

# Modelling the relationship between perfectionism, self-compassion and psychological health outcomes in kidney transplant recipients

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## Abstract

Chronic kidney disease (CKD) affects around 850 million people globally, imposing significant physical and psychological health burdens. This study tested a model of how perfectionism, via its effect on self-compassion, stress and coping, can affect health outcomes such as health-related quality of life and intuitive eating for people with long-term conditions, which had not been previously tested in a sample of people with CKD. To address this gap, structural equation modelling was used to model the association between these constructs in a sample of kidney transplant recipients (n=354) and a non-CKD comparison group (n=400). Results showed that ‘maladaptive’ perfectionism significantly predicted lower levels of self-compassion, coping, intuitive eating and health-related quality of life, and higher levels of stress. However, self-compassion was found to buffer this effect, demonstrating that higher levels of this positive self-attitude could help to ameliorate the negative associations between maladaptive perfectionism and health outcomes.

**Keywords:** perfectionism; self-compassion; intuitive eating; quality of life; kidney disease; kidney transplant

## 1 Background

### 1.1 Chronic kidney disease

Chronic kidney disease (CKD) affects around 850 million people globally (Francis *et al.*, 2024). It is characterised by long-term deterioration in kidney functioning that can be initially asymptomatic but is associated with fatigue, pain, weakness and sleep problems as disease severity increases (Brown *et al.*, 2018). For patients

in end-stage kidney disease (ESKD), defined as kidney function <10%, dialysis or kidney transplant becomes necessary (NICE, 2018). Kidney transplants offer significant long-term survival advantage over dialysis (Chaudhry *et al.*, 2022), but often come with high levels of clinical monitoring, other health complications and need for scrupulous medication adherence (Shupo *et al.*, 2016; Gibbons *et al.*, 2021) that can affect a kidney transplant recipient's (KTR's) psychological health. Unsurprisingly, there is an increased prevalence of depression and anxiety in people with CKD (Shirazian *et al.*, 2017) which is associated with numerous poor health outcomes, including more rapid kidney function decline (Tsai *et al.*, 2012), non-adherence to medical advice (DiMatteo, Lepper and Croghan, 2000) and increased risk of premature death (Palmer *et al.*, 2013).

## **1.2 Perfectionism**

One construct that can play a key role in adjustment to and management of chronic illness is perfectionism - a multidimensional trait characterised by striving for flawlessness, concern over mistakes and excessive self-scrutiny (Stoeber and Otto, 2006; Molnar, Sirois and Methot-Jones, 2016). Perfectionism is generally conceptualised as having two factors; maladaptive perfectionism or 'perfectionistic concerns' (PC) and adaptive perfectionism or 'perfectionistic strivings' (PS). PC encompasses concern over mistakes, excessively high standards and fear of negative evaluation (Stoeber and Otto, 2006) and is associated with lower engagement in preventative health behaviours (Williams and Copley, 2014) and maladaptive coping with illness (Shanmugasagaram *et al.*, 2014). PS is characterised by high personal standards and an intrinsic motivation to succeed (Stoeber and Otto, 2006) and in general population samples is associated with problem-focused coping (Stoeber, Damian and Madigan, 2017) and better physical health (Molnar *et al.*, 2006). However, in clinical samples, PS appears to be less adaptive (Molnar, Sirois and Methot-Jones, 2016) and has been associated with lower levels of health functioning (Molnar *et al.*, 2012) and higher levels of psychopathology (Limburg *et al.*, 2017).

## **1.3 Self-compassion**

Within this context, an approach that could be useful for KTRs is self-compassion, a self-attitude characterised by non-judgemental awareness of painful thoughts and feelings, recognition of common humanity and kindness towards oneself during difficult times (Neff, 2003). It is associated with increased practice of health-promoting behaviours (Sirois and Rowse, 2016; Dunne, Sheffield and Chilcot, 2018), lower levels of depression and anxiety (Linardon *et al.*, 2020) and use of adaptive coping strategies (Sirois, Kitner and Hirsch, 2015). It is also associated with better adjustment to long-term health conditions (Sirois and Wood, 2016), improved health outcomes in chronic illness populations (Morrison *et al.*, 2021), seeking medical consultation when needed, and conscientiously following medical advice (Terry *et al.*, 2013).

