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7	The impact of internet-based cognitive behaviour therapy for perfectionism on different
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The impact of internet-based cognitive behaviour therapy for perfectionism on different measures of perfectionism: A randomised controlled trial

Abstract

The current study investigated the impact of an 8-module internet-based cognitive behaviour therapy for perfectionism (ICBT-P) across a variety of perfectionism subscales.

Undergraduate students who identified as having a problem with perfectionism were randomized to receive the intervention (n=41), and were free to choose the number of treatment modules they completed over a 4-week period, while the control group (N=48)

depression, anxiety, stress, body image and self-compassion. Assessments occurred at

received access to treatment 8 weeks post-randomisation. Secondary measures included

baseline, 2-, 4- and 8-week time points. A mean of 3.12 (SD=2.67) modules were completed;

7 participants (17%) completed none and 6 (15%) completed all. Linear mixed modelling (with baseline observation included as a covariate) showed significant Bonferroni-adjusted

post-hoc between-group differences for 5 of the 6 perfectionism measures, favouring the

intervention group; the most robust between group effect sizes were for the Concern over

Mistakes (d=-0.82), High Standards (d=-0.69), and Perfectionistic Standards (d=-0.47)

subscales. There were no between-group differences for our secondary measures. ICBT-P

was found to be an effective intervention for reducing different components of perfectionism

compared to a control group. The relatively low use of modules may have contributed to a

lack of effect on secondary measures.

Keywords: Perfectionism, internet intervention, concern over mistakes, high standards

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Perfectionistic concerns and perfectionistic strivings (Frost, Marten, Lahart, & Rosenblate,
1990; Smith & Saklofske, 2017) have both been associated with a range of psychological
disorders (Limburg, Watson, Hagger, & Egan, 2017), albeit concerns more strongly than
strivings. There is no research available to address any differences in perfectionism over
lifespan and sex, but both types of perfectionism have increased linearly in college students
over the last 27 years regardless of sex (Curran & Hill, 2017).

Several meta-analyses have confirmed the efficacy of cognitive behaviour therapy for perfectionism (CBT-P), showing large effect size within-group decreases (Lloyd, Schmidt, Khondoker, & Tchanturia, 2015) and moderate between-group differences (Suh, Sohn, Kim, & Lee, 2019). Internet delivery (ICBT-P) is equally as effective as face-to-face delivery (Suh et al., 2019). This is consistent with the findings across psychiatric and somatic disorders (Carlbring, Andersson, Cuijpers, Riper, & Hedman-Lagerlöf, 2018; Andersson, Titov, Dear, Rozental, & Carlbring, 2019). The most evaluated form of CBT-P (Shafran, Egan, & Wade, 2010) is informed by *clinical perfectionism*, the overdependence of self-evaluation on the determined pursuit of personally demanding, self-imposed, standards in at least one highly salient domain, despite adverse consequences (Shafran, Cooper, & Fairburn, 2002).

Outcomes also show moderate between-group effect size differences for disordered eating (Robinson & Wade, 2021), and anxiety and depression (Suh et al., 2019) compared to waitlist conditions. To date, evaluations of ICBT-P have included only the Frost Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale (FMPS; Frost et al., 1990) and the Clinical Perfectionism Questionnaire (CPQ; Fairburn, Cooper, & Shafran, 2002).

There is much debate in the literature about the optimal operationalisation of the perfectionism construct (Shafran et al., 2002). It has been suggested that measures of striving for high standards and perfectionistic strivings have been used interchangeably in the

research (Gaudreau, 2018). Comparison of the original version of the High Standards subscale from the Almost Perfect Scale-Revised (APS-R; Slaney, Rice, Mobley, Trippi, & Ashby, 2001) to a modified version focused on perfectionistic strivings, showed that associations with harmful outcomes existed for the latter but not the former (Blasberg, Hewitt, Flett, Sherry, & Chen, 2016). The authors speculated that the former reflected conscientious striving for high standards and the former reflected the 'all or nothing' thinking and rigid pursuit of perfection (Blasberg et al., 2016). High standards may have more in common with *excellencism*, a term coined to denote a hypothesised pursuit of achievement that is functional (Gaudreau, 2018), and operationalised in a new measure, the Scale of Perfectionism and Excellencism (SCOPE; Gaudreau & Schellenberg, 2018).

