument composed of 45 items that describes three subscales or essential components of perfectionist behavior: a) self-oriented perfectionism (PSO; *"I always demand perfection from myself"*); b) socially prescribed perfectionism (PSP; *"I have difficulty meeting the expectations that others have of me"*), and c) perfectionism oriented to others (POO; *"I rarely criticize my friends, when they conform they conform with low quality"*). The questionnaire consists of a Likert-type scale with seven response options referring to personal characteristics or traits, where value 1 represents a degree of total disagreement and value 7 a degree of total agreement. All the scales show very considerable internal consistency (see Table 1).

Self-esteem. The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSS) adapted and validated by Vázquez-Morejón et al. (2004) was applied to the Spanish population for the global measurement of self-esteem based on the original Rosenberg scale (EAR; 1973). This scale consists of ten items (e.g., "I feel I am as valuable a person as others", "I would like to have more respect for myself"). Participants scored their level of agreement with each item using a Likert scale and four alternatives ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 4 (strongly agree). Cronbach's alpha for this sample was .87.

Data analysis

Statistical analysis included descriptive statistics (mean and standard deviation), differential analysis by gender and specialty (t-tests), sampling distribution (Kolmogorov-Smirnov) and correlational analysis using Pearson's Chi-Square coefficient (SPSS. 25. IBM statistical program). Structural equation modeling was used to test the hypothesized models with the AMOS program. 25 (IBM statistical program). Based on the observed variables, the robust maximum likelihood estimation method is used, and Pearson correlation matrices are used as input. To assess the fit between the proposed theoretical models and the collected data matrix, the goodness-of-fit indices described for CFAs were used: X^2, X^2/gl, NFI, CFI and RMSEA (Byrne, 2016; Muthén & Muthén, 2010).

RESULTS

Descriptive and differential data

In the mean difference test (Table 1), it can be seen that girls show significantly higher differences in PSP (d = . 43) and POO (d = . 39) for perfectionism, and in shame (d = . 37), devaluation (d = . 51), fear of the future (d = . 27), fear of failure (d = . 32), while boys report higher significant differences in self-esteem (d = . 48) and aggressive behavior (d = . 51).

Table 1. Mean difference t-test, according to the sex of the participants

N = 230	α	Female n = 148 M(SD)	Male n = 82 M(SD)	F	Sig.	t	p
PSO	.90	2.25(.84)	2.35(.88)	1.56	.21	-.60	.55
PSP	.80	3.68(.78)	2.97(.73)	.08	.78	1.48	.02**
POO	.70	3.14(.76)	2.85(.78)	.81	.37	2.09	.01**
Shame	.76	3.21(.99)	2.78(.98)	.08	.78	1.18	.01**
Devaluation	.84	3.50(.88)	2.86(.93)	.39	.54	1.94	.01**
Fear of the future	.82	3.01(.81)	2.74(.76)	.09	.77	1.02	.01**
Losing interest of others	.87	3.63(.80)	1.97(.87)	.65	.42	2.09	.00*
Disturbing others	.79.	2.69(.81)	2.85(.88)	.69	.41	-.98	.33
Fear of failure	.91	3.86(.87)	3.24(.89)	.18	.67	1.03	.01**
Self-esteem	.87	2.69(.86)	3.02(.99)	3.25	.07	-1.17	.03*
Agressive behavior	.81	1.03(.04)	1.56(.78)	4.01	.63	-1.35	.02*

*$p < .05$; **$p < .01$; PSO: Self-oriented perfectionism; PSP: Socially prescribed perfectionism; POO: Oriented to others perfectionsm*

Relational analysis

The correlation matrix (see in table 2) shows that as PSO and PSP patterns are higher, self-esteem increases significantly (< .01). Thus, both when the person self-imposes or pursues what is socially pre-scripted, he/she experiences an increase in self-esteem, also corresponding to an increase in age (< .02). On the other hand, the most dysfunctional perfectionist pattern (POO) is negatively connected with self-esteem (p = .00), showing no significant link with age. On the other hand, those who are self-directed towards objective standards of demand show inverse and significant links with aggressive behaviors (= .00) and fear of failure in general (= .00). Conversely, both PSP and POO show positive and significant relationships with aggressive behavior (= .00; < .01) and fear of failure in general (= .00; = .00).

