4-22-2024

Parental Expectations for Academic Achievement and Self-Critical Perfectionism in Black Women

Brandy Elizabeth Nichols
Walden University

Walden University

College of Psychology and Community Services

This is to certify that the doctoral dissertation by

Brandy E. Jones Nichols

has been found to be complete and satisfactory in all respects,
and that any and all revisions required by
the review committee have been made.

Review Committee
Dr. Gregory Hickman, Committee Chairperson,
Human and Social Services Faculty

Dr. Jeffrey Harlow, Committee Member,
Human and Social Services Faculty

Chief Academic Officer and Provost
Sue Subocz, Ph.D.

Walden University
2024

Abstract

Parental Expectations for Academic Achievement and Self-Critical Perfectionism in Black Women

by

Brandy E. Jones Nichols

MS, Walden University, 2022

MCSE, University of West Alabama, 2006

BS, University of West Alabama, 2003

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Human Services, Family Studies and Intervention

Walden University

May 2024

Abstract

Black women are diagnosed with depression at exponentially higher rates than their White counterparts, and maladaptive perfectionistic traits such as self-critical perfectionism may be a significant factor in this trend. The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to investigate the potential moderating effect of education level on the relationship between parental expectations for academic achievement and self-critical perfectionism in Black women. A sample of 144 Black women aged 18–50 completed an anonymous survey. Out of the total responses, 96 completed the entire survey. SPSS (Version 28) excluded one case from the analysis, yielding 95 viable cases. Through bivariate and multiple regression analyses, including moderation testing, significant relationships were uncovered between parental expectations for academic achievement and self-critical perfectionism ($F[1,94] = 8.660$, $p = .004$, $R^2 = .075$), as well as between education level and self-critical perfectionism ($F[1,94] = 4.726$, $p = .032$, $R^2 = .038$). However, the anticipated moderating effect of education level on the relationship between parental expectations and self-critical perfectionism did not attain statistical significance ($p = .387$). These findings align with existing literature on maladaptive perfectionism within Asian and Asian American populations, highlighting the impactful role of parental expectations in fostering self-critical perfectionistic traits. The findings could provide key insights into factors behind self-critical perfectionism for parents, educators, and mental health experts, enhancing understanding of mental health challenges and resilience in Black women and leading to improved, culturally competent mental health care strategies.

Parental Expectations for Academic Achievement and Self-Critical Perfectionism in Black Women

by

Brandy E. Jones Nichols

MS, Walden University, 2022

MCSE, University of West Alabama, 2006

BS, University of West Alabama, 2003

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Human Services, Family Studies and Intervention

Walden University

May 2024

Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to the remarkable educators and people who have shaped and guided me throughout all facets of life: To my grandfather, Lewis Charles (LC) Malone, a consummate educator and administrator, whose wisdom and guidance have left an indelible mark on my journey. To Gay McNair, my amazing high school science teacher, who not only nurtured the student in me but also never allowed me to falter in my pursuit of knowledge. In loving memory of the late Deanna Kimbrough and the late Carolyn Smith Gaines, whose unwavering enthusiasm showed me the joy of being a lifelong learner and helped me become the student I am today. In loving memory of my late uncles Douglas George and Duane Drummond, who both helped shape my tenacity and resilience. I miss you both so very much. To my paternal grandmother, Johnnie Mae Clarke, whose encouragement has been a constant source of strength, and to my loudest cheerleader, my maternal grandmother, Elizabeth Nobles, who is always the first and last person to remind me to "get my lesson."

To my husband, Stephen, who has been my unwavering support through every challenge and triumph, your love and belief in me have kept me pushing forward, and to my children, Zach and Christi, whose sacrifices with Mom during their senior year of high school have been deeply appreciated. Your help through stressful days has not gone unnoticed.

This work stands as a tribute to the profound influence each of you has had on my academic and personal journey. Thank you.

Acknowledgments

Thank you to Dr. Gregory Hickman and Dr. Jeffrey Harlow for being such encouraging, helpful, and amazing committee members. To Dr. Nicole Hamilton, thank you so much for jumping in when I was in a pinch! I am forever grateful to you. To the "DissFam," especially Dr. Braxton Morrison, Dr. Darren Stanley, Erica, Ashley, and the newly minted Dr. Tina, you guys have been there for everything, and I cannot thank you enough! To my mentors, Dr. Cassandra Arroyo and Dr. Melissa Bailey, you both helped me believe in myself and my ability to take on such a task as this. There are not enough words to thank you both. To my Big Sis, Dr. Springer, thank you for all of the encouragement. To my parents, Sandra and Calvin; sisters Alexandria, Alexa, and Briana; my mother-in-law, Marcia; my Sorors; and especially my Soror, Kisha Webb, thank you for everything each of you did to keep me encouraged and pushing towards this goal.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Perfectionism is considered the desire to be, or appear to be, perfect (Dobos et al., 2021). Certain people view perfectionism in a positive light. Perfectionism causes people to perform at their highest capacity, overcome adverse situations, and motivate themselves. People who claim to be perfectionists often offer their successes as proof that striving for perfection is beneficial. However, perfection can be adaptive or maladaptive (Kawamoto et al., 2023). Conversations among successful people regarding perfectionism focus on its adaptive aspects, but maladaptive types such as self-critical perfectionism can impact those who deal with its effects.

Self-critical perfectionism is the most commonly recognized maladaptive perfectionistic trait; it describes the unrealistic expectations people set for themselves, resulting in consistent and severe self-deprecation (Kahn et al., 2021; Woodrum & Kahn, 2022). People with a significant fear of failure, low self-worth, or adverse childhood experiences can have unrealistic standards for themselves (Ekmekci et al., 2021). They set these standards to ensure they appear competent and worthy of their achievements. They must exceed expectations. People with maladaptive perfectionism cannot get past the usual imperfections of daily life (Dobos et al., 2021). They need complete control over their lives and are perpetually discouraged when unsuccessful.

The social problem identified in the current study was the negative mental health consequences of self-critical perfectionism (Dobos et al., 2021; Doyle & Catling, 2022; K.-D. Lee et al., 2020; Molnar et al., 2021; Stoeber et al., 2020; Tyler et al., 2021; Ying et al., 2021; You et al., 2022). The negative outcomes of self-critical perfectionism can be

highly detrimental. Behaviors such as extreme procrastination, the inability to have healthy interpersonal relationships, and an all-or-nothing mindset are common. Having virtually impossible standards for oneself that typically combine with overly harsh self-criticism (Stoeber et al., 2020) can also lead to devastating mental health consequences such as depression, anxiety, obsessive-compulsive disorder (OCD), and eating disorders such as anorexia nervosa and bulimia (Lin & Muenks, 2022; Tyler et al., 2021).

In this chapter, I present an overview of my research, beginning with the literature-based background of maladaptive perfectionistic traits, specifically self-critical perfectionism, self-critical (maladaptive) perfectionism's ties to the Strong Black Woman Schema (SBWS), and the social problem. I discuss the gap in research, the study's purpose, my research questions and accompanying hypotheses, the theoretical framework, and the nature of the study. Finally, I provide definitions for key terms, research assumptions, scope and delimitations, limitations, and the significance of the study. I close the chapter with a summary.

Background

I sought to understand parental expectations of academic achievement and self-critical perfectionism in Black women with varying educational backgrounds. There was significant research on maladaptive (self-critical) perfectionism in other cultures, mainly Asian and Asian American (H. Chen et al., 2022; Coutinho et al., 2022; Fung et al., 2023; Jun et al., 2022; Kawamoto et al., 2023; Liu & Berzenski, 2022; Tan, 2022). I found a balance of quantitative and qualitative studies. Researchers focused on the adverse outcomes of depression and anxiety tied to one of the three categories of perfectionism:

self-oriented perfectionism, requiring oneself to be perfect; other-oriented perfectionism, requiring others to live up to a certain standard; and socially prescribed perfectionism, in which others' opinion of the perfectionist matters most. Most of the literature focused on undergraduate students and their academic achievement while in school (Dunkley et al., 2020; P. L. Hewitt et al., 2022; Molnar et al., 2021). Some literature focused on parental expectations' effects on students' current academic performance in the form of term grades (Coutinho et al., 2022; Kawamoto et al., 2023; You et al., 2022). In contrast, others addressed the effects students' performances would have on the cultural acceptance of their parents (Curran & Hill, 2022; H. N. Suh & Flores, 2022; G. E. Walton et al., 2020).

Most parental expectations in the literature had significant cultural influences. Parents expecting a certain level of success defined what that success looked like according to cultural expectations and demands (G. E. Walton et al., 2020). Culture is a significant factor in decision making and the way of life for many people, especially racial minority cultures. Racial minority cultures have a particular way they want to appear collectively to the racial majority culture. Racial minority cultures strive to appear good, helpful, and worthy to remain safe from oppression and prejudice by the racial majority culture. For many cultures, it is a matter of safety; therefore, these guidelines become legacies to an extent. Ideals are passed down through generations to strengthen or maintain a collective positive appearance. Black culture is no exception (Castelin & White, 2022; M.K. Jones et al, 2021).

SBWS

Literature on maladaptive perfectionistic traits and self-critical perfectionism in Black culture, particularly Black women, is routinely grouped within the SBWS (Abrams et al., 2019; Castelin & White, 2022; McLaurin-Jones et al., 2021), which is a set of culturally specific ideas about how Black women should think, act, and interact with society (Abrams et al., 2019; Geyton et al., 2022; Green, 2019; M.K. Jones et al., 2021). SBWS may also be referred to as the Black Superwoman Schema (V. M. Jones, 2020; Knighton et al., 2022). These concepts refer to Black women's obligation to present an image of strength consistently and typically involves suppressing emotions, resistance to vulnerability, obligation to help others especially family, and a powerful ambition to succeed despite any present barriers to that success.

The cultural and family expectations Black women face because of the SBWS are prevalent in recent research, as are the mental and physical health problems plaguing Black women (Castelin & White, 2022; Godbolt et al., 2022; Hall et al., 2021; Jefferies, 2022; Leath et al., 2022; Liao et al., 2020; McCleary-Gaddy & James, 2022). Some researchers addressed the growing number of Black women with mental illness diagnoses while simultaneously being one of the most educated groups in their communities (Hamilton, 2022; McCleary-Gaddy & James, 2022). Researchers also highlighted intergenerational trauma as a substantial factor in the increase in mental health issues among Black women (Anyiwo et al., 2021; Geyton et al., 2022; Green, 2019). Some scholars noted that trauma is genetic; therefore, Black people who have never

experienced trauma personally may still experience the mental health effects (Barcelona et al., 2022).

Black culture views mental health issues as weaknesses or faults (Whitten, 2022). There is a well-documented stigma against mental health treatment in the Black community. Black women are far less likely to seek treatment (Avent Harris et al., 2021). If they do so, they are more likely to end treatment prematurely. The need to appear strong and unwavering can overpower their desire to face any underlying issues. The fear of vulnerability and other barriers to care, such as the lack of culturally competent mental health providers, mistrust of medical providers, and microaggressions are some of the reasons Black people choose not to seek help (McCall et al., 2023). For women adhering to the SBWS, seeking mental health support or treatment is unacceptable for many reasons and goes against unspoken cultural and familial rules (Davis & Jones, 2021; Hall et al., 2021; Leath et al., 2022; McCleary-Gaddy & James, 2022).

Black women take up the SBWS voluntarily and involuntarily (Anyiwo et al., 2021; Carter & Rossi, 2019; Geyton et al., 2022; Platt & Fanning, 2023). Many Black women who hold this ideal close also pass it to their daughters by teaching them and providing a living example (Green, 2019; Platt & Fanning, 2023). The passing of those ideals also contributes to the expectations for success that Black parents may have for their children. Successful Black women who are among the first to reach a certain status are often tasked with caring for their families, especially parents and siblings, without hesitation or complaint (McCleary-Gaddy & James, 2022). The pressure to care for everyone and prioritize others can negatively impact Black women's mental health, yet

the expectation of appearing and remaining strong overrides their personal health decisions (Davis & Jones, 2021; McCleary-Gaddy & James, 2022).

Problem Statement

Black women are diagnosed with depression at exponentially higher rates than their White counterparts (Geyton et al., 2022; M. K. Jones et al., 2021; M. K. Jones et al., 2022), and maladaptive perfectionistic traits such as self-critical perfectionism may be a significant factor in this trend (Hayes & Turner, 2021). Recent research supported the positive correlations between maladaptive types of perfectionism and depression (Liu et al., 2022). Further, certain cultures tend to have higher rates of self-critical perfectionism than others due to perfectionistic family traits and unrealistic cultural expectations (Fung et al., 2022; Tan, 2022). The SBWS is significant because it is promoted both within Black culture and beyond it in broader social contexts (Green, 2019; Hall et al., 2021). In matriarchal Black homes, the SBWS is pushed onto young girls, and parents demand they adhere to it as they mature (Knighton et al., 2022; Liao et al., 2020). Outward communities tend to enforce these ideals as those young girls grow into women and take up space in society.

Parental and family expectations are not taken lightly in Black communities (Scott et al., 2020); they are typically held as the guidance that guarantees success (Raymundo, 2021; Scott et al., 2020). However, adhering to those expectations could exacerbate any developing mental health issues in young Black girls and women and inhibit healthy development (Carter & Rossi, 2019). Although the research regarding maladaptive perfectionistic outcomes such as self-critical perfectionism illuminated

important findings, I found no recent research that examined the influence of parental expectations of academic achievement on self-critical perfectionism as a standalone phenomenon in the population of Black women with varying educational backgrounds. Further research is warranted to examine parental expectations' influence on self-critical perfectionism in an effort to address the growing problem of depression in Black women (Geyton et al., 2022; M. K. Jones et al., 2021; M. K. Jones et al., 2022; Knighton et al., 2022; Liu et al., 2022; Scott et al., 2020).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine whether education level moderates the relationship between parental expectations for academic achievement and self-critical perfectionism in Black women with varying educational backgrounds.

Research Question and Hypotheses

Based on the identified social problem and the study's purpose, the following quantitative research questions (RQs) and accompanying hypotheses were used to guide the study:

RQ1: What is the relationship between parental expectations for academic achievement and self-critical perfectionism in Black women?

$H_0$1: There is no statistically significant relationship between parental expectations for academic achievement and self-critical perfectionism in Black women.

H_a1: There is a statistically significant relationship between parental expectations for academic achievement and self-critical perfectionism in Black women.

RQ2: What is the relationship between the education level obtained and self-critical perfectionism in Black women?

$H_0$2: There is no statistically significant relationship between the education level obtained and self-critical perfectionism in Black women.

H_a2: There is a statistically significant relationship between the education level obtained and self-critical perfectionism in Black women.

RQ3: Does the education level obtained moderate the relationship between parental expectations for academic achievement and self-critical perfectionism in Black women?

$H_0$3: The education level obtained has no moderating effect on the relationship between parental expectations for academic achievement and self-critical perfectionism in Black women.

H_a3: The education level obtained has a moderating effect on the relationship between parental expectations for academic achievement and self-critical perfectionism in Black women.

Theoretical Framework

Higgins's (1987, as cited in Gürcan-Yıldırım & Gençöz, 2022) stated in self-discrepancy theory that people expect things from themselves that do not necessarily align with their experiences. Self-discrepancy theory focuses on three selves that create a person's self-concept: the actual self, the ideal self, and the ought self. These selves can and often do conflict. Sometimes, internal conflict can inspire positive external effects, such as increased motivation. However, conflict between the selves often produces

adverse emotional and behavioral outcomes, leading to significant mental health problems if not balanced (Gürcan-Yıldırım & Gençöz, 2022; Higgins 1987).

The Living up to Parental Expectations Inventory (LPEI) was developed by L. Wang and Heppner (2002b). Perceived and present parental pressure may cause psychological distress in college students. However, the possible discrepancy between what students can do and what they feel parents expect them to do may provide a more in-depth explanation of how parental expectations affect students. L. Wang and Heppner (2002a) desired to view parental expectations among Taiwanese college students through the discrepancy lens, but no measures were available to test this phenomenon accurately. L. Wang and Heppner (2002b) developed the LPEI subsequently divided it into three subscales, Perceived Parental Expectation (PPE), Perceived Self-Performance (PSP), and Living Up to Parental Expectation (LPE), measuring three factors: personal maturity, academic achievement, and dating concerns. I used the PPE subscale evaluating the academic achievement factor to measure my independent variable because it most directly measured the perceived parental expectations for academic achievement and could be used with my research population of Black women.

Nature of the Study

My methodology was quantitative, and I selected a correlational design. I chose this method because there was no evidence of a relationship between perceived parental expectations for academic achievement, education level obtained, and self-critical perfectionism, exclusively, in Black females of varying educational backgrounds. It is necessary to examine whether there is a relationship between the variables in a

substantial population before further inquiry is justified (Sheppard, 2019). Correlational research assists in making predictions that would be difficult without the results provided. A correlation design best fit my study because I examined relationships between existing variables in preestablished groups; no variables were manipulated in this research. Moderating regression analyses were used to assess any interaction effects to understand how education level obtained could affect any potential correlation. The data collection method I used was the survey method. All participants took surveys addressing their perceptions of their parents' expectations and their own self-critical perfectionistic behaviors and characteristics. The survey method allowed for large groups of people to contribute, allowing me to collect a large amount of data that I could not physically observe (see Baron & Kenny, 1986). Black women are some of the most educated people in the world, and the number of Black women with college degrees continues to grow (Porter & Byrd, 2021). Therefore, surveys helped me gather important data from this population.

Interested participants were prescreened with the first page of the internet survey addressing whether they met the inclusion criteria. Participants meeting all inclusion criteria moved to the informed consent page of the survey. Those who selected to move forward after reading and acknowledging the informed consent moved on to the survey which began with demographic questions (see Appendix A). From there, participants took the Academic Achievement subsection of the LPEI and the Self-Critical Perfectionism subsection of the Big Three Perfectionism Scale (BTPS). Respondents received all parts in one survey created in SurveyMonkey distributed by hyperlink. The

initial plan was to run the survey for 4 to 6 weeks. The survey was first posted on November 7, 2023. I downloaded the data with 143 total responses on December 5, 2023.

Sample and Population

I used the G*Power sample size calculation for linear multiple regression (fixed model, R^2 increase) to determine the estimated minimum number of participants. Choosing an effect size of 0.15, an alpha of 0.05, and a power of 0.80, I discovered that I needed a sample size of at least 68 participants (see Appendix B). My initial goal was to have between 100 and 150 participants. I downloaded the data from 144 total responses and had 96 complete responses. I used voluntary response and snowball sampling for this research. The population was so vast that it was more efficient for people to volunteer. Snowball sampling involved having participants send the survey link and flyers to others whom they felt would be interested. Participants voluntarily chose to take part in this research. The criteria necessary were to identify as a cisgender (biological) Black/African American woman, be between the ages of 18 and 50, possess at least a bachelor's degree from an accredited university (either online or traditional), and be a permanent resident of the United States. Diplomas and degrees were required to be awarded and conferred at the time of the survey.

Variables

My independent variable was parental expectations. For this study, parental expectations were the participant's perceived parental expectations toward academic performance. To measure parental expectations, I used the academic achievement factor of the PPE subscale of the LPEI. The LPEI was developed to assess whether living up to

parental expectations impacted college students' emotional distress resulting from the discrepancy between a person's ideal self and their actual self (L. Wang & Heppner, 2002a). There were no measures available to gather this information, so L. Wang and Heppner (2002a) developed this inventory to better understand Taiwanese students' psychological distress. Although this instrument is not restricted to use with a specific group or within a particular culture, L. Wang and Heppner developed this measure to reflect the pattern of high academic expectations common in their geographical region. The test is scored using a six-point Likert scale, with answers ranging from 1 (*not at all expected*) to 6 (*very strongly expected*). There are nine questions concerning academic performance. The total score is the sum of each item's score. Higher scores represent higher perceptions of each expectation from the respondent's parents. For the academic achievement factor, the PPE Cronbach's alpha coefficient was 0.85 for the original research with Taiwanese students, indicating very good internal consistency. The LPEI and each of its subscales and factors correlated well with several valid and reliable instruments of depression and anxiety to establish construct validity (L. Wang & Heppner, 2022a).

The moderating variable for my research was education level. For this study, education level represented five categories: high school diploma, associate's degree, bachelor's degree, master's degree, and postgraduate or other professional degree. Categorical moderators can be used in regression analysis, but they must be transformed into numerical variables. This process in the data analysis is called dummy coding. Dummy coding turns a categorical variable into a numerical variable without the risk of

changing or altering the variables. Dummy coding require researchers to create a numerical variable for every group minus one. For my research, I initially had five groups. However, after downloading the data, two of the categories had such a low number of responses that they were omitted from the analysis. The three remaining groups in my analysis were bachelor's degree, master's degree, and postgraduate or professional degree. Therefore, my data had two groups (3 – 1 = 2); bachelor's degree served as my reference category.

My dependent variable was self-critical perfectionism, which I measured using the Self-Critical Perfectionism subscale of the BTPS. The BTPS was developed to analyze perfectionism as a multidimensional concept at a time when many people viewed perfectionism as bidimensional. The scale contains 45 items measuring three components of perfectionism: rigid perfectionism (10 items), self-critical perfectionism (18 items), and narcissistic perfectionism (17 items; M. M. Smith et al., 2016b). The BTPS is scored by a standard agreement five-point Likert scale, from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). Item scores' sum is the overall score. Each subscale's total score is the sum of the item scores within that subscale. I used the Self-Critical Perfectionism subscale that consisted of 18 items. Higher scores indicate more self-critical perfectionistic behaviors and characteristics. This measure had good internal consistency with a Cronbach's alpha of 0.92. Further, the BTPS, particularly the Self-Critical subscale, significantly and regularly correlated with valid measures of depression, anxiety, worry, checking and obsessing symptoms, and hoarding tendencies, indicating good convergent validity (Wu, 2022). For the current study, self-critical perfectionism referred to extremely critical

perfectionistic thoughts, behaviors, and beliefs a person holds for themselves in their daily lives. To measure the dependent variable, I used the Self-Critical Perfectionism subsection of the BTPS (see M. M. Smith et al., 2016b; Wu, 2022).

Data Type and Sources

Data for this research were primary in nature. I collected data on parental expectations and self-critical perfectionism using a survey on SurveyMonkey that included the inclusion criteria screening questions, informed consent, demographic questions, and noted scales. I recruited participants through social media, specifically Facebook and LinkedIn posts on my personal accounts and in two Facebook groups. I also applied for and was approved to post my study in the Walden University Participant Pool. The participants were self-identified cisgender Black or African American women who were between the ages of 18 and 50, possessed at least an accredited high school diploma, and lived in the United States.

Analysis

I input data into Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) and conducted a moderation analysis using multiple linear regression. According to Baron and Kenny (1986), when conducting multiple linear regression with moderation analysis, it is critical to determine whether models with and without the interaction effect are significant. It is also necessary to determine whether the amount of variance in the interaction model is significantly more than in the model without interaction.

Ethical Considerations

The first step in maintaining ethical research principles was obtaining approval from Walden University's Institutional Review Board (IRB). After I received IRB approval, I constructed the informed consent form for selected participants. I ensured participants that involvement was voluntary. I addressed and ensured anonymity and transparency about the research process, the right to withdraw from the study at any time, concealment of data in storage, and potential for harm, especially because the research could bring up issues that cause psychological distress (see Franco, 2020). I included mental health resource links and contact numbers for any participants with mental health issues to safeguard participants from any emotional triggers brought about by the research. All data and forms were privately stored on a fingerprint-encrypted drive and will remain locked in a password-protected safe for at least 5 years before I responsibly discard the data.

Definitions

In choosing the terms of the study, the following definitions were used to operationalize each concept:

Academic achievement: Academic outcomes that indicate the extent to which a student reached their learning goals (Williams et al., 2022).

Accredited institution: An institution that received recognition from an accrediting agency certifying that the institution maintains a certain level of educational standards (Porter & Byrd, 2021).

Adverse childhood experiences: Events during childhood that are stressful, even traumatic, that impact a child's physical and mental health, having effects in childhood and future adulthood (Leath et al., 2022).

Black/African American: The interchangeable descriptor of race for people of African descent, no matter their nationality (Kelly & Kellman, 2021).

Parental expectations: Realistic beliefs and judgments that parents have about their child's or children's behaviors and choices (Curran & Hill, 2022; Tulagan & Eccles, 2021).

Parental expectations for academic achievement: The beliefs and expectations that an individual perceives their parents' have and enforce toward their academic goals and success (Curran & Hill, 2022; L. Wang & Heppner, 2002a).

Strong Black Woman Schema (SBWS): A set of culturally specific feminine expectations for Black women represented by unyielding strength, the assumption of multiple roles within the home and socially, and the innate ability to nurture others (Abrams et al., 2019; Anyiwo et al., 2021; Castelin & White, 2022; Davis & Jones, 2021; Geyton et al., 2022; Hall et al., 2021).

Self-critical (or maladaptive) perfectionism: Having extremely high and somewhat unreasonable requirements for oneself that are virtually impossible to meet, resulting in extreme self-criticism and low self-worth (Hayes & Turner, 2021; Jun et al., 2022; Kawamoto et al., 2023).

Assumptions

Specific assumptions guided this research. First, I used the standard survey assumptions: standardization and honest feedback (see Foster, 2021). Standardization refers to the nature of the questions and their responses having the same meaning across groups. Also, I assumed that those answering the survey questions were willing and truthful in their responses. There are five main assumptions when conducting multiple linear regression analysis: linearity, homoscedasticity, independence of errors, normality, and no multicollinearity (Baron & Kenny, 1986). A linear relationship must be established between the variables, and the errors must be similar along the values of the independent variable. The data must be independent of errors, meaning errors present do not influence each other. Normality refers to the normal distribution of any residuals, and the absence of multicollinearity means that the independent variables are not highly correlated. Moderated multiple regression analysis seemed the most appropriate way to test the variables and answer the research questions in a substantial yet unbiased way.

Scope and Delimitations

The focus of this study was how parental expectations for academic achievement toward Black/African American women may relate to the maladaptive perfectionistic qualities they may exude in everyday life. Every aspect of data collection took place online because it was the most efficient way to reach participants in the desired age range (between 18 and 50) who can read, understand, and voluntarily consent to the research. Black women who hold a high school diploma, associate's degree, bachelor's degree, graduate degree, or postgraduate degree from a nationally or regionally accredited

institution of higher learning, either traditional or online, are typically computer and internet savvy because so much work is completed and submitted through online means in many colleges, even traditional institutions (Mtshali, 2021).

Although it was improbable that this research would reach every Black woman fitting the criteria for consent and participation, the number of Black women possessing high school diplomas and subsequent college degrees was so large that the participant pool could have been quite large, leading to greater generalization (see Leath et al., 2021). Also, internet distribution helped Black women who met the criteria from varying geographical areas have access to the study. Both survey instruments were readily available through Walden University's Tests and Measures Combined Search database and did not require the author's written permission to use for educational research purposes. Therefore, the availability of each instrument was not a setback. Further, I had more time to gather data because I did not have to compete for access to these instruments. This research was quantitative yet nonexperimental, meaning there were no manipulated conditions (see Baron & Kenny, 1986). The groups were established from the beginning of the data collection; therefore, I was able to begin analyzing data as soon as the collection was complete.

This study did not address parental expectations of any other type beyond academic achievement. However, parental expectations have many outlets, including dating and marriage, appearance, and personal maturity (Hayes & Turner, 2021). Additionally, several other factors may contribute to self-critical perfectionism in this specific population, and I could not account for those. This research excluded Black

women with a nontraditional education, such as technical certifications, education from nonaccredited institutions, and those under 18 years or over 50 years of age. I also omitted Black transwomen and Black women residing outside of the United States. The women outside of the target population may deal with maladaptive perfectionistic traits and behaviors that could stem from the research focus.

Limitations

The most significant limitation of regression research is that correlation and regression do not imply causation (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Sheppard, 2019). The results may confirm that a relationship between variables exists, but those results will not express why a relationship exists. Additionally, regression analyses are sensitive to outliers (Baron & Kenny, 1986). The results may display a relationship and effect between two variables, but it does not account for any additional factors that could influence the relationship, giving researchers misguided information. It may also be challenging to interpret the data and communicate the results in multiple regression.

Moderating variables have their limitations as well. Variable distributions are assumed to include the full number of values, but that is virtually impossible, particularly with a voluntary sample. Each member of the target population was not involved in this research. Further, the variable distribution is often unequal. The data cannot accurately account for all of the possible values of the moderating variable in a population, meaning the data can be skewed and affect the reliability and validity of the findings.

Other limitations of this research include the sampling strategy. Voluntary response sampling is convenient, but it can be biased (Lehdonvirta et al., 2021). Snowball

sampling can hold even more bias as participants share the research with those whom they may share similar views and experiences (Dosek, 2021). Researchers cannot control who participates with these types of samples (Lehdonvirta et al., 2021; VOXCO, 2021). Due to this, voluntary response samples and snowball samples can yield unreliable results. Regarding challenges, finding people initially willing to participate may not be difficult. However, many participants may have decided they did not understand the research purpose and opted out. Some may also have been afraid to take part in research that gave them insight into a problem they may not otherwise have realized they had. Either way, several participants did not complete the survey.

Further, researcher and participant bias must be considered (Baron & Kenny, 1986). I am a Black woman in the desired age range with more than one advanced degree. My parents and family have high expectations of me academically. I also have official diagnoses of depression and anxiety and have displayed maladaptive perfectionistic traits in the past. If I was not careful, I could have unconsciously projected my lived experiences onto this research, influencing how I conducted the study and leading participants to respond in a way they believed I desired them to respond rather than truthfully. I worked hard to look at every aspect of this research objectively from start to finish by following a thorough research plan, evaluating and reevaluating my work for objectivity with other researchers, and remaining transparent with respondents concerning the study's purpose, data, and findings.

Significance of the Study

This study addressed the critical problem of increasingly common adverse mental health outcomes of self-critical perfectionism in Black women by examining whether parental expectations for academic achievement and self-critical or maladaptive perfectionistic traits in Black women are connected. If there is a relationship between the two, it could help researchers understand why increasing negative psychological problems such as depression and anxiety, especially without treatment seeking, is a growing problem for young Black women, particularly college-educated Black women with more knowledge about mental health and better access to services (see Carter & Rossi, 2019; Castelin & White, 2022; M. K. Jones et al., 2021; McCleary-Gaddy & James, 2022). Local education agencies and colleges and universities that provide counseling services to a diverse group of adolescents and young adult women could use information gathered from research outcomes to assist in their planning to help combat maladaptive perfectionistic behaviors in young Black girls before they reach full adulthood. Regional, state, and federal mental health agencies could use the research to develop a more targeted therapy technique when treating Black women who present with maladaptive perfectionistic traits.

Organizations supporting Black women's mental health such as Black Women's Health Imperative, Black Girls Smile, Inc., The Boris Lawrence Henderson Foundation, The Loveland Foundation, the National Alliance on Mental Health, and the American Psychological Association may find the research helpful in addressing cultural and generational expectations and their impact on Black women, inciting a cultural shift in

attitudes toward strength, resilience, and perfection in the Black community. This research could also give insight to professional treatment organizations for Black clinicians, such as the National Association for Black Counselors, Yellow Bird Counseling, LLC, and the Association of Black Psychologists on cultural and parental pressures they may not have considered that can impact their college-educated Black woman clients, allowing them to adjust their approach to therapy. Non-racial-minority counselors and therapists may use the information gathered to help themselves understand a particular aspect of Black culture, which may help them connect more deeply with their Black female clients.