The primary aim of the current study is to investigate how ICBT-P impacts across a variety of measures of perfectionistic measures. We hypothesised that there would be significant reductions in measures related to perfectionistic concerns and perfectionistic strivings (Concern over Mistakes and Personal Standards from the FMPS, Discrepancy from the APS-R, and Personal Standards from the SCOPE), while subscales associated with high standards (High Standards from the APS-R and the Excellencism from the SCOPE) would not show significant reductions compared to a control group. Our secondary aim is to examine the impact of ICBT-P on depression, anxiety and stress, body image flexibility and self-compassion. Two studies using similar versions of guided ICBT-P showed significant effects on perfectionism while one showed significant effects on secondary outcomes such as depression and anxiety (Rozental et al., 2017) but the other did not (Shafran et al, 2017). The main difference between the two studies (apart from minor differences in the modules) was the number of modules completed, with 86% completing more than 6 modules versus a mean of 3.9 modules respectively. We adopted a client-centred approach to module completion,

namely a flexible rather than the more common fixed format. This former format entails completion of modules in any order and number (after the initial module) that meets the needs of the participant.

#### Method

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## **Participants**

Participants were undergraduate students from Flinders University recruited via the School of Psychology Research Participation System and information posters displayed on campus. Inclusion required being 17 years of age or older, fluent in English, and self-reporting current struggles with perfectionism. Exclusion criteria were past registration with the Overcoming Perfectionism website. The number of participants who read these research invitations is unknown, but 114 completed baseline questionnaires, with 89 (78%) progressing on to intervention randomisation and further assessment (see Figure 1). Participants received either up to six research participation credits (N=60) or \$20 payment (N=29). The sample comprised of 79 females (89%), 8 males (9%) and 2 not defined (2%) with age ranging from 18 to 64 (M = 24.74, SD = 8.36). Most of the participants identified as Australian (n = 54, 61%), with the remainder identified as Asian (n = 26, 29%) or other. Seventy two percent met the inclusion criteria of a previous ICBT-P study (Shafran et al., 2017),  $\geq$  29 on the FMPS Concern over Mistakes scale, one standard deviation above published norms. Compared to average item scores in a non-clinical population (Antony, Bieling, Cox, Enns, & Swinson, 1998), scores for negative affect were slightly elevated, with a mean of 3.64 compared to 2.12 for depression, and a mean of 2.12 for anxiety compared to 1.22. Formal approval was received from the Social and Behavioural Research Ethics Committee (#7971).

#### Design

Participants were randomised to ICBT-P or a waitlist. A within-subjects design was used to compare the difference in magnitude of change on outcome variables at baseline (T<sub>1</sub>), 2 week mid-treatment (T<sub>2</sub>), 4 week end-of-treatment (T<sub>3</sub>) and 8 week post-treatment (T<sub>4</sub>) time points between the two groups for all randomised participants.

#### Power

A longitudinal designs power analysis (Hedecker, Gibbons, & Waternaux, 1999) was conducted using the between-group effect size previously obtained for perfectionism in a university population not selected for high levels of perfectionism (Johnson et al., 2019). Assuming three timepoints (adjusting for baseline observations),  $\alpha = .05$ , power = 0.80, attrition rates of  $T_1 = 25\%$  and  $T_2 = 5\%$ , and d = 0.65 (Lloyd et al., 2015), a minimum randomised sample size of 64 was estimated, 32 participants per group.

#### Intervention

ICBT-P consists of eight modules. Participants were asked to complete module 1 and then encouraged to complete as many modules as they liked over 4 weeks. Each module took approximately 30 minutes to complete and addressed specific target areas important in the treatment of perfectionism. Self-managed homework assignments were available for participants to complete but were not compulsory; no guided self-help was provided.