14

Table 2. Correlations between perfectionism patterns, fear of failure dimensions, and self-esteem.

N = 230		Range	M(DT)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.	Age	18-23	20.70(2.63)	-	-. 56	. -48**	-.21	-.14	-. 43**	-.11
2.	PSO	1-5	2.31(.86)		-	-.14	.01	-. 52**	. 47*	-. 45*
3.	PSP	1-5	2.69(.88)			-	.62**	.50**	-. 54**	. 48**
4.	POO	1-5	2.02(.83)				-	.38**	-. 48**	. 57**
5.	Fear of failure	1-5	1.89(.87)					-	-.61**	.32**
6.	Self-esteem	1-10	6.78(2.04)						-	-.63**
7.	Aggressive behavior	1-3	1.26(.72)							-

*$p < .05$; **$p < .01$; PSO: Self-oriented perfectionism; PSP: Society-oriented perfectionism; POO: Other-oriented perfectionism*

Trajectory analysis of the main model

Path analysis with the observed variables was performed using the maximum likelihood estimation method in AMOS version 25 (Byrne, 2016). A model was run (see Figure 3) testing the direct path between patterns of perfectionism, fear of failure, self-esteem, and aggressive behavior. Error variances were allowed to correlate with each other, and the indirect pathway between the pattern of perfectionism and aggressive behavior through fear of failure and self-esteem was tested. Finally, the effect of gender and age was controlled for in order to achieve the highest levels of reliability of the results.

A multigroup analysis was performed to examine differences in the trajectory model between men and women. An incremental chi-square and incremental NFI test were performed to examine whether there was a significant change between a restricted (i.e., gender) and an unrestricted model for different levels of the moderator variables (Muthén & Muthén, 2010). The unrestricted model ($\chi^2 = 29.17$, df = 18, p > .05; CFI = 1.00; RMSEA = .06; parsimony-adjusted measures [PCFI] = .45) and the restricted model ($\chi^2 = 31. 05$, df = 25, p > .06; CFI = . 08; RMSEA = . 03; PCFI = .43) were not significantly different, $\Delta\chi2(3) = .96$, p > .86; ΔNIF = . 00. Therefore, the principal path analysis was performed using the full pooled sample. The model fitted acceptably for all participants (χ^2/DF = 2.05 p = .24; CFI = .97; RMSEA = .04).
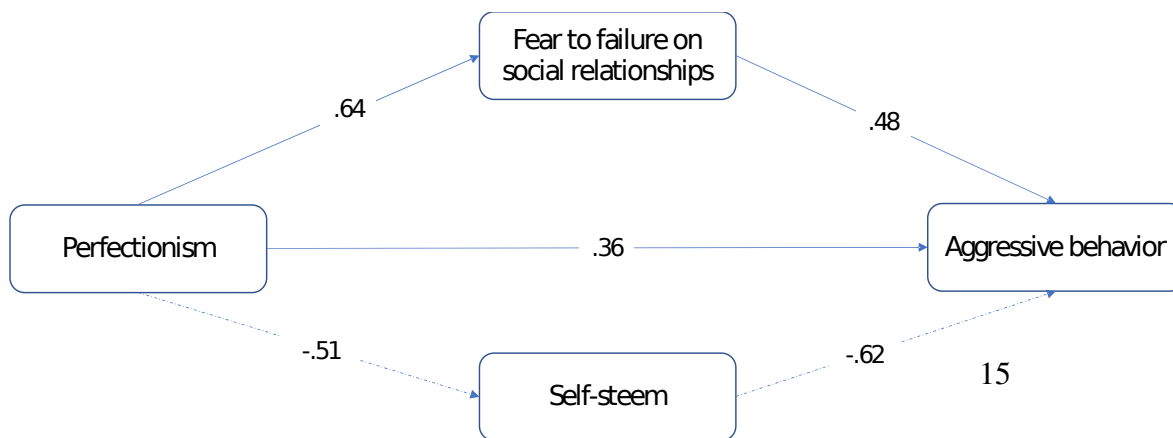

15

Figure 3. Model relating perfectionism, fear of failure, self-esteem and aggressive behavior to social relationships.