College-educated Black women are on the cusp of beginning careers and potential families (Castelin & White, 2022; Green, 2019; McLaurin-Jones et al., 2021). When they understand that parental expectations may have a subconscious, intense hold on them mentally and may promote a culture of overwork, emotional suppression, and neglecting their voice, they may begin taking steps to make decisions that are better for their mental health. They may create a different culture for their families through example and may decrease maladaptive perfectionistic traits throughout a generation, leading to lasting positive social change.

Summary

The level of influence that parental expectations can have on a child's life can carry much further into adulthood than once assumed. The mental and emotional ramifications of parental pressure may cause a more significant issue for Black women, given the cultural influences and expectations for the parents. Parental pressure to

succeed academically could harm Black women's mental and emotional health because they may be afraid of disappointing their parents and communities. The effects of these parental expectations could influence maladaptive perfectionistic traits in Black women, thereby contributing to increasing mental health problems such as depression, anxiety, post-traumatic stress disorder, obsessive compulsive disorder, and more.

In this chapter, I presented the introduction to my research, problem statement, purpose statement, and research questions and accompanying hypotheses. I also detailed the theoretical framework, nature of the study, significance of the study, and assumptions, scope, and delimitations. Finally, I covered the limitations and challenges of my research. In Chapter 2, I describe the theoretical framework in detail. Additionally, I present a synthesis of relevant and applicable literature on self-critical perfectionism in other cultures, self-critical perfectionism within the SBWS, academic achievement among Black women as a population, parental expectations' link to mental and emotional distress, and the literature gap leading to my present research.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Parental expectations can be the driving force behind numerous actions for several people (Lai et al., 2022). Parents are the first teachers. Their actions and expectations shape a person's values and identity in childhood, and their influence can remain well into adulthood. Scholars know that parents shape every part of their children's lives and influence their children's decisions, including their achievement orientation (G. E. Walton et al., 2020; G. Wang et al., 2021). Parents who value education and success will consciously and unconsciously shape their child's view of academic success. Many people who call themselves lifelong learners had parents who instilled education's importance from birth into adulthood (G. Wang et al., 2021). People do not simply wake up and develop a critical focus on academic achievement. Their innate drive to excel typically stems from their childhood (Pinquart & Ebeling, 2020). Their success becomes their parents' success (Pinquart & Ebeling, 2020), but the outcome is not always positive (Curran & Hill, 2022).

The purpose of the quantitative correlational study was to examine whether education level moderates the relationship between parental expectations for academic achievement and self-critical perfectionism in Black women with varying educational backgrounds. People excelling academically have degrees and accolades to show for their hard work, but there could be negative consequences beneath the surface. Parental expectations of academic achievement have contributed to adverse mental health outcomes in Asian college students (H. Chen et al., 2022; Fung et al., 2023; Jun et al., 2022; Shen & Liao, 2022; Tong & Harris, 2021; Warikoo et al., 2020). However, recent

research on Black women's negative mental health outcomes linked the problem to a widely held cultural expectation of strength and resilience (Abrams et al., 2019; Anyiwo et al., 2021; Davis & Jones, 2021; Hall et al., 2021; Leath et al., 2022; Liao et al., 2020), of which academic achievement is a byproduct (Leath et al., 2021; McLaurin-Jones et al., 2021; Moran, 2022; Q. Williams et al., 2022). There was extensive documentation of parental expectations' relationship with self-critical perfectionism in Asian cultures (H. Chen et al., 2022; Fung et al., 2023; Jun et al., 2022; Shen & Liao, 2022; Tong & Harris, 2021; Warikoo et al., 2020). Given specific similarities between Asian and Black cultures (Nicholson, 2022), Black women's maladaptive perfectionistic tendencies could result from similar causes (Davis & Jones, 2021).

This chapter includes a thematic overview of recent scholarly peer-reviewed articles that focused on Black women's academic achievement, Black women and mental health, mental health stigma in the Black community, the SBWS, and how parental expectations and influences can affect each of them. I also discuss how self-critical perfectionism plays into the SBWS, the adverse effects of adherence to the SBWS, and the intersection of parental expectations and self-critical perfectionism in the Black community. I begin by discussing the seminal authors and research on perfectionism, the theoretical foundation behind my research, and how the theoretical foundation relates to parental expectations. I review the relevant literature on other cultures prevalent in research on parental expectations and self-critical perfectionism. I also discuss how the negative mental health consequences of the SBWS relate to the social problem identified in this study. The literature reviewed in this chapter indicated a research gap that was my

study's focus, provided a basis for further investigation into this topic, and confirmed the need for future research addressing the negative mental health consequences of self-critical perfectionism.

Literature Search Strategy

I conducted a search of peer-reviewed articles published from 2019 to 2023 in the Walden University Library. I employed databases such as EBSCO, SAGE Journals, ERIC, ScienceDirect, Directory of Open Access Journals (DOAJ), Project Muse, SocINDEX, ProQuest Central, Taylor and Francis Online, and Thoreau multi-database search. I also accessed Google Scholar articles that I would then search for in the Walden University Library to obtain the full-text document, if available. Using these databases, I searched the following keywords or keyword combinations: *Black women* OR *African American women, Strong Black Woman Schema, strong Black woman, perfectionism, self-critical perfectionism, maladaptive perfectionism, maladaptive* OR *self-critical perfectionism, Superwoman Schema, Black Superwoman, generational expectations, societal expectations, Black women* AND *perfectionism, Black women* AND *self-critical perfectionism, Black women* AND *maladaptive perfectionism, Black women* AND *self-criticism, family expectations, family expectations* AND *success, cultural expectations* AND *success, academic expectations in Black families, expectations in Black families, Black mental health, mental health, adverse mental health* AND *perfectionism, college graduates* AND *mental health, Black women* AND *higher education* AND *perfectionism, higher education* AND *perfectionism, perfectionistic tendencies in college graduates, Black families* AND *academic achievement, Black women* OR *African American women*

AND *academic achievement, perfectionism* AND *academic achievement, perfectionism* AND *women in the workforce, Black women* AND *graduate degrees* AND *perfectionism, perfectionism* AND *history, seminal authors on perfectionism*, *Alfred Adler* AND *perfectionism*, *Frost* AND *perfectionism*, *Hewitt* AND *perfectionism*, *Thomas Greenspon* AND *perfectionism*, *perfectionism theories*, *self-critical perfectionism* AND *theory*, *self-discrepancy theory*, *self-discrepancy theory* AND *mental health*, *self-discrepancy theory* AND *perfectionism*, and *self-discrepancy domains* AND *mental health* OR *mental wellbeing*. Using these keywords and keyword combinations, I narrowed a group of over 350 articles I flagged as initially promising to approximately 200 articles to review for this research.

Theoretical Foundation

The question driving my research was whether there was a relationship between parental expectations for academic achievement and self-critical perfectionism in my chosen population. In quantitative research, the theory driving the independent variable is where the research foundation begins (Clarke, 2022). In other words, the independent variable's measurement and the theory must align. The instrument I planned to use to measure parental expectations, the LPEI, was rooted in the self-discrepancy theory (see L. Wang & Heppner, 2002a), which provided my theoretical foundation.

Self-Discrepancy Theory

The self-discrepancy theory was developed by Higgins (1987) who knew that internal conflict gives way to psychological unrest because there were several theorists at the time with extensive research suggesting this. However, Higgins wanted to understand

the emotions associated with internal conflict. Higgins wanted to understand which contrasting ideas produced a specific emotional outcome in a person. Higgins's theory was the first to assign specific emotions to conflicting internal beliefs.

This theory insists that three domains reside in each person: the actual self, the ought self, and the ideal self (Higgins, 1987; Liw & Han, 2022). Higgins (1987) described the actual self as a person's essential self-concept. This domain represents what attributes a person or others believe that person genuinely possesses. The ought self represents the attributes and beliefs that a person or others believe they should possess. The ideal self consists of characteristics and ideals that a person or someone else wishes that person had.

There are a variety of self-discrepancies that can occur between each domain, causing external conflict (Kahn et al., 2021; Liw & Han, 2022), which is why this theory was based on three ideals (Higgins, 1987). First, it allowed researchers to classify the psychological discomfort of those with conflicting ideals (Zhang et al., 2021). Second, it helped researchers classify the types of emotional vulnerabilities experienced by the varying discrepancies (Gürcan-Yıldırım & Gençöz, 2022; Zhang et al., 2021). Lastly, it allowed researchers to recognize the conflicts between the domains and ascertain the types of emotional discomfort resulting from those discrepancies. This theory also establishes the importance of two vantage points: one's own view and others' view (Higgins, 1987; Mason et al., 2019). Both vantage points are vital because each domain comprises both viewpoints.

Discrepancies Between Domains and Mental Well-Being

Although discrepancies between the domains can have consequences, most of the discrepancies result in adverse emotional reactions that can change how a person thinks and acts (Mason et al., 2019). Inconsistencies between the actual self, ideal self, and ought self can impact a person's mental health and psychological well-being (Gürcan-Yıldırım & Gençöz, 2022; Mason et al., 2019). Negative emotions can overwhelm someone struggling with these internal discrepancies (Liw & Han, 2022). The person can become highly self-critical, leading to mental duress and other issues such as low self-esteem or a negative self-concept.

Discrepancies between the actual and ought selves can induce feelings of guilt and shame (Futrell, 2021; Higgins, 1987; Mason et al., 2019). When people perceive a significant gap between their current achievements and their expectations, they may be harsh toward themselves for not meeting or exceeding their own or others' expectations (Higgins, 1987; Mason et al., 2019). Living with a sense of guilt and shame can significantly damage a person's mental health and emotional security.

Self-Discrepancies and Parental Expectations

Parental expectations can influence a person's view of themselves (Lai et al., 2022; Pinquart & Ebeling, 2020). Within the self-discrepancy theory, parental expectations cause discrepancies when their expectations conflict with their child's identity and expectations for themselves (Mason et al., 2019). Parents have expectations for their children, even into adulthood, involving their education, careers, relationships, societal acceptance, religious beliefs, and family traditions (Hong & Cui, 2023; Mason et

al., 2019). Any discrepancies can substantially impact the relationship between parents and children (Mason et al., 2019). Those who go against those expectations can experience internal and external pressure to conform along with the negative emotional effects stemming from their parents' expressed disapproval for not conforming (Gürcan-Yıldırım & Gençöz, 2022). These internal conflicts combined with external pressure can lead a person to feel lost and unsupported. They can also lead to low self-worth, an overwhelming feeling of failure, and increasing sadness.

This specific discrepancy (Gürcan-Yıldırım & Gençöz, 2022) led L. Wang and Heppner (2002a) to investigate how parental expectations affected Taiwanese college students. Many students who were having difficulty adjusting to college life and college-level academics cited that their parents' expectations were the main driving force behind their need to be successful (L. Wang & Heppner, 2002a). Taiwanese parents tend to be more controlling and have higher educational expectations for their children than Western parents. As a result, college students' pressure to meet these expectations resulted in negative psychological distress.

L. Wang and Heppner (2002a) found that Taiwanese students who experienced higher expectations from their parents had higher levels of academic stress, depression symptoms, and anxiety. The students constantly needed to strive for perfection because their parents had impossible standards. Consequently, their mental well-being suffered greatly. This research highlighted the detrimental effects of parental expectations for academic achievement on the mental health of those students. The study emphasized the

importance of exploring cultural influences to understand parental expectations' impact on academic achievement and mental health outcomes.

The result of this research was the construction of the LPEI, which comprises three scales: PPE, PSP, and LPE. The PPE represents the intensity of an individual's view of their parents' ideal and ought expectations for their lives. The PSP represents the intensity with which that individual attempts to meet their parents' expectations by measuring their daily performance (actual self) toward meeting those standards. The LPE is the total score that measures the extent to which a person succeeds in living up to their parents' expectations by evaluating the difference in their actual actions and what their parents' expect (PSP – PPE = LPE). Researchers have used the LPEI or one of its subscales to investigate the impact of parental expectations on numerous outcomes such as mental health, personal well-being, and academic achievement (S. Lee et al., 2023). This scale has become a valuable tool for assessing the complex dynamics between parental expectations of academic achievement and individual experiences (Guan et al., 2020; Shen & Liao, 2022).

Because the LPEI and each of its subscales have helped researchers gain valuable insight into parental expectations, academic achievement, and mental health outcomes (S. Lee et al., 2023), using the academic achievement factor of the PPE seemed the best option for my study. There needed to be more research on the long-term effects of parental expectations for academic achievement on Black women with undergraduate and graduate degrees outside of the SBWS (see Abrams et al., 2019; Davis & Jones, 2021; Hall et al., 2021; Leath et al., 2022; Liao et al., 2020). The discrepancies between who

someone is and who their parents expect them to be can stem from other phenomena (Mason et al., 2019). It was necessary to gain a deeper understanding of these dynamics so treatment interventions could be developed to promote a more balanced and supportive approach to the parental expectations of Black women with maladaptive perfectionistic tendencies.

Seminal Research on Perfectionism

Perfectionism research has spanned decades, with varying authors investigating different aspects of the topic (Flett & Hewitt, 2020). The concept of perfectionism is broad because it encompasses many beliefs, thoughts, and attitudes that contribute to an innate desire to be infallible. Perfectionism can have multiple dimensions and aspects that researchers have examined, contributing to the phenomenon's complexity. It is difficult to attribute the origins of perfectionism research to one individual (H. Suh et al., 2021).

Alfred Adler

One of the earliest researchers to investigate perfectionism was Adler (1982), an Australian psychiatrist whom scholars deemed the father of individual psychology. Adler (1982) did not explicitly use the term perfectionism in the original research; however, the ideas laid the foundation for understanding the psychological tendencies associated with striving for perfection. Alder (1996) argued that people felt inherently inferior to others, and the drive to overcome that feeling led people to strive for superiority or perfection throughout their lives. Adler's concept of the inferiority complex suggested that people who felt fundamentally inferior could develop an overwhelming desire to prove themselves and overcome their faults.

For Adler, perfectionism is a coping strategy arising from a sense of inferiority in comparison to others (Adler, 1996; McCluskey, 2022). Adler's research suggests that people are born with feelings of inferiority. As they mature, their personality and lived experiences shape their beliefs and actions, which can lead to perfectionistic tendencies. More recent research supports the idea that perfectionism is a multidimensional concept with specific measurements. However, Adler's theories provided a framework for understanding the psychological motivations and dynamics underlying the pursuit of perfection in everyday life.

Hewitt and Flett

Adler's view of perfectionism began and ended with the concept as a coping strategy (McCluskey, 2022). However, as time progressed, researchers began to view perfectionism as a multidimensional concept (M. M. Smith et al., 2022). Two well-known pioneers in multidimensional perfectionism research are Gordon Flett, a Canadian psychologist and university professor, and his colleague Paul Hewitt, also a prominent psychologist (Flett & Hewitt, 2020). These researchers were integral in advancing the understanding of perfectionism and its psychological implications. Through their research, they identified the complex nature of perfectionism and implemented dimensions of perfectionism, including self-oriented perfectionism, other-oriented perfectionism, and socially prescribed perfectionism. Their research emphasizes that perfectionism is not a unitary construct but consists of distinct dimensions affecting an individual's daily functioning and emotional well-being.

Hewitt and Flett have made more notable contributions to perfectionism research by developing reliable and widely used measurements for perfectionism (Flett & Hewitt, 2022). One prominent example is the Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale (MPS), developed in 1991 (P. L. Hewitt et al., 1991). This measurement consists of 45 questions assessing the three dimensions of perfectionism mentioned previously. The multidimensional approach of self-oriented perfectionism, other-oriented perfectionism, and socially prescribed perfectionism allows researchers to examine specific aspects of the phenomenon and how they contribute to an individual's unique experiences. The differentiation of dimensions provides insight into how the various aspects of perfectionism can uniquely impact a person's emotional well-being, motivation, and psychological adjustment. Researchers have widely regarded this instrument as one of the most reliable instruments to assess perfectionistic tendencies and their psychological outcomes across several psychological and sociological domains (Flett & Hewitt, 2020). The versatility and adaptability of the MPS makes it highly valuable for exploring perfectionism across populations and settings.

Hewitt and Flett's research significantly contributed to the scholarly understanding of perfectionism. Their research groundwork has laid the foundation for more researchers to dive deeper into understanding perfectionism and its mental and emotional consequences (M. M. Smith et al., 2022). By examining the various facets of perfectionism and its psychological outcomes, their research shed new light on the nuanced nature of perfectionism and its effect on individual lives (Flett & Hewitt, 2020).

Their work advanced the scholarly understanding of perfectionism and provided practical tools for assessing perfectionistic tendencies and guiding treatment interventions.

Hewitt and Flett's contribution to the literature on perfectionism extends beyond recognizing the multidimensional nature of the concept (M. M. Smith et al., 2022). They also acknowledged the existence of both adaptive and maladaptive aspects of perfectionism (Flett & Hewitt, 2020). Their research helped shed light on the duality of perfectionism, showing that while adaptive perfectionism can foster motivation and personal growth, self-critical perfectionism promotes negative outcomes such as extreme self-criticism and low self-esteem (P. L. Hewitt et al., 2022). Flett and Hewitt's research have examined how self-critical perfectionism is linked to various psychological issues such as depression, anxiety, OCD, eating disorders, and even problems in interpersonal relationships. Their findings have helped inform treatment providers and develop intervention strategies to address maladaptive perfectionistic tendencies and alleviate the negative impact of these tendencies (Flett & Hewitt, 2020).

Thomas Greenspon

Previous research highlighted that perfectionism can be adaptive or maladaptive, but psychologist Thomas Greenspon focused his research on maladaptive perfectionism (T. Greenspon & Cross, 2022). His research identified the damaging effects of maladaptive perfectionism on individuals' mental well-being (T. S. Greenspon, 2000). He found that excessive self-criticism, unfeasible standards, and a relentless pursuit of perfection can increase anxiety, depression, and burnout. Greenspon's findings highlight

the negative psychological consequences of maladaptive (self-critical) perfectionism and the toll it can take on individuals' mental health.

Further, Greenspon has investigated the developmental factors contributing to maladaptive perfectionism's emergence (T. S. Greenspon, 2000, 2008). His research has examined the influence of family dynamics, parental expectations, societal pressure, and early childhood experiences in shaping perfectionistic tendencies. Greenspon's work emphasizes the significance of understanding the environmental and social factors that contribute to the development of maladaptive, specifically self-critical, perfectionistic behaviors. By recognizing these influences, researchers and practitioners gain valuable insights into the origins and risk factors associated with self-critical perfectionism.

Additionally, Greenspon's research focused on practical strategies for managing the self-critical aspect of perfectionism (T. S. Greenspon, 2008). He emphasized the significance of self-compassion, setting realistic goals, embracing mistakes, and adopting a healthy outlook on achievement (T. Greenspon & Cross, 2022; T. S. Greenspon, 2008). His findings have offered valuable guidance for individuals struggling with self-critical perfectionism, providing tools to navigate the associated challenges and promoting mental well-being (T. Greenspon & Cross, 2022).

Randy Frost

Perfectionism studies have linked the self-critical aspect of this phenomenon to several mental health outcomes, such as depression, anxiety, and OCD (Stoeber et al., 2020). Psychologist Randy Frost's initial work focused on OCD and hoarding behaviors (Woodfin et al., 2020). However, Frost quickly recognized the connection between self-

critical perfectionism and OCD and began shifting his focus. His work centered on the cognitive, emotional, and behavioral aspects of OCD and treatment and intervention strategies. Discovering the link between OCD and self-critical perfectionism gave Frost a new perspective on the underlying factors associated with both conditions (Frost & Marten, 1990; Woodfin et al., 2020). Frost identified shared features and overlapping cognitive processes between OCD and self-critical perfectionism which led him to delve deeper into a relationship between the two phenomena.

Frost built upon previous researchers' ideas and work on perfectionism by developing a different Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale (FMPS) with his colleagues in 1990 (Frost & Marten, 1990). These researchers agreed that there are several distinctive features of perfectionism, the most prominent being setting excessively high standards and harsh self-criticism. However, Frost and his colleagues focused on assessing the presentation of self-critical perfectionism in different contexts than Hewitt and Flett's MPS (Flett & Hewitt, 2020; Frost & Marten, 1990; P. L. Hewitt et al., 1991). The FMPS assessed concern over mistakes (CM), personal standards (PS), parental expectations (PE), parental criticism (PC), doubts about actions (D), and organization (O) ("Frost Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale (FMPS)," 2021). It was quickly adopted by researchers focusing on clinical psychology and theories of personality and became an influential measurement tool in the literature on perfectionism (Woodfin et al., 2020).

As the FMPS gained popularity among researchers, Frost realized that organization was loosely related to the other subscales (Howell et al., 2020; Woodfin et al., 2020). He decided that the organization subscale score should not be calculated in the

total score for the measurement. As even more time progressed, Frost and other researchers utilizing the instrument discovered that the results were unstable and inconsistent, which may partially be the result of the oversaturation of components or subscales (Howell et al., 2020; Stöber, 1998). Stöber (1998) argued that the FMPS is an effective tool for measuring self-critical perfectionism, and any instability within the measure resulted from the excessive number of factors. He set out to combine and narrow the number of factors to enhance the reliability and validity of the measurement. Stöber (1998) discovered that only four subscales, concern over mistakes and doubts (CMD), parental expectations and criticism (PEC), personal standards (PS), and organization (O), developed from the original six subscales, showed significant correlations with the related variables in his study. Many researchers utilize the FMPS to measure self-critical perfectionism (Howell et al., 2020), and Stöber (1998) enhanced the strength of this tool by tapering the instrument's focus. While it is evident that some modifications may have been necessary, the FMPS is still a widely utilized instrument for measuring self-critical perfectionism (Howell et al., 2020).

Burgess

The original and subsequent modified versions of the FMPS consisted of 35 self-reporting questions corresponding to the original six and modified four subscales of perfectionism (Howell et al., 2020; Stöber, 1998). However, researchers saw evidence that there was a need for a shorter yet still psychometrically strong version of the measurement (Burgess et al., 2016). Psychologist Alexandra Burgess, original FMPS developer Randy Frost, and other colleagues aimed to find key indicators of

perfectionism while minimizing respondent burden. Their objective was to create a concise and efficient version of the scale that retained the integrity and psychometric properties of the original instrument.

Researchers are continually reconceptualizing perfectionism as a one dimensional, bidimensional, or multidimensional concept (Woodfin et al., 2020; Wu, 2022). For most of the research surrounding perfectionism, two key elements account for most of the variability among the underlying features of perfectionism, personal standards and evaluative concerns (M. M. Smith et al., 2022). Personal standards highlight a demand for perfection from oneself (Tyler et al., 2021). Evaluative concerns, however, reflect the perception of others demanding perfection, which causes people to have negative reactions to any setbacks. Whereas other researchers support the idea that perfectionism is multidimensional, Burgess et al. (2016), believe the multidimensional concept is too extensive and does not recognize the critical aspects of perfectionism in modern society.

She and her team sought to minimize the FMPS to effectively respond to the increasing demand for a condensed yet dependable measure of perfectionism (Burgess et al., 2016). While maintaining the essential qualities of the original instrument, this abbreviated version, the Frost Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale-Brief (FMPS-B), offers a more efficient assessment tool that the researchers believe aligns with two factor model of perfectionism. The author believes it is necessary to evaluate both factors of perfectionism individually, as assessing both factors give researchers a comprehensible look into the concept (A. Burgess, personal communication, July 20, 2023). As the

measurement of perfectionism has become more streamlined and efficient with the development of the FMPS-B, Burgess et al. (2016; A. Burgess, personal communication, July 20, 2023) believe they have offered a valuable tool for investigating the intricate relationships between bidimensional perfectionism and various psychological factors.

M. Martin Smith

Not all researchers support the notion that perfectionism is a unidimensional or bidimensional concept. As scholarly understanding of perfectionism continues to evolve, they are reevaluating its definition, particularly from a clinical perspective. M. Martin Smith et al. (2016a) recognized that perfectionism is a more intricate and multi-faceted construct that cannot be fully measured by just two factors, and they felt the existing literature on perfectionism supported this fact. Previous psychometric measures, in their view, failed to capture the full range of facets related to perfectionism. To address this limitation, the researchers developed a new scale, The Big Three Perfectionism Scale (BTPS), aimed at measuring the various detailed aspects of multidimensional perfectionism.

The BTPS aimed to evaluate three overarching factors, namely rigid perfectionism, self-critical perfectionism, and narcissistic perfectionism, with each factor representing the corresponding subscale (M. M. Smith et al., 2016b). The entire BTPS assesses ten facets that researchers consider to be the principal components of perfectionism: self-oriented perfectionism, self-worth contingencies, concern over mistakes, doubts about actions, self-criticism, socially prescribed perfectionism, other-oriented perfectionism, hypercriticism, entitlement, and grandiosity (M. M. Smith et al.,

2016a). Each subscale examines a specific combination of perfectionism components. Their research aimed to capture the complexity of perfectionism and gain a deeper understanding of its manifestations in modern society. The resulting 45-item scale sought to provide valuable insights into how multiple dimensions of perfectionism contribute to an individual's perfectionistic tendencies and affect their psychological well-being, something they felt could not be measured properly when evaluating perfectionism through a bidimensional lens.

Smith was particularly focused on the prevalence of self-critical perfectionism. Self-critical perfectionism represents the tendency to be extremely harsh towards oneself when failing to meet expectations or achieve goals. The self-critical perfectionism section of the BTPS evaluates four facets: socially prescribed perfectionism, self-criticism, doubts about actions, and concern over mistakes. This focus on self-criticism is of particular importance as it highlights the negative impact of setting excessively high standards and the subsequent self-directed criticism that can lead to adverse psychological effects.

Over the past 25 years, Smith and his colleagues have seen a surge in self-critical perfectionistic traits from young people, most resulting in maladaptive reactions and behaviors (M. M. Smith et al., 2022). This growing concern about the prevalence of self-critical perfectionism highlights the need for a deeper understanding of its impact on everyday life. Such insights can shed light on the mechanisms through which self-critical tendencies can lead to negative outcomes, affecting an individual's psychological well-being and overall functioning. As the research continues to evolve, uncovering the

fundamental properties of self-critical perfectionism can help inform targeted interventions and support strategies aimed at promoting healthier attitudes toward achievement and success.

Self-Critical Perfectionism in Present Research

Some scholars believe that maladaptive perfectionism and self-critical perfectionism are interchangeable terms (M. M. Smith, et al., 2016; H. N. Suh & Flores, 2022; H. N. Suh et al., 2023). Others believe that self-critical perfectionism is a much broader construct encompassing not only self-critical tendencies but also other dimensions of perfectionism, such as concerns over making mistakes, fear of negative evaluations, setting unattainable standards, and experiencing high levels of social pressure to be perfect (Liu et al., 2022; Stoeber et al., 2020). However, most researchers agree that self-critical perfectionism describes a negative and unhealthy pattern of striving for flawlessness that can lead to adverse consequences for an individual's mental health (Kawamoto et al., 2023; Liu et al., 2022; Stoeber et al., 2020; H. N. Suh & Flores, 2022; H. N. Suh et al., 2023). Within the BTPS, the self-critical perfectionism subscale serves as a comprehensive measure, capturing each dimension of perfectionism that researchers consider to be at the core of self-critical perfectionism (M. M. Smith et al., 2016b). This subscale stands out as the most suitable instrument for assessing self-critical perfectionism, as it includes facets that other measures may overlook.

Having thoroughly reviewed available measures, I believe the self-critical perfectionism subscale of the BTPS explicitly encompasses all the key facets associated with self-critical perfectionism. Therefore, I plan to utilize the self-critical perfectionism

subscale of the BTPS as the primary tool for measuring my dependent variable of self-critical perfectionism. I believe it is the most efficient tool available to assist in evaluating the potential relationship between parental expectations for academic achievement and self-critical perfectionism and its potential impact on psychological well-being.

The utilization of the self-critical perfectionism subscale of the BTPS could prove to be vital in advancing our knowledge of self-critical perfectionism and its implications. With this carefully selected instrument, there is potential for my current research to add to the existing literature on the potential relationship between parental expectations for academic achievement and the development of maladaptive (self-critical) perfectionism and provide valuable insights into the complexities of this personality trait. Further, my research could aid in clarifying the cultural factors that lead to the development of maladaptive perfectionistic tendencies for specific populations and communities.

Previous Research on Parental Expectations and Self-Critical Perfectionism

The relevant research on parental expectations and self-critical (maladaptive) perfectionism primarily highlights Asian cultures and communities (Chen et al., 2022; Coutinho et al., 2022; Fung et al., 2023; Jun et al., 2022; Kawamoto et al., 2023; Liu & Berzenski, 2022; Tan, 2022). Asian communities have significantly high academic standards for their children; it is a cultural tradition to excel academically (Cooc & Kim, 2021; Tong & Harris, 2021). Asian and Asian Americans have long regarded education as the gateway to success and the catalyst for upward mobility for their families and communities (Fung et al., 2023; Jun et al., 2022). The emphasis on education in certain

Asian cultures dates back to the time of Confucius, an ancient Chinese philosopher whose philosophy stated that education was the key to transformation (Li et al., 2022). He believed that everyone deserved access to education, regardless of social class, and routinely spoke of education as the cultivation of human character. Asian cultures adhering to Confucianism, which were many Chinese, Japanese, Taiwanese, Korean, and Vietnamese communities, held tightly to the belief that education is the catalyst for human transformation. Those values have been passed down through numerous generations, which could be why modern Asian cultures place similar importance on education as their ancestors did. Nevertheless, due to the emphasis modern Asian cultures still place on education, parental expectations of academic success have been shown to be commonplace for Asian students (Fung et al., 2022; Jun et al., 2022; L. Wang & Heppner, 2002a).

Asian students have many familial obligations; one of the highest is striving for academic excellence (Fung et al., 2022). Asian parents push for success in education so their children can secure a viable career path and increase their quality of life (Cooc & Kim, 2021; H. N. Suh & Flores, 2022). Having a prestigious and high-paying job provides the opportunity for financial stability and increases social status, which are both essential qualities in Asian culture (Shen & Liao, 2022; H. N. Suh & Flores, 2022). Parents often subconsciously put their children in competition with their peers by working to ensure they do not fall behind (Jun et al., 2022). Also, parents make significant sacrifices for their children, and their academic achievement is how they measure that sacrifice's value (Guan et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2022). These parents

continually push their children to get better and achieve more, placing extreme conscious and subliminal pressure on those students.

The pressure Asian students receive to excel academically and bring prestige to their families leads them to deal with maladaptive perfectionistic tendencies (Fung et al., 2022; Jun et al., 2022). These students can set unrealistic expectations for their success, many of which can be rooted in their parents' expectations (Jun et al., 2022). They can continue to put increased pressure on themselves because they fear letting their parents and family down (H. N. Suh & Flores, 2022). They can begin to believe that anything less than perfection is unacceptable. Yet, due to the inability to be perfect, Asian students can develop intense stress. The excessively high standards they continually set for themselves give way to depression, chronic anxiety, and a significant fear of failure (Lin & Muenks, 2022). They fear failing themselves, their parents, and their larger communities.