#### Primary outcome measure

In the interests of limiting respondent burden, we decided to limit inclusion of perfectionism measures, using two subscales each from three different scales (N=6 measures). This included Personal Standards and Concern over Mistakes from the FMPS; (Frost et al., 1990), with 7 (e.g., "I set higher goals than most people") and 9 items (e.g., "I

hate being less than the best at things") respectively each on a 5-point Likert scale (Strongly agree to Strongly disagree). All item scores were reversed coded such that higher mean item scores indicated higher levels of perfectionism. High internal consistencies for both subscales (.83 and .88) were respectively noted in this study. Discrepancy and High Standards from the APS-R (Slaney, et al., 2001) were also used, consisting of 12 (e.g., "Doing my best never seems to be enough") and 7 items (e.g., "I have high expectations for myself") respectively. All subscales used a 7-point Likert scale from 1 ("Strongly disagree") to 7 ("Strongly agree"). The mean item scores were calculated, with higher scores indicating higher levels of perfectionism. High respective internal consistencies (.94 and .91) were observed in this study. Excellencism and Personal Standards from the SCOPE (Gaudreau & Schellenberg, 2018) were used; the latter we herein rename as Perfectionistic Standards in order to differentiate it from the FMPS. Eleven items from Excellencism (e.g., "As a person, my general goal in life is to... reach excellence.") and Perfectionistic Standards (e.g., "As a person, my general goal in life is to... reach perfection.") were used, with a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Not at all) to 7 (Totally). A higher mean item score indicates higher levels of each construct. The SCOPE was made available on the Open Science Framework and at the time of this study is still under evaluation, with no validity and reliability data available. High respective internal consistencies were noted for both in the current study (.94 and .97).

## Secondary outcome measures

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The Depression, Anxiety and Stress Scales – Short Form (DASS-21; Lovibond & Lovibond, 1995) is a 21 item self-report measure of depression, anxiety and stress which uses a four point Likert scale from 0 ("did not apply to me at all") to 3 ("applied to me very much, or most of the time"). Participant subscale response scores were aggregated with a higher

mean item score indicating elevated levels of negative affect. The DASS-21 has adequate construct validity and be suitable for use in clinical and non-clinical samples (Henry & Crawford, 2005). In this study good respective internal consistencies were obtained (.90, .85, .86).

The Body Image-Acceptance and Action Questionnaire (BI-AAQ; Sandoz, Wilson, Merwin, & Kellum, 2013) is a 12-item self-report questionnaire measuring over-evaluation of weight and shape (e.g., "I care too much about my weight and body shape"), using a seven-point Likert scale ranging from 1 ("Never true") to 7 ("Always true"). Mean item response scores were calculated, with higher scores suggesting more positive body image. This measure has strong internal consistency (Cronbach's  $\alpha = .96$ ), convergent and divergent validity and test-retest reliability (Pellizzer, Tiggemann, Waller, & Wade, 2018). In the current study internal consistency for this scale was high ( $\alpha = .97$ ).

The Self-Compassion Scale – Short Form (SCS-SF; Raes, Pommier, Neff, & Van Gucht, 2011) was designed to measure the general higher order factor of self-compassion (e.g., "When something upsets me, I try to keep my emotions in balance."). A five-point Likert Scale ranging from 1 (Almost never) to 5 (Almost Always) is used with items 1, 4, 8, 9, 11 and 12 reversed scored, with a higher mean item score indicating higher self-compassion. In the current study high internal consistency was obtained ( $\alpha = 0.82$ ).

#### **Procedure**

After registering all participants were directed to a web based survey platform (Qualtrics) where the study information and consent was available. They were then asked to answer demographic questions (date of birth, gender, ethnicity, fluency in English, if they currently experience perfectionism). Failure to answer in the affirmative to either of the last

two questions automatically ended the survey. Those eligible went on to complete the baseline  $(T_1)$  survey, at the end of which they were asked if they would like to proceed further as a participant in the study and be randomised.

Those who agreed to proceed were allocated to a group by a randomizer element within the survey platform and emailed the Information Sheet and Consent Form. Participants allocated to the treatment group were then registered as a user on the Overcoming Perfectionism website (Vlaescu, Alasjö, Miloff, Carlbring, & Andersson, 2016), allocated access to all 8 modules and provided with login details via an automatically generated email. Follow up email reminders to complete surveys were sent to participants manually. Treatment group participants were instructed that they had four weeks to complete as many modules as they liked, starting with module 1 and then moving on to the other modules; and that the worksheets were available to be completed if they chose to, but were not compulsory.