## **1.4 Intuitive eating**

Another approach that could be useful for KTRs, particularly those that had to follow a restrictive 'kidney diet' prior to transplantation (McCloskey, Clarke and Rayner, 1997), is intuitive eating (IE). IE is an adaptive eating behaviour characterised by having unconditional permission to eat when you are hungry, eating for physical rather than emotional reasons, relying on internal hunger and

satiety cues to determine what, when and how much to eat, and honouring your health and practising 'gentle nutrition' (Tylka and Kroon Van Diest, 2013). It is associated with lower levels of disordered eating (Babbott *et al.*, 2023), lower cholesterol, BMI and blood pressure (Van Dyke and Drinkwater, 2022) and has been identified as a potentially useful form of nutritional counselling for people with CKD (Pereira *et al.*, 2021).

## 1.5 Modelling perfectionism in illness

The *Stress and Coping Cyclical Amplification Model of Perfectionism in Illness* (SCCAMPI; Molnar, Sirois and Methot-Jones, 2016) posits a theoretical explanation for the impact that perfectionism can have on health, via self-compassion. Self-compassion is known to be negatively associated with perfectionism (Linnett and Kibowski, 2020) and this is particularly likely to be the case in medical populations where there is already a greater tendency towards negative self-evaluation (Harrison *et al.*, 2015). The SCCAMPI suggests that perfectionism is likely to negatively affect self-compassion, which then has a detrimental effect on stress and coping which, in turn, negatively impacts illness symptoms and health-related behaviours.

## 1.6 The present study

Although there have been several studies that use the SCCAMPI to date (e.g. Sirois *et al.*, 2019, 2021), the model has never been tested with people with CKD. Consequently, this study tested the model in a sample of KTRs using multidimensional perfectionism and self-compassion as predictors of health-related quality of life (HRQoL) - which was used in place of illness symptoms due to a lack of appropriately brief symptom scales for KTRs<sup>1</sup> - and the health-related behaviour of IE.

This paper will test 1) a mediation model with perfectionism as the core predictor, self-compassion the key mediator through which perfectionism influences outcomes, and the health-promoting behaviour of IE as the outcome; and 2) an extended model with perfectionism predicting self-compassion, which predicts stress and coping, which subsequently predict the outcome measures of IE and HRQoL.

## 2 Research question, aims and objectives

This study aimed to use the SCCAMPI to develop and test a model of how perfectionism and self-compassion are associated with IE and HRQoL for KTRs by addressing the following question:

*How are perfectionism and self-compassion associated with IE and HRQoL in KTRs and a non-CKD comparison group?*

This was achieved via the following objectives:

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<sup>1</sup> This approach has also been used in other studies using the SCCAMPI (e.g. Sirois *et al.*, 2019),

1. Test a mediation model investigating the direct and indirect relationships between perfectionism and IE, with self-compassion as a mediator, in a group of KTRs and a comparison group
2. Test an extended model exploring the direct and indirect relationships between perfectionism, IE and HRQoL, via self-compassion, coping and stress, in a group of KTRs<sup>2</sup>

### 3 Method

Cross-sectional data were collected using self-report surveys, administered online.

#### 3.1 Participants

Power analysis (Soper, 2023) indicated that to detect an effect size (i.e. regression weight between variables) between 0.3 and 0.5 ( $\alpha=0.05$ , power=0.80), Model 1 (six latent variables, 20 observed variables) would require 156-161 participants in each group and Model 2 (eight latent variables, 36 observed variables) would require 88-177. Participants were recruited online via social media and CKD organisations and charities, in the UK only due to ethical approval constraints.

#### 3.2 Measures

Short-form or brief measures were chosen where possible to limit questionnaire length and reduce participant burden.

*Sociodemographics.* Once they had consented, participants were asked to provide their age, gender, ethnicity, education level, occupational status and to indicate whether English was their first language. The KTR group were also asked about when they were first diagnosed with CKD, their current transplant, whether they had ever been on dialysis, and any other health conditions.

*Coping.* Coping was measured using the three-item Coping Efficacy Scale (CES; Gignac, Cott and Badley, 2000). Items are responded to on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 'Strongly disagree' to 'Strongly agree'. None of the items are reverse-scored, and higher scores indicate higher levels of coping. It has shown good internal consistency of 0.79-0.90 in other illness populations (Voth and Sirois, 2009; Gick and Sirois, 2010).