These fears can cause Asian students to begin feeling increasingly overwhelmed, which could result in procrastination leading to full-on avoidance behaviors (H. Suh et al., 2023). Conversely, some students can take on additional responsibility to prove themselves, which could lead to significant burnout (Jin et al., 2022). Students can become increasingly harsh on themselves and adopt increasingly negative self-talk (H. Suh et al., 2023). They can develop low self-esteem and low self-worth, which can promote feelings of intense panic, mental distress, and even symptoms of depression. Wang and Heppner (2002) found this trend to be a reoccurring pattern among Asian

students; this pattern prompted the development of the LPEI and the study on parental expectations, specifically, on psychological distress.

Asian parents transfer the high standards their parents set for them onto their children (Fung et al., 2022; Guan et al., 2020; Jun et al., 2022). While it may be a common theme in their community, few parents pull back on their severe demands for their children (Jun et al., 2022). These parents may have perfectionistic tendencies of their own; therefore, they may not see perfection as unattainable (Lin & Muenks, 2022). Students with perfectionist parents or parents who expect perfection from them may feel that succeeding is the only way they will receive love and support from their parents (Fung et al., 2022). These students may feel unsupported in their emotional experiences but may also be too afraid to be open and vulnerable due to fear of disappointing their parents. Regardless of fear, these students still compete and out-perform to satisfy their parents' demands despite any psychological consequences (Jin et al., 2022).

Asian students have collectively demonstrated that their parents' expectations in several areas of their lives have been detrimental to their mental well-being (H. Suh et al., 2023). Asian culture's emphasis on education is so well-documented that it has contributed to stereotypes towards Asian students in the United States (Okura, 2022). Asian students are often considered nerdy and brilliant, even though those labels are not always expressed positively. Nonetheless, Asian students excel academically partially because of their parents' expectations, despite the self-critical perfectionistic tendencies that typically arise (H. N. Suh & Flores, 2022; Tong & Harris, 2021).

One central theme across the limitations in these studies is the cultural bubble within their research (H. Chen et al., 2022; Fung et al., 2022; Lin & Muenks, 2022; Liu et al., 2022). Scholars understand that cultural experiences and nuances can influence different outcomes. There is room for much more research within different cultures on parental expectations, academic achievement, and self-critical perfectionism (Fung et al., 2022; Lin & Muenks, 2022). Expanding the research to include different cultures and cultural perspectives may help scholars better comprehend the intersectionality of parental expectations, academic achievement, and self-critical perfectionism (Lin & Muenks, 2022; Tan, 2022). This broader approach would help researchers identify specific cultural strengths and challenges (H. Chen et al., 2022; Fung et al., 2022; Lin & Muenks, 2022; Q. Wang & Wu, 2022). They could use this information to help identify culturally specific interventions and supports for the mental and emotional challenges of those within that culture with self-critical perfectionistic behaviors.

Impact of Self-Critical Perfectionism on Academic Performance

Self-critical perfectionism can significantly affect a person's academic performance (Dobos et al., 2021). Pursuing perfection often leads a person to be highly critical of themselves, have impossible standards, and have a sickening fear of failure (Canning et al., 2020; Coutinho et al., 2022; Jun et al., 2022; H. N. Suh & Flores, 2022; Q. Wang & Wu, 2022). Achievements virtually never fulfill people with self-critical perfectionism because they judge themselves so harshly (Dobos et al., 2021; Tan, 2022). They can be unkind to themselves with negative self-talk and push themselves beyond their mental and emotional limits. Self-critical perfectionism can significantly hinder

academic performance and success, primarily if not addressed (Gazica et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2022).

Students with self-critical perfectionism can begin to procrastinate and avoid tasks (Coutinho et al., 2022). The intense fear of failure and their unrealistic standards make it difficult for someone with self-critical perfectionism to initiate work. They want to avoid failure at all costs because failure represents personal inadequacy (Canning et al., 2020; Dunkley et al., 2020). Students with self-critical perfectionism have many intrusive thoughts concerning their inability to perform at the highest level (Kahn et al., 2021; Woodrum & Kahn, 2022). These thoughts prevent them from taking risks, challenging themselves, and seeking help when necessary. It causes a pattern of avoidance which can eventually become routine and typically leads to limited productivity and poor grades (Lin & Muenks, 2022; Woodrum & Kahn, 2022).

Excessive self-criticism is the cornerstone of self-critical perfectionism (Dunkley et al., 2020; O'Neill et al., 2021). It causes constant self-evaluation in which students harshly criticize their performance (Dunkley et al., 2020; O'Neill et al., 2021; You et al., 2022). These students never feel they can and will perform optimally and develop significantly impaired decision-making skills (H. Suh et al., 2023). As these students relentlessly seek the perfect choice, they become incredibly indecisive when weighing the pros and cons of every choice and outcome (Curran & Hill, 2022). This negative criticism and indecisiveness can substantially impact their confidence, invoke depression and suicidality, increase anxiety, suppress creativity, and affect their school or career success (O'Neill et al., 2021).

Self-Critical Perfectionism and Mental Health

Self-critical perfectionism negatively affects a person's mental and emotional well-being. The continuous negative self-criticism begins to affect a person's self-worth. They begin to internalize every negative thought and comment, even if it is unrealistic. Stress levels become difficult to handle, so many people with self-critical perfectionism have significant issues with anxiety. People with self-critical perfectionism also worry incessantly, which causes them to be routinely overwhelmed. They are frequently tense and can deal with symptoms of panic, especially regarding deadlines.

Self-critical perfectionism is also strongly correlated with depressive symptoms (Cludius et al., 2022; P. L. Hewitt et al., 2022; Liu et al., 2022). It can dramatically affect a person's self-esteem and self-worth (S. Lee et al., 2023; Raudasoja et al., 2023), which they tend to base solely on their personal achievements (Workye et al., 2023). Their self-evaluations consist of negative outlooks and nitpicking, reinforcing their feelings of inadequacy (Dunkley et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2022; Woodrum & Kahn, 2022). People eventually begin to feel helpless and hopeless, assuming they will never reach their pinnacle goal or goals. These feelings can cause a significant shift in mood, a loss of interest in routine activities, and an inability to concentrate, all symptoms of major depressive disorder (Cludius et al., 2022).

Social isolation, impaired coping skills, and diminished quality of life typically accompany those with self-critical perfectionism (P. L. Hewitt et al., 2022). People with self-critical perfectionism can focus so intensely on their goals that they withdraw and avoid friends, family, and other social circles. They can also have the same competitive

spirit in their social lives as they can in their academic lives (Canning et al., 2020; Tyler et al., 2021). This competitive nature causes them to feel as though they cannot measure up in their social circles; therefore, they will isolate themselves to avoid embarrassment. These people have significant difficulty accepting constructive criticism and handling setbacks or barriers to success, even though it is a natural part of learning (Kahn et al., 2021). This negative mindset makes it impossible for people with self-critical perfectionism to handle and navigate challenges in academia and life (P. L. Hewitt et al., 2022). They lose their sense of enjoyment and live in a perpetual state of discontent.

Self-critical perfectionism is a multidimensional concept (Coutinho et al., 2022). It can present differently for anyone; therefore, any impact on mental health is specific to that individual. Some people and cultures may be more resilient (Doyle & Catling, 2022), so they can navigate the effects of self-critical perfectionism differently, while others may experience substantial adverse mental health effects (M. M. Smith et al., 2022). Some people may not understand how self-critical perfectionism influences their lives and decisions. Regardless, it is crucial to understand self-critical perfectionism's mental and emotional effects to investigate factors that can exacerbate them.

Impact of Perfectionism on Black Women

Perfectionism can have positive and negative effects (Stoeber et al., 2020). For many Black women, the effects are damaging and displayed by their adherence to social norms and expectations that have negative consequences (Spates et al., 2020). Black women are not innate perfectionists; they have developed perfectionism as a defense mechanism to shield themselves from race and gender-based discrimination. Black

children are groomed to do more and perform better to get less than their White counterparts (Leath et al., 2022). It goes further for Black girls, especially when colorism becomes a part of the discussion (Roland, 2022). This grooming became a household norm centuries ago and was passed down like an heirloom (Green, 2019).

Black women grow up under pressure to meet and exceed specific standards as a requirement for success and admiration from parents (Anyiwo et al., 2021; Green, 2019; Leath et al., 2021). It begins in school with grades and extracurricular activities and goes well into careers and accolades. This notion also extends into interpersonal relationships, particularly romantic ones (Avery et al., 2022). Everything in Black women's lives, especially educated ones, must appear perfect to the outside world because society deems perfection as the only way to take Black women seriously (Castelin & White, 2022; Liao et al., 2020). They begin to internalize this need to overperform and overcome so they appear worthy and capable. So many Black women fear making mistakes or falling short because they cannot risk seeming inept (Knighton et al., 2022). Their perfectionistic tendencies cause them to become ruthlessly critical of themselves over time. Their personal expectations blend with society's expectations, creating mental and emotional issues that they suppress for appearance's sake (Spates et al., 2020; M. G. Williams & Lewis, 2019).

The US's history of racism, discrimination, and violence towards Black people only reinforces the need to appear perfect (Gran-Ruaz et al., 2022; Hudson et al., 2023). The negative stereotypes against Black women are still ever present. Many Black women are desperate to avoid appearing angry or powerless (M. K. Jones, Hill-Jarrett, et al.,

2021). Presenting the best version of oneself helps protect against the continuation of these damaging stereotypes. Black women live at the intersection of racism and sexism and feel compelled to protect themselves from racial and gender discrimination (Hudson et al., 2023; M. K. Jones et al., 2022). To do so, they strive to excel academically, professionally, and personally. They believe that overall success shields them from the possible consequences of stereotyping (Carter & Rossi, 2019). Black women have set out to challenge and eradicate the stereotypes that diminish their worth; to do so, they aim to appear flawless, regardless of personal consequences.

The continual pressure to perform and prove themselves can have many adverse mental health effects, such as chronic self-doubt, low self-worth, increased stress and anxiety, and depression (M. K. Jones, Hill-Jarrett, et al., 2021). However, by society's standards, Black women cannot succumb to the weight of these expectations. Black women are expected to always be resilient, even in the face of personal tragedy (Liao et al., 2020; Nelson et al., 2022). Society deems that they are not allowed to be vulnerable in any circumstance; there is no room for self-compassion. Many Black women have expressed that these expectations' mental and emotional effects are exhausting and overwhelming (Abrams et al., 2019; Anyiwo et al., 2021; Carter & Rossi, 2019). Still, they manage to appear poised and prepared. For Black women, strength is a prerequisite for daily living.

SBWS

Black women have long been described as strong, independent, influential, bold, and self-reliant (Castelin & White, 2022). These adjectives are typically words that

communities use to label the Black women within them and later become adopted by those they describe. Black women have found and developed ways to succeed for centuries, even when it seemed impossible. They often "do what they must do," for their families and loved ones without regard for themselves. These typical actions have gone from describing Black women to becoming the silent expectation (Davis & Jones, 2021; Wallace, 2019). The expectation of being strong, resilient, and unwavering in the face of any obstacle has transformed into a collective stereotype called the Strong Black Woman Schema (SWBS) (Abrams et al., 2019; Anyiwo et al., 2021; Carter & Rossi, 2019; Castelin & White, 2022; Hall et al., 2021; Hamilton, 2022; Jefferies, 2022; M. K. Jones, Hill-Jarrett, et al., 2021; Liao et al., 2020). The SBWS has become the prototype of how the ideal Black woman should think and behave. Comprised of unrealistic standards, it is an unspoken command to Black women that ensures they do not appear weak or incapable.

Origins

There is not a specific timeframe attributed to the origin of the SBWS; however, there is evidence to suggest that the SBWS, as it is known today, can be traced back to the era of slavery (Hall et al., 2021; Liao et al., 2020). During this time, Black women faced immense hardships and were subjected to dehumanizing treatment. Despite these harsh conditions, slave women were often depicted as physically and mentally stronger than their European counterparts (Liao et al., 2020). The resilience and strength Black women demonstrated during slavery laid the foundation for the development of the SBWS. This historical context, marked by the endurance of slave women, has contributed

to the cultural expectations placed upon Black women to embody strength, resilience, and self-sufficiency. These expectations have persisted and evolved over time, shaping the contemporary understanding of the SBWS (Castelin & White, 2022; Green, 2019; Hall et al., 2021; Liao et al., 2020).

Several researchers have explored and discussed the Strong Black Woman concept over decades; narrowing the initial concept to one researcher is incredibly difficult (Castelin & White, 2022; V. M. Jones, 2020; Liao et al., 2020; Moody et al., 2023). However, Dr. Cheryl Woods-Giscombé, a prominent researcher and nurse scientist, developed a framework called the Superwoman Schema, which is used interchangeably with the SBWS (Woods-Giscombé, 2010). Dr. Woods-Giscombé's initial interest was understanding health disparities related to the stress of racism but found that these experiences for Black women impacted much more than health disparities alone (V. M. Jones, 2020; Woods-Giscombé, 2010). Her research explored the challenges faced by Black women, including the pressure to fulfill multiple roles, cope with stressors, and navigate societal expectations while maintaining a façade of strength and resilience. Through her work, Dr. Woods-Giscombé shed light on the complex interplay between race, gender, and cultural factors contributing to the formation of the Strong Black Woman Schema.

The SBWS emerged as the response to specific stereotypes that have historically plagued Black women: the dominant Sapphire, the hypersexual Jezebel, the asexual Mammy, and the welfare queen (Abrams et al., 2019; Castelin & White, 2022; Liao et al., 2020). It developed as a counter-narrative to those derogatory representations, aiming to

redefine Black women's strength and resilience. Currently, the SBWS has evolved due to the intersectionality of the racial oppression of Black people and the normal feminine expectations women have in society (Abrams et al., 2019; Clements, 2023; Geyton et al., 2022; V. M. Jones, 2020; Moody et al., 2023; Platt & Fanning, 2023; Wallace, 2019). Black women navigate multiple layers of discrimination due to their race and gender. The SBWS has emerged as the cultural identity for Black women by highlighting strength, fortitude, and perseverance, all of which are central to Black culture (Castelin & White, 2022; Geyton et al., 2022; Moody et al., 2023). Cultural expectations play a pivotal role in reinforcing the attributes of the SBWS and the pressures placed upon Black women to excel in every aspect of life (Abrams et al., 2019; Castelin & White, 2022; Hall et al., 2021).

Components of the SBWS

The SBWS has three components: emotional restraint, independence, and caretaking (Carter & Rossi, 2019; Castelin & White, 2022; M. K. Jones, Harris, et al., 2021). These components have been reinforced and perpetuated by various forms of print and media. They create an unrealistic stereotype that appears to be the expectation for all Black women (Castelin & White, 2022). Unfortunately, these rigid expectations are widely embraced by society and therefore fail to account for the multifaceted identities of Black women (Castelin & White, 2022; Davis & Jones, 2021; Moody et al., 2023; Platt & Fanning, 2023).

Emotional Restraint

One word that people use to routinely describe Black women is resilient (C. Wright & Riley, 2021). Resilience is described as the capacity to endure and recover quickly from difficulties. Resilience is a positive trait; however, Black women are expected to be resilient with minimal emotional expression (Geyton et al., 2022). Black women are the backbone of their families. They are the ones who support others, make crucial decisions, and keep the family going in challenging times (Green, 2019; Platt & Fanning, 2023). Negative emotions such as sadness and vulnerability cannot be visible because a vast part of Black society views emotions as a hindrance to progress (Castelin & White, 2022; Hall et al., 2021; McLaurin-Jones et al., 2021). They view overly emotional people as lacking the necessary skill and intelligence to ensure the advancement of their individual selves and communities (Liao et al., 2020).

This external pressure to remain strong can lead to complete emotional suppression (Geyton et al., 2022). Black women can begin to show little to no emotion whatsoever, including positive ones. They become more assertive, which is often translated as anger (A. M. Jones, 2023; Motro et al., 2022). Black women can begin to neglect themselves emotionally because they confuse emotional strength with emotional denial. They can neglect to practice self-care and stop providing a safe space for others to be emotionally vulnerable, which can impact their professional and interpersonal relationships (Avery et al., 2022). Black women in emotional denial also refuse to seek help and support (Davis & Jones, 2021; Geyton et al., 2022; Green, 2019). Seeking help

to balance daily tasks can cause others to view Black women as incapable, which is the opposite of possessing emotional strength.

Independence

Independence is a valuable attribute, but within the SBWS, the focus is more on hyper-independence (Castelin & White, 2022; Davis & Jones, 2021). Black women are expected to care for themselves, their families and children, and others in the community who need assistance. Some of this narrative and outlook can be attributed to the assumed prevalence of single mothers in the Black community (Fix, 2022). Whether by choice, death, jail, or abandonment, single Black women raising children typically go above and beyond to ensure they are adequately cared for. Black women often work two or more jobs and sacrifice their personal lives. Black women will demonstrate this dedication while maintaining academic goals and aspirations to ensure they can provide for their children's needs and wants, all without asking for or appearing to need help (Castelin & White, 2022; Hamilton, 2022; Liao et al., 2020). While scholars cannot predict the exact time in history, somewhere, Black communities shifted from celebrating this level of commitment to expecting it.

Caretaking

Most women are expected to take charge of the emotional labor in their families; it is the most common gender role (Ward et al., 2020). Black women, however, are expected to care for so many more people beyond their families and with a twist. Prioritizing the needs of others while simultaneously abandoning self-care is the hallmark of caretaking within the SBWS (Anyiwo et al., 2021; Jefferies, 2022; Moody et al.,

2023). The Black community expects that people should be able to rely on Black women for mental and emotional support (Geyton et al., 2022; Liao et al., 2020; Moody et al., 2023). However, those same Black women are expected to show emotional restraint regarding their personal issues.

Self-Critical Perfectionism and the SBWS

Some scholars view self-critical or maladaptive perfectionism as a by-product of the SBWS instead of a standalone phenomenon that intertwines with it (Carter & Rossi, 2019; Castelin & White, 2022; Davis & Jones, 2021; Knighton et al., 2022). Black women's need to appear capable of handling any obstacle in their path emphasized their desire to feel strong, resilient, and self-sufficient (Castelin & White, 2022; Knighton et al., 2022). Many Black women grow up internalizing the fear of making mistakes because, within this cultural framework, they feel pressure to be and remain infallible (Porter & Byrd, 2021; Roland, 2022; Q. Williams et al., 2022). They must excel in all areas of life, no matter the cost. As they do so, their perfectionistic tendencies increase. Black women subconsciously want society to see them as strong and capable of protecting against other negative stereotypes (Carter & Rossi, 2019; Godbolt et al., 2022; Jean et al., 2022; Moran, 2022); however, they ignore the mental and emotional repercussions that typically accompany their perfectionism (Dobos et al., 2021; Geyton et al., 2022; Lozada et al., 2022).

Some of the ramifications of pursuing perfectionism can have dire consequences for Black women's overall mental health (Anyiwo et al., 2021; Carter & Rossi, 2019; Castelin & White, 2022; Green, 2019; Johnson et al., 2022; M. K. Jones, Hill-Jarrett, et

al., 2021; Liao et al., 2020; Lozada et al., 2022). They expect exceptional performances from themselves at every turn (Johnson et al., 2022). Nevertheless, their goals are usually logically unattainable. This cycle of setting unrealistic goals and failing to reach them can lead to constant self-criticism (Geyton et al., 2022; Leath et al., 2022; Liao et al., 2020; Platt & Fanning, 2023). Black women develop self-talk patterns that routinely insult themselves over not reaching those goals (Davis & Jones, 2021; Geyton et al., 2022; H. Suh et al., 2023). Their self-doubt establishes a negative mindset that looks at every aspect of their lives through the lens of never being good enough. This outlook can lead to Black women developing crippling anxiety, increased risk of burnout, depression, and other mental health issues (Anyiwo et al., 2021; Carter & Rossi, 2019; Hall et al., 2021; Johnson et al., 2022; Liao et al., 2020). Ultimately, the tireless drive for perfection can damage Black women's overall quality of life and hinder their ability to experience genuine joy and fulfillment.

While some researchers view the desperate adherence to the SBWS as a means to producing self-critical perfectionism, others believe self-critical perfectionism may be a predetermined mindset that interacts with the SBWS (Geyton et al., 2022; Hall et al., 2021; M. K. Jones, Harris, et al., 2021). Research shows that adherence to the SBWS and self-critical perfectionism mirror one another in several ways (Castelin & White, 2022; Geyton et al., 2022; M. K. Jones, Harris, et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2022; Stoeber et al., 2020). The societal pressure accompanying the SBWS can contribute to developing maladaptive perfectionistic tendencies (Castelin & White, 2022; Geyton et al., 2022; Hamilton, 2022). The persistent quest for perfection and the intense fear of failure both

align with the primary characteristics of the SBWS. The cultural and historical circumstances that lay the foundation for the SBWS may enforce individual predilections for self-critical perfectionism (Davis & Jones, 2021; Hamilton, 2022; Johnson et al., 2022; Liao et al., 2020), allowing the two concepts to reinforce one another mutually.

One of the most notable and visible ways to see the mirrored effect of the SBWS and self-critical perfectionism in Black women is in higher education (Kalu, 2022; Leath et al., 2021; Moran, 2022; B. M. Williams et al., 2022; Q. Williams et al., 2022). Black women's pursuit of higher education illustrates the intersectionality of these constructs and emphasizes the intense pressure they feel to succeed academically (Castelin & White, 2022; Kalu, 2022; Kelly et al., 2021; McLaurin-Jones et al., 2021; Moran, 2022; Porter & Byrd, 2021; B. M. Williams et al., 2022; Q. Williams et al., 2022). Black women often exhibit an exceptional dedication to academic achievement due to their desire to challenge stereotypes and overcome historical barriers (Leath et al., 2021; B. M. Williams et al., 2022; C. Wright & Riley, 2021). Their adherence to the SBWS pushes them to strive to be the best and brightest (Castelin & White, 2022; Hamilton, 2022; Johnson et al., 2022; M. K. Jones, Harris, et al., 2021), while self-critical perfectionism reinforces the need to maintain impossibly high standards (K.-D. Lee et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2022; Stoeber et al., 2020). The pursuit of higher education could become a tangible manifestation of the mirrored effects of the SBWS and self-critical perfectionism by showcasing the challenges Black women navigate as they pursue educational success (Hamilton, 2022; Moran, 2022; B. M. Williams et al., 2022).

The persistent influence of self-critical perfectionism and the SBWS on education extends beyond individual experiences and imbues the broader context of the Black family's emphasis on education (Leath et al., 2021). For Black families, education is the key to overcoming systemic racism and empowering Black communities (Iii & Lensmire, 2021; Ispa et al., 2020; Leath et al., 2021). The pressure to achieve academically is often a central focus for Black families because they believe it is how they overcome historical prejudices and pave an easier path for future generations (Castelin & White, 2022; Ispa et al., 2020; Leath et al., 2021; B. M. Williams et al., 2022). Subsequently, the interplay between the SBWS and self-critical perfectionism becomes entangled with family and parental expectations for academic achievement (Hayes & Turner, 2021; Ispa et al., 2020; Porter & Byrd, 2021; B. M. Williams et al., 2022). It is critical to understand the dynamics that shape the Black family's emphasis on education to understand the connection between self-critical perfectionism and Black women's academic achievements.

Parental Expectations and Academic Achievement

In this research, parental expectations refer to parents' goals and aspirations for their children's academic achievements (Curran & Hill, 2022; Tulagan & Eccles, 2021). These expectations refer to grades, standardized test scores, college acceptance, and the child's chosen career path. There may be common themes among parental expectations, but variations exist. Individual and cultural circumstances influence the values that shape parents' academic expectations and aspirations for their children (Pinquart & Ebeling,

2020), and scholars believe the cultural nuances explain any differences in expectations (G. Wang et al., 2021; Warikoo et al., 2020).

Parental expectations are often a natural form of socialization for children (Y. Chen et al., 2021). They are the primary motivation behind a child's academic achievements (Stiles et al., 2020). Parents who value education condition their children to do the same (Xu et al., 2020). They set the initial standards for achievement goals and teach their children how to motivate themselves toward academic success. Parents directly and indirectly communicate their desire for their child's academic success through their words of praise, encouragement, involvement in their education, monitoring of grades and progress, and attitude (Curran & Hill, 2022; Dong et al., 2020). This focus on academic achievement may stem from the parents' childhood experiences, cultural emphasis on education, or present circumstances (Dong et al., 2020).

Academic achievement may be important to many, regardless of culture. It is essential to recognize that parental expectations of academic achievement can have positive and detrimental effects (G. Wang et al., 2021). While high expectations can lead to increased self-motivation, accountability, dedication, and increased effort, those expectations can have vastly different influences on others. Expectations of academic excellence can cause children to develop unrealistic goals, extreme stress and anxiety, depression, maladaptive perfectionistic patterns, and other negative psychological issues (Pinquart & Ebeling, 2020; Stiles et al., 2020). Recognizing and understanding this conceptualization of parental expectations is vital for investigating their role in shaping

academic achievement in Black culture and exploring their possible impact on the chosen population of Black women in this research.

The Black Family's Emphasis on Education

Education is one of the most critical matters among the Black population. Although the underlying reasons may differ, education is as vital in Black culture as it appears in Asian cultures (Y. Chen et al., 2021; Cooc & Kim, 2021; Ispa et al., 2020; Shen & Liao, 2022; B. M. Williams et al., 2022; Q. Williams et al., 2022). Starting in early childhood, Black parents emphasize education as a form of empowerment and a guard against inequality (Ispa et al., 2020; Lateef et al., 2023; Moran, 2022). Many Black parents want their children to have a better life than they do and view education as the tool to help them achieve such a life. Asian parents see education as how their children secure a promising career and life (Okura, 2022; Shen & Liao, 2022); Black parents focus more on education to avoid struggle (Ispa et al., 2020; Moran, 2022; Porter & Byrd, 2021). The exact reasons may appear different but seem to have the same underlying meaning. Education allows those children to obtain knowledge and skill sets that help them reach the goals they have set for themselves (Lin & Muenks, 2022; McCallum, 2020). Obtaining a college degree and credentials provides individuals with a level of confidence; they begin to believe in themselves and their ability to achieve and problem-solve (Lin & Muenks, 2022). Education gives people the tools to advocate for themselves in a way that enhances their lives and ensures greater opportunity, which is why both cultures place similar emphasis on educational excellence (Lin & Muenks, 2022; McCallum, 2020; Nicholson Jr., 2022).

Historical Emphasis

Education is one of the ultimate tools of empowerment in Black communities (Iii & Lensmire, 2021; Ispa et al., 2020; Leath et al., 2021; Porter & Byrd, 2021). Historically, Black people have faced systemic oppression that limited or denied their education access (Jean et al., 2022; Kelly et al., 2021). Even though Asians have experienced oppression along the same lines, the experiences of discrimination for Asians varied over specific countries and regions (Jun et al., 2022; Tong & Harris, 2021). The systematic oppression of Black people in the US did not vary based on location (N. A. Smith et al., 2022). It was equally harsh treatment over the entire country for a significant part of our nation's history. Discrimination continues for both cultures, but the basis is not the same because the cultures are not the same (Nicholson Jr., 2022). It is impossible to conduct research involving views on academic achievement with this population without understanding the historical context and other societal factors that affect the value Black people specifically place on education.

During slavery, Black people were explicitly denied the opportunity to learn to read and write (Evans et al., 2021). Enslavers saw education as a threat to their power. They assumed that if enslaved people were educated, they would eventually be overthrown. As time passed, children were given rare opportunities to learn to read, but the emphasis was on keeping the Black population illiterate (Warren & Coles, 2020). Many families had parents who did not receive any education or were forced to drop out before completion (Evans et al., 2021; Maddox, 2022). Others did not receive quality education because they could not attend prestigious, predominantly White schools

(Owens, 2022). Black people who pushed for their right to obtain an education, to integrate public schools and state universities, and who wanted to ensure that other Black people had the same rights were vilified, even though they later became the pioneers for their communities and the nation (Evans et al., 2021; Maddox, 2022).

The Civil Rights Movement

Racial segregation was the standard way of life for many Black people until The Civil Rights Movement in the 1950s and 1960s (Maddox, 2022; Owens, 2022; Roumell & James-Gallaway, 2021). The movement promoted the need for integration and social equality and saw education as the gateway. During this critical time in US history, people who would eventually become world-renowned leaders centered the importance of education and led the fight for educational quality as a civil right. They fought for equal access to education for every child, regardless of race. They advocated against disparities between resources, facilities, and opportunities for White and Black schools. These leaders sparked a renewed spirit and dedication to education in Black families that is still present (Evans et al., 2021; Maddox, 2022; Owens, 2022).

Since so many of today's students have parents or grandparents who were alive and possibly even participated in The Civil Rights Movement, the emphasis on striving for advanced education from Black parents is still strong (Owens, 2022). Somewhere between generations, what started as a push for the opportunity for education turned into generational pressure to excel academically (Maddox, 2022; Owens, 2022; Roumell & James-Gallaway, 2021). Family representation, social improvement, and community enhancement are all improved by citizens who obtain higher education and even more so

by the best and brightest students (Roumell & James-Gallaway, 2021). They become praised leaders and social change agents, directly or indirectly, and the Black community looks to them to lift the community to a higher level of social acceptance (Castelin & White, 2022; Lateef et al., 2023; B. M. Williams et al., 2022).

Historically, Black people have viewed education as worth the fight; some even died for the opportunity to learn (Evans et al., 2021; Robinson, 2021). Unlike Asian communities, whose goal emphasis on education appears to be for competition and status (Shen & Liao, 2022; Tong & Harris, 2021), Black communities more often see it as a means to free themselves from oppressive views and negative stereotypes (George, 2019; Leath et al., 2021; Moran, 2022). Black people view education as a gateway to gaining respect in a world where they are still disrespected (Owens, 2022; Warren & Coles, 2020). They want to show their communities that they can overcome oppression, acquire knowledge, and achieve more than their White counterparts (Kelly et al., 2021; B. M. Williams et al., 2022). Black communities do not simply focus on educational attainment but instead demand that their students exceed expectations (Kalu, 2022; Kelly et al., 2021).

Impact of Educational Expectations on Black Women

The pressure to achieve academically can profoundly impact Black women (B. M. Williams et al., 2022). In previous generations, Black women needed to rely on Black men for stability of any kind (Davidson et al., 2020; Ispa et al., 2020). Black men worked, paid expenses, and received an education if allowed. Black women were expected to care for the home and any children; there was no room for desiring more.

Black girls and women have since broken through many of these historic barriers and have better access to educational opportunities (Leath et al., 2021; Moran, 2022). However, the pressure to excel academically increases as opportunities increase (Leath et al., 2021; McCallum, 2020).

Black women represent their families and communities, often leading to their communities having increased expectations for them (Porter & Byrd, 2021; Tulagan & Eccles, 2021). Their desire to achieve more academically can coincide with the expectations of the SBWS, significantly impacting their mental and emotional well-being (Abrams et al., 2019; Carter & Rossi, 2019; Castelin & White, 2022; Geyton et al., 2022; Hall et al., 2021; Johnson et al., 2022; M. K. Jones et al., 2022; Liao et al., 2020). Nevertheless, they continue to persevere and balance their personal responsibilities with their academic achievements. Black families aim to arm their daughters with hard and soft skills to help them navigate a society that has historically marginalized them and limited their opportunities (Hamilton, 2022; Kalu, 2022). Black women are overly aware of the barriers to education and opportunity in their paths, and most will do whatever it takes to overcome those barriers (Davidson et al., 2020).