## Statistical Analyses

Baseline data was analysed using bivariate correlations and logistic regressions for two group comparisons. The fixed effects of treatment allocation, time and two-way interactions between time and treatment allocation were analysed using general linear mixed models, which are robust with respect to unbalanced designs in repeated-measures research (Nich & Carroll, 1997) offering the benefits of estimation maximization (EM), which provides joint linear modelling for each individual for observed *and* missing data based on maximizing likelihood for population parameters as a function of observed data. Baseline observations were included as a covariate, and thus both main effects of group and interactions are of interest. Between group effect sizes and 95% confidence intervals were calculated using the online Campbell Collaboration effect size calculator. An effect size of

0.2–0.5 is considered small, 0.5–0.8 moderate, and >0.8 large. We do not expect to see the 95% CI cross zero if the effect is substantial.

Results

#### Baseline descriptives

An analysis of bivariate correlations is provided in **Table 1**. With the exception of Personal Standards (FMPS) and High Standards (APS-R), which showed no significant relationship to secondary outcome measures, higher levels of perfectionism were associated with higher levels of depression, anxiety and stress, and lower levels of positive body image and self-compassion. It is of note that Excellencism from the SCOPE, intended to measure benign pursuit of excellence, showed a small but significant association with higher levels of anxiety, stress and body image concerns.

Logistic regression analysis of baseline variables showed no differences between participants who completed baseline questionnaires only and were not randomised to the 89 participants who were randomised. Given the advent of COVID-19 half-way through data collection, impacting 39% of our participants, we also used logistic regressions to test baseline differences between those affected and not affected. None of the baseline differences were different except for Personal Standards (OR=0.41, 95% CI: 0.21-0.82). There were lower Personal Standards in the affected group (M=3.69, SD=0.72) compared to the unaffected group (M=4.07, SD=0.62); Excellencism approached significance (*p*=.07), trending the same way with respective means of 5.20 (SD=0.74) and 5.56 (0.97).

## Treatment module and survey completion

The number of ICBT-P modules completed is shown in **Table 2**. The mean number of

modules completed was 2.57 (SD=2.65). Half of the participants stopped after the first 2 modules, just over a third completed 4 modules, and only 12% completed all eight modules. There were no significant correlations between the N modules completed and any of our measures. Seventy (79%) of participants completed all four surveys and 14 (16%) completed just the first two survey time points.

## Changes over time

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The baseline covariate mean value and subsequent means and standard errors across the eleven general linear mixed models are displayed in **Table 3**. Five significant effects were obtained indicating between-group differences - three interactions, and two between group differences. The first interaction was observed for Concern over Mistakes where the intervention group decreased at each follow-up assessment and was significantly lower than the control group at post-intervention and follow-up. The second interaction was for Personal Standards, with the intervention group lower than the control group at post-intervention and follow-up. While an interaction for body image was indicated, and the intervention group improved at each time point in contrast to the control group which decreased at each time point, no significant post-hoc comparisons were evident. This latter result may be somewhat explained by greater baseline variability where differences between groups approached significance at baseline (p=.08), where the control group started with better body image (M=4.17, SD=1.68) compared to the control (M=3.49, SD=1.88). The significant between group differences related to High Standards and Excellencism, where intervention group was lower than the control group at post-intervention and follow-up. The between group effect sizes and 95% confidence intervals (CI) are shown in Figure 2. While 95% CI do not cross zero for three variables: Concern over Mistakes (large), High Standards and Perfectionistic Standards (both moderate), the latter result is hard to interpret. While it accorded with a

significant post-hoc difference favouring the intervention group at follow-up (see **Table 3**), there was only a significant main effect of time noted in the linear mixed modelling.

## Discussion

The current study investigated the impact of ICBT-P on subscales measuring perfectionistic strivings and perfectionistic concerns (Concern over Mistakes and Personal Standards from the FMPS, Discrepancy from the APS-R, and Personal Standards from the SCOPE) as well as measures considered to indicate high standards (High Standards from the APS-R and Excellencism from the SCOPE). The results showed the strongest between-group differences for Concern over Mistakes and High Standards. Less consistent across the various tests of significance but showing a between group difference at follow-up were subscales of Personal Standards, Excellencism, and Perfectionistic Standards.