*Health-related quality of life.* HRQoL was measured using 12 items from the Kidney Disease Quality of Life-36 (KDQOL-36) survey (Peipert *et al.*, 2019). The items used were taken from the v.1 of the SF-12 (Ware, Kosinski and Keller, 1996), which is a measure that assesses the impact of health on an individual's everyday life. The measure uses a variety of scale responses, including Likert and yes/no questions. The KDQOL-36 uses a scoring spreadsheet which provides a SF-12 Mental Composite Score (MCS) and Physical Composite Score (PCS), relating to the person's mental and physical HRQoL. It is not possible to estimate internal consistency due to the instrument's structure, but studies have shown the

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<sup>2</sup> This model was only tested in the KTR group because the HRQoL and coping measures were designed for people living with illness and therefore inappropriate for administration to the comparison group.

KDQOL-36 and the SF-12 MCS and PCS components to be valid and reliable measures (Yang *et al.*, 2013; Peipert *et al.*, 2018).

*Intuitive eating.* IE was measured using an alternate model of the Intuitive Eating Scale-2 (IES-2) posited by Saunders et al. (2018) with 11 items loading onto the three latent variables of (1) Eating for physical rather than emotional reasons, (2) Reliance on hunger and satiety cues, and (3) Body-food choice congruence. Items are responded to on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 'Strongly Disagree' to 'Strongly Agree'. Four items were reverse-scored, and higher scores indicate higher levels of IE. Saunders et al. (2018) report good internal consistency for all subscales ('Eating for physical rather than emotional reasons' = 0.84, 'Reliance on hunger and satiety cues' = 0.78, 'Body-food choice congruence' = 0.89) and Linnett et al. (2025) demonstrated the amended scale's factorial validity in a sample of KTRs and a non-CKD comparison group.

*Perfectionism.* Perfectionism was measured using the short form of the Almost Perfect Scale-Revised (SAPS; Rice, Richardson and Tueller, 2014). The scale contains eight items, responded to on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from 'Strongly disagree' to 'Strongly agree'. None of the items were reverse-scored, and higher scores indicate higher levels of perfectionism. The SAPS has two subscales: Standards, which relates to positive or adaptive perfectionism (perfectionistic strivings (PS)), and Discrepancy, which relates to negative or maladaptive perfectionism (perfectionistic concerns (PC)). It has shown good internal consistency of 0.90-0.94 in previous studies (Barnett and Sharp, 2016; Milicev *et al.*, 2023).

*Self-compassion.* Self-compassion was measured using the Self-Compassion Scale short form (SCS-SF; Raes *et al.*, 2011). The scale contains 12 items, and participants are asked to indicate on a five-point Likert scale (from 'Almost never' to 'Almost always') how often they act that way towards themselves when they are going through a difficult time. Six items are reverse-scored, and higher scores indicate higher levels of self-compassion. The SCS-SF has six subscales, which represent the three dyads of self-compassion: (1) Self-kindness/Self-judgement, (2) Common humanity/Isolation, and (3) Mindfulness/Over-identification. It has shown good internal consistency of 0.85-0.87 in previous studies (Neff and Germer, 2013; Smeets *et al.*, 2014) and has a near-perfect correlation with the long form of the scale (Raes *et al.*, 2011).

*Stress.* Stress was measured using the ten-item Perceived Stress Scale (PSS; Cohen, Kamarck and Mermelstein, 1983). Participants indicate on a five-point Likert scale (from 'Never' to 'Very often') how often they have felt or thought a certain way in the last month. Four items are reverse-scored, and higher scores indicate higher levels of stress. A systematic review of the psychometric properties of the PSS (Lee, 2012) found that internal consistency ranged between 0.78-0.91 across ten studies.

### 3.3 Analysis

All models were specified and analysed in SPSS AMOS v.29 (Amos Development Corporation, 2022) and estimated using maximum likelihood estimation. Model fit was evaluated using standard goodness-of-fit indices (Hu and Bentler, 1999; Kline, 2011), including relative chi-square (CMIN/DF), chi-square and degrees of freedom, the comparative fit index (CFI), the non-normed fit index (NNFI), the

root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), and the standardised root mean square residual (SRMR). Conventional thresholds for these fit indices are defined as a CMIN/DF <3, CFI and NNFI values >0.90, and RMSEA and SRMR values <0.08 (Browne and Cudeck, 1993; Hu and Bentler, 1999; Tabachnick and Fidel, 2013).