Black Women and Academic Achievement

It is important to note Black women's role in pushing academic achievement in their communities (Kalu, 2022; Owens, 2022; Q. Williams et al., 2022). Black women are considered the rocks of their communities (B. M. Williams et al., 2022). They have long been at the forefront of advocating for educational opportunities. Their dedication and resilience have pushed them to overcome continuous barriers to education for

themselves and their community. They routinely advocate for opportunities for themselves and others. While this may be partly due to generational and parental pressure to succeed, Black women have prioritized excellence in education and continue to make great strides academically (Castelin & White, 2022; George, 2019; Owens, 2022; B. M. Williams et al., 2022).

Black women have emerged as the most educated group in the Black community, particularly in the past few decades (Hamilton, 2022). For Black students pursuing a college education, over 64% have bachelor's degrees (N. Hewitt, 2021). Among those with bachelor's, over 70% of those Black women go on to earn a master's degree (Ziegler, 2022), and Black women hold four percent of doctoral degrees (Gasman, 2021). The trend only increased during the COVID-19 pandemic and national quarantine (Linnes et al., 2022). Many people were at home and out of work. Education became more accessible as brick-and-mortar colleges and universities had no choice but to offer virtual classes (Burgstahler, 2021; Linnes et al., 2022). There was also a growing interest in colleges and universities that are 100% virtual. For a growing number of Black women, nationwide quarantine provided the means and opportunity to complete an undergraduate or graduate degree (G. Wright et al., 2023).

Since education is easier to access than ever, the internal push Black women feel to obtain higher degrees can be accompanied by external pressure (Leath et al., 2021; B. M. Williams et al., 2022). The opportunities for a quality advanced education are virtually everywhere, so the lack of access is no longer a pressing issue (Linnes et al., 2022). Due to the ease of access, Black parents and families may increase the competitive

pressure on their daughters to achieve more and excel academically (Leath et al., 2021). Black women will work to achieve the academic goals their parents set for them, or their parents pressured them to set for themselves, regardless of how they are mentally and emotionally affected (Leath et al., 2021; Moran, 2022; B. M. Williams et al., 2022). They may be even less inclined to speak up about the stress and other adverse mental health effects they experience due to the community's internalization of the SBWS (Anyiwo et al., 2021; Castelin & White, 2022; Liao et al., 2020; B. M. Williams et al., 2022).

Black Women and Mental Health

Mental health disorders significantly impact the Black community (Brandow & Swarbrick, 2022). Black adults experience various mental health issues, such as depression, anxiety, bipolar disorder, and PTSD (Anyiwo et al., 2021; Brandow & Swarbrick, 2022; Castelin & White, 2022; Hall et al., 2021; Liao et al., 2020). Studies indicate that Black women are more likely to experience mental health issues than White women (Castelin & White, 2022; Hudson et al., 2023; Liao et al., 2020; Wilkins-Yel et al., 2022), and their presenting symptoms may differ from the traditional symptoms (Anyiwo et al., 2021; M. K. Jones, Hill-Jarrett, et al., 2021; Loyd et al., 2022). For example, the most common symptoms of depression are hopelessness, consistently low mood, and losing interest in once-loved things and activities (M. K. Jones, Hill-Jarrett, et al., 2021; Moody et al., 2023; Sissoko et al., 2023; Wilkins-Yel et al., 2022). In contrast, most Black women with depression report somatic symptoms like overwhelming fatigue, and self-critical symptoms such as self-hate, and irritability. The differences in symptomology can be attributed to Black women's unique experiences at the intersection

of gender bias and systemic racism (M. K. Jones et al., 2022; Moody et al., 2023; M. G. Williams & Lewis, 2019). Black women face multiple forms of discrimination and systemic oppression, and it can manifest in specific ways in their mental health (Hall et al., 2021; M. K. Jones et al., 2022; M. S. Jones, Womack, et al., 2021; Moody et al., 2023; Sissoko et al., 2023; Spates et al., 2020; Wilkins-Yel et al., 2022). The fatigue can come from the weight of societal pressures. The self-hate may stem from internalizing societal stereotypes, and the irritability may be a stress response to the daily microaggressions Black women endure. There is a need for targeted treatment and support to address the mental health issues plaguing Black women.

Even though the need for appropriate treatment and support exists (Brandow & Swarbrick, 2022; Wilkins-Yel et al., 2022), Black women are less likely to seek mental health treatment than White women (Brandow & Swarbrick, 2022; Carter & Rossi, 2019; Castelin & White, 2022; Hudson et al., 2023; Liao et al., 2020). One of these reasons is the stigma towards mental health issues and treatment in the Black community (Fanegan et al., 2022; Pederson et al., 2022; Wilkins-Yel et al., 2022). This stigma often develops due to cultural beliefs and fear of judgment and discrimination. The emphasis on strength and resilience within the SBWS can also contribute to the unwillingness to seek mental health treatment (Anyiwo et al., 2021; Castelin & White, 2022; Green, 2019; Hall et al., 2021; Johnson et al., 2022; Liao et al., 2020). Needing help can make one appear weak and vulnerable, which is not allowed when adhering to the SBWS. The SBWS also contributes to the misconception that suffering from mental health issues reflects that person's character rather than an actual medical condition (Anyiwo et al., 2021; Castelin

& White, 2022; Geyton et al., 2022; M. K. Jones, Harris, et al., 2021). The need to appear perfect can support the idea that mental health struggles are a defect above all else (K.-D. Lee et al., 2020; McCleary-Gaddy & James, 2022; Stoeber et al., 2020). Some in the Black community believe that people presenting with mental health issues are not resilient enough or lack faith, leading to more people feeling guilty and shameful for experiencing such conditions (Avent Harris, 2021; Avent Harris et al., 2021; Fanegan et al., 2022). These beliefs only exacerbate a person's mental health struggles.

Black women may also be more reluctant to seek treatment due to the lack of Black mental health care providers (Suggs et al., 2022). The mental health care available to Black women is generally not culturally sensitive or inclusive. There are over 198,000 mental health therapists in the US. According to Schiller (2023), only about 4.1% of those therapists are Black. O'Malley (2021) reports that of over 41,000 psychiatrists in the US, about 4% are Black, and Black psychologists only make up approximately 2% of the profession. Conversely, 4.8 million Black people have reported having a mental illness, with over one million suffering from severe mental health conditions (Mental Health America, n.d.). These statistics highlight a significant discrepancy. Any Black woman seeking treatment would most likely have a non-Black provider, and there are no guarantees that they would receive culturally sensitive care (Suggs et al., 2022).

Regardless of stigma and the lack of culturally sensitive mental health providers, mental health conditions such as depression, anxiety, PTSD, and bipolar disorder are common among Black women (Anyiwo et al., 2021; Brandow & Swarbrick, 2022; Castelin & White, 2022; Liao et al., 2020). It is impossible to determine the specific

number of influences because there are several cultural and situational factors to consider (Anyiwo et al., 2021; Brandow & Swarbrick, 2022; M. S. Jones, Womack, et al., 2021; Liao et al., 2020). However, some of these influences may be more prevalent and intense than others. Identifying and understanding factors that intensify negative mental health outcomes in Black women warrants further research (Brandow & Swarbrick, 2022; Pederson et al., 2022; Wilkins-Yel et al., 2022). Available literature cites concepts such as discrimination, the SBWS, and family and cultural expectations as triggering adverse mental health effects in Black women (Abrams et al., 2019; Anyiwo et al., 2021; Carter & Rossi, 2019; Castelin & White, 2022; Davis & Jones, 2021; Geyton et al., 2022; Hamilton, 2022; Johnson et al., 2022; M. K. Jones et al., 2022; M. K. Jones, Hill-Jarrett, et al., 2021; M. S. Jones, Womack, et al., 2021; Liao et al., 2020; McCleary-Gaddy & James, 2022; Moody et al., 2023; M. G. Williams & Lewis, 2019). However, there are more intersections of social determinants that can adversely affect Black women's mental health.

Research Gap and Current Study

The literature supports that Black families emphasize education; there is also significant evidence that Black parents tend to have high standards and expectations for their daughters (Castelin & White, 2022; Iii & Lensmire, 2021; Ispa et al., 2020; Lateef et al., 2023; Leath et al., 2021; Moran, 2022; Porter & Byrd, 2021; B. M. Williams et al., 2022). They can and often do place comparable pressure as Asian parents on their children to excel (Cooc & Kim, 2021; Shen & Liao, 2022; Tong & Harris, 2021). The literature also reveals that the SBWS can influence Black women's quest to achieve their

highest academic status to honor and uplift their parents, families, and communities (Carter & Rossi, 2019; Hall et al., 2021; M. K. Jones, Harris, et al., 2021; Liao et al., 2020). However, the relevant literature on the negative consequences of Black parents' expectations of academic achievement focuses on different causes than the research on Asian parental expectations (Green, 2019; Leath et al., 2021; N. A. Smith et al., 2022). Research on the emphasis on education in Black communities tends to center on Black history and the SBWS (Davis & Jones, 2021; Hamilton, 2022; Kalu, 2022; Leath et al., 2021; McCallum, 2020; Porter & Byrd, 2021; B. M. Williams et al., 2022; Q. Williams et al., 2022). Self-critical or maladaptive perfectionism is included in this research as a byproduct of the SBWS; however, no recent, peer-reviewed literature on Black education and academic achievement investigates self-critical perfectionism as a standalone concept.

I believe it is vital to investigate parental expectations within different cultural contexts to enhance the reliability of previous research. Researchers suggest that self-critical perfectionism is a concept that transcends race and culture (Hayes & Turner, 2021; Raudasoja et al., 2023; Stoeber et al., 2020; Walton et al., 2020). People from all walks of life cope with perfectionistic tendencies. Understanding how parental expectations for academic achievement can affect self-critical perfectionism in various races and cultures is crucial for a more comprehensive understanding of this phenomenon (T. Kawamoto, 2020; Raudasoja et al., 2023; Walton et al., 2020). Much of the existing research centers on specific cultural groups; however, examining parental expectations of

academic achievement on self-critical perfectionism across more diverse populations could provide greater insight into the generalizability of these constructs.

Summary and Conclusions

This thorough literature review provided an investigative starting point; however, there is still a need for further research on parental expectations of academic achievement in Black women. The literature reviewed in this chapter yielded significant research on parental expectations of academic achievement and self-critical perfectionism in other cultures (Fung et al., 2022; Jin et al., 2022; Jun et al., 2022; H. Suh et al., 2023; H. N. Suh & Flores, 2022; Tong & Harris, 2021; Warikoo et al., 2020). However, the research concentrating specifically on Black women's experience with the phenomenon examined self-critical perfectionism as a derivative of another concept instead of an individual concept (Abrams et al., 2019; Carter & Rossi, 2019; Castelin & White, 2022; Geyton et al., 2022; Johnson et al., 2022; Leath et al., 2022). Looking at parental expectations' effect on self-critical perfectionism as a detached phenomenon outside of the SBWS may provide a more thorough understanding of factors contributing to Black women's unique experiences (Anyiwo et al., 2021; Johnson et al., 2022).

Concentrating on this gap within existing literature, I chose the research focus of parental expectations of academic achievement and self-critical perfectionism in the targeted population of adult Black women with varying educational backgrounds. The literature previously discussed supports the need for targeted research investigating the connection between these phenomena in specific populations of Black women. Addressing this research gap can provide insight that promotes positive mental health

outcomes, empowers Black women on their educational journeys, and informs the development of culturally sensitive interventions and treatment. In Chapter 3, I address the research design, rationale, and methodology for this planned study addressing the abovementioned research gap.

Chapter 3: Research Method

The purpose of this quantitative correlational regression study was to examine whether education level moderated the relationship between parental expectations for academic achievement and self-critical perfectionism in Black women with varying education levels. Multiple regression analysis was appropriate for this study due to the need to investigate the relationships between the predictor variable of parental expectations for academic achievement, the criterion variable of self-critical perfectionism, and the moderating variable of education level. In this chapter, I describe the research design and rationale to establish relevancy to the research questions and the study's appropriateness. I also provide a detailed overview of the methodology and discuss any threats to external and internal validity and ethical concerns.

Research Design and Rationale

The variables for this research were as follows: parental expectations for academic achievement (Variable X), self-critical perfectionistic traits (Variable Y), and education level (Variable M). Variable X was the independent or predictor variable, and variable Y was the dependent or outcome variable. Variable M was an ordinal variable transformed into a numerical variable that may help further explain any relationship between X and Y.

I chose a correlational design to investigate whether parental expectations for academic achievement and self-critical perfectionism in this sample population is consistent with research findings on these phenomena in other cultures (Fung et al., 2022; Jun et al., 2022; Liu et al., 2022; G. E. Walton et al., 2020; Q. Wang & Wu, 2022). The

research outcomes did more than simply present the status of each variable, yet there was no manipulation of any variables. A correlational design allowed my research to corroborate, or not, the presence of a relationship between the two phenomena in this exclusive sample of Black college-educated women, potentially adding to the existing literature on this topic. Quantitative research allows for the collection of large-scale data (Lehdonvirta et al., 2021); a larger sample means a better representation of the population, enhancing the results' generalizability. The standardized measurements used in the current study to measure parental expectations for academic achievement and self-critical perfectionism helped me ensure reliability and validity in the data collection process.

Methodology

Population

This study's target population was Black women in the United States between the ages of 18-50 who held a high school diploma, associate's degree, bachelor's degree, master's degree, or postgraduate degree from a regionally or nationally accredited institution of higher learning obtained at a traditional or online institution. There was only one geographical limitation; participants needed to reside in the United States. There were no restrictions on participants' choice of major or concentration. Participants' diplomas and degrees had to be awarded and conferred at the time of participation, although participating in a graduation ceremony was not a requirement. Black women, as of 2018, were 13.6% of the U.S. population (Chinn et al., 2021). Of that 13.6%, 36% had a college degree (Anthony et al., 2021). Given the nature of my research, there was an

opportunity to engage with a significant number of women within the population who might voluntarily participate in this study.

Sampling Strategy

I used voluntary response sampling and snowball sampling for this research. Voluntary response sampling consists of self-chosen participants (Hassan, 2022). Participants volunteer when asked, or they responded to an advertisement for research participants. I also asked for volunteers to forward the recruitment flyer and study information to others within the population who might volunteer to participate, which was referred to as snowball sampling (Dosek, 2021). Both snowball and volunteer response sampling are types of nonprobability sampling (Dosek, 2021; Hassan, 2022). Each individual within the population did not have an equal chance of being chosen; only those interested and willing to contribute to the research were involved. All respondents in the sample were individuals who freely volunteered to complete the electronic surveys.

Sample Size

I established the minimum sample size for this research using G*Power 3.1.9.7 (see Faul et al., 2007). I chose the *F* test family because I wanted to compare the variance among regression models within my research. From there, I selected the linear multiple regression (fixed model, R^2 increase) statistical test to determine the estimated number of participants. I chose this test to examine any change in the R^2 value to determine whether the addition of the interaction between the predictor variable and the moderator in the model explained significant additional variance in the outcome.

The effect size is a measure that helps explain the significance of the relationship between variables (H. Kang, 2021). To ensure the detection of moderately important differences, I opted for a medium effect size of 0.15. Additionally, I selected the standard alpha value of 0.05, which indicates a probability of less than 5% for a Type I error, or incorrectly rejecting a true null hypothesis. I chose a standard statistical power of 0.80, indicating an 80% likelihood of obtaining statistical significance from random samples taken from the population, if the relationship exists. As shown in Appendix A, results indicated the required sample size to achieve 80% power for detecting a medium effect, at a significance criterion of $\alpha = .05$, was $N = 68$ for linear multiple regression (fixed model, R^2 increase).

Inclusion Criteria

The eligibility criteria for this study included the following: (a) participants must self-identify as Black or African American, (b) they should be cisgender (biological) females within the age range of 18 to 50 years, (c) they should possess at least a high school diploma, and (d) they should reside within the United States. It was essential that all participants willingly volunteered to participate in this study. Additionally, participants' diplomas and degrees must have been officially conferred by their respective institutions, indicating that the diplomas and degrees had been legally awarded by the schools.

Exclusion Criteria

This study excluded participants under the age of 18 and over the age of 50. The rationale for this age range was based on several factors. First, the typical age of a high

school graduate and first-year college student in the United States is 18 years old (Hanson, 2022). Most students complete a bachelor's degree within 4 to 6 years (Schaeffer, 2022), putting the average age of bachelor's-level college graduates within the range of 22–24 years old. Although some students may graduate earlier due to dual enrollment programs, the selected age range encompassed many Black women with bachelor's degrees. Second, I considered the typical age range of a graduate student to be 42–44 years old (see K. Kang, 2020). Lastly, the average time frame to complete a doctorate degree is 6 to 8 years. The intention behind including this age range was to capture a substantial portion of those completing a college degree at each level.

International students were not included in this research. This decision was motivated by the recognition that international students often face unique challenges, such as academic pressures, social isolation, and language and cultural barriers (see Mbous et al., 2022). These additional stressors could have disproportionately impacted the research outcomes. Therefore, I sought to minimize potential confounding factors by focusing exclusively on domestic participants.

Additionally, Black transwomen were not included in this study. Although existing research was limited, some studies suggested that individuals with gender dysphoria may exhibit higher levels of perfectionism compared to the general population (Austin et al., 2022). Consequently, the inclusion of transwomen in this research could have biased the findings by disproportionately representing self-critical perfectionism in the sample. To address this potential concern, the scope of this research was narrowed to include only cisgender (biological) Black women.

Recruitment

After obtaining IRB approval on November 7, 2023 (approval number: 11-07-23-0982988), I generated a social media advertisement to promote my study, which was shared through Facebook and LinkedIn social media channels. I used my personal social media accounts to reach a broader audience. Additionally, I targeted Facebook groups that had a large following of Black women, such as Minority Doctoral Network and My Therapist is Black. Most of the traffic came from people sharing the post to their personal social media pages.

The advertisement outlined the purpose of the study, emphasizing that it focused on examining parental expectations regarding academic achievement and its potential relationship with self-critical perfectionism. Prospective participants were informed that their involvement in the study would be entirely voluntary. The advertisement also included information about the demographic data collected for the research, including confirmation of gender, ethnicity, and age range. However, specific ages of participants were not requested. The hyperlink to the survey was listed on the flyer and in the caption accompanying the post. Participants could simply click the link or copy and paste the link into their web browser to access the survey.

Procedure for Data Collection

I collected data through an internet survey on SurveyMonkey, an online survey platform. Using a survey allowed me to collect data from a large population and have greater statistical power. The survey consisted of the initial conformation of inclusion criteria section, informed consent section, demographic section, highest degree attained

section, Academic Achievement subsection of the PPE, Self-Critical Perfectionism subscale of the BTPS, and the mental health resource confirmation exit page. Participants were debriefed about the study's intention on the informed consent page and were able to opt out at any time.

Instrumentation and Operationalization of Variables

The independent variable, parental expectations for academic achievement, was measured using the Academic Achievement factor section of the PPE (see L. Wang & Heppner, 2002a). The dependent variable, self-critical perfectionism, was measured using the Self-Critical Perfectionism subscale of the BTPS (see M. M. Smith et al., 2016b). The moderator, education level, was a categorical (ordinal) variable with three groups: high school diploma, bachelor's degree, and graduate or postgraduate degree. These groups were dummy-coded into binary numerical variables to be included in the quantitative analysis. Participants chose their highest degree attained in the survey.

Demographics Survey

Participants were asked demographic questions addressing whether they were a first-generation college student, whether they had siblings with college degrees, and whether they were from single-parent or two-parent homes. These demographics were not included in the model summary; however, they aided in providing context for the results. Mental health resources were listed in the informed consent and on the exit page for participants in case the survey material triggered sensitive emotions or memories for respondents.

Academic Achievement Factor of the Perceived Parental Expectations Subscale

The LPEI (L. Wang & Heppner, 2002a) was developed to evaluate and quantify the discrepancy between the actions of Taiwanese college students and their perceptions of their parents' expectations, leading to specific emotional distress. The Academic Achievement subsection includes nine statements from the original assessment, arranged in a nonsequential order: Items 4, 1, 13, 18, 21, 25, 20, 16, and 17 (see Appendix C). For each item, two rating scales were provided: (a) "How strongly do you currently perceive this expectation from your parents?" (L. Wang & Heppner, 2002a)? and (b) "To what extent do you currently perform this manner?" (L. Wang & Heppner, 2002a). The first scale represented the PPE, and the second scale represented the PSP. I intended to use only the PPE subscale for this research; therefore, all answers were responses to the question "How strongly do you currently perceive this expectation from your parents?" (L. Wang & Heppner, 2002a). Questions were answered using a 6-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*not at all expected*) to 6 (*very strongly expected*). Intermediate values (2 to 5) allowed participants to indicate their responses within the given numerical range for scales (see L. Wang & Heppner, 2002a). The sum of each individual item's response produced a total score for the PPE. Participants with higher total PPE scores were thought to have higher perceived parental expectations for academic achievement.

L. Wang and Heppner (2002a) conducted extensive mixed-methods research with Taiwanese students to develop the scales that constituted the LPEI. The scale's development involved three separate activities: (a) item development and identifying each domain; (b) back translation to test the face validity of the items in relationship to

each domain; and (c) a pilot study to evaluate item performance and precise wording. L. Wang and Heppner (2002a) conducted interviews and focus groups with the students concerning different aspects of parental expectations, which resulted in the identification of five domains related to the topic: romantic relationships, character training, academic achievement, responsibility for parents, and responsibility for family. Next, L. Wang and Heppner generated a 75-item questionnaire to assess each domain. L. Wang and Heppner chose two rating scales to accompany each item, each measured with a 6-point Likert scale. L. Wang and Heppner (2002a) also conducted a face validity assessment by recruiting three Taiwanese students unfamiliar with the research to place each item into one of five categories. No more than three items were miscategorized by either student, indicating that each domain was interpreted as L. Wang and Heppner (2002a; 2002b) intended.

The pilot study for the LPEI included 110 Taiwanese undergraduates. Participants were first asked to write three of the most commonly perceived parental expectations. L. Wang and Heppner (2002a) used those answers to check the appropriateness of the domains earlier identified. The researchers noted that there were no additional domains found. Participants then completed the pilot LPEI. Cronbach's α coefficients for all three scales indicated very good internal consistency: PPE = .94, PSP = .93, and LPE = .93. L. Wang and Heppner narrowed the LPEI from the pilot's 75 items to 62 items using statistical guidelines. Additionally, L. Wang and Heppner (see 2002a) conducted an exploratory factor analysis to evaluate the fundamental factor composition of the LPEI. Those results warranted removal of 30 items, leaving 32 items on the official LPEI. L.

Wang and Heppner identified three factors: personal maturity with 16 items, academic achievement with nine items, and dating concerns with seven items. These factors and corresponding items became the scales of the LPEI.

My present research focuses on parental expectations for academic achievement; therefore, I plan to utilize only the academic achievement factor of the PPE scale. The alpha coefficients for the academic achievement factor of the PPE indicate good internal consistency ($\alpha = .85$). The academic achievement factor of the PPE is appropriate for my dissertation research because it specifically and reliably measures my independent variable, perceived parental expectations for academic achievement. The scale is readily accessible through the Walden University Library's Test and Measures Combined database and includes a permissions clause. The authors do not require any written requests for permission for usage in non-commercial and educational research (L. Wang & Heppner, 2002b). However, after corresponding with one of the original authors regarding correct scoring on the PPE (L. Wang, personal communication, July 28, 2023) (See Appendix D), I signed and returned a permission form for the use of the PPE with specific conditions (See Appendix E).

Self-Critical Perfectionism Subscale of the Big Three Perfectionism Survey

The BTPS (see M. M. Smith et al., 2016a) was developed to provide a detailed and nuanced analysis of multidimensional perfectionism. Researchers wanted to measure what they considered to be the three global factors of perfectionism: rigid perfectionism, self-critical perfectionism, and narcissistic perfectionism. These global factors were composed of ten facets of perfectionism. The self-critical perfectionism subscale consists

of 18 items from the entire 45-item BTPS (Items 11-28), measuring four of the ten facets of perfectionism: self-criticism, concerns over mistakes, doubts about actions, and socially prescribed perfectionism (See Appendix F). Researchers score items using a 5-point Likert scale. Respondents will choose where their response falls on a sliding scale. The total score results from averaging the scores of all 18 items (M. M. Smith et al., 2016b; Workye et al., 2023). Higher scores indicate higher instances of self-critical perfectionism.

The authors proposed that constructing scales based on ten distinct facets could reduce academic confusion surrounding clinical perfectionism by ensuring the inclusion of core components often overlooked in previous studies (M. M. Smith et al., 2016b). The outcome would be a more reliable and precise measurement instrument for assessing perfectionism. To support their proposition, they conducted three separate studies, focusing on item development, factor analysis, and reliability and validity of the instrument. In the first study, the researchers created a preliminary pool of 102 items to measure the ten facets and three factors of perfectionism. They then refined the questionnaire to 45 items by discarding any problematic ones. The pilot questionnaire was then administered to a group of 288 students with random placement of items throughout the scale. Cronbach's scores for each of the ten facets ranged from .79 to .89. The global factors: rigid perfectionism, self-critical perfectionism, and narcissistic perfectionism exhibited higher α scores: .92, .92, and .93, respectively. An exploratory factor analysis further verified the unidimensionality of each facet and the appropriate grouping of facets within the larger factors.

Study two provided additional evidence confirming the instrument's reliability and validity. The authors employed both primary and secondary confirmatory factor analyses to validate the instrument. In the primary confirmatory factor analysis, the ten facets were individually confirmed to be one-dimensional, with an overall good model fit when assessed collectively. Moreover, during the secondary confirmatory factor analysis, various models were compared, including those with one, two, and three higher-order factors. Significantly ($p < .001$) better fit was observed in the model that included all three global factors, compared to the one- or two-factor models. These findings further reinforced the reliability of each facet within the BTPS and also highlighted the multidimensional nature of the instrument. Consequently, the study suggests that the most appropriate conceptualization involves measuring three higher-order factors, which underlie the validity by measuring the correlation between the BTPS and other measures of perfectionism. A group of university students (n= 290) were administered the BTPS, Hewitt and Flett's MPS, the FMPS, and the Big Five Mini-Markers, a measure of the five-factor personality model. The BTPS displayed moderate to large positive correlations with the other instruments which provided further evidence of the validity of the instrument (M. M. Smith et al., 2016b).

The self-critical perfectionism subscale of the BTPS measures all factors that most researchers agree are the core of self-critical perfectionism: concerns over mistakes, doubts about actions, self-criticism, and socially prescribed perfectionism (K.-D. Lee et al., 2020; M. M. Smith et al., 2016b; Stoeber et al., 2020; Wu, 2022). Therefore, I believe the self-critical perfectionism subscale is the best instrument available for testing my

dependent variable of self-critical perfectionism. The BTPS is readily accessible through the Walden University Library's Test and Measures Combined Search database and does not require the author's written approval for use in educational research (M. M. Smith et al., 2016a) (see Appendix G).

Operationalization of Variables

Parental Expectations for Academic Achievement

As mentioned in the introduction, the independent or predictor variable, parental expectations for academic achievement, is defined as the perceived beliefs, opinions, and expectations the participants assumed their parents have towards their academic achievements and success now or when last working towards a degree (Curran & Hill, 2022; Lai et al., 2022; S. Lee et al., 2023; L. Wang & Heppner, 2002a). I measured the variable as intended, using the academic achievement factor section of the PPE, a subscale of the LPEI. Participants electronically viewed nine statements concerning their personal perceived parental expectations such as, "Parents expect my academic performance to make them proud (L. Wang & Heppner, 2002b)." They then chose a numerical response ranging from 1 (not at all expected) to 6 (very strongly expected). Participants repeated this pattern for all nine items on the factor's subscale. The score for each item was then added together to generate the participants' total PPE scores.

Moderator Variable

The moderator variable, education level, is an ordinal variable assessing if respondents' highest educational level is a high school diploma, bachelor's degree, or graduate or postgraduate degree such as a master's degree or Doctor of Philosophy

(PhD). A section of the electronic survey required respondents to choose their highest awarded educational level from a provided listing. They were only able to select one item from the following: high school diploma, associate's degree, bachelor's degree, master's degree, and postgraduate degree (i.e., Ed.S PhD, PsyD, DNP, DSW). These categories were then dummy coded into two groups which were EDU_UG and EDU_GRAD. High school diploma, associate's degree, and bachelor's degree groups were combined to create EDU_UG, and master's degree and postgraduate degree categories were combined to form EDU_GRAD. EDU_UG was chosen as the reference category because the education levels contained in that category are typically the first obtained in the order of education. (See Table 1).

Table 1

Dummy Code Categorization

Dummy code	Value	
EDU_UG	0	0
EDU_GRAD	0	1

Self-Critical Perfectionism

The dependent variable, self-critical perfectionism, was measured as proposed, using the self-critical perfectionism subscale of the BTPS (M. M. Smith et al., 2016a). For this research, self-critical perfectionism is defined as having extremely high and unreasonable expectations for oneself that failure to meet results in extreme self-criticism and low self-esteem (Hayes & Turner, 2021; Jun et al., 2022; A. Kawamoto et al., 2023). Participants took an electronic version of the 18-item measure containing sentences such as, "When I notice that I have made a mistake, I feel ashamed (M. M. Smith et al.,

2016a).” Participants chose a point on a rating scale that most aligns with the truth of that statement in their lives. Scoring ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Participants assigned a numerical score to each item on the scale. The item’s individual scores were added together to create the scale’s total score for each participant. Higher total scores indicated a higher prevalence of self-critical perfectionism for that participant.

Data Analysis Plan

The goal of this quantitative study was to investigate if there was a correlation between parental expectations for academic achievement and self-critical perfectionism and if parental expectations for academic achievement were a significant predictor of self-critical perfectionism when moderated by education level. Moderation analysis using multiple regression was chosen for data analysis because I planned to test multiple factors that might explain an outcome and the moderating effect education level might have on the strength and direction of the potential relationship (Baron & Kenny, 1986; McCabe & King, 2023). Detailed data plans for each research question are listed in the subsequent sections.

To ensure the privacy of each participant, I did not collect any other identifiable information than a confirmation of the participant’s gender and their highest education level. I did not collect the IP addresses of participants. To minimize the potential for missing or omitted data, I generated a survey that required all fields to be completed before processing to the next page and completing the survey.

Data Cleaning and Assumptions

To analyze, I uploaded the survey responses file into SPSS (Version 28). Evaluating the dataset to locate missing data and catch errors was crucial for obtaining accurate results (Baron & Kenny, 1983). Any instances of missing data were excluded from the analysis. Before testing any assumptions or analyzing the results, I mean centered the independent variable (PPE) to reduce the possibility of multicollinearity and simply the interpretation (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Mean centering variables calls for subtracting the mean of all data from each individual data point. After mean centering the PPE, I used frequencies and descriptive statistics to test the assumptions of linearity, homoscedasticity, independence of errors, normality, and the absence of multicollinearity. Using the dummy coded category EDU_GRAD, I created an interaction term by creating a simple product of the predictor variables, the IV, parental expectations for academic achievement, and the specific education level group, (parental expectations for academic achievement * EDU_GRAD) to gain a deeper understanding of potential relationships between variables and determine the strength and direction of these relationships.