The results are not entirely consistent with our hypotheses. The results for

Discrepancy showed no between-group differences but a significant main effect of time
where decreases were noted for both groups, which suggests an impact of time or assessment.

We also suggested that High Standards and Excellencism were expected to be helpful and
therefore would not be decreased by ICBT-P. Both showed greater decreases in the
intervention group compared to the control. While our correlations showed no associations
between our secondary variables and the High Standards subscale but we note that
Excellencism was associated with higher levels of anxiety, stress and body image concerns.

We know little about which higher-order dimensions of perfectionism the SCOPE measures
fall under and validation of this instrument is required. Overall our results may indicate that
measures of perfectionism and high standards requires further investigation and validation, or
that the intervention requires some modification to clarify messages related to the

functionality of high standards and differentiating this adequately from perfectionistic standards, as well as decreasing discrepancy between goals and perceived performance.

None of our secondary outcome measures showed significantly greater improvements over time in the treatment compared to the control group. There was an indicative result for our body image variable, which improved in the intervention group and deteriorated in the control group. This is consistent with the findings of Wade et al. (2019) and adds to the evidence suggesting that ICBT-P may have a potentially beneficial effect for disordered eating, as suggested by a previous study (Shu et al., 2019) and a meta-analysis (Robinson & Wade, 2021). The lack of improvement noted in depression, anxiety, stress and self-compassion was similar to results of Shafran et al. (2017), which also experienced low module completion rates. These psychopathologies seem to respond to higher module completion rates (Rozental et al., 2017), with previous research suggesting completion of at least 4 modules is required before we see meaningful changes in secondary variables (Wade et al., 2019). In suitably powered studies further research is required into what impacts on module completion rates and how ICBT-P module completion impacts changes in both perfectionism and secondary measures.

The modules completed in the current study need to be interpreted in the context of the wider literature on psychological internet interventions for mental health. Assessing adherence is somewhat problematic given the number of different definitions used, with the most common definition conflating the number of assessments or modules (Beatty & Binion, 2016). Randomised controlled trials show completion of assessments ranging from 50% to 99%, typically higher in the experimental intervention group relative to the control (Christensen, Griffiths, & Farrer, 2009). The current study reports assessment completion in the upper range at 79%. Completion of the intervention modules across studies varies (Beatty

& Binion, 2016), with one review suggesting that between 4% to 84% of research participants open any modules of an internet intervention (Waller & Gilbody, 2009). While 100% of our participants used some modules only 12% completed all modules. This may reflect the flexible format used, where completion of all modules was not required, and participants could choose to complete the modules they felt were most relevant to them. Reported reasons across the literature for lack of engagement include time constraints, lack of motivation, technical or computer-access problems, depressive episode or physical illness, the lack of face-to-face contact, improvement in condition and burden of the program (Christensen et al., 2009). It has been suggested that engagement can be increased, in part, with use of guidance or support (Andersson, Carlbring, Berger, Almlov, & Cuijpers, 2009). In the case of flexible delivery of modules, it may be that participants should be given the information that the more they complete, the greater the likelihood that there will be an impact on anxiety and depression.

Recent studies suggest an increase and severity of mental problems and help-seeking behaviours in University students around the world in the last decade (Lipson, Lattie, & Eisenberg, 2019), where students face new challenges that are vulnerable to perfectionistic tendencies, such as making independent decisions about their lives and studies, adjusting to the academic demands of a less-structured learning environment, and interacting with a diverse range of new people. It is encouraging to see that ICBT-P resulted in a decrease in four dimensions of potentially maladaptive forms of perfectionism in this population, albeit while also decreasing high standards which is argued by some to be adaptive (Gaudreau, 2019). These results should be interpreted in the context of the following limitations of the current study. First, the use of an undergraduate sample motivated by course credit or payment, which may have impacted on module completion, may mean that generalisability to

a clinical sample is a potential issue. Second, we had few males (9%), which may impact adherence as females have higher internet intervention adherence rates than males (Beatty & Binion, 2016). Third, it is possible that some of our participants (39%) were affected by the COVID-19 outbreak which created significant disruption. Our results suggest that some forms of perfectionism were lower in those affected and this may mean that they responded somewhat differently than the remainder of the sample.