### 3.3.1 Measurement models

Several confirmatory factor analyses were first performed to check measurement model fit for the latent variables to be used in the structural equation models (SEMs). Invariance tests were then performed on the measurement models included in Model 1 (IE and perfectionism; see below) to ascertain whether the instruments were operating in the same way in both the KTR and comparison groups (Byrne, 2004, 2016). These were hierarchical analyses testing constrained models against a baseline unconstrained model (where no constraints were imposed on the estimated parameters of the model) to identify whether there were statistically significant differences ( $p > .05$ ) between the KTR and comparison groups in how these constructs were measured. For the IE measurement model, the constrained models tested against the baseline (unconstrained) model were (1) Measurement weights, (2) Measurement weights + structural weights; and (3) Measurement weights + structural weights + structural covariances. For the perfectionism measurement model, the constrained models tested against the baseline (unconstrained) model were (1) Measurement weights and (2) Measurement weights + structural covariances.

### 3.3.2 Structural equation models

*Model 1.* This model tested the mediating role of self-compassion on the relationship between multidimensional perfectionism (PS and PC) and IE. Baron and Kenny's (1986) conventional guidelines for mediation were used to guide the analyses. Analyses of mediation effects employed a bootstrapped procedure based on 5,000 samples with 95% confidence intervals calculated. Using this procedure, an indirect effect is considered significant if both the upper and lower bounds of the confidence intervals do not contain zero (Preacher and Hayes, 2008). This model was tested in both the KTR and comparison groups and was run twice per group to detect differences in the direct effect between the predictor and the dependent variable with and without the presence of the mediator.

*Model 2.* The second model was based on the SCCAMPI. This accounted for the effects of stress and coping with additional outcome variables of physical and mental HRQoL. This model was only tested within the KTR group as this is specifically a model of perfectionism in *illness* and some of the measures (coping, HRQoL) could only be administered to the KTR group as they ask questions directly related to living with a health condition.

## 3.4 Ethical considerations

Ethical approval was granted on 22/07/2021 by the University of Leicester (ref: 26219-rjl48-ls:healthsciences). Written informed consent to participate and to publish anonymous and/or aggregate data was received from all participants prior to study involvement. The study was conducted in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki.

## 4 Results

### 4.1 Participants

755 people completed the survey. One person was removed as they were aged <18. The final sample consisted of 754 adults (354 KTRs and 400 people without CKD) living in the UK, meeting sample size requirements for both models. The KTR group was slightly older than the comparison group; both groups were predominantly white and female. See Table 1 for full sociodemographic characteristics of both samples.

### 4.2 Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics and correlations for both groups are displayed in Table 2. Bivariate and partial correlations are presented between PS and all variables, the latter controlling for the suppressor effects of PC on PS<sup>3</sup>. PC was significantly negatively associated with self-compassion and IE for both groups. It was also negatively associated with coping and HRQoL, and positively associated with stress, for KTRs. PS, controlling for the suppressor effects of PC, had small positive associations with coping, HRQoL and IE for KTRs. It was not significantly associated with stress or self-compassion in either group, or with IE for the comparison group.

**Table 1**

*Demographic characteristics of the survey samples (N=755)*

	KTRs (n=354)	Comparison (n=400)
<i>Age (years)</i>	53.10 (12.46)	39.39 (12.91)
Range	20-87	18-78
<i>Gender identity</i>		
Female	264 (74.6)	337 (84.3)
Male	90 (25.4)	51 (12.8)
Non-binary/third gender	-	10 (2.5)
Prefer to self-describe	-	2 (0.5)
<i>Ethnicity</i>		
Asian/Asian British	12 (3.4)	21 (5.3)
Black/African/Caribbean/Black British	3 (0.8)	7 (1.8)
Mixed/multiple ethnic groups	4 (1.1)	13 (3.3)
White	330 (93.2)	357 (89.3)
Other, or prefer not to say	5 (1.4)	2 (0.5)
<i>Highest education level</i>		
Postgraduate degree	64 (18.1)	273 (68.3)
Undergraduate degree	91 (25.7)	64 (16.0)

<sup>3</sup> PC can act as a suppressor variable when there are high levels of overlap between the dimensions, making PS appear less adaptive (Hill and Curran, 2015; Limburg *et al.*, 2017).