Research Question Data Analysis

The following outlines the research questions and hypotheses for the study:

RQ1: What is the relationship between parental expectations for academic achievement and self-critical perfectionism in Black women?

$H_0$1: There is no statistically significant relationship between parental expectations for academic achievement and self-critical perfectionism in Black women.

H_a1: There is a statistically significant relationship between parental expectations for academic achievement and self-critical perfectionism in Black women.

RQ2: What is the relationship between the education level and self-critical perfectionism in Black women?

$H_0 2$: There is no statistically significant relationship between the education level obtained and self-critical perfectionism in Black women.

$H_a 2$: There is a statistically significant relationship between the education level obtained and self-critical perfectionism in Black women.

RQ3: Does the education level obtained moderate the relationship between parental expectations for academic achievement and self-critical perfectionism in Black women?

$H_0 3$: The education level obtained has no moderating effect on the relationship between parental expectations for academic achievement and self-critical perfectionism in Black women.

$H_a 3$: The education level obtained has a moderating effect on the relationship between parental expectations for academic achievement and self-critical perfectionism in Black women.

To address the research questions and test the hypotheses of this study, I conducted a series of analyses to answer each research question outlined in my study. I utilized SPSS (Version 28) to conduct the following steps to answer each research question:

1. Initially, I computed a bivariate regression to determine if a statistically significant relationship exists between parental expectations for academic achievement and self-critical perfectionism to answer RQ1.
2. To answer RQ2, I conducted a linear multiple regression analysis using the education level groups as the independent variables and self-critical perfectionism as the outcome variable.
3. Before conducting the statistical test for RQ3, I created the interaction term in SPSS (Version 28) between parental expectations for academic achievement and the dummy-coded education level group EDU_GRAD. To answer RQ3, I ran a linear multiple regression analyses using the predictor variables, parental expectations for academic achievement and EDU_GRAD, the created interaction term, and the outcome variable, self-critical perfectionism. The moderation analyses assessed how the evaluated education levels affected the direction and strength of the potential relationship between parental expectations for academic achievement and self-critical perfectionism.

To interpret the results, I examined any degree of change in the outcome variable for every unit increase in the predictors (unstandardized coefficients -β), the change, if any, in the variance between the model with and without the interaction effect (R^2), and the significance (p) values.

Threats to Validity

Internal Validity

Moderation regression analysis is susceptible to several threats to internal validity that may compromise the accuracy and reliability of its findings (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Campbell & Stanley, 1963; Clark et al., 2021;). Campbell and Stanley (1963) identified several potential threats to internal validity. Among these, the ones most pertinent to this research study are history, maturation, and selection bias. History, in this context, denotes an external event unrelated to the independent variable that could influence the study's outcomes. It is essential to consider that there might be various other factors and incidents contributing to self-critical perfectionism in Black women, which may not be directly related to parental expectations or any similar factors. Maturation, on the other hand, is a threat arising from natural developmental changes or processes that participants undergo over time. As individuals naturally mature and grow, their behaviors, attitudes, and responses may change independently of the experimental manipulations. In this study, maturation could be a concern as it may influence the development of self-critical perfectionism in Black women over the course of the research.

Selection bias, specifically sampling bias, can also threaten the internal validity of the research (Lehdonvirta et al., 2021). Due to the volunteer nature of this research, groups may be under or overrepresented, skewing the research outcomes. Participants who volunteer to take part in the study might possess unique characteristics or motivations that differ from those of the larger population, potentially leading to a non-representative sample. For instance, individuals who have a vested interest in the research

topic may be more inclined to volunteer, while others with less interest or availability might be excluded. This can introduce systematic differences between the study sample and the target population, compromising the internal validity.

While the present study has identified history, maturation, and selection bias as significant threats to internal validity (see Campbell & Stanley, 1963), it is imperative to acknowledge the existence of other potential sources of bias and limitations that may impact the research findings (Clark et al., 2021). Omitted variable bias, nonexperimental design, and confirmation bias are among the additional threats that could affect the internal validity and generalizability of the study's results. Addressing these potential challenges through meticulous research design, rigorous data collection methods, and thoughtful data analysis will be essential to enhance the study's validity and ensure the robustness of its conclusions. By recognizing and accounting for these various threats, researchers can advance our understanding of the complex factors contributing to self-critical perfectionism in Black women and promote the development of more targeted and effective interventions to address this important mental health issue.

External Validity

Nonexperimental quantitative research faces several threats to external validity that limit the generalizability of its findings to broader populations and settings (Clark et al., 2021; Baron & Kenny, 1986). One significant threat is selection bias, which arises when the sample selected for the study does not accurately represent the target population. Since responses will come from volunteers only, it will be challenging to obtain a fully representative sample of the entire population. As a result, the study's

external validity may be compromised. Additionally, the participants will be recruited through voluntary response sampling, which may introduce certain limitations. This volunteer sampling method may lead to underlying causes that could potentially bias the research outcomes. For instance, if a majority of participants hold degrees from the same university or reside in a specific geographical area, it could inadvertently influence the results without being adequately observed. Likewise, with this sampling approach, the participant groups are predetermined before they consent to participate (Clark et al., 2021). This could lead to skewed findings due to pre-existing differences between the groups.

Self-report measures in nonexperimental studies also introduce the potential for common method bias, where responses from participants may be influenced by factors unrelated to the variables under investigation. This type of bias can distort the relationships between variables and lead to overestimation or underestimation of their associations. Consequently, the external validity of this study may be compromised if the common method bias influences the results in a way that does not accurately reflect the population's real-world relationships. Further, this study is delimited to a specific ethic group and gender, Black women. By focusing exclusively on Black women, the research may not adequately represent the broader population, limiting the generalizability of its conclusions. This restriction can lead to a selection bias, as the experiences and characteristics of Black women may differ from those of other ethnic groups and genders. Consequently, caution must be exercised when applying the study's results beyond the

specified group, and further research is required to validate the findings in a more diverse sample to enhance the study's external validity.

Ethical Procedures

Ethical procedures encompass a range of principles and guidelines that researchers must adhere to throughout the research process, from the formulation of the research question to the reporting of findings. Addressing issues such as informed consent, confidentiality, data privacy, voluntary participation, and the mitigation of potential risks, ethical procedures aim to safeguard the welfare and rights of participants while maintaining the validity and credibility of the research outcomes. In order to begin participant recruitment and data collection, I secured approval to begin from Walden University's Institutional Review Board (IRB). Once obtained, I began creating the recruitment flyer for social media and drafting the survey to disseminate to potential participants.

Respondents received informed consent in the second page of the online survey which provided a description of and purpose of the study, my name and role as a doctoral candidate, study procedures, inclusion criteria, voluntary nature of the study, risk and potential benefits to participation, privacy and confidentiality statement, sample questions from both scales, and an invitation to participate. Participants were required to indicate their understanding of the study and procedures, acknowledgement of their ability to quit and exit the survey at any time, and consent to participation by choosing the "yes" response to the question on the informed consent page. When conducting research, the risk of harm (physical, mental, and emotional) to research participants must be minimized

(Clark et al., 2021; Baron & Kenny, 1986). The target population in this study is not considered a vulnerable population; therefore, they do not require any supplementary protection. Still, the concluding page of the survey provided links to four online mental health resources for participants, in case the survey content triggered any emotional responses. Respondents' information and research data are stored on a biometrically protected flash drive, securely housed within a digitally locked personal safe. This storage arrangement ensures the highest level of privacy and confidentiality, in compliance with research guidelines, and will be maintained for at least five years.

Summary

In Chapter 3, I presented the comprehensive proposed research design and rationale, covering various essential components such as the targeted population, sampling procedures, participant recruitment, and data collection methods. Moreover, the chapter outlined the instrumentation and operationalization of key constructs, along with detailed plans for data analysis. Ethical considerations and concerns were carefully addressed. The central aim of this quantitative study is to investigate the connection between parental expectations for academic achievement and self-critical perfectionism, focusing on the potential moderating effect of education level. Building upon the foundation laid in Chapter 3, Chapter 4 will provide an in-depth account of the data collection process, present the obtained results, and close with a comprehensive analysis of the research findings.

Chapter 4: Results

The purpose of this quantitative moderating regression study was to investigate whether education level moderated the relationship between parental expectations for academic achievement and self-critical perfectionism in Black women with varying education levels. The focal point of this investigation was to examine parental expectations for academic achievement's relationship with self-critical perfectionism across different education levels of Black women between the ages of 18 and 50. This chapter details the study procedures and any variations from the original study plan. Further, this chapter includes the presentation of results, a detailed analysis of the sample population, an examination of variable means, assumptions testing, and a thorough exploration of regression analysis outcomes relative to each research question. The study's findings align with existing literature on the dynamics between parental expectations for academic achievement and self-critical or maladaptive perfectionism (Jun et al., 2022; Kahn et al., 2021; L. Wang & Heppner, 2002).

Data Collection

I obtained approval from Walden University's IRB on November 7, 2023. After gaining IRB approval, I posted my recruitment flyer containing the SurveyMonkey survey and accompanying caption (see Appendices H & I)) hyperlink on my personal Facebook and LinkedIn social media pages. I also shared my personal post containing the flyer and survey link to the Minority Doctoral Group and My Therapist is Black Facebook groups. I opted to share the original post so that each post's wording remained the same, explaining the research topic, outlining the inclusion criteria, and containing a

live hyperlink directly to the survey. I also submitted and was approved to have my survey posted in the Walden University Participant Pool to recruit participants. I collected data from November 7, 2023, to December 6, 2023, which was approximately 4 weeks.

A total of 144 women initially participated in the study. However, several participants did not complete the survey. As I investigated the original data, I realized there were 48 missing responses. Fourteen of these missing responses came from participants who did not meet the inclusion criteria. However, most of the missing responses (n = 34) were from participants who did not complete the survey beyond the informed consent page. There were 95 respondents who met all inclusion criteria, agreed to the informed consent, and completed both survey instruments. This number was higher than the G*Power (see Faul et al., 2007) minimum recommended sample size of 68 participants. I calculated the statistical power again using the achieved parameters and chose the post hoc option to assess the achieved power: Cohen's f equation. This sample's statistical power was .905, suggesting a roughly 90% chance of detecting a significant effect if one exists. I proceeded to the data cleaning step with the 95 complete responses.

Data Cleaning

I downloaded the data from SurveyMonkey into a .sav file that was subsequently uploaded directly into SPSS (Version 28). I compared the items in the SPSS data with the number of responses listed in SurveyMonkey to ensure the numbers matched. I then calculated the total PPE scale score using the compute variable function in SPSS. Using

this function, I added the numeric scores of Questions 13–21, which were the nine questions of the PPE. I repeated the compute variable function for the total BTPS score, tallying the numeric scores to Questions 22–39, which were the 18 items of the BTPS. Afterward, I mean centered the total PPE score. Using that score's mean, I computed a new centered variable by subtracting the mean of each variable from each individual original numeric score. Mean-centering variables serve to mitigate concerns related to multicollinearity, in which two or more predictors exhibit high correlation with each other (see Baron & Kenny, 1986; Ong, 2023).

Using the initial data set, I computed a bivariate regression model using the PPE scores as predictors and the BTPS score as the outcome variable to assess its significance ($p = .004$). Next, I removed all responses that contained any missing data, resulting in the creation of a refined data set. I repeated the regression analysis to evaluate whether the removal of missing data had a substantial impact on the significance level. The significance level was unchanged, suggesting that the exclusion of missing data was unlikely to significantly affect the outcomes of the study. With this knowledge, I proceeded with transforming variables and the statistical analyses for each research question, using the updated data set ($N = 95$).

The next step was to get the data ready for analysis. I created the dummy coded category, EDU_GRAD, by using the SPSS function to recode them into separate variables. I split the groups into two categories: undergraduate and graduate. The undergraduate category consisted of high school diploma, associate's degree, and bachelor's degree. The graduate category contained the master's and postgraduate

degrees. I decided to use the group with the most accessible education levels as the referent, so I dummy coded groups in the undergraduate category as 0 and those in the graduate category as 1. I then built the interaction term to test for moderation by computing the interaction effect, multiplying the dummy variable by centered PPE score (EDU_GRAD * PPE), which resulted in one interaction term that was included in the final research question's analysis. After creating the interaction term, I analyzed the data.

Data Analysis

This study's design consisted of a bivariate regression followed by multiple regression analyses with and without an interaction effect. I chose a correlational survey design because my objective was to investigate the existence of a predictive relationship among parental expectations for academic achievement, education level, and self-critical perfectionism. The decision to employ multiple regression analysis was motivated by the need to address the complexity arising from the inclusion of multiple variables in the research, which provided a more comprehensive understanding compared to a sole reliance on a correlational design.

Assumptions

A key factor in multiple linear regression testing involves the testing of assumptions (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Apart from verifying the presence of two or more independent variables and a continuous dependent variable, the analysis encompasses scrutiny of five pivotal assumptions: independence of residuals, linearity, normality, absence of multicollinearity, and homoscedasticity. Autocorrelation, quantified by the Durbin-Watson statistic, gauges the correlation between residuals, with values typically

ranging from 0 to 4. Values closer to 0 denote positive autocorrelation, while those nearing 4 signify negative autocorrelation. Values near 2 indicate there are no issues of autocorrelation in a given sample. My data met the assumption of the independent residuals (Durbin-Watson statistic = 2.107, see Table 12). Furthermore, visual inspection of the normal p-plot of standardized residuals revealed a primarily linear relationship between the variables and the histogram displayed a normal distribution (see Figures 1 and 2).

Figure 1

Normal P-Plot of Standardized Residuals

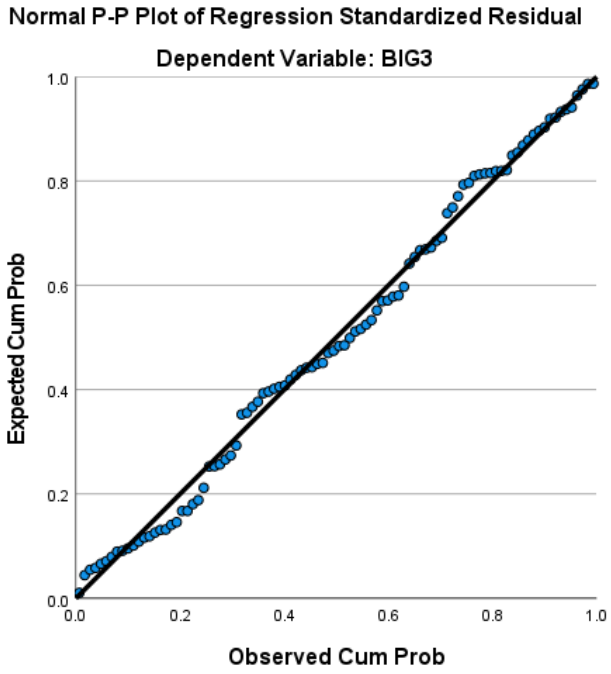
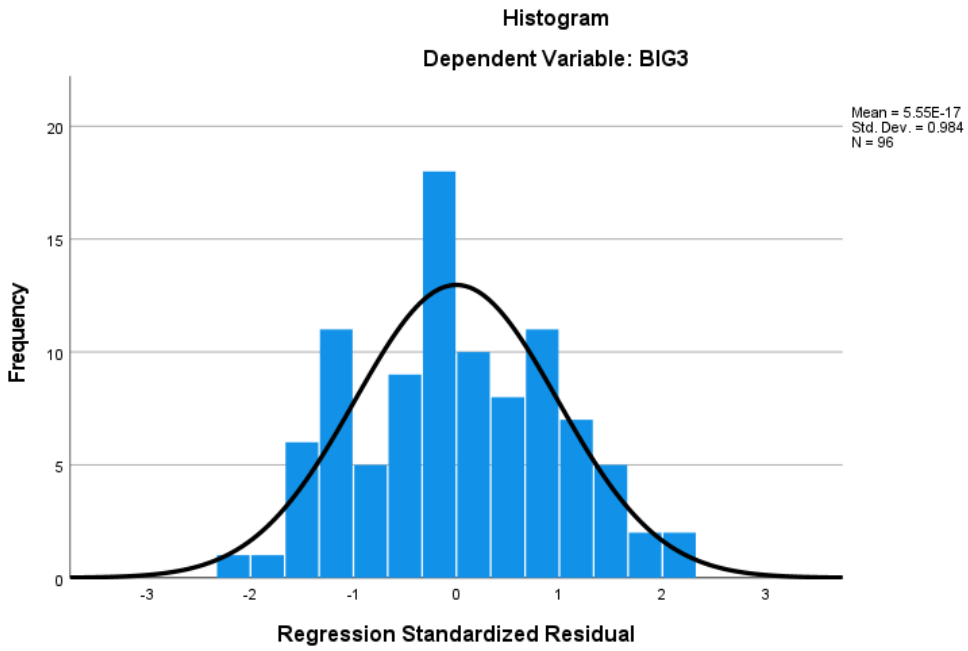


Figure 2

Histogram



As shown in Table 2, the Pearson's correlation test to determine whether the independent variables were highly correlated indicated a low correlation between variables. Therefore, multicollinearity was not a concern, $r(93) = -.24$, $p = .018$. Finally, examination of the scatterplot of standardized residuals revealed a consistent spread of residuals across all levels of the predicted values, suggesting homoscedasticity, as shown in Figure 3.

Table 2

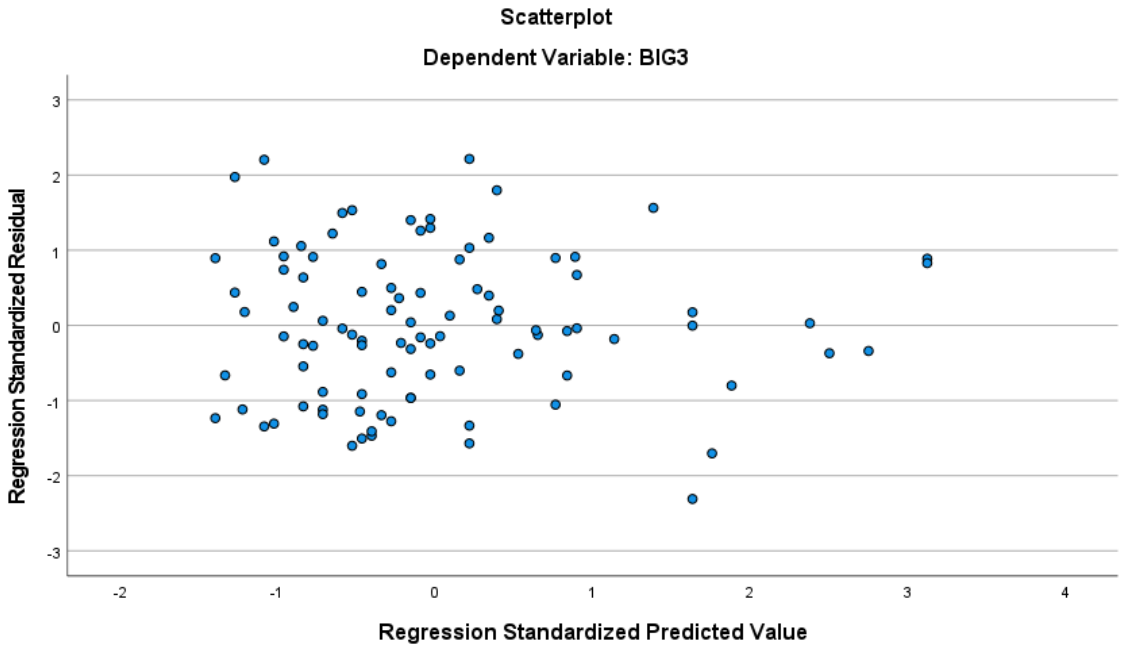
Correlation Between PPE and Education Level

Variable		EDU_GRAD	PPECENTER
EDU_GRAD	Pearson Correlation	1	-.241*
PPECENTER	Pearson Correlation	-.241*	1

Note. *p = .018.

Figure 3

Scatterplot of Standardized Residuals



Demographics and Descriptive Statistics

All participants in the study self-identified as cisgender Black women, rendering demographic questions on race and gender redundant. The demographic information collected encompassed the participants' age range, highest education level attained, first-generation college student status, and whether their siblings held college degrees.

Specific age details were not solicited; instead, a single question verified whether participants fell within the desired age range for inclusion (18–50 years). The sample was evenly split, with 50% of the women identified as first-generation college students (*n* = 48). Most participants held master's degrees (*n* = 41), followed by the next largest group with doctoral or other professional degrees (*n* = 31). The smallest representation was observed in the high school diploma and associate's degree holders, totaling only 6.4% of the sample. Finally, 65.6% of respondents had siblings with college degrees, whereas 28.1% did not have siblings with college degrees. A small number of participants said they did not have siblings (*n* = 6) (see Table 3).

Table 3

Demographic Characteristics of Study Participants

Demographic	Category	Number	Percentage
Education level	High school diploma	3	3.2%
	Associate's degree	3	3.2%
	Bachelor's degree	18	18.6%
	Master's degree	41	42.7%
	Postgraduate degree or other professional degree	31	32.3%
First-generation college student status	Yes	48	50%
	No	48	50%
Siblings with college degrees	Yes	63	65.6%
	No	27	28.1%
	No siblings	6	6.3%

I used descriptive statistics to summarize general information about the data set. For parental expectations for academic achievement, the average score was 30.9 (*SD* = 9.6). The range among the scores was 38. For the dependent variable, self-critical

perfectionism, the mean score was 51.2 (*SD* = 17.7). The range for this variable was 69 (see Table 4).

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics of BTPS and PPE Scales

Variable	*N*	Range	Minimum	Maximum	*M*	*SD*
BTPS	95	69	21	90	51.2	17.7
PPE	95	38	13	51	30.9	9.6

Note. *M* and *SD* are rounded to .0.

Results

To test the hypotheses of each research question, I conducted multiple linear regression analyses using parental expectations for academic achievement (centered PPE score), graduate education level dummy variable EDU_GRAD, and the interaction term of the dummy variable and PPE as predictor variables. Self-critical perfectionism (BTPS score) was the outcome variable. I initially examined the significance of the relationship by assessing the *p* values, R^2 or R^2 change values, and the unstandardized coefficients (β).

Research Question 1

RQ1: What is the relationship between parental expectations for academic achievement and self-critical perfectionism in Black women?

$H_0$1: There is no statistically significant relationship between parental expectations for academic achievement and self-critical perfectionism in Black women.

H_a1: There is a statistically significant relationship between parental expectations for academic achievement and self-critical perfectionism in Black women.

I used bivariate linear regression to test whether parental expectations for academic achievement significantly predicted self-critical perfectionism. The fitted regression model was self-critical perfectionism = 51.069 + .538 * (parental expectations for academic achievement). With the standard α of .05, the overall model was statistically significant, $F(1,94) = 8.660$, $p = .004$, $R^2 = .075$. I found that there was a small positive effect ($R = .290$), with 7.5% of the variation in self-critical perfectionism attributed to parental expectations for academic achievement (see Tables 5 and 6).

Table 5

SPSS Output for Bivariate Regression for RQ1

Model	*R*	R^2	Adjusted R^2	Std. error of the estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.290[a]	.084	.075	17.01381	2.183

Note. $p = .004$. a. Predictors: (Constant), PPECENTER. Dependent Variable: BIG3.

Table 6

ANOVA for Bivariate Regression for RQ1

Model		Sum of squares	*df*	Mean square	*F*	*p*
1	Regression	2506.813	1	2506.813	8.660	.004[b]
	Residual	27210.145	94	289.470		
	Total	29716.958	95			

a. Dependent Variable: BIG3 b. Predictors: (Constant), PPECENTER

The standardized coefficient reveals that for each unit increase in PPE score, the scores for self-critical perfectionism increase by .538 (see Table 7). This significance level allows me to reject the null hypothesis and determine a statistically significant relationship exists between parental expectations for academic achievement and self-critical perfectionism.

Table 7

Coefficients Table for Bivariate Regression for RQ1

Model		B	*SE*	β	*p*	95% CI *LL*	95% CI *UL*
1	(Constant)	51.069	1.737		<.001	47.619	54.518
	PPECENTER	.538	.183	.290	.004	.175	.901

a. Dependent Variable: BIG3

Research Question 2

RQ2: What is the relationship between the education level and self-critical perfectionism in Black women?

$H_0$2: There is no statistically significant relationship between the education level obtained and self-critical perfectionism in Black women.

H_a2: There is a statistically significant relationship between the education level obtained and self-critical perfectionism in Black women.

I conducted a bivariate linear regression to determine if education level significantly predicted self-critical perfectionism to test the above hypotheses. I conducted the regression using the dummy variable EDU_GRAD as my independent variable and BTPS score as my dependent variable. As shown in Tables 8 and 9, the overall model was statistically significant, $F(1,94) = 4.726$, $p = .032$, $R^2 = .038$. There was a small positive effect ($R = .219$) with 3.8% of the variance in self-critical perfectionism attributed to graduate and postgraduate education levels (see Table 9). Investigating the coefficients table (see Table 10), the results indicate that for every unit increase in education level, the self-critical perfectionism score actually decreases almost 9 points (B = -9.018). Nonetheless, given the significance of the main effect, I can reject

the null hypothesis and accept that there is a statistically significant relationship between the education level obtained and self-critical perfectionism in Black women.

Table 8

SPSS Output for Bivariate Regression for RQ2

					Change Statistics			
Model	*R*	R^2	Adjusted R^2	Std. error of the estimate	R^2 change	*F* change	*df*1	*df*2
1	.219[a]	.048	.038	17.34950	.048	4.726	1	94

a. Predictors: (Constant), EDU_GRAD

Table 9

ANOVA for Bivariate Regression for RQ2

Model		Sum of squares	*df*	Mean square	*F*	*p*
1	Regression	1422.475	1	1422.475	4.726	.032[b]
	Residual	28294.484	94	301.005		
	Total	29716.958	95			

a. Dependent Variable: BIG3
b. Predictors: (Constant), EDU_GRAD

Table 10

Coefficients Table for Bivariate Regression for RQ2

Model		B	*SE*	β	*p*	95% CI *LL*	95% CI *UL*
1	(Constant)	58.087	3.618		<.001	50.904	65.270
	EDU_GRAD	-9.018	4.149	-.219	.032	-17.256	-.781

a. Dependent Variable: BIG3

Research Question 3

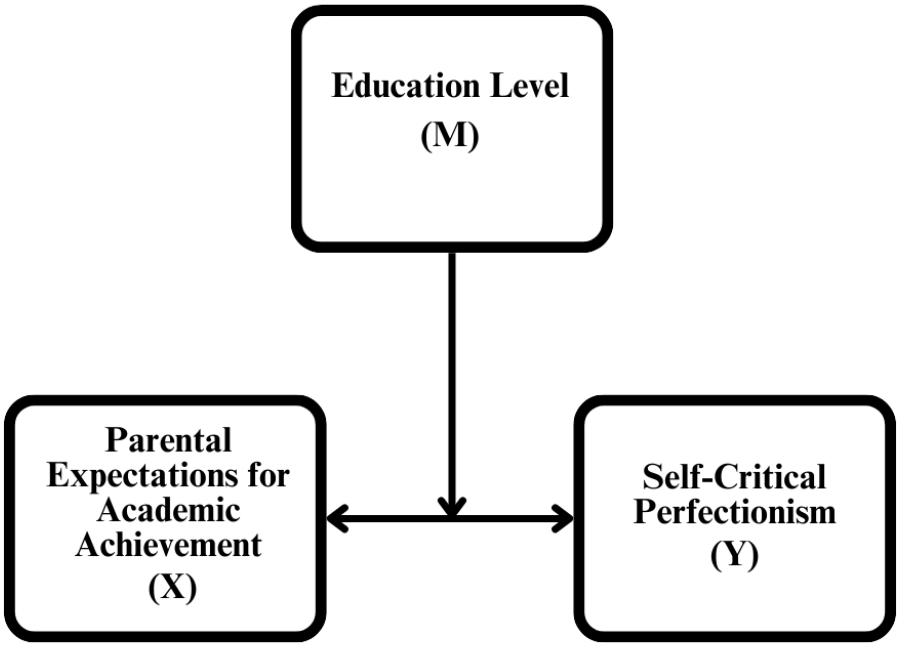
RQ3: Does the education level obtained moderate the relationship between parental expectations for academic achievement and self-critical perfectionism in Black women?

$H_0$3: The education level obtained has no moderating effect on the relationship between parental expectations for academic achievement and self-critical perfectionism in Black women.

H_a3: The education level obtained has a moderating effect on the relationship between parental expectations for academic achievement and self-critical perfectionism in Black women.

Figure 4

Hypothesized Moderating Relationship



To answer this research question, I conducted a multiple regression with moderation analysis. When conducting regression with moderation analysis, it is vital to see if both models, one without the interaction effect and one containing the interaction, are significant (see Baron & Kenny, 1986). It is also necessary to determine if the amount of variance in the model with interaction is significantly more than the model without interaction. In Model 1 (without interaction), I conducted a multiple regression using self-critical perfectionism as the dependent variable and parental expectations for academic achievement and EDU_GRAD as the independent variables. As shown in Tables 11 and 12, the overall model without interaction was statistically significant, $F(2, 93) = 5.623$, $p = .005$, $R^2 = .089$.

Table 11

SPSS Output for Model 1 Without Interaction Term

Model	*R*	R^2	Adjusted R^2	Std. error of the estimate
1	.328[a]	.108	.089	16.88384

a. Predictors: (Constant), EDU_GRAD, PPECENTER

Table 12

ANOVA for Model 1 Without Interaction Term

Model		Sum of squares	*df*	Mean square	*F*	*p*
1	Regression	3206.606	2	1603.003	5.623	.005[b]
	Residual	26510.952	93	285.064		
	Total	29716.598	95			

In Model 2, I conducted a multiple linear regression using self-critical perfectionism as the dependent variable and parental expectations for academic achievement (PPE), EDU_GRAD, and the interaction term, PPE x EDU, as independent variables. This model was statistically significant and revealed that the predictors explained almost 9% of the variance in the outcome, $F(3,92) = 3.991$, $p = .010$, $R^2 = .086$, ($\beta = 54.827$, SE = 3.880, 95% CI [47.122, 62.533]). Further investigation of the coefficients reinforces that for Model 2, parental expectations for academic achievement are significantly positive related to self-critical perfectionism ($\beta = .075$, $p < .047$) but graduate education levels are not significant predictors, ($\beta = -5.392$, $p = .219$;). Further, the interaction term proved to be insignificant ($\beta = -.373$, $p = .387$). These findings can be found in Tables 13, 14, and 15.