In conclusion, even use of, on average, less than half the modules of ICBT-P in a non-clinical population shows a decrease in measures of perfectionism compared to control. This impact, however, did not discriminate as predicted, with lowering of two measures of perfectionism that showed no association with poorer mental health in our study. This could reflect the need for improving the psychometrics of capturing harmful efforts to reach ambitious goals and distinguishing these from efforts that do not cause harm. In further development and evaluation of shorter ICBT-P interventions, attention should be paid to impact on goal directed behaviour that is not associated with harmful outcomes. Future studies should also examine ways of optimising the impact of fewer modules, given the consistent reluctance of populations to complete internet modules related to mental health (Christensen et al., 2009).

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Table 1. Baseline correlations.

	FMPS-CM	FMPS- PersS	APS-R-D	APS-R-HS	SCOPE-EX	SCOPE- PerfS	DASS-21-D	DASS-21-A	DASS-21-S	BIAAQ
FMPS-PersS	.35**									
APS-R-D	.63**	.17								
APS-R-HS	.33**	.47**	.37**							
SCOPE-EX	.46**	.62**	.22*	.50**						
SCOPE-PerfS	.62**	.53**	.39**	.31**	.65**					
DASS-21-D	.41**	09	.55**	.007	.05	.25**				
DASS-21-A	.41**	.03	.49**	.10	.19*	.37**	.66**			
DASS-21-S	.45**	.11	.48**	.13	.23*	.35**	.66**	.73**		
BIAAQ	44**	.004	49**	13	19*	36**	51**	53**	46**	
SCS-SF	53**	06	48**	15	15	36**	52**	45**	45**	43**

Note. FMPS = Frost Multi-dimensional Perfectionism Scale; APS-R = Almost Perfect Scale-Revised; SCOPE = Scale of Perfectionism and Excellencism; DASS = Depression, Anxiety and Stress Scales – Short Form; BIAAQ = Body Image-Acceptance and Action Questionnaire; SCS-SF = Self Compassion Scale-Short Form; CM = Concern over Mistakes; PS = Personal Standards; D = Discrepancy; HS = High Standards; EX = Excellencism, PS = Perfectionistic Standards; D = Depression; A = Anxiety; S = Stress; Group = Treatment or Control, \* = p < .05, \*\* = p < .01.

Table 2. Treatment modules completed (mean=3.12, SD=2.67), with 7 participants (17%) completing no modules.

Module	Topic	N completed (%)
1	Understanding Perfectionism	34 (83)
2	Perfectionistic Behaviours	27 (66)
	and Model	
3	Surveys and experiments	20 (49)
4	New ways of thinking	16 (39)
5	Procrastination and problem	11 (27)
	solving	
6	Moving from self-criticism	7 (17)
	to self-compassion	
7	Redefining how we assess	7 (17)
	our self-worth	
8	Staying well in the long term	6 (15)

Table 3. Intent to Treat linear mixed models adjusting for baseline observations: estimated means and standard errors.