The resulting model showed that perfectionism predicted aggressive behavior (< .02) in a direct way, increasing the effect through fear of failure in social relationships (= .00). In another order, inverse relationships appeared between perfectionism and aggressive behaviors, through the mediation of self-esteem (< .02).

DISCUSSION

Although it is true that perfectionism and aggressive behavior interact with each directly, other related concepts that influence their effects have been tested. A relationship has been found with a certain degree of management of coping strategies in relation to the appearance of various psychopathological behaviors. While emotional devaluation is a concept to be taken into account in relation to extreme levels of perfectionism, significantly affecting the person's daily life and social relationships (e.g., negative thoughts, fear to connect with other people) is seen as a consequence of people's poor interaction with their environment, and their own perception and interpretation of it moderating the way they behave.

On the other hand, it has been studied how internal processes (e.g., attachment and affect) influence the way in which social relationships are produced (Dunkley et al., 2012). Personal values (linked to feelings of group membership or personal identification) are reflected under expressions of emotional dependence (e.g., friendship motivation, narcissism), and translate into feelings of collectivism or individualism characteristic of certain cultures (Ostrowsky, 2010; Wang et al., 2012).

Other types of associated concepts focus on emotional connection (e.g., loneliness, shame, anger or fear), or the cognitive focus of attachments (e.g., locus of control of actions), both in relation to oneself and to others.

Depending on the type of social relationship maintained, one can speak of aggression among peers, among authorities or parents, etc., depending on the context in which the social bond needs to be established. Peer aggression is one of the most common, and the recurrent attention to the improvement of self-esteem is a maxim in the studies that describe it. In the face of different typologies of social relationships in the university period, the decrease and need to care for self-esteem is defined as highly relevant both in the description of the people who attack and those who are victimized. Examples of this have been found in studies on sentimental or couple relationships (Pazos-Gómez et al., 2014; Viejo et al., 2020), generated by educational contexts (Park et al. , 2010), between siblings (Gamble & Jin-Yu, 2008), in the street (Street et al., 2016; Liu & Kaplan, 2004), even in sport (Stafford, Alexander & Fry, 2013).

*["In modern society, violence is on the rise in our homes, in public places and in what we see through the media. These social changes can influence our values: children become desensitized to violence and it becomes the norm and, for many, a means to an end [...]" (p.18) (*Suckling and Temple, 2006).

While men with perfectionist tendencies show relationships based on more adaptive behaviors (higher academic performance), women maintain relationships focused on both adaptive and maladaptive behaviors (lower self-esteem, higher evaluative concerns...), according to the perfectionist patterns they have built. As suggested by some of the data obtained, they are in line with studies, Taylor et al. (2016) pointed out in a study focused exclusively on women, noting that a high degree of perfectionism of personal standards is associated with higher levels of self-esteem, contrary to those perfectionists focused on evaluative concerns that have a lower self-esteem.

Finally, although to a lesser extent, there have also been studies linked to social behavior and different degrees of perfectionism that have gathered information on physiological responses in the context of relational situations, collecting data on the person's blood pressure and studying its relationship with different behavioral variables.

CONCLUSIONS

During the literature review, different typologies of interactions have been described in terms of perfectionism and social relationships of university students. While it is true that perfectionism is confirmed to influence the way we behave, this relationship is more complex than it appears, since different mediating factors are involved.

Following Hewitt & Flett's (1991) model, the most adaptive or functional perfectionism has been found to be self-oriented perfectionism, linked to less aggressive behavior and greater social skills. In this connection, people tend to have a high self-esteem compared to others, being also a protective factor against various pathological symptomatologies such as anxiety or depression. This contributes to a good social climate in the environment, as these perfectionists tend to actively use positive and functional coping strategies (e.g. , forgiveness, assertiveness and empathy) against maladaptive processes (e.g. , stress, depression, anger,...), showing less aggressive behaviors.