Table 13

SPSS Output for Model 2 Containing Interaction Term

					Change Statistics				
Model	*R*	R^2	Adjusted R^2	Std. error of the estimate	R^2 change	*F* change	*df*1	*df*2	Durbin-Watson
1	.339[a]	.115	.086	16.90613	.115	3.991	3	92	2.162

a. Predictors: (Constant), PPE x EDU, EDU_GRAD, PPECENTER
b. Dependent Variable: BIG3

Table 14

ANOVA for Model 2 Containing Interaction Term

Model		Sum of squares	*df*	Mean square	*F*	*p*
1	Regression	3421.770	3	1140.590	3.991	.010[b]
	Residual	26295.188	92	285.817		
	Total	29716.958	95			

a. Dependent Variable: BIG3
b. Predictors: (Constant), PPExEDU, EDU_GRAD, PPECENTER

Table 15

Coefficients Table for Multiple Regression With Moderation Analysis

Model		B	*SE*	β	*p*	95% CI *LL*	95% CI *UL*	Correlations Zero-order	Correlations Part	Correlations Partial
1	(Constant)	54.827	3.880		<.001	47.122	62.533			
	PPECENTER	.745	.371	.403	.047	.009	1.481	.290	.205	.197
	EDU_GRAD	-5.392	4.361	-.131	.219	-14.053	3.268	-.219	-.289	-.121
	PPExEDU	-.373	.429	-.169	.387	-1.226	.480	.180	-.090	-.085

a. Dependent Variable: BIG3

Summary

In this chapter, I outlined the systematic process of data collection, cleaning, and statistical analyses, adhering closely to the established research plan. The initial dataset comprised 144 responses, surpassing the anticipated G*Power (see Faul et al., 2007) estimate of 68 respondents. The inclusion of this larger participant pool allowed elimination of all missing responses from the dataset without significantly altering the outcomes. As a result, I analyzed 95 cases, which was still considerably larger than the originally estimated number in G*Power (see Faul et al., 2007). The surplus in sample size could enhance the statistical robustness of the study, contributing to the reliability and generalizability of the findings.

Employing bivariate and multiple regression analyses, both with and without moderation, I addressed each of the three research questions by carefully testing hypotheses involving the identified variables. In the bivariate analysis, the research outcomes unveiled a significant and positive correlation between parental expectations for academic achievement and self-critical perfectionism. Following the initial regression

analysis, it also emerged that education level is significantly associated with self-critical perfectionism. The final regression analysis, incorporating moderation, exposed a statistically significant main effect, but the regression coefficient of interaction alone did not prove to be significant.

The current research provides valuable insights into the complexities of self-critical perfectionism. In this chapter, I presented the findings of my research endeavor. In Chapter 5, I will provide a more detailed interpretation of these findings. Additionally, I will discuss the limitations to the current research, outline the plan for dissemination, and conclude with reflections and recommendations for future research.

Chapter 5: Discussions, Conclusions, and Limitations

The purpose of my study was to investigate whether education level moderated the relationship between parental expectations for academic achievement and self-critical perfectionism in Black women. Using a correlational quantitative approach, I conducted bivariate and multiple linear regression analyses, both with and without moderation, to evaluate the predictive relationships among parental expectations for academic achievement, education level, and self-critical perfectionism. The recruitment process involved disseminating a flyer through social media platforms such as Facebook and LinkedIn, featuring a live hyperlink to the research survey (see Appendices B and C). Additionally, the study was posted in the Walden University Participant Pool (see Appendix J). Volunteers were also encouraged to share the survey link with individuals whom they believed would be interested in participating.

Throughout a span of 4 weeks, 144 volunteers took the survey. From this initial pool, 96 responses were complete, and 95 were included in the analysis (due to one case exclusion in SPSS). I received numerous comments on the social media posts exclaiming that this research was much needed but acknowledged issues many women may not be ready to accept. This information may explain why several women did not move past the inclusion criteria questions in the survey.

The results indicated that there was a significant relationship between parental expectations for academic achievement and self-critical perfectionism (RQ1) as well as education level and self-critical perfectionism (RQ2). However, although the overall models testing the relationship between parental expectations for academic achievement,

education level, and self-critical perfectionism and the model containing the interaction term of parental expectations for academic achievement and education level were significant (RQ3), the interaction (PPE x EDU) was not a significant predictor of self-critical perfectionism on its own.

Interpretation of the Findings

Parental Expectations for Academic Achievement and Self-Critical Perfectionism

For RQ1, the research findings indicated that there was a statistically significant positive relationship between parental expectations for academic achievement (PPE) and self-critical perfectionism (BTPS). The positive nature of this relationship meant that as the score for parental expectations for academic achievement increased, so did the score for self-critical perfectionism. These results mirror those of previous studies in Asian and Asian American communities testing the relationship between parental expectations and maladaptive perfectionistic traits (Fung et al., 2022; Jun et al., 2022). The R^2 value (0.75) indicated that about 7.5% of the differences I observed in self-critical perfectionism could be linked to differences in parental expectations for academic achievement. Even though parental expectations may not be the only factor that influenced self-critical perfectionism, there was a connection between the variables.

The 95% confidence interval for the standardized coefficient, with a lower limit of 47.619 and an upper limit of 54.518, added further precision to my understanding. This interval indicated that at 95% confidence, if this test was repeated, the true score for self-critical perfectionism would be between 47.619 and 54.518. The standardized coefficient of 0.538, representing the change in self-critical perfectionism scores for every one-unit

increase in parental expectations (PPE score), reinforced the positive relationship observed. As the parental expectations' score increased, self-critical perfectionism increased by 0.538 units. The significance of this relationship was strongly supported by a *p* value of .005, which was well below the conventional threshold of .05.

Education Level and Self-Critical Perfectionism

Before analysis, the categorial education level variable was dummy coded to be able to complete the regression. The original education level variable began as five categories: high school diploma, associate's degree, bachelor's degree, master's degree, and postgraduate or other professional degree. Those categories were then divided into two groups: undergraduate education and graduate education. Using undergraduate as the referent, I tested the significance of the relationship between graduate education level and self-critical perfectionism to test the hypothesis of RQ2. The findings indicated a statistically significant relationship between the variables. These findings reflect the outcomes of other studies on education and self-critical perfectionism, particularly those in Asian communities similarly to the outcomes in RQ1 (s.

The R^2 value has a small significance at 0.38, signifying that 3.8% of the variance observed in self-critical perfectionism was due to graduate education level. The 95% confidence interval estimated the true scores to be between 50.904 and 65.270. The standardized coefficient of -9.018 denoted the change in self-critical perfectionism score for every unit increase in education level. This change in direction is known as the suppression effect; it is when the sign of an effect between two variables differs in the coefficients and regression tables (Fiedler, 2022). The coefficient showed that as the

graduate education levels increased (degrees earned), the score for self-critical perfectionism dropped a little over nine points, which indicates that obtaining higher degrees decreases the adherence to parental expectations within this population. This model's *p* value was .032, which denoted a statistically significant relationship between the variables tested for RQ2.

Moderation Analysis of Education Level on Parental Expectations and Self-Critical Perfectionism

For RQ3, I examined whether education level moderated the relationship between parental expectations for academic achievement and self-critical perfectionism. I used multiple linear regression with moderation analysis to answer the research question. Before I tested the model with the interaction term for moderation, I had to test the model without interaction for significance. Model 1 included parental expectations for academic achievement and graduate education level as the independent variables and self-critical perfectionism as the dependent variable. The model proved to be significant ($p = .005$), so I moved to the next model containing the interaction term.

Model 2 tested the impact of parental expectations for academic achievement, graduate education level, and the interaction of parental expectations for academic achievement and graduate education level (PPE x EDU) on self-critical perfectionism. Although the overall model was significant, $F(3,92) = 3.991$, $p = .010$, $R^2 = .086$, the coefficients indicated that only parental expectations for academic achievement were significantly related to self-critical perfectionism ($p < .047$). Graduate education level was a significant predictor in RQ2, accounting for a small to moderate effect on self-

critical perfectionism. However, in RQ3, graduate education level was not significant, implying that in combination with the other variables, the effect education level produced was greatly reduced. Further, the interaction term generated a significance level well over the conventional .05 threshold. This meant that when combined with other variables, the interaction helped predict self-critical perfectionism; however, there was no evidence that the interaction alone had a significant impact on self-critical perfectionism.

Theoretical Foundation

The self-discrepancy theory (Higgins, 1987; L. Wang & Heppner, 2022a) served as the central framework of my study. This theory provided a lens through which to analyze and understand the intricate relationship between internal discrepancies between a person's actual self, ought self, and ideal self as well as their personal viewpoint and others' viewpoint. In the context of mental well-being, this theory assists in understanding the role parental expectations play in shaping these discrepancies.

I investigated how internal self-discrepancies, influenced by parental expectations, affected participants' self-critical perfectionistic traits. The results supported the conclusion that participants with higher scores for parental expectations for academic achievement also demonstrated higher scores in self-critical perfectionism (RQ1). These findings aligned with the findings of L. Wang and Heppner (2002a), who initially explored these dynamics in their research with Taiwanese students. The current outcome highlighted the impact of parental expectations on the development of internal self-discrepancies, particularly between one's actual self and the ideal or ought self as envisioned by their parents. This parallel offered a cross-cultural validation of the theory,

instrument, and its applicability, suggesting that the influence of parental expectations on self-discrepancies, and consequently on mental well-being, might be a more universally observed phenomenon.

This finding not only reinforced the core assumptions of the self-discrepancy theory (see Higgins, 1987) but also revealed specific ways in which parental expectations for academic achievement can mold an individual's self-perception and self-critical tendencies. The higher self-critical perfectionism scores suggested a significant psychological strain as individuals strove to meet or reconcile parental expectations with their own self-concept. Such a pattern highlighted the magnitude of the role of parental expectations in shaping internal self-discrepancies. This lent support to the use of the self-discrepancy theory as the theoretical framework for this research.

Limitations of the Study

Sampling Method

I encountered several limitations, with one of the most significant being the nature of the sample. The primary method of data collection was voluntary response sampling, complemented by snowball sampling, where participants were encouraged to refer the survey to other women who met the study's criteria. These methods are prone to selection bias (Lehdonvirta et al., 2021) because they often attract participants with a specific interest in the topic or those within the smaller social networks of initial respondents. Such approaches can lead to overrepresentation or underrepresentation of certain groups, making the sample not reflective of the broader population.

Additionally, these sampling strategies typically yield a low response rate (Daikeler et al., 2020). Considering the target demographic of Black women age 18-50 with at least a high school education, the potential participant pool was vast (see Hamilton, 2022). However, after a 4-week period, the recruitment yielded only 144 responses. Although this number exceeded the minimum required sample size for the study, it fell short in representing the scale of the population in question. As a result, generalizing my findings to the entire population may be challenging due to the limited and potentially skewed nature of the sample. This limitation should be carefully considered when interpreting the results and implications of this research.

Recruitment

The recruitment process had similar limitations. Most of the recruitment took place through social media, specifically Facebook and LinkedIn. One primary concern was the issue of sample bias (see Zimmermann et al., 2022). The recruitment efforts, which included posting flyers on my personal social media pages and in two Facebook groups geared toward racial minority college students, predominantly reached my own social network. Given that most of my connections are former college classmates, both from undergraduate and graduate studies, this led to a disproportionate representation in the sample. Specifically, there was a notable overrepresentation of individuals with master's and doctoral degrees, while those with high school diplomas or associate's degrees were significantly underrepresented. This skewed representation resulted in a sample that did not accurately reflect the diversity of the general population.

Recruitment was also impacted by self-selection bias (see Kyriaki et al., 2020). Participants who responded to the study via these platforms were more likely to have a personal interest in the research topic, be frequent users of social media, or respond because it was my study. Due to this, the sample may not represent the full spectrum of perspectives and experiences that are relevant to the research question. Individuals who are less active on social media may not have seen the recruitment flyer or shared the same level of interest in the study's topic; therefore, they were less likely to participate. These biases inherent in the chosen recruitment methods highlight the need for caution when generalizing this study's findings to a broader population.

In addition to sample biases, recruiting participants via social media introduces challenges regarding participant authenticity and data quality (Peach et al., 2023). Verifying the authenticity of respondents is difficult, particularly with anonymous responses, raising concerns about the reliability of the data collected. The inclusion criteria were posted clearly in the text caption of the recruitment post and in the flyer. However, it was not possible to independently verify the accuracy of respondents' claims regarding their fulfillment of the inclusion criteria. Additionally, the visibility of recruitment posts is often at the mercy of the platform's algorithms, which can unpredictably limit the reach to a broader audience, further complicating the recruitment process. These combined factors underscore the need for careful consideration and possibly supplementary recruitment strategies to ensure the study's findings are robust, reliable, and generalizable.

Age Limitations

Excluding Black women under 18 and over 50 introduced limitations that could impact the study's depth and applicability. By not including Black women under 18, I excluded critical formative years when parental expectations begin to exert their influence and shape individual perceptions of academic success and self-worth (see Platt & Fanning, 2023). This younger age group is navigating the challenges of adolescence and early adulthood, when parental expectations can significantly impact their developing sense of identity, academic choices, and coping mechanisms, including the emergence of perfectionistic tendencies (Platt & Fanning, 2023; Porter & Byrd, 2021; Tulagan & Eccles, 2021). The exclusion of this younger demographic meant missing out on valuable insights into how early life experiences with parental expectations contribute to the development of self-critical perfectionism and potentially set a foundation for future educational and psychological outcomes.

Similarly, the absence of Black women over 50 in the study limited the understanding of how long-term exposure to parental expectations and internalized perfectionism evolves over an individual's life span. This older age group could provide a unique perspective on the enduring effects of parental expectations, reflecting on how these influences have shaped their educational paths, career choices, and overall well-being (Kuchel, 2019). This older age group could also have offered insights into intergenerational dynamics because many in this age group are parents, thereby contributing to a richer understanding of how attitudes toward education and perfectionism are passed down or modified across generations. Additionally, excluding

this age group overlooked the experiences of those who may have returned to education later in life, facing the interaction of long-held parental expectations and the challenges of pursuing academic achievements in a different life stage. The study's findings, therefore, may not have fully captured the nuanced, lifelong trajectory of how parental expectations and self-critical perfectionism manifest and evolve in Black women's lives, limiting the study's ability to inform interventions that address these issues across all age groups.

Incomplete Responses

There were a number of women who did not complete the survey. At first, I anticipated the incomplete responses were mostly women not meeting the inclusion criteria; however, after further investigation, I realized most of the incomplete surveys were women who stopped after the informed consent (n = 38). The informed consent section of the survey provided potential participants with comprehensive information about the study's purpose, procedures, risks, benefits, and their rights as participants, including the right to withdraw from the study at any time without penalty (see Pietrzykowski & Smilowska, 2021). This process was designed to ensure that respondents fully understood what their involvement entailed and agreed to participate voluntarily based on a clear understanding of the research. This considerable number of respondents who opted out of the study did so possibly due to a variety of reasons.

Firstly, the potential risks highlighted in the document might have seemed overwhelming to some participants, leading them to withdraw due to concerns about their emotional safety and well-being (Williamson et al., 2020). The research could have exposed emotional challenges and issues that some women were not prepared to

confront. Additionally, concerns regarding privacy and confidentiality potentially influenced decisions; participants might have harbored doubts about the handling and protection of their personal information and responses (Nicholas et al., 2020). The complexity and nature of the study's procedures could have also been daunting or unclear, causing some to opt out. The extensive nature of the informed consent document itself may have been overwhelming for certain respondents (Pietrzykowski & Smilowska, 2021). Lastly, it is possible that the study did not meet the initial expectations of some participants who, after fully understanding the scope and requirements of the study, concluded that it did not resonate with their interests or needs (Zimmermann et al., 2022). This selective participation, influenced by various concerns and expectations, ultimately limits the generalizability of the research findings, as it may not adequately represent the broader population the study aimed to understand.

Recommendations for Future Research

The scope of this research was limited by several factors; however, some of these uninvestigated factors could possibly contribute to the studied phenomenon. Future research could beneficially explore the correlation between parental expectations for academic achievement and self-critical perfectionism in a younger demographic. The participants in this study predominantly held bachelor's and graduate degrees, suggesting that their current levels of parental influence and expectations could be moderated by factors such as maturity, marital status, educational attainment, and socioeconomic status (Castelin & White, 2022; Curran & Hill, 2022; Porter & Byrd, 2021). It is possible that the link between parental expectations and self-critical perfectionism was more

pronounced during their earlier years but diminished as they aged and advanced in their education. Investigating this dynamic among young Black women at the beginning of their college experience, particularly by comparing freshmen with seniors or graduate students, may provide more insightful results. This approach could reveal how this relationship evolves during the critical transition from adolescence to young adulthood.

This study concentrated specifically on Black women, offering valuable insights into the dynamics of parental expectations for academic achievement and self-critical perfectionism within this group. However, to gain a more comprehensive understanding of these phenomena, future research should extend its scope to encompass a diverse range of racial and ethnic groups (Curran & Hill, 2022; Kawamoto, 2020; Lin & Muenks, 2022). By including Caucasian, Hispanic/Latina, Black, and Asian individuals who have attained college degrees, researchers can comparatively assess how parental expectations for academic achievement impact self-critical perfectionism across these varied demographics. These comparative studies may not only reveal potential similarities and differences in the experiences of these groups, but they may also provide a richer, more nuanced understanding of the interplay between race, ethnicity, academic expectations, and psychological outcomes (Davis & Jones, 2021; Kawamoto, 2020; Lin & Muenks, 2022; Tong & Harris, 2021). Additionally, this expanded research could explore how factors such as cultural values, family dynamics, and societal pressures uniquely influence the relationship between parental expectations and self-critical perfectionism in each group.

The exploration of parental expectations and familial responsibilities in the Black community, as this study has done for young Black women, naturally leads to a consideration of the standards set for young Black men. Future research should attempt to investigate how parental expectations for academic achievement and self-critical perfectionism manifest in young Black men pursuing higher education (Anthony Jr. et al., 2021). There is a prevalent sentiment among Black men that they are undervalued by society, including, at times, by their own families, and education is often perceived as a pathway to reclaiming societal value and respect (Goodwill et al., 2022; Hines et al., 2021). This context may trigger a heightened level of self-critical perfectionism, potentially equal to or surpassing that experienced by Black women. Expanding research to include young Black men could reveal crucial insights into how these pressures influence their mental health, academic performance, and overall well-being. Additionally, such research would allow for a more comprehensive analysis of the impact on the standard nuclear family dynamic (Woods Jr. et al., 2023). It would be valuable to examine how the combined expectations placed on both Black men and women shape family relationships, communication patterns, and the overall emotional climate of the household. This approach could also uncover gender-specific differences and similarities in how parental expectations and self-critical perfectionism are experienced and managed.

Future research should also consider a more inclusive approach by delving into the concept of intersectionality, which can significantly enhance our understanding of self-critical perfectionism. Intersectionality, the theory that multiple social identities such

as race, gender identity, class, and sexuality intersect to create unique experiences of oppression and privilege, is crucial for a comprehensive understanding of this phenomenon (Shelton & Lester, 2022). One notable gap in the current research is the exclusion of Black Transwomen, who may experience self-critical perfectionism in distinct ways (Austin et al., 2022; Shelton & Lester, 2022). This group often confronts unique challenges related to gender identity, such as the pressure to 'pass' and navigate societal norms during gender transition (Austin et al., 2022; Millar & Brooks, 2022; Shelton & Lester, 2022). These experiences can intersect with racial identity to create a complex web of expectations and pressures for the individual and their parents. By incorporating intersectionality into future research, particularly focusing on groups like Black Transwomen, researchers can gain valuable insights into the multifaceted nature of self-critical perfectionism and parental expectations of many kinds, not just academic achievement. Future researchers could also explore these phenomena across intersecting identities like race and disability, race and sexual orientation, and among biracial individuals, to reveal critical information about the complexities of self-critical perfectionism and parental expectations.

Finally, future research would greatly benefit from employing a more diverse methodological approach when exploring these phenomena. Combining both quantitative and qualitative methods can yield a richer, more detailed understanding of the studied concepts (Stoecker & Avila, 2021) While quantitative research, utilized in the present study, is effective in identifying correlations between variables, it is limited in its ability to delve into the underlying reasons behind these statistical relationships (Maxwell,

2021). In contrast, qualitative research, with its focus on the lived experiences of participants, can provide invaluable insights into the reasons and contexts underlying observed patterns. This dual approach allows for a more comprehensive analysis, combining the magnitude of quantitative data with the complexity of qualitative narratives, resulting in an improved comprehension of the complex dynamics of this research.

Implications for Social Change

This study, consistent with other studies within Asian communities (Jun et al., 2022; Liu et al., 2022; Okura, 2022; Shen & Liao, 2022; L. Wang & Heppner, 2002a), concluded that parental expectations for academic achievement and education level have a considerable impact on self-critical perfectionism. Although I attempted to use education level as a moderating variable, that model was not statistically significant. This research has significant implications for positive social change by highlighting the delicate role that parental expectations for academic achievement play in shaping individuals' psychological well-being and their approach to academic achievements.

By understanding the influence of parental expectations for academic achievement and achieved education levels, educators, policymakers, and mental health professionals can develop more tailored interventions and support systems (Curran & Hill, 2022; Hayes & Turner, 2021; Raudasoja et al., 2023). For instance, schools and universities could use these findings to develop and implement programs that teach students how to recognize and obtain a healthy balance between striving for excellence and maintaining a healthy mental well-being, potentially alleviating some of the negative

aspects of self-critical perfectionism. These programs could include workshops on happiness, stress management, overcoming perfectionism, and the development of a growth mindset, as well as providing resources for parents to support their children's academic endeavors in a way that promotes psychological health for both parents and students (Lee et al., 2023).

Additionally, the findings suggest the importance of creating educational policies that recognize the diversity of student experiences and their complex motivations (G. Wang et al., 2021). Local and state education agencies could draft policies that encourage the adoption of teaching and evaluation methods that value progress and effort, not just high achievement, to ultimately reduce the pressure that leads to unhealthy levels of self-criticism among students (Walton et al., 2020). Such policies could include guidelines for educators on incorporating formative assessment practices that provide continuous feedback, emphasizing growth and improvement over time. These policies should also advocate for professional development programs for educators, equipping them with the skills to implement these methods effectively and to create an inclusive classroom culture that celebrates diversity in learning styles and pathways to success (Shen & Liao, 2022). Training could cover strategies for recognizing and addressing the signs of perfectionism and excessive stress among students, including referral pathways to support services where necessary.

Likewise, this study highlights the critical need for increased culturally competent mental health services, considering the specific impact that parental expectations have on individuals' self-perception and mental health, particularly within Black communities

(Walton et al., 2023). The concept of "Black excellence," while often celebrated, also represents a deeply ingrained cultural expectation that can contribute to psychological strain (Bernard, 2023). Mental health professionals serving Black student populations could begin to receive training that enables them to identify and effectively address the psychological challenges that arise from perfectionistic tendencies, which may be intensified by the pressures of parental expectations for academic achievement. By understanding the unique cultural and environmental factors influencing these students, mental health providers could offer more appropriate and supportive interventions, promoting healthier coping mechanisms and overall well-being (Summers & Lassiter, 2022).

The current research contributes to ongoing conversations about the importance of nurturing environments that support both achievement and well-being (Stiles et al., 2020; Suh & Flores, 2022). By continuing to explore and address the complex factors that contribute to self-critical perfectionism, society can move toward creating more supportive structures that empower individuals to pursue their goals without sacrificing their mental health. This not only benefits individuals but also enriches communities by fostering a culture that values well-rounded development and holistic success.

Conclusion

The purpose of this quantitative, moderating regression study was to examine whether education level moderated the relationship between parental expectations for academic achievement and self-critical perfectionism in Black women with varying education levels. This research examined the relationship between parental expectations

for academic achievement (IV) and self-critical perfectionism (DV) through the education levels (M) of Black women between the ages of 18-50. In the first research question, I rejected the null hypothesis and determined that there is a statistically significant relationship between parental expectations for academic achievement and self-critical perfectionism in Black women. In the second research question, I was also able to reject the null hypothesis and accepted that a statistically significant relationship between graduate education level and self-critical perfectionism existed in the sample. In the final research question, I was unable to reject the null hypothesis that the education level obtained has no moderating effect on the relationship between parental expectations for academic achievement and self-critical perfectionism in Black women. Further investigation into the coefficients tables of each research question showed that as parental expectations for academic achievement increased, so did scores for self-critical perfectionism. However, as education levels increased, the scores for self-critical perfectionism decreased. Although education level did not significantly moderate the relationship between parental expectations for academic achievement and self-critical perfectionism, the model demonstrated a significant, moderately positive correlation existed.

I proposed that these research outcomes could emphasize the need for more culturally competent mental healthcare and the development of programs tailored towards continuous progress instead of overarching academic excellence. These insights could serve as a valuable resource for education policymakers in the development and implementation of curricula that foster happiness, stress management, and a healthy self-

concept among students. The implications of this research also advocate for future scholarly efforts to broaden its cultural scope and include a wider range of genders and gender identities to capture a more comprehensive understanding of the relationship between these variables. Additionally, there is a compelling need to explore these phenomena within younger demographics, who are often more susceptible to the pressures of significant parental expectations and influence. The existing body of research on parental expectations and perfectionism within Black communities has predominantly focused on the Strong Black Woman Schema, leaving a gap in our understanding of how these factors play out across different age groups and among Black men and non-binary individuals. The continued social problem posed by the adverse effects of perfectionism calls for further inquiry into these issues. This ongoing exploration is essential for addressing the complex nature of this specific social problem, paving the way for more effective interventions and support systems in the future.

References

Abrams, J. A., Hill, A., & Maxwell, M. (2019). Underneath the mask of the Strong Black Woman Schema: Disentangling influences of strength and self-silencing on depressive symptoms among U.S. Black women. *Sex Roles*, *80*(9–10), 517–526. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11199-018-0956-y

Adler, A. (1982). The fundamental views of individual psychology. *Individual Psychology: The Journal of Adlerian Theory, Research & Practice*, *38*(1), 3. https://psycnet.apa.org/record/1984-16532-001

Adler, A. (1996). The structure of neurosis. *Individual Psychology: The Journal of Adlerian Theory, Research & Practice*, *52*(4), 351. http://www.adlerian.us/cwaa-v6-ch26.htm

Anthony Jr., M., Nichols, A. H., & Pilar, W. D. (2021). Raising undergraduate degree attainment among Black women and men takes on new urgency amid the pandemic. *The Education Trust.* https://edtrust.org/resource/national-and-state-degree-attainment-for-black-women-and-men/

Anyiwo, N., Stanton, A., Avery, L., Bernard, D., Abrams, J., & Golden, A. (2021). Becoming strong: Sociocultural experiences, mental health, & Black girls' Strong Black Woman Schema endorsement. *Journal of Research on Adolescence*, *32*(1), 89–98. https://doi.org/10.1111/jora.12707

Austin, A., Holzworth, J., & Papciak, R. (2022). Beyond diagnosis: "Gender dysphoria feels like a living hell, a nightmare one cannot ever wake up from." *Psychology of Sexual Orientation and Gender Diversity*, *9*(1), 12–20.

https://doi.org/10.1037/sgd0000460

Avent Harris, J. R. (2021). The Black Superwoman in spiritual bypass: Black women's use of religious coping and implications for mental health professionals. *Journal of Spirituality in Mental Health*, *23*(2), 180–196. https://doi.org/10.1080/19349637.2019.1685925

Avent Harris, J. R., Wahesh, E., Barrow, M., & Fripp, J. A. (2021). Demographics, stigma, and religious coping and Christian African Americans' help seeking. *Counseling and Values*, *66*(1), 73–91. https://doi.org/10.1002/cvj.12145

Avery, L. R., Stanton, A. G., Ward, L. M., Trinh, S. L., Cole, E. R., & Jerald, M. C. (2022). The strong, silent (gender) type: The strong black woman ideal, self-silencing, and sexual assertiveness in black college women. *Archives of Sexual Behavior*. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10508-021-02179-2

Barcelona, V., Huang, Y., Caceres, B. A., Newhall, K. P., Hui, Q., Cerdeña, J. P., Crusto, C. A., Sun, Y. V., & Taylor, J. Y. (2022). Experiences of trauma and DNA methylation profiles among African American mothers and children. *International Journal of Molecular Sciences*, *23*(16). https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms23168951

Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator-mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *51*(6), 1173–1182. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.51.6.1173

Bernard, D. L. (2023). Toward a socioecological model of training and mentoring to

reduce disparities in mental health service use among Black youths. *American Journal of Public Health*, *113*, 133–135. https://doi.org/10.2105/ajph.2023.307250

Brandow, C. L., & Swarbrick, M. (2022). Improving Black mental health: A collective call to action. *Psychiatric Services*, *73*(6), 697–700. https://doi.org/10.1176/appi.ps.202000894

Burgess, A. M., Frost, R. O., & DiBartolo, P. M. (2016). Development and validation of the Frost Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale–Brief. *Journal of Psychoeducational Assessment*, *34*(7), 620–633. https://doi.org/10.1177/0734282916651359

Burgstahler, S. (2021). What higher education learned about the accessibility of online opportunities during a pandemic. *Journal of Higher Education Theory & Practice*, *21*(7), 160–170. https://doi.org/10.33423/jhetp.v21i7.4493

Campbell, D. T., & Stanley, J. C. (1963). Experimental and quasi-experimental designs for research on teaching. In N. L. Gage (Ed.), *Handbook of research on teaching* (pp. 171–246). Rand McNally. https://www.jameslindlibrary.org/campbell-dt-stanley-jc-1963/

Canning, J. R., Patock-Peckham, J. A., Walters, K. J., Bauman, D. C., Frohe, T., & Leeman, R. F. (2020). Perfectionism discrepancy and falling short of the ideal self: Investigating drinking motives and impaired control on the road to alcohol-related problems. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *159*, 109909. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2020.109909

Carter, L., & Rossi, A. (2019). Embodying strength: The origin, representations, and socialization of the Strong Black Woman ideal and its effect on Black women's mental health. *Women & Therapy*, *42*(3–4), 289–300. https://doi.org/10.1080/02703149.2019.1622911

Castelin, S., & White, G. (2022). "I'm a Strong Independent Black Woman": The Strong Black Woman Schema and mental health in college-aged Black women. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, *46*(2), 196–208. https://doi.org/10.1177/03616843211067501

Chen, H., Pang, L., Liu, F., Fang, T., & Wen, Y. (2022). "Be perfect in every respect": The mediating role of career adaptability in the relationship between perfectionism and career decision-making difficulties of college students. *BMC Psychology*, *10*(1), 137. https://doi.org/10.1186/s40359-022-00845-1

Chen, Y., Huang, R., Lu, Y., & Zhang, K. (2021). Education fever in China: Children's academic performance and parents' life satisfaction. *Journal of Happiness Studies: An Interdisciplinary Forum on Subjective Well-Being*, *22*(2), 927–954. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10902-020-00258-0

Chinn, J. J., Martin, I. K., & Redmond, N. (2021). Health equity among Black women in the United States. *Journal of Women's Health*, *30*(2), 212–219. https://doi.org/10.1089/jwh.2020.8868

Clark, T., Foster, L., Bryman, A., & Sloan, L. (2021). *Bryman's social research methods*. Oxford University Press. https://orca.cardiff.ac.uk/id/eprint/143218

Clarke, R. (Director). (2022, February 25). *Identifying your theoretical foundations*.