Variable	Control (N=48)					Treatment (N=41)		
	Baseline covariate	T2 M (SE)	T3 M (SE)	T4 M (SE)	T2 M (SE)	T3 M (SE)	T4 M (SE)	
FMPS-CM b,c	3.63	3.44 (0.09)	3.56 (0.09) 1	3.51 (0.09) 1	3.39 (1.00)	3.13 (0.11) 2	2.95 (0.12)2	
FMPS-PS b,c	3.90	3.68 (0.35)	3.78 (0.35) 1	3.77 (0.35) 1	3.52 (0.35)	3.14 (0.36) <sup>2</sup>	3.28 (0.36) 2	
APS-R-D <sup>a</sup>	4.93	5.44 (0.17)	5.35 (0.18)	4.79 (0.18)	5.33 (0.18)	5.00 (0.21)	4.34 (0.22)	
APS-R-HS a,b	5.83	6.56 (0.13)	6.45 (0.15) 1	5.71 (0.12) 1	6.18 (0.15)	5.84 (0.18) <sup>2</sup>	$5.10(0.15)^2$	
SCOPE-EX a,b	5.36	5.23 (0.95)	5.23 (0.95) 1	5.04 (0.95) 1	4.99 (0.95)	4.74 (0.95) <sup>2</sup>	$4.59(0.96)^2$	
SCOPE-PerfS a	4.28	4.09 (0.14)	3.87 (0.18)	3.88 (0.19) 1	3.94 (0.15)	3.56 (0.22)	3.24 (0.23) 2	
DASS-21-D	1.99	2.00 (0.08)	1.87 (0.09)	1.93 (0.10)	2.05 (0.09)	1.95 (0.11)	1.99 (0.13)	
DASS-21-A	1.94	1.83 (0.32)	1.70 (0.32)	1.76 (0.33)	1.81 (0.32)	1.76 (0.33)	1.78 (0.33)	
DASS-21-S	2.28	2.26 (0.13)	2.16 (0.13)	2.18 (0.14)	2.20 (0.13)	2.07 (0.14)	2.02 (0.16)	
BIAAQ c	4.04	4.26 (0.09)	4.23 (0.14)	4.11 (0.16)	4.04 (0.10)	4.34 (0.17)	4.52 (0.19)	
SCS-SF <sup>a</sup>	2.64	2.64 (0.20)	2.66 (0.20)	2.69 (0.21)	2.62 (0.20)	2.84 (0.20)	2.92 (0.22)	

Note. M = Mean; SE = Standard Error; d = Cohen's d; FMPS = Frost Multi-dimensional Perfectionism Scale; APS-R = Almost Perfect Scale-Revised; SCOPE = Scale of Perfectionism and Excellencism; DASS = Depression, Anxiety and Stress Scales – Short Form; BIAAQ = Body Image-Acceptance and Action Questionnaire; SCS-SF = Self Compassion Scale-Short Form; CM = Concern over Mistakes; PS = Personal Standards; D = Discrepancy; HS = High Standards; EX = Excellencism, PerfS = Perfectionistic Standards; D = Depression; A = Anxiety; S = Stress.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> significant main effect of time; <sup>b</sup> significant main effect of group; <sup>c</sup> significant interaction between time and group; numerical superscripts indicate at which time points the two groups differed using Bonferroni adjusted post-hoc comparisons

Figure 1. Flow of participants through the trial.

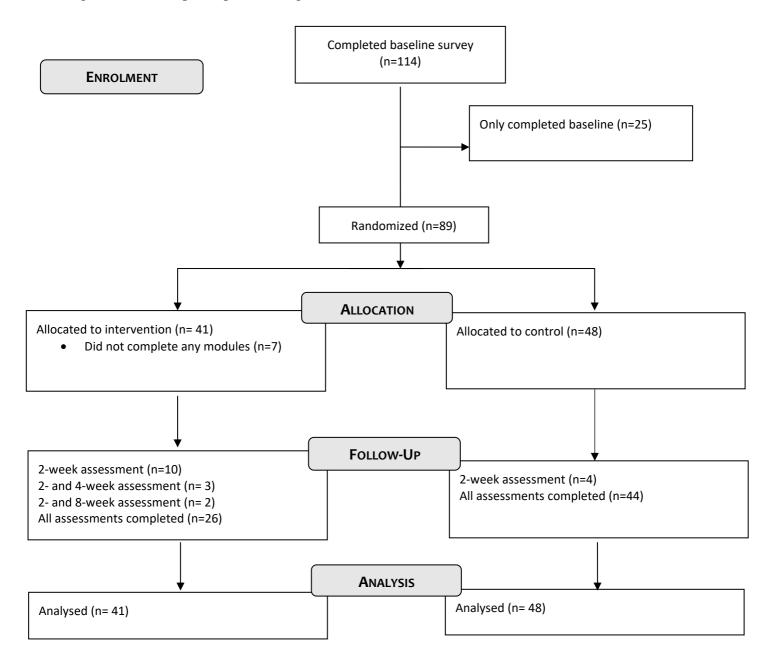


Figure 2. Between group effect sizes and 95% confidence intervals at follow-up, with effect sizes below zero for the perfectionism and DASS-21 scales favouring treatment over control, and effect sizes above zero for body image and self-compassion favouring treatment over control.