On the contrary, it has been argued throughout studies that in various stressful situations (e.g., choice of studies, studying for exams, or career decisions), those people who are more self-oriented perfectionists present high levels of stress under the influence of avoidant coping strategies (e.g., social isolation, social comparison).
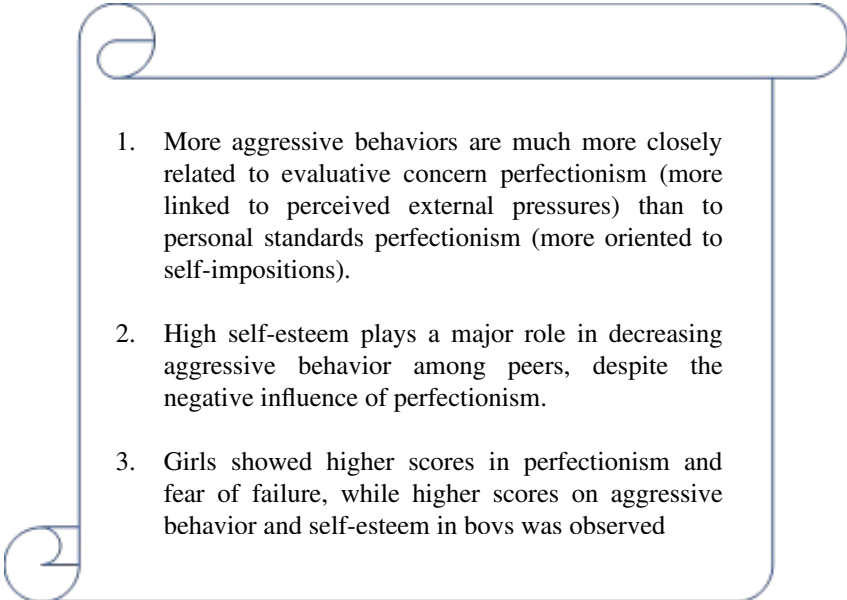
The results show that perfectionists who pursue (and self-impose) the fulfillment of pre-scripted standards in their social contexts of reference are the most maladaptive of all. Being related to high demands and poor psychosocial adjustment will lead to high levels of shame, greater loneliness, lower self-esteem and fear of being negatively evaluated, causing stress and conflictive situations in social relations. They will also provoke a high degree of social disconnection (e.g., review on the Social Disconnection Model of Perfectionism proposed by Hewitt et al., 2006), avoiding those negative social experiences and falling into a destructive feedback loop, building a vicious circle.

At the interpersonal level, they present high degrees of aggressiveness manifested through various forms of hostility (e.g., verbal manipulation, abuse of power, use of force), as well as distrust towards others (Boden et al., 2007). Speaking in relation to high personal standards and high discrepancy, the latter is what differentiates functional perfectionists from non-functional ones, so that a high dissonance between the perceived value of actions and the reality of them leads to *distress*, risk of depression, lower self-esteem, and social conflicts (in family and friendship relationships) (Fanti & Henrich, 2015). Self-view influences shame-induced aggression. Subclinical dark traits such as narcissism in combination with high self-esteem lead to

exceptionally high aggression (Thomaes et al., 2008). Competitive perceptions among peers in their social relationships stimulate shame, if such friendships fail to be prosocially pure.

The configuration of current educational systems (e.g., competency-based models) in any social context, fosters competitive and comparative relationships among adolescents (Martínez et al., 2016), giving rise to relationships of superiority or inferiority with respect to members of a group (Oldehinkel et al., 2007), and to the emergence of violent strategies associated with goal setting and the value assigned to striving for goals (Stoeber et al., 2017; Vicent et al., 2017). Ambivalence shown in the scientific literature on the relationships between self-esteem and aggressive behaviors in youth populations (Fanti & Henrich, 2015; Ostrowsky, 2010), requires further explanation and aspects to be taken into account.

CLOSING

1. More aggressive behaviors are much more closely related to evaluative concern perfectionism (more linked to perceived external pressures) than to personal standards perfectionism (more oriented to self-impositions).

2. High self-esteem plays a major role in decreasing aggressive behavior among peers, despite the negative influence of perfectionism.

3. Girls showed higher scores in perfectionism and fear of failure, while higher scores on aggressive behavior and self-esteem in boys was observed

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