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=TgXeRM6mvQo

Clements, T. (2023). *African American women and social support networks to overcome the Strong Black Woman Schema and depression* [Walden University]. https://scholarworks.waldenu.edu/dissertations/12090

Cludius, B., Landmann, S., Külz, A.-K., Takano, K., Moritz, S., & Jelinek, L. (2022). Direct and indirect assessment of perfectionism in patients with depression and obsessive-compulsive disorder. *PLoS ONE*, *17*(10). https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0270184

Cooc, N., & Kim, G. M. (2021). Beyond STEM: The invisible career expectations of Asian American high school students. *American Psychologist*, *76*(4), 658–672. https://doi.org/10.1037/amp0000806.supp

Coutinho, M. V. C., Menon, A., Ahmed, R. H., & Fredricks-Lowman, I. (2022). The association of perfectionism and active procrastination in college students. *Social Behavior and Personality: An International Journal*, *50*(3), 1f. https://doi.org/10.2224/sbp.10611

Curran, T., & Hill, A. P. (2022). Young people's perceptions of their parents' expectations and criticism are increasing over time: Implications for perfectionism. *Psychological Bulletin*, *148*(1–2), 107–128. https://doi.org/10.1037/bul0000347

Daikeler, J., Bošnjak, M., & Manfreda, K. L. (2020). Web versus other survey modes: An updated and extended meta-analysis comparing response rates. *Journal of Survey Statistics and Methodology*, *8*(3), 513–539. https://doi.org/10.1093/jssam/smz008

Davidson, J., Clark, T. B., Ijames, A., Cahill, R. F., & Johnson, T. (2020). African American student perceptions of higher education barriers. *Educational Research Quarterly*, *43*(4), 59–69. https://erquarterly.org/index.php?pg=content

Davis, S. M., & Jones, M. K. (2021). Black women at war: A comprehensive framework for research on the Strong Black Woman. *Women's Studies in Communication*, *44*(3), 301–322. https://doi.org/10.1080/07491409.2020.1838020\

Dobos, B., Piko, B. F., & Mellor, D. (2021). What makes university students perfectionists? The role of childhood trauma, emotional dysregulation, academic anxiety, and social support. *Scandinavian Journal of Psychology*, *62*(3), 443–447. https://doi.org/10.1111/sjop.12718

Dong, Y., Wang, H., Zhu, L., Li, C., & Fang, Y. (2020). How parental involvement influences adolescents' academic emotions from control-value theory. *Journal of Child & Family Studies*, *29*(2), 282–291. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10826-019-01586-3

Dosek, T. (2021). Snowball sampling and Facebook: How social media can help access hard-to-reach populations. *PS: Political Science & Politics*, *54*(4), 651–655. https://doi.org/10.1017/S104909652100041X

Doyle, I., & Catling, J. C. (2022). The influence of perfectionism, self-esteem and resilience on young people's mental health. *The Journal of Psychology*, *156*(3), 224–240. https://doi.org/10.1080/00223980.2022.2027854

Dunkley, D. M., Starrs, C. J., Gouveia, L., & Moroz, M. (2020). Self-critical perfectionism and lower daily perceived control predict depressive and anxious

symptoms over four years. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, *67*(6), 736–746. https://doi.org/10.1037/cou0000425

Ekmekci, O. T., Metin Camgoz, S., & Bayhan Karapinar, P. (2021). Path to well-being: Moderated mediation model of perfectionism, family–work conflict, and gender. *Journal of Family Issues*, *42*(8), 1852–1879. https://doi.org/10.1177/0192513X20957041

Evans, A. M., Hemmings, C., Ramsay-Seaner, K., & Barnett, J. (2021). Perceived racism and discrimination among people of color: An ethnographic content analysis. *Journal of Multicultural Counseling & Development*, *49*(3), 152–164. https://doi.org/10.1002/jmcd.12221

Fanegan, B., Berry, A.-M., Combs, J., Osborn, A., Decker, R., Hemphill, R., & Barzman, D. (2022). Systematic review of religiosity's relationship with suicidality, suicide related stigma, and formal mental health service utilization among Black Americans. *Psychiatric Quarterly*, *93*(3), 775–782. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11126-022-09985-4

Faul, F., Erdfelder, E., Lang, A.-G., & Buchner, A. (2007). G*Power 3: A flexible statistical power analysis program for the social, behavioral, and biomedical sciences. *Behavior Research Methods*, *39*, 175–191. https://doi.org/10.3758/BF03193146

Fiedler, K. (2021). Suppressor effects in self-enhancement research: A critical comment on condition-based regression analysis. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 121(4), 792–795. https://doi.org/10.1037/pspa0000273

Fix, R. L. (2022). An evaluation of Building Our Nation's Daughters (BOND): Improving Black single mother–daughter relationships and well-Being. *Journal of Child & Family Studies*, *31*(1), 237–246. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10826-021-02199-5

Flett, G. L., & Hewitt, P. L. (2020). Reflections on three decades of research on multidimensional perfectionism: An introduction to the special issue on further advances in the assessment of perfectionism. *Journal of Psychoeducational Assessment*, *38*(1), 3–14. https://doi.org/10.1177/0734282919881928

Flett, G. L., & Hewitt, P. L. (2022). *Perfectionism in childhood and adolescence: A developmental approach* (2022-21020-000). American Psychological Association. https://doi.org/10.1037/0000289-000

Foster, V. (Director). (2021, October 5). *Quantitative Survey Methodology*. https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=BNTGsQAkXO0

Franco, J. (2020). *9.4: Research ethics in quantitative research*. Social Sci LibreTexts. https://socialsci.libretexts.org/Bookshelves/Political_Science_and_Civics/Book%3A_Introduction_to_Political_Science_Research_Methods_(Franco_et_al.)/09%3A_Research_Ethics/9.04%3A_Research_Ethics_in_Quantitative_Research

Frost Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale (FMPS). (2021, March 15). *NovoPsych*. https://novopsych.com.au/assessments/formulation/frost-multidimensional-perfectionism-scale-fmps/

Frost, R. O., & Marten, P. A. (1990). Perfectionism and evaluative threat. *Cognitive Therapy and Research*, *14*(6), 559–572. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF01173364

Fung, J., Cai, G., & Wang, K. (2022). Personal and family perfectionism among Asian and Latinx youth. *Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology*. https://doi.org/10.1037/cdp0000555

Fung, J., Cai, G., & Wang, K. (2023). Personal and family perfectionism among Asian and Latinx youth. *Cultural Diversity and Ethnigc Minority Psychology*, *29*(2), 235–246. https://doi.org/10.1037/cdp0000555

Futrell, G. D. (2021). Why patients lie: A self-discrepancy theory perspective of patient deception. *Journal of Multidisciplinary Research (1947-2900)*, *13*(2), 43–57. https://jmrpublication.org/wp-content/uploads/JMR13Fall2021002.pdf

Gasman, M. (2021). *Hand in hand: Black women in pursuit of the Ph.D*. Forbes. https://www.forbes.com/sites/marybethgasman/2021/08/09/hand-in-hand-black-women-in-pursuit-of-the-phd/

Gazica, M. W., Powers, S. R., & Kessler, S. R. (2021). Imperfectly perfect: Examining psychosocial safety climate's influence on the physical and psychological impact of perfectionism in the practice of law. *Behavioral Sciences & the Law*, *39*(6), 741–757. https://doi.org/10.1002/bsl.2546

George, J. (2019). *Past is prologue: African Americans' pursuit of equal educational opportunity in the United States*. https://www.americanbar.org/groups/crsj/publications/human_rights_magazine_home/black-to-the-future/past-is-prologue/

Geyton, T., Johnson, N., & Ross, K. (2022). 'I'm good': Examining the internalization of the strong Black woman archetype. *Journal of Human Behavior in the Social*

Environment, *32*(1), 1–16. https://doi.org/10.1080/10911359.2020.1844838

Godbolt, D., Opara, I., & Amutah-Onukagha, N. (2022). Strong Black women: Linking stereotypes, stress, and overeating among a sample of Black female college students. *Journal of Black Studies*, *53*(6), 609–634. https://doi.org/10.1177/00219347221087453

Gran-Ruaz, S., Feliciano, J., Bartlett, A., & Williams, M. T. (2022). Implicit racial bias across ethnoracial groups in Canada and the United States and Black mental health. *Canadian Psychology*, *63*(4), 608–622. https://doi.org/10.1037/cap0000323

Green, B. (2019). Strong like my mama: The legacy of "strength," depression, and suicidality in African American women. *Women & Therapy*, *42*(3–4), 265–288. https://doi.org/10.1080/02703149.2019.1622909

Greenspon, T., & Cross, T. L. (2022). Counselor's Corner: An Interview with Tom Greenspon. *SENG Journal: Exploring the Psychology of Giftedness*, *1*(2), 58–61. https://doi.org/10.25774/Z9J1-AS91

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

Greenspon, T. S. (2008). Making sense of error: A view of the origins and treatment of perfectionism. *American Journal of Psychotherapy*, *62*(3), 263–282. https://doi.org/10.1176/appi.psychotherapy.2008.62.3.263

Guan, T. C., Gloria, A. M., & Castellanos, J. (2020). Second-generation Chinese

American female undergraduates: Psychosociocultural correlates of well-being. *Asian American Journal of Psychology*, *11*(4), 246–258. https://doi.org/10.1037/aap0000209

Gürcan-Yıldırım, D., & Gençöz, T. (2022). The association of self-discrepancy with depression and anxiety: Moderator roles of emotion regulation and resilience. *Current Psychology*, *41*(4), 1821–1834. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12144-020-00701-8

Hall, J. C., Conner, K. O., & Jones, K. (2021). The Strong Black Woman versus mental health utilization: A qualitative study. *Health & Social Work*, *46*(1), 33–41. https://doi.org/10.1093/hsw/hlaa036

Hamilton, S. (2022). *Still I Rise: Exploring the relationships between the impostor phenomenon, the Strong Black Woman cultural construct and attitudes toward seeking professional psychology help in African American college women* [Psy.D., The Chicago School of Professional Psychology]. https://www.proquest.com/docview/2607541528/abstract/8947B955BBBD4B2DPQ/1

Hanson, M. (2022). *College enrollment & student demographic statistics*. Education Data Initiative. https://educationdata.org/college-enrollment-statistics

Hassan, M. (2022). Volunteer sampling—Definition, methods and examples. *Research Method*. https://researchmethod.net/volunteer-sampling/

Hayes, K. N., & Turner, L. A. (2021). The relation of helicopter parenting to maladaptive perfectionism in emerging adults. *Journal of Family Issues*, *42*(12), 2986–3000.

https://doi.org/10.1177/0192513X21993194

Hewitt, N. (2021). *Making space and place for African American women at predominately White institutions* [Duquesne University]. https://dsc.duq.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=3033&context=etd

Hewitt, P. L., Flett, G. L., Turnbull-Donovan, W., & Mikail, S. F. (1991). The Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale: Reliability, validity, and psychometric properties in psychiatric samples. *Psychological Assessment, 3*, 464–468.

Hewitt, P. L., Smith, M. M., Ge, S. Y. J., Mössler, M., & Flett, G. L. (2022). Perfectionism and its role in depressive disorders. *Canadian Journal of Behavioural Science*, *54*(2), 121–131. https://doi.org/10.1037/cbs0000306

Higgins, E. T. (1987). Self-discrepancy: A theory relating self and affect. *Psychological Review*, *94*(3), 319–340. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-295x.94.3.319

Hines, E. M., Mayes, R. D., Hines, M. R., Henderson, J. A., Golden, M. N., Singleton, P., Cintron, D. W., Wathen, B., Wright, C. G., Vega, D., & Slack, T. (2021). "You are going to school": Exploring the precollege experiences of first-year Black males in higher education. *Professional School Counseling*, *25*. https://doi.org/10.1177/2156759X211040044

Hong, P., & Cui, M. (2023). Discrepancies in parent-adolescent educational and career expectations and overparenting. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships*. https://doi.org/10.1177/02654075231177865

Howell, J., Anderson, R., Egan, S., & McEvoy, P. (2020). One factor? Two factor? Bi-factor? A psychometric evaluation of the Frost Multidimensional Scale and the

Clinical Perfectionism Questionnaire. *Cognitive Behaviour Therapy*, *49*(6), 518–530. https://doi.org/10.1080/16506073.2020.1790645

Hudson, D., Collins-Anderson, A., & Hutson, W. (2023). Understanding the impact of contemporary racism on the mental health of middle class Black Americans. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, *20*(3). https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph20031660

Iii, E. J., & Lensmire, T. (2021). Introduction: Black Lives Matter and rural education. *Journal of Research in Rural Education*, *37*(7), 1–3. https://doi.org/10.26209/jrre3707-01

Ispa, J. M., Su-Russell, C., & Im, J. (2020). Conversations between African American mothers and children about school and education. *Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology*, *26*(1), 92–101. https://doi.org/10.1037/cdp0000282

Jean, E. A., Neal-Barnett, A., & Stadulis, R. (2022). How we see us: An examination of factors shaping the appraisal of stereotypical media images of Black women among Black adolescent girls. *Sex Roles*, *86*(5/6), 334–345. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11199-021-01269-8

Jefferies, K. (2022). The Strong Black Woman: Insights and implications for nursing. *Journal of the American Psychiatric Nurses Association*, *28*(4), 332–338. https://doi.org/10.1177/1078390320983900

Jin, L., Yang, E., & Zamudio, G. (2022). Self-determined motivation, acculturation, academic burnout, and psychosocial well-being of Chinese international students in South Korea. *Counselling Psychology Quarterly*, *35*(1), 1–18.

https://doi.org/10.1080/09515070.2021.1887084

Johnson, B. S., Brown, S., & Guthrie, T. M. (2022). Strong and silently suffering: Black girls and the Strong Black Woman schema. *The Brown University Child and Adolescent Behavior Letter*, *38*(1). https://link.gale.com/apps/doc/A730064183/EAIM?u=minn4020&sid=bookmark-EAIM&xid=0a4ea7f8

Jones, A. M. (2023). Self-silencing as protection: How the "Angry Black Woman" stereotype influences how Black graduate women respond to gendered-racial microaggressions. *Equity & Excellence in Education*. https://doi.org/10.1080/10665684.2023.2201480

Jones, M. K., Harris, K. J., & Reynolds, A. A. (2021). In their own words: The meaning of the Strong Black Woman Schema among Black U.S. college women. *Sex Roles, 84*(5/6), 347–359. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11199-020-01170-w

Jones, M. K., Hill-Jarrett, T. G., Latimer, K., Reynolds, A., Garrett, N., Harris, I., Joseph, S., & Jones, A. (2021). The role of coping in the relationship between endorsement of the Strong Black Woman Schema and depressive symptoms among Black women. *Journal of Black Psychology, 47*(7), 578–592. https://doi.org/10.1177/00957984211021229

Jones, M. K., Leath, S., Settles, I. H., Doty, D., & Conner, K. (2022). Gendered racism and depression among Black women: Examining the roles of social support and identity. *Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology, 28*(1), 39–48. https://doi.org/10.1037/cdp0000486

Jones, M. S., Womack, V., Jérémie-Brink, G., & Dickens, D. D. (2021). Gendered racism and mental health among young adult U.S. Black women: The moderating roles of gendered racial identity centrality and identity shifting. *Sex Roles*, *85*(3/4), 221–231. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11199-020-01214-1

Jones, V. M. (2020). *The "S" factor: Exploring the relationship among the Superwoman Schema, stress, and self-care in professional Black women* [Rutgers University]. https://rucore.libraries.rutgers.edu/rutgers-lib/64898/PDF/1/play/

Jun, H. H., Wang, K. T., Suh, H. N., & Yeung, J. G. (2022). Family profiles of maladaptive perfectionists among Asian international students. *The Counseling Psychologist*, *50*(5), 649–673. https://doi.org/10.1177/00110000221089643

Kahn, J. H., Woodrum, J. L., Marsh, E. M., Bopp, M. R., Taylor, D. A., & Cox, D. W. (2021). Perfectionism and the disclosure of distress. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *168*, 110337. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2020.110337

Kalu, S. R. (2022). Exploring the impact of school factors on expectations to complete post secondary education among Black girls. *Education and Urban Society*, *54*(9), 1052–1071. https://doi.org/10.1177/00131245211048429

Kang, H. (2021). Sample size determination and power analysis using the G*Power software. *Journal of Educational Evaluation for Health Professions*, *18*, 17. https://doi.org/10.3352/jeehp.2021.18.17

Kang, K. (2020). *Doctorate Recipients from U.S. Universities: 2019*. National Center for Science and Engineering Statistics (NCSES). https://ncses.nsf.gov/pubs/nsf21308/data-tables

Kawamoto, A., Sheth, R., Yang, M., Demps, L., & Sevig, T. (2023). The role of self-compassion among adaptive and maladaptive perfectionists in university students. *The Counseling Psychologist*, *51*(1), 113–144. https://doi.org/10.1177/00110000221129606

Kawamoto, T. (2020). The moderating role of attachment style on the relationship between self-concept clarity and self-esteem. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *152*, 109604. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2019.109604

Kelly, B. T., Gardner, P. J., Stone, J., Hixson, A., & Dissassa, D.-T. (2021). Hidden in plain sight: Uncovering the emotional labor of Black women students at historically White colleges and universities. *Journal of Diversity in Higher Education*, *14*(2), 203–216. https://doi.org/10.1037/dhe0000161

Knighton, J.-S., Dogan, J., Hargons, C., & Stevens-Watkins, D. (2022). Superwoman Schema: A context for understanding psychological distress among middle-class African American women who perceive racial microaggressions. *Ethnicity & Health*, *27*(4), 946–962. https://doi.org/10.1080/13557858.2020.1818695

Kuchel, G. A. (2019). Inclusion of older adults in research: Ensuring relevance, feasibility, and rigor. *Journal of the American Geriatrics Society*, *67*(2), 203–204. https://doi.org/10.1111/jgs.15802

Kyriaki, K., Beiró, M. G., Bonanomi, A., Rosina, A., & Cattuto, C. (2020). Traditional versus Facebook-based surveys: Evaluation of biases in self-reported demographic and psychometric information. *Demographic Research*, *42*. https://doi.org/10.4054/DemRes.2020.42.5

Lai, T., Liu, F., & Huang, Y. (2022). The influence of parental educational expectations on children's higher education attainment: Re-estimation based on instrumental variables. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *13*. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2022.899348

Lateef, H., Ball, K., Lateef, J., Boahen-Boaten, B. B., Leach, B., & Joe, S. (2023). "We're growing leaders here": Preliminary findings from providers on the importance of Afrocentric education. *Journal of Human Behavior in the Social Environment*. https://doi.org/10.1080/10911359.2023.2209607

Leath, S., Ball, P., Seward, M. D., Billingsley, J., & Pfister, T. (2021). "My parents did not play about school": Examining the college preparation process between Black women and their parents during high school. *High School Journal*, *105*(1), 17–42. https://doi.org/10.1353/hsj.2021.0011

Leath, S., Jones, M. K., & Butler-Barnes, S. (2022). An examination of ACEs, the internalization of the Superwoman Schema, and mental health outcomes among Black adult women. *Journal of Trauma & Dissociation*, *23*(3), 307–323. https://doi.org/10.1080/15299732.2021.1989113

Lee, K.-D., Hughes, E., Mulgrew, K., Carter, J. D., & Love, S. (2020). Examining the roles of metacognitive beliefs and maladaptive aspects of perfectionism in depression and anxiety. *Behavioural and Cognitive Psychotherapy*, *48*(4), 442–453. https://doi.org/10.1017/S1352465820000144

Lee, S., Kim, M. S., Lee, D., Yon, K. J., & Nelson, A. J. (2023). Living up to parental expectations, psychological separation, and life satisfaction. *Emerging Adulthood*, *11*(2), 403–414. https://doi.org/10.1177/21676968221114584

Lehdonvirta, V., Oksanen, A., Räsänen, P., & Blank, G. (2021). Social media, web, and panel Surveys: Using non-probability samples in social and policy research. *Policy & Internet*, *13*(1), 134–155. https://doi.org/10.1002/poi3.238

Li, B., Sjöström, J., Ding, B., & Eilks, I. (2022). Education for sustainability meets Confucianism in science education. *Science & Education*. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11191-022-00349-9

Liao, K. Y., Wei, M., & Yin, M. (2020). The misunderstood schema of the Strong Black Woman: Exploring its mental health consequences and coping responses among African American women. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, *44*(1), 84–104. https://doi.org/10.1177/0361684319883198

Lin, S., & Muenks, K. (2022). Perfectionism profiles among college students: A person-centered approach to motivation, behavior, and emotion. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 102110. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cedpsych.2022.102110

Linnes, C., Ronzoni, G., Agrusa, J., & Lema, J. (2022). Emergency remote education and its impact on higher education: A temporary or permanent shift in instruction? *Education Sciences*, *12*(10), 721–751. https://doi.org/10.3390/educsci12100721

Liu, S., He, L., Wei, M., Du, Y., & Cheng, D. (2022). Depression and anxiety from acculturative stress: Maladaptive perfectionism as a mediator and mindfulness as a moderator. *Asian American Journal of Psychology*, *13*(2), 207–216. https://doi.org/10.1037/aap0000242

Liw, L., & Han, S. Y. (2022). Coping as a moderator of self-discrepancies and psychological distress. *Counselling Psychology Quarterly*, *35*(2), 284–302.

https://doi.org/10.1080/09515070.2020.1760208

Loyd, A. B., Kürüm, E., Crooks, N., Maya, A., Emerson, E., & Donenberg, G. R. (2022). Investigating longitudinal associations between racial microaggressions, coping, racial/ethnic identity, and mental health in Black girls and women. *Journal of Research on Adolescence (Wiley-Blackwell)*, *32*(1), 69–88. https://doi.org/10.1111/jora.12710

Lozada, F. T., Riley, T., N., Catherine, E., & Brown, D. W. (2022). Black emotions matter: Understanding the impact of racial oppression on Black youth's emotional development. *Journal of Research on Adolescence*, *32*(1), 13–33. https://doi.org/10.1111/jora.12699

Maddox, C. (2022). Literacy by any means necessary: The history of anti-literacy laws in the U.S. *Oakland Literacy Coalition*. https://oaklandliteracycoalition.org/literacy-by-any-means-necessary-the-history-of-anti-literacy-laws-in-the-u-s/

Mason, T. B., Smith, K. E., Engwall, A., Lass, A., Mead, M., Sorby, M., Bjorlie, K., Strauman, T. J., & Wonderlich, S. (2019). Self-discrepancy theory as a transdiagnostic framework: A meta-analysis of self-discrepancy and psychopathology. *Psychological Bulletin*, *145*(4), 372–389. https://doi.org/10.1037/bul0000186

Maxwell, J. A. (2021). The importance of qualitative research for investigating causation. *Qualitative Psychology*, *8*(3), 378–388. https://doi.org/10.1037/qup0000219

Mbous, Y. P. V., Mohamed, R., & Rudisill, T. M. (2022). International students challenges during the COVID-19 pandemic in a university in the United States: A

focus group study. *Current Psychology, 2022*. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12144-022-02776-x

McCabe, C. J., & King, K. M. (2023). Estimating and visualizing interactions in moderated multiple regression. In *APA handbook of research methods in psychology: Data analysis and research publication., Vol. 3, 2nd ed.* (2023-80648-005; pp. 111–128). American Psychological Association. https://doi.org/10.1037/0000320-005

McCall, T., Foster, M., & Schwartz, T. A. (2023). Attitudes toward seeking mental health services and mobile technology to support the management of depression among Black American women: Cross-sectional survey study. *Journal of Medical Internet Research*, *25*(1). https://doi.org/10.2196/45766

McCallum, C. M. (2020). Othermothering: Exploring African American graduate students' decision to pursue the doctorate. *Journal of Higher Education*, *91*(6), 953–976. https://doi.org/10.1080/00221546.2020.1731262

McCleary-Gaddy, A. T., & James, D. (2022). Dehumanization, attitudes toward seeking professional psychological care, and mental health among African American women. *Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology*. https://doi.org/10.1037/cdp0000554

McCluskey, M. C. (2022). Revitalizing Alfred Adler: An echo for equality. *Clinical Social Work Journal*, *50*(4), 387–399. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10615-021-00793-0

McLaurin-Jones, T. L., Anderson, A. S., Marshall, V. J., Lashley, M.-B., & Carter-Nolan,

P. L. (2021). Superwomen and sleep: An assessment of Black college women across the African diaspora. *International Journal of Behavioral Medicine*, *28*(1), 130–139. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12529-020-09930-4

Mental Health America. (n.d.). *Black and African American communities and mental health*. Mental Health America. Retrieved June 20, 2023, from https://www.mhanational.org/issues/black-and-african-american-communities-and-mental-health

Millar, K., & Brooks, C. V. (2022). Double jeopardy: Minority stress and the influence of transgender identity and race/ethnicity. *International Journal of Transgender Health*, *23*(1–2), 133–148. https://doi.org/10.1080/26895269.2021.1890660

Moody, A. T., Lewis, J. A., & Owens, G. P. (2023). Gendered racism, coping, and traumatic stress among Black women: The moderating roles of the Strong Black Woman Schema and Womanist attitudes. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, *47*(2), 197–212. https://doi.org/10.1177/03616843221143752

Molnar, D. S., Flett, G. L., & Hewitt, P. L. (2021). Perfectionism and perceived control in posttraumatic stress disorder symptoms. *International Journal of Mental Health & Addiction*, *19*(6), 2204–2218. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11469-020-00315-y

Moran, K. K. (2022). "I'm going to learn, and she's going to become somebody": Exploring the counternarratives of Black women on welfare in urban communities. *Urban Education*, *57*(4), 543–570. https://doi.org/10.1177/0042085920984817

Motro, D., Evans, J. B., Ellis, A. P. J., & Benson, III, L. (2022). Race and reactions to

women's expressions of anger at work: Examining the effects of the "angry Black woman" stereotype. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 107*(1), 142–152. https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000884

Mtshali, M. A. (2021). Students' feelings about the online submission of assignments using Turnitin. *Perspectives in Education*, *39*(3), 109–120. https://doi.org/10.18820/2519593X/pie.v39.i3.9

Nelson, T., Cardemil, E. V., Overstreet, N. M., Hunter, C. D., & Woods-Giscombé, C. L. (2022). Association between superwoman schema, depression, and resilience: The mediating role of social isolation and gendered racial centrality. *Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology*. https://doi.org/10.1037/cdp0000533

Nicholas, J., Sandersan, O., & Larsen, M. E. (2020). Ethics and privacy in social media research for mental health. *Current Psychiatry Reports, 22*(12). https://doi.org/10.1007/s11920-020-01205-9

Nicholson Jr., H. L. (2022). Feelings of closeness toward Asian Americans: An analysis of African Americans and Black Caribbeans. *Sociological Spectrum*, *42*(1), 1–17. https://doi.org/10.1080/02732173.2021.2019151

Okura, K. (2022). Stereotype promise: Racialized teacher appraisals of Asian American academic achievement. *Sociology of Education, 95*(4), 302–319. https://doi.org/10.1177/00380407221119746

O'Malley, L. (2021). Addressing the lack of Black mental health professionals. *INSIGHT Into Diversity*. https://www.insightintodiversity.com/addressing-the-lack-of-black-mental-health-professionals/

O'Neill, C., Pratt, D., Kilshaw, M., Ward, K., Kelly, J., & Haddock, G. (2021). The relationship between self-criticism and suicide probability. *Clinical Psychology & Psychotherapy*, *28*(6), 1445–1456. https://doi.org/10.1002/cpp.2593

Owens, N. (2022). Separate and unequal: Black Americans fight for education. *Harvard Political Review*. https://harvardpolitics.com/separate-and-unequal/

Peach, B. C., Sole, M. L., Diaz, S., & Nunez, M. (2023). Screening out false participants in research recruitment from social media groups. *American Journal of Nursing*, *123*(8), 52–55. https://doi.org/10.1097/01.NAJ.0000947476.62816.13

Pederson, A. B., Hawkins, D., & Conteh, N. (2022). Ethnic identity and mental health stigma among Black adults in the United States. *Ethics, Medicine and Public Health*, *25*, 100774. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jemep.2022.100774

Pietrzykowski, T., & Smilowska, K. (2021). The reality of informed consent: Empirical studies on patient comprehension—systematic review. *Trials*, *22*(1), 57. https://doi.org/10.1186/s13063-020-04969-w

Pinquart, M., & Ebeling, M. (2020). Parental educational expectations and academic achievement in children and adolescents—A meta-analysis. *Educational Psychology Review*, *32*(2), 463–480. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10648-019-09506-z

Platt, L. F., & Fanning, S. C. (2023). The Strong Black Woman concept: Associated demographic characteristics and perceived stress among Black women. *Journal of Black Psychology*, *49*(1), 58–84. https://doi.org/10.1177/00957984221096211

Porter, C. J., & Byrd, J. A. (2021). Juxtaposing #BlackGirlMagic as "empowering and problematic:" composite narratives of Black women in college. *Journal of*

Diversity in Higher Education. https://doi.org/10.1037/dhe0000338

Raudasoja, M., Sorkkila, M., & Aunola, K. (2023). Self-esteem, socially prescribed perfectionism, and parental burnout. *Journal of Child & Family Studies*, *32*(4), 1113–1120. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10826-022-02324-y

Raymundo, J. (2021). The burden of excellence: A Critical Race Theory analysis of perfectionism in Black students. *The Vermont Connection*, *42*(1), 110–120. https://scholarworks.uvm.edu/tvc/vol42/iss1/12

Robinson, K. (2021). Protecting education as a civil right: Remedying racial discrimination and ensuring a high-quality education. *Learning Policy Institute*. https://doi.org/10.54300/407.455

Roland, L. K. (2022). P equals pass: Reflections of a perfectionist on surviving the professoriate. *Journal of Colorism Studies*, *4*(1). https://www.proquest.com/docview/2758662766/abstract/870C04E392A741AEPQ/1

Roumell, E. A., & James-Gallaway, A. D. (2021). Social movements, community education, and the fight for racial justice: Black women and social transformation. *New Directions for Adult & Continuing Education*, *2021*(170), 21–31. https://doi.org/10.1002/ace.20422

Schaeffer, K. (2022). 10 facts about today's college graduates. *Pew Research Center*. https://www.pewresearch.org/short-reads/2022/04/12/10-facts-about-todays-college-graduates/

Schiller, J. (2023). *49 Therapist statistics & demographics: How many are there?* The

TreeTop Therapy. https://www.thetreetop.com/statistics/therapist-statistics-and-demographics

Scott, J. C., Pinderhughes, E. E., & Johnson, S. K. (2020). How does racial context matter?: Family preparation-for-bias messages and racial coping reported by Black youth. *Child Development, 91*(5), 1471–1490. https://doi.org/10.1111/cdev.13332

Shelton, S. A., & Lester, A. O. S. (2022). A narrative exploration of the importance of intersectionality in a Black trans woman's mental health experiences. *International Journal of Transgender Health*, *23*(1–2), 108–121. https://doi.org/10.1080/26895269.2020.1838393

Shen, F. C., & Liao, K. Y. (2022). Educational channeling, internalized stereotyping, expectations fulfillment and major choice on Asian Americans' major satisfaction: A moderated mediation model. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *132*, 103647. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2021.103647

Sheppard, M. (2019). The impact of quantitative research in social work. *European Journal of Social Work, 22*(1), 4–15. https://doi.org/10.1080/13691457.2017.1341386

Sissoko, D. R. G., Lewis, J. A., & Nadal, K. L. (2023). It's more than skin-deep: Gendered racial microaggressions, skin tone satisfaction, and traumatic stress symptoms among Black women. *Journal of Black Psychology*, *49*(2), 127–152. https://doi.org/10.1177/00957984221137957

Smith, M. M., Saklofske, D. H., Stoeber, J., & Sherry, S. B. (2016a). Big Three

Perfectionism Scale. *PsycTESTS*. https://doi.org/10.1037/t57685-000

Smith, M. M., Saklofske, D. H., Stoeber, J., & Sherry, S. B. (2016b). The Big Three Perfectionism Scale: A new measure of perfectionism. *Journal of Psychoeducational Assessment*, *34*(7), 670–687. https://doi.org/10.1177/0734282916651539

Smith, M. M., Sherry, S. B., Ge, S. Y. J., Hewitt, P. L., Flett, G. L., & Baggley, D. L. (2022). Multidimensional perfectionism turns 30: A review of known knowns and known unknowns. *Canadian Psychology*, *63*(1), 16–31. https://doi.org/10.1037/cap0000288

Smith, N. A., McDonald, A., Wei, W., Johnson, S. A., Adeji, D., & Witherspoon, D. P. (2022). Embracing race, resisting oppression: African American parents as experienced guides for navigating racial oppression. *Journal of Research on Adolescence (Wiley-Blackwell)*, *32*(1), 115–133. https://doi.org/10.1111/jora.12712

Spates, K., Evans, N. M., Watts, B. C., Abubakar, N., & James, T. (2020). Keeping ourselves sane: A qualitative exploration of Black women's coping strategies for gendered racism. *Sex Roles*, *82*(9/10), 513–524. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11199-019-01077-1

Stiles, K., Lee, S. S., & Luthar, S. S. (2020). When parents seek perfection: Implications for psychological functioning among teens at high-achieving schools. *Journal of Child and Family Studies*, *29*(11), 3117–3128. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10826-020-01828-9

Stöber, J. (1998). The Frost Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale revisited: More perfect with four (instead of six) dimensions. *Personality and Individual Differences, 24*(4), 481–491. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0191-8869(97)00207-9

Stoeber, J., Madigan, D. J., & Gonidis, L. (2020). Perfectionism is adaptive and maladaptive, but what's the combined effect? *Personality and Individual Differences, 161*, 109846. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2020.109846

Stoecker, R., & Avila, E. (2021). From mixed methods to strategic research design. *International Journal of Social Research Methodology*, *24*(6), 627–640. https://doi.org/10.1080/13645579.2020.1799639

Suggs, B. G., Robins, L. B., Kerrigan, R., Cannedy, M., Buquo, M. S., & Savinsky, D. M. (2022). Help-seeking and services utilization among African American emerging adults: A qualitative study. *Journal of Human Services*, *41*(1), 31–48. https://doi.org/10.52678/2021.jhs.a3

Suh, H., Kim, S., & Lee, D. (2021). Review of perfectionism research from 1990 to 2019 utilizing a text-mining approach. *Review of General Psychology*, *25*(3), 283–303. https://doi.org/10.1177/10892680211018827

Suh, H. N., & Flores, L. Y. (2022). Role of perfectionism in the career decision self-efficacy and outcome expectations of Asian American college students. *Asian American Journal of Psychology*. https://doi.org/10.1037/aap0000299

Suh, H., Pigott, T., Rice, K. G., Davis, D. E., & Andrade, A. C. (2023). Meta-analysis of the relationship between self-critical perfectionism and depressive symptoms: Comparison between Asian American and Asian international college students.