Higher education	56 (15.8)	24 (6.0)
A-level	39 (11.0)	24 (6.0)
GCSE or equivalent	81 (22.9)	8 (2.0)
No qualification	9 (2.5)	3 (0.8)
Other, unsure, or prefer not to say	14 (4.0)	4 (1.0)
<i>Occupation</i>		
Employed part-time	66 (18.6)	87 (21.8)
Employed full-time	90 (25.4)	177 (44.3)
Self-employed	30 (8.5)	16 (4.0)
Full-time student	5 (1.4)	76 (19.0)
Unemployed – looking for work	7 (2.0)	4 (1.0)
Unemployed – not looking for work	10 (2.8)	1 (0.3)
Unable to work	35 (9.9)	6 (1.5)
Retired	103 (29.1)	22 (5.5)
Other, or prefer not to say	8 (2.3)	11 (2.8)
<i>Years since diagnosis</i>	26.00 (15.00-37.00) <sup>†</sup>	-
Range	3-74	-
<i>Years since current transplant</i>	7.00 (5.00-13.00) <sup>†</sup>	-
Range	1-44	-

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Figures denote Mean (*SD*) or *n* (%) unless otherwise stated. <sup>†</sup> Median (25<sup>th</sup> – 75<sup>th</sup> centile).



**Table 2***Variable correlations, means (M), standard deviations (SD) and internal consistencies ( $\alpha$ )*

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	$\alpha_{\text{KTR}}$	$M_{\text{KTR}}$	$SD_{\text{KTR}}$
1. Coping	-	.39***	.44***	.32***	-.03 <sup>ns</sup>	.14*	-.32***	.43***	-.46***	.90	3.68	1.17
2. HRQoL: Physical	-	-	.16**	.17**	.06 <sup>ns</sup>	.18***	-.25***	.22***	-.30***	-	42.96	11.50
3. HRQoL: Mental	-	-	-	.39***	-.14**	.11*	-.49***	.61***	-.75***	-	45.12	11.54
4. Intuitive eating	-	-	-	-	-.04 <sup>ns</sup>	.13*	-.36***	.49***	-.46***	.88	3.18	0.88
5. Perf. strivings	-	-	-	-.08 <sup>ns</sup>	-	-	.44***	-.23***	.19***	.95	4.83	1.72
6. Perf. strivings <sup>†</sup>	-	-	-	.07 <sup>ns</sup>	-	-	.45***	.08 <sup>ns</sup>	-.11 <sup>ns</sup>	.95	4.83	1.72
7. Perf. concerns	-	-	-	-.31***	.45***	.46***	-	-.67***	.60***	.95	3.64	1.84
8. Self-compassion	-	-	-	.39***	-.33***	-.03 <sup>ns</sup>	-.65***	-	-.74***	.88	3.06	0.82
9. Stress	-	-	-	-.33***	.34***	.05 <sup>ns</sup>	.60***	-.68***	-	.90	2.90	0.79
$\alpha_{\text{Comparison}}$	-	-	-	.87	.94	.94	.93	.89	.89			
$M_{\text{Comparison}}$	-	-	-	3.13	5.44	5.44	3.98	2.89	3.06			
$SD_{\text{Comparison}}$	-	-	-	0.82	1.40	1.40	1.75	0.78	0.76			

Kidney transplant recipient (KTR) group values are above the diagonal; comparison group values are presented below the diagonal. Coping and HRQoL were not administered to the comparison group. Alpha cannot be estimated for HRQoL measures.

Key: <sup>†</sup> Controlling for suppressor effects of PC on PS      \*  $p < .05$       \*\*  $p < .01$       \*\*\*  $p < .001$       <sup>ns</sup> Statistically non-significant ( $p > .05$ )

### 4.3 Latent variable measurement models and observed study variables

Model fit estimates for the measurement models of each of the latent constructs can be seen in Table 3. Apart from Coping (see below) and Perfectionism in the comparison group ( $\chi^2(19, n=400)=24.66, p=.172$ ), the chi-square tests for all measurement models were highly significant, as would be expected for samples of this size. See Supplementary File 1 for tabulated factor loadings and further details on the measurement models.