Journal of Counseling Psychology, *70*(2), 203–211. https://doi.org/10.1037/cou0000653

Summers, L. M., & Lassiter, P. S. (2022). Soul work: Black practitioners' perceptions of Black clients' mental health needs. *Journal of Multicultural Counseling & Development*, *50*(1), 14–24. https://doi.org/10.1002/jmcd.12230

Tan, J. S. T. (2022). Hiding behind the "perfect" mask: A phenomenological study of Filipino university students' lived experiences of perfectionism. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies on Health and Well-Being*, *17*(1). https://doi.org/10.1080/17482631.2022.2062819

Tong, G., & Harris, A. L. (2021). Immigrant selectivity, academic culture and college enrollment among Asian Americans. *Journal of Ethnic & Migration Studies*, *47*(17), 4058–4080. https://doi.org/10.1080/1369183X.2021.1873115

Tulagan, N., & Eccles, J. S. (2021). African-American mothers' socialization strategies to address adolescent-related academic expectations and risk concerns. *Journal of Child & Family Studies*, *30*(4), 855–869. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10826-021-01922-6

Tyler, J., Mu, W., McCann, J., Belli, G., & Asnaani, A. (2021). The unique contribution of perfectionistic cognitions to anxiety disorder symptoms in a treatment-seeking sample. *Cognitive Behaviour Therapy*, *50*(2), 121–137. https://doi.org/10.1080/16506073.2020.1798497

VOXCO. (2021). *Voluntary response sample*. https://www.voxco.com/blog/voluntary-response-sample/

Wallace, D. D. (2019). *Examining perceptions and sensemaking of wellness among African American women who manifest the archetype of the Strong Black Woman* [University of South Carolina]. https://scholarcommons.sc.edu/etd/5306

Walton, G. E., Hibbard, D. R., Coughlin, C., & Coyl-Shepherd, D. D. (2020). Parenting, personality, and culture as predictors of perfectionism. *Current Psychology*, *39*(2), 681–693. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12144-018-9793-y

Walton, Q. L., Small, L. A., Malcome, M. L., & Blakey, J. M. (2023). Both/And: Employing the tenets of cultural competence and cultural humility when working with Black women with depression. *Social Work in Mental Health*, *21*(5), 510–537. https://doi.org/10.1080/15332985.2023.2184661

Wang, G., Zhang, S., & Cai, J. (2021). How are parental expectations related to students' beliefs and their perceived achievement? *Educational Studies in Mathematics*, *108*(3), 429–450. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10649-021-10073-w

Wang, L., & Heppner, P. (2002a). Assessing the impact of parental expectations and psychological distress on Taiwanese college students. *The Counseling Psychologist*, *30*(4), 582. https://doi.org/10.1177/00100002030004006

Wang, L., & Heppner, P. (2002b). Living up to Parental Expectation Inventory. *PsycTESTS*. https://doi.org/10.1037/t81117-000

Wang, Q., & Wu, H. (2022). Associations between maladaptive perfectionism and life satisfaction among Chinese undergraduate medical students: The mediating role of academic burnout and the moderating role of self-esteem. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *12*. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2021.774622

Ward, L. M., Jerald, M., Avery, L., & Cole, E. R. (2020). Following their lead? Connecting mainstream media use to black women's gender beliefs and sexual agency. *Journal of Sex Research*, *57*(2), 200–212. https://doi.org/10.1080/00224499.2018.1554741

Warikoo, N., Chin, M., Zillmer, N., & Luthar, S. (2020). The influence of parent expectations and parent-child relationships on mental health in Asian American and White American families. *Sociological Forum*, *35*(2), 275–296. https://doi.org/10.1111/socf.12583

Warren, C. A., & Coles, J. A. (2020). Trading spaces: Antiblackness and reflections on Black education futures. *Equity & Excellence in Education*, *53*(3), 382–398. https://doi.org/10.1080/10665684.2020.1764882

Whitten, L. (2022). Stigma matters: An African American psychology professor comes out of the mental illness closet. *Psychological Services*, *19*(1), 35–37. https://doi.org/10.1037/ser0000486

Wilkins-Yel, K. G., Arnold, A., Bekki, J., Natarajan, M., Bernstein, B., & Randall, A. K. (2022). "I can't push off my own mental health": Chilly STEM climates, mental health, and STEM persistence among Black, Latina, and White graduate women. *Sex Roles*, *86*(3/4), 208–232. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11199-021-01262-1

Williams, B. M., Laurent, C., Chawla, R., & Moore, J. X. (2022). Examining educational attainment and allostatic load in non-Hispanic Black women. *BMC Women's Health*, *22*(1), 1–10. https://doi.org/10.1186/s12905-022-01641-0

Williams, M. G., & Lewis, J. A. (2019). Gendered racial microaggressions and

depressive symptoms among Black women: A moderated mediation model. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, *43*(3), 368–380. https://doi.org/10.1177/0361684319832511

Williams, Q., Williams, B. M., & Brown, L. C. (2022). Exploring Black Girl Magic: Identity development of Black first-gen college women. *Journal of Diversity in Higher Education*, *15*(4), 466–479. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/dhe0000294

Williamson, E., Gregory, A., Abrahams, H., Aghtaie, N., Walker, S., & Hester, M. (2020). Secondary trauma: Emotional safety in sensitive research. *Journal of Academic Ethics*, *18*(1), 55–70. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10805-019-09348-y

Woodfin, V., Binder, P., & Molde, H. (2020). The psychometric properties of the Frost Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale – Brief. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *11*. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2020.01860

Woodrum, J. L., & Kahn, J. H. (2022). Perfectionistic concerns and psychological distress: The role of spontaneous emotion regulation during college students' experience with failure. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, *69*(2), 246–256. https://doi.org/10.1037/cou0000580

Woods Jr., I., Heidelburg, K., Collins, T., Murphy, J., & Graves Jr., S. (2023). Promoting the positive development of Black males: Supporting social, behavioral, emotional, and academic success. *School Psychology Review*, *52*(3), 243–249. https://doi.org/10.1080/2372966X.2023.2194180

Woods-Giscombé, C. L. (2010). Superwoman schema: African American women's views on stress, strength, and health. *Qualitative Health Research*, *20*(5), 668–683.

https://doi.org/10.1177/1049732310361892

Workye, R., Shephard, A., Alexander, S. M., Cribbie, R. A., Flett, G. L., & Mackinnon, S. P. (2023). Perfectionism, anxiety sensitivity, and negative reactions following a failed statistics test: A vulnerability–stress model. *Scholarship of Teaching and Learning in Psychology*. https://doi.org/10.1037/stl0000363.supp

Wright, C., & Riley, A. (2021). Mitigating the need for resiliency for Black girls: Reimagining the cultural brokering through a lens of science as White property. *Cultural Studies of Science Education*, *16*(2), 495–500. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11422-020-10005-9

Wright, G., Volodarsky, S., Hecht, S., & Saxe, L. (2023). Student satisfaction and the future of online learning in higher education: Lessons from a natural experiment. *Online Learning*, *27*(1), 336–355. https://doi.org/10.24059/olj.v27i1.3224

Wu, P.-C. (2022). Psychometric properties of the Big Three Perfectionism Scale: Rasch analysis. *Child Psychiatry and Human Development*. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10578-022-01331-w

Xu, X., Xu, G., Liu, M., & Deng, C. (2020). Influence of parental academic involvement on the achievement goal orientations of high school students in China: A latent growth model study. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, *90*(3), 700–718. https://doi.org/10.1111/bjep.12326

Ying, J., You, J., Liu, S., & Wu, R. (2021). The relations between childhood experience of negative parenting practices and nonsuicidal self-injury in Chinese adolescents:

The mediating roles of maladaptive perfectionism and rumination. *Child Abuse & Neglect, 115*, 104992. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chiabu.2021.104992

You, S., Kwon, M., & Kim, E. K. (2022). Perfectionism, life stress, and suicidal ideation among college students: A protective role of self-compassion. *Journal of Experimental Psychopathology*, *13*(2). https://doi.org/10.1177/20438087221103350

Zhang, X., Zeelenberg, M., Summerville, A., & Breugelmans, S. M. (2021). The role of self-discrepancies in distinguishing regret from guilt. *Self & Identity*, *20*(3), 388–405. https://doi.org/10.1080/15298868.2020.1721316

Ziegler, A. (2022). *The economic power & impact of Black women & moms*. The Mom Project. https://community.themomproject.com/the-study/the-economic-power-impact-of-black-women-moms

Zimmermann, B. M., Willem, T., Bredthauer, C. J., & Buyx, A. (2022). Ethical issues in social media recruitment for clinical studies: Ethical analysis and framework. *Journal of Medical Internet Research*, *24*(5). https://doi.org/10.2196/31231

Appendix A: Demographic Prescreening Questions

Parental Expectations for Academic Achievement and Self-Critical Perfectionism in Black Women

Welcome to My Survey!

You are invited to complete a survey on parental expectations for academic achievement and self-critical perfectionism in Black women as part of my research necessary for the final stages of my doctoral dissertation. Please answer the following questions to determine if you meet the inclusion criteria.

Do you identify as a cisgender (biological - not Trans) Black woman?

*Due to the peer-reviewed research supporting the link between gender dysphoria and self-critical perfectionism, this research will not include Black Transwomen at this time.

- ◯ Yes
- ◯ No

* Are you between the ages of 18 and 50 years old?

- ◯ Yes
- ◯ No

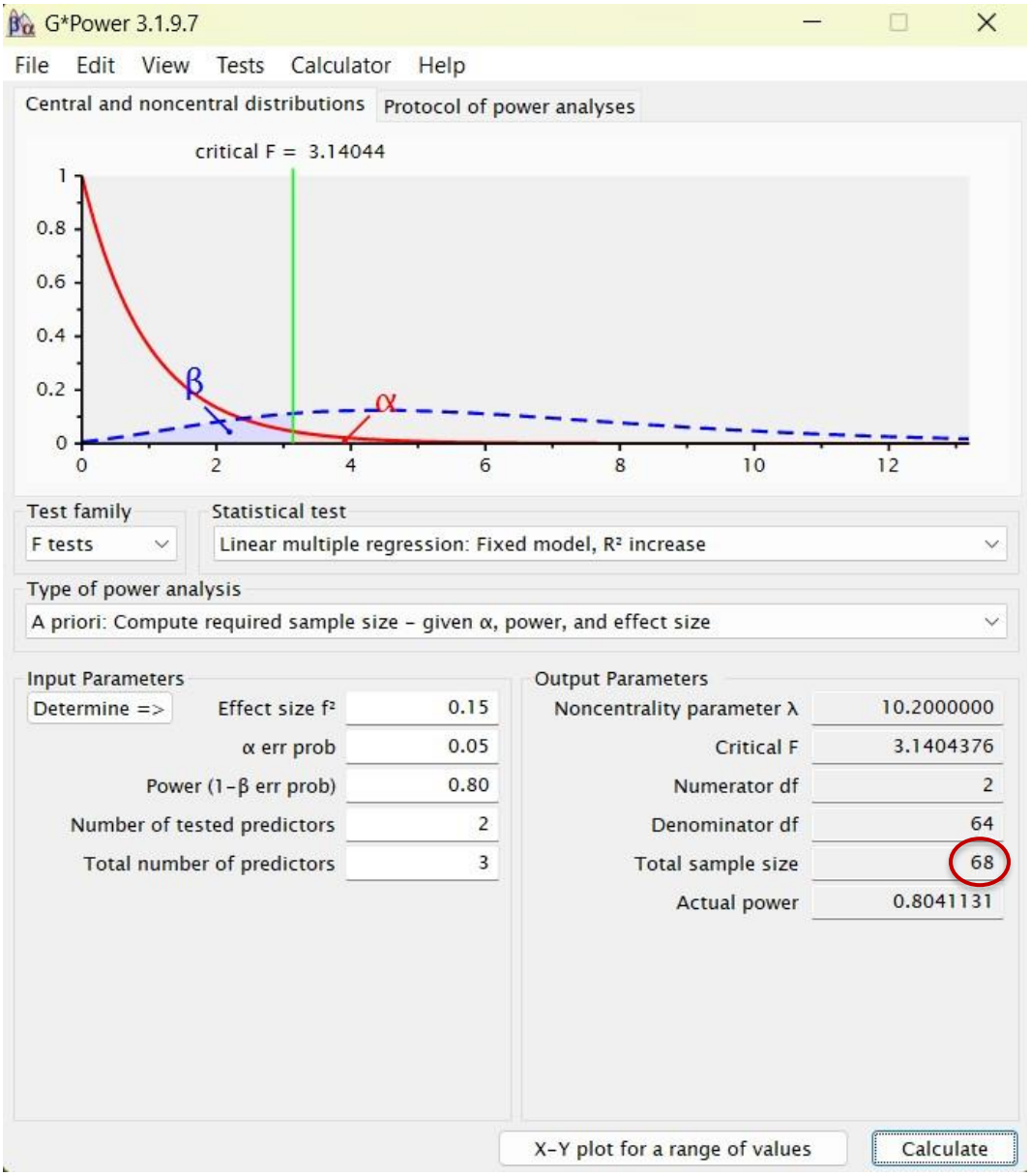
* Do you possess at least a high school diploma from an accredited secondary school?

- ◯ Yes
- ◯ No

* Do you currently reside in the United States?

- ◯ Yes
- ◯ No

Appendix B: Estimated Sample Size Calculation



Appendix C: Perceived Parental Expectations Subscale of the Living Up to Parental Expectations Inventory Survey Items

PsycTESTS®

doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/t81117-000

Living up to Parental Expectation Inventory
LPEI

Factor and Item
Personal Maturity
30. Parents expect me not to offend them verbally/vocally
27. Parents expect me not to do the kind of things that may disappoint them
32. Parents expect me to speak carefully and not to offend people
29. Parents expect me to control/change my bad temper
23. Parents expect me not to make trouble for the family
26. Parents expect me to behave maturely
6. Parents expect me to be modest and polite
7. Parents expect me not to embarrass them ("lose face")
22. Parents expect me to talk and to behave cautiously when away from home
8. Parents expect me to respect my older siblings/cousins and to take care of my younger siblings/cousins
24. Parents expect me to be responsible
3. Parents expect me to avoid conflict with siblings/cousins
28. Parents expect me to maintain my academic performance when falling in love
9. Parents expect me to spend money wisely
2. Parents expect me to take care of my physical health
12. Parents expect me not to waste money on unnecessary things
Academic Achievement
4. Parents expect my academic performance to make them proud
1. Parents expect me to have excellent academic performance
13. Parents expect me to study hard to get a high-paying job in the future
18. Parents expect me to perform better than others academically
21. Parents expect me to honor my parents and family's ancestors
25. Parents expect me to study at their ideal college/university
20. Parents expect me to pursue their ideal careers (doctors, teachers,...)
16. Parents expect me to share the financial burden of the family
17. Parents expect me to study their ideal program/major
Dating Concerns
15. Parents expect me to find someone who has a good financial status when dating
19. Parents expect me to find someone with advanced degree when dating
31. Parents expect me to select my dates with his/her family background in mind
14. Parents expect me to find someone who can get along with my family when dating
11. Parents expect me to ask for their approval before starting a dating relationship
10. Parents expect me to date someone who is tall and good-looking
5. Parents expect me not to seriously date someone they don't like

Note . Items are rated on a 6-point Likert-type scale. Two rating scales are present: (a) "How strong do you currently perceive this expectation from your parents?" (Perceived Parental Expectation; 1 = not at all expected, 6 = very strongly expected); (b) "To what extent do you currently perform this manner?" (Perceived Self-Performance; 1 = not at all expected, 6 = very strongly expected). The Living up to Parental Expectation score is obtained by subtracting the PPE from the PSP.

Appendix D: Permission to Use Perceived Parental Expectations Subscale of the Living Up to Parental Expectations Inventory

Confirmation of Study Posting

Participant Pool <participantpool@mail.waldenu.edu>
Wed 11/8/2023 1:13 PM
To:Brandy Nichols <brandy.nichols@waldenu.edu>
Cc:Participant Pool <participantpool@mail.waldenu.edu>

Hi Brandy,

Thank you for providing this information, your study has been posted on the Participant Pool webpage. Once your data collection is complete and you no longer need your study to be posted, please notify the Participant Pool Administrator via email so your posting can be removed from the site. Good luck as you begin data collection!

As a member of the Participant Pool community, you may be interested in taking part in one of the other studies posted on the webpage. Please feel free to volunteer if you find an opportunity you qualify for.

Sincerely,
Caroline Wright
Research Ethics Support Specialist
Research Ethics, Compliance, and Partnerships
Walden University
100 Washington Avenue South, Suite 1210
Minneapolis, MN 55401
Email: irb@mail.waldenu.edu
Phone: (612) 257-6505

Information about the Walden University Institutional Review Board, including instructions for application, may be found at this link: http://academicguides.waldenu.edu/researchcenter/orec

---

From: Walden Participant Pool <surveys@mail.waldenu.edu>
Sent: Tuesday, November 7, 2023 8:17 PM
To: Participant Pool <participantpool@mail.waldenu.edu>
Subject: Participant Pool Request from brandy.nichols@waldenu.edu

Below is a copy of the **Participant Pool Request** that was just received from the researcher. The Participant Pool Manager will be in touch as soon as possible (within 10 business days) to confirm whether the study has been posted.
Download as PDF

URL to view Results	[Click Here]

Response Summary:

. 1. Enter the researcher's email address. (For interview studies, this email address will be posted publicly on the participant pool webpage so volunteers can contact you.)
brandy.nichols@waldenu.edu

. 2. Study title:
Parental Expectations for Academic Achievement and Self-Critical Perfectionism in Black Women

Appendix E: PPE Permission Document Returned to Original Author

Dear PPE users,

Thank you for your interest in the Parental Expectation Inventory (PPE). We are happy to hear of your interest in our work, and would be interested in what you find in your research with the PPE.

The PPE assesses not only perceived parental expectations, but also the extent of living up to those expectations in college students. The results of the factor analysis suggested three common factors across three scales. The PPE consists of 32 items comprise three factors: (1) Personal Maturity, (2) Academic Achievement, and (3) Dating Concerns. The Personal Maturity factor not only emphasizes personal control and maturity but also obedience. The Academic Achievement factor emphasizes academic and career performance. Dating Concerns emphasizes economic considerations, interpersonal harmony, and parental approval. Together these factors suggest a broad range of parental expectations related to traditional Asian value of filial piety such as educational and occupational achievement, maintenance of interpersonal harmony, self-control and restraint, collectivism, and the importance of the family.

We are pleased to grant you permission to use, without cost, the PPE for non-commercial purposes provided the following:

1. You agree to not use the PPE in research or other work (a) for any commercial purpose or for the direct benefit for any for-profit institution, or (b) in research or another work performed for a third party, or provide the scale to a third party.
2. When reproducing the PPE, please include the following identifier: **Parental Expectation Inventory (PPE), copyright 2002, Li-fei Wang and Puncky P. Heppner. All rights reserved.**
3. You agree to provide Dr. Li-fei Wang a copy of any publication or report resulting from the use of the PPE.
4. You agree in any publication or report not to partially or in total reproduce the PPE without first securing the permission of the first author.
5. Cross national research with the PPE is highly desired, and thus encouraged. However, it is important to have a standardized content across any translation; to this end we ask that back translations are approved by Dr. Li-fei Wang. If you desire to create a non-English translation of the CCS, please obtain permission from Dr. Li-fei Wang to do so as well as her final approval of the English back-translation with the original PPE. English and Chinese versions of the CCS are available from Dr. Li-fei Wang.

If these conditions are acceptable to you, please complete the form below and mail, fax or email to Dr. Li-fei Wang at the following address: Dr. Li-fei Wang, Department of Educational Psychology and Counseling, National Taiwan Normal University, 162 Hoping E. Rd., Sec. 1., Taipei, Taiwan, R.O.C.; Fax: 011-886-2-8732-8734; Email: lfwang@ntnu.edu.tw .

Signature: *Brandy E. Jones Nichols, MSCE, MS, ABD*

Printed Name: Brandy E. Jones Nichols

Date: July 28, 2023

Title: Doctoral Candidate

Institution/Organization: Walden University

Appendix F: Self-Critical Perfectionism Subscale of the Big Three Perfectionism Scale Items

PsycTESTS

doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/t57685-000

Big Three Perfectionism Scale
BTPS

		Facet
Rigid perfectionism		
1.	I have a strong need to be perfect.	SOP
2.	I strive to be as perfect as possible.	SOP
3.	I never settle for less than perfection from myself.	SOP
4.	It is important to me to be perfect in everything I attempt.	SOP
5.	I do things perfectly, or I don't do them at all.	SOP
6.	I always need to be aiming for perfection to feel "right" about myself.	SWC
7.	I could never respect myself if I stopped trying to achieve perfection.	SWC
8.	My value as a person depends on being perfect.	SWC
9.	Striving to be as perfect as possible makes me feel worthwhile.	SWC
10.	My opinion of myself is tied to being perfect.	SWC
Self-critical perfectionism		
11.	When I make a mistake, I feel like a failure.	COM
12.	I am very concerned about the possibility of making a mistake.	COM
13.	The idea of making a mistake frightens me.	COM
14.	When I notice that I have made a mistake, I feel ashamed.	COM
15.	Making even a small mistake would upset me.	COM
16.	I have doubts about most of my actions.	DAA
17.	I feel uncertain about most things I do.	DAA
18.	I have doubts about everything I do.	DAA
19.	I am never sure if I am doing things the correct way.	DAA
20.	I tend to doubt whether I am doing something "right."	DAA
21.	I judge myself harshly when I don't do something perfectly.	SC
22.	When my performance falls short of perfection, I get very mad at myself.	SC
23.	I feel disappointed with myself, when I don't do something perfectly.	SC
24.	I have difficulty forgiving myself when my performance is not flawless.	SC
25.	People expect too much from me.	SPP
26.	People are disappointed in me whenever I don't do something perfectly.	SPP
27.	People make excessive demands of me.	SPP
28.	Everyone expects me to be perfect.	SPP
Narcissistic perfectionism		
29.	I demand perfection from my family and friends.	OOP
30.	Everything that other people do must be flawless.	OOP
31.	I expect those close to me to be perfect.	OOP
32.	People complain that I expect too much of them.	OOP
33.	It is important to me that other people do things perfectly.	OOP

PsycTESTS

doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/t57685-000

Big Three Perfectionism Scale
BTPS

34.	I am highly critical of other people's imperfections.	HC
35.	I get frustrated when other people make mistakes.	HC
36.	I feel dissatisfied with other people, even when I know they are trying their best.	HC
37.	I am quick to point out other people's flaws.	HC
38.	I am entitled to special treatment.	HC
39.	I expect other people to bend the rules for me.	ENT
40.	It bothers me when people don't notice how perfect I am.	ENT
41.	I deserve to always have things go my way.	ENT
42.	I am the absolute best at what I do.	GRAN
43.	I know that I am perfect.	GRAN
44.	Other people secretly admire my perfection.	GRAN
45.	Other people acknowledge my superior ability.	GRAN

Note. SOP = self-oriented perfectionism; SWC = self-worth contingencies; COM = concern over mistakes; DAA = doubts about actions; SC = self-criticism; SPP = socially prescribed perfectionism; OOP = other-oriented perfectionism; HC = hypercriticism; ENT = entitlement; GRAN = grandiosity

Appendix G: Big Three Perfectionism Scale Permissions Page

PsycTESTS®

Big Three Perfectionism Scale

PsycTESTS Citation:
Smith, M. M., Saklofske, D. H., Stoeber, J., & Sherry, S. B. (2016). Big Three Perfectionism Scale [Database record]. Retrieved from PsycTESTS. doi: https://dx.doi.org/10.1037/t57685-000

Instrument Type:
Inventory/Questionnaire

Test Format:
The BTPS contains 45 items rated on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

Source:
Smith, Martin M., Saklofske, Donald H., Stoeber, Joachim, & Sherry, Simon B. (2016). The Big Three Perfectionism Scale: A new measure of perfectionism. Journal of Psychoeducational Assessment, Vol 34(7), 670-687. doi: https://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0734282916651539, © 2016 by SAGE Publications. Reproduced by Permission of SAGE Publications.

Appendix H: Participant Recruitment Flyer

RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS NEEDED

WALDEN UNIVERSITY
EDUCATION FOR GOOD

Research Title:

Parental Expectations for Academic Achievement and Self-Critical Perfectionism in Black Women

Are you a Black woman between the ages of 18-50, residing in the US, and have *at least* a High School diploma?

Are you interested in taking part in academic research?

CHECK OUT THE LINK BELOW!

YOU CAN PARTICIPATE IF YOU...

- **identify as a cisgender* Black woman**
- **are between the ages of 18-50**
- **reside in the United States**
- **have at least one of the following: high school diploma, bachelor's degree, and/or graduate/post-graduate/professional degree**

This study's focus is limited and does not include any aspects of gender dysphoria. Therefore, the current participant pool is limited to biologically born Black women ONLY.

If you meet the criteria, you are invited to volunteer to complete a 5-10 minute *anonymous* survey! You are also welcome to forward this survey to other women who meet the criteria!

SURVEY LINK

Click the link below to take the survey!!

www.surveymonkey.com/r/2XDC3B2

WALDEN UNIVERSITY INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL NUMBER:
11-07-23-0982988

Research conducted by:
Brandy E. Nichols, Walden University Doctoral Candidate
brandy.nichols@waldenu.edu

Appendix I: Research Flyer Accompanying Caption for Facebook, LinkedIn, and Facebook Groups' Postings

Please take a moment to check out my survey!

Are you an educated, cisgender (biological) Black woman, aged 18-50, living in the US? Whether you've rocked that high school diploma or soared all the way to a doctorate or professional degree, your voice matters!

You are invited to join my research study, "Parental Expectations for Academic Achievement and Self-Critical Perfectionism in Black Women." Your story is vital, and I want to hear it.

Your contribution is completely ANONYMOUS and takes just 5-10 minutes. Click the link below to make your mark:

🔗https://www.surveymonkey.com/r/2XDC3B2

Plus, I encourage you to share this survey with fellow Black women who meet the criteria! Let's amplify our voices together. 👑#BlackWomenEmpowerment #ResearchMatters #EmpowerHer #BlackWomenResearch #EducationMatters #BlackExcellence #PerfectionismStudy #DissertationResearch #MentalHealthAwareness #BlackScholars #EmpowerBlackWomen #AcademicAchievement #MentalHealthJourney #SocialScience #SocialScienceResearch #PerfectionismResearch #MentalWellness #StudentMentalHealth

#BlackWomenLeaders #BreakingBarriers #SelfCareJourney #BreakingTheStigma

Thank you in advance!!

Appendix J: Walden University Participant Pool Confirmation of Study's Posting

Confirmation of Study Posting

Participant Pool <participantpool@mail.waldenu.edu>
Wed 11/8/2023 1:13 PM
To:Brandy Nichols <brandy.nichols@waldenu.edu>
Cc:Participant Pool <participantpool@mail.waldenu.edu>

Hi Brandy,

Thank you for providing this information, your study has been posted on the Participant Pool webpage. Once your data collection is complete and you no longer need your study to be posted, please notify the Participant Pool Administrator via email so your posting can be removed from the site. Good luck as you begin data collection!

As a member of the Participant Pool community, you may be interested in taking part in one of the other studies posted on the webpage. Please feel free to volunteer if you find an opportunity you qualify for.

Sincerely,
Caroline Wright
Research Ethics Support Specialist
Research Ethics, Compliance, and Partnerships
Walden University
100 Washington Avenue South, Suite 1210
Minneapolis, MN 55401
Email: irb@mail.waldenu.edu
Phone: (612) 257-6505

Information about the Walden University Institutional Review Board, including instructions for application, may be found at this link: http://academicguides.waldenu.edu/researchcenter/orec

---

From: Walden Participant Pool <surveys@mail.waldenu.edu>
Sent: Tuesday, November 7, 2023 8:17 PM
To: Participant Pool <participantpool@mail.waldenu.edu>
Subject: Participant Pool Request from brandy.nichols@waldenu.edu

Below is a copy of the **Participant Pool Request** that was just received from the researcher. The Participant Pool Manager will be in touch as soon as possible (within 10 business days) to confirm whether the study has been posted.
Download as PDF

URL to view Results	[Click Here]

Response Summary:

. 1. Enter the researcher's email address. (For interview studies, this email address will be posted publicly on the participant pool webpage so volunteers can contact you.)
brandy.nichols@waldenu.edu

. 2. Study title:
Parental Expectations for Academic Achievement and Self-Critical Perfectionism in Black Women