**Table 3**

*Model fit estimates for latent variable measurement models*

	$\chi^2$	$d$ $f$	CFI	TLI	SRMR	RMSEA	RMSEA: 90% CIs	
							Lower	Upper
<b>Coping</b>								
KTR	0.00	0	1.00	1.00	0.00	0.84	0.79	0.89
<b>Intuitive eating</b>	<b>200.49</b>	<b>82</b>	<b>0.98</b>	<b>0.97</b>	<b>0.04</b>	<b>0.04</b>	<b>0.04</b>	<b>0.05</b>
KTR	96.83	41	0.98	0.97	0.04	0.06	0.05	0.08
Comparison	103.66	41	0.98	0.97	0.04	0.06	0.05	0.08
<b>Perfectionism</b>	<b>71.39</b>	<b>38</b>	<b>0.99</b>	<b>0.99</b>	<b>0.02</b>	<b>0.03</b>	<b>0.02</b>	<b>0.05</b>
KTR	46.72	19	0.99	0.99	0.02	0.06	0.04	0.09
Comparison	24.66	19	0.99	0.99	0.01	0.03	0.00	0.06
<b>Self-compassion</b>								
KTR	113.68	39	0.96	0.94	0.05	0.07	0.06	0.09
Comparison	67.14	39	0.99	0.98	0.03	0.04	0.02	0.06
<b>Stress</b>								
KTR	148.60	35	0.93	0.91	0.05	0.10	0.08	0.11
Comparison	165.21	35	0.92	0.90	0.05	0.10	0.08	0.11

Global fit indices from multigroup analyses are on bolded rows.

Coping measure was not administered to comparison group.

CFI = Comparative Fit Index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index; SRMR = Standardized Root Mean Square Residual; RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation

Once measurement model fit had been tested, the IE and perfectionism measurement models were then analysed as nested models to test for multigroup invariance. Whilst the measurement model for IE was invariant across the KTR and comparison groups, variance was detected across these groups for the perfectionism measurement model. See Supplementary File 1 for further details.

#### 4.4 Structural equation models

##### 4.4.1 Model 1

Correlation analyses showed that whilst criteria for establishing evidence for a mediation effect were met in both groups for PC, PS was not significantly associated with self-compassion (the mediator) in either group. Given the theoretical basis of the model design, PS was retained in the model but not included in the mediation analysis. Furthermore, due to variance in the perfectionism measurement model, Model 1 could not be tested as a multigroup SEM as originally planned. The model was therefore tested separately in the KTR and comparison groups, meaning direct comparisons could not be drawn between the outputs.

*Model 1a: KTR group.* Model 1a results revealed that, amongst KTRs, there was a significant indirect effect of PC on IE via self-compassion ( $\beta = -.37$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Furthermore, the direct effect of PC on IE reduced in magnitude in the presence of the mediator (self-compassion) from  $\beta = -.22$  ( $p < .001$ ) to  $\beta = -.10$  and was no longer statistically significant ( $p = .22$ ), suggesting that self-compassion fully mediated the relationship between PC and IE in this sample. Mediation analysis was not performed for PS as it was not significantly associated with the mediator but there was a small, significant, direct effect of PS on IE ( $\beta = .16$ ,  $p < .05$ ), suggesting that adaptive perfectionism may have a small, positive, association with IE that is not explained by changes in self-compassion. Results are summarised in Figure 1. With the exception of the chi-square test, which was highly significant as expected for a sample of this size ( $\chi^2(163, n=354) = 282.48$ ,  $p < .001$ ), estimates of model fit also indicated that this model fit the data well in this sample (see Table 4) and explained 35% of the variance in IE scores ( $R^2 = 0.35$ ,  $p = .001$ ).

[Insert Figure 1 here]

**Figure 1.** Model 1a: Mediation model ( $n=354$ ) of PC on IE via self-compassion, in a KTR sample. Direct effect of PC on IE without mediator is shown in brackets. Dotted line indicates untested theoretical path. Estimates shown are  $\beta$ -values.

\* $p < .05$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$

*Model 1b: Comparison group.* Model 1b results revealed that, in the comparison group, there was again a significant indirect effect of PC on IE via self-compassion ( $\beta = -.29$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Furthermore, the direct effect of PC on IE reduced in magnitude from  $\beta = -.41$  ( $p < .001$ ) to  $\beta = -.12$  in the presence of the mediator (self-compassion) and was no longer statistically significant ( $p = .16$ ), suggesting that self-compassion fully mediated the relationship between PC (maladaptive

perfectionism) and IE in this sample too. Mediation analysis was not performed for PS as it was not significantly associated with the mediator. There was also no significant direct effect between PS and IE in this sample. Results are summarised in Figure 2. With the exception of the chi-square test, which was highly significant as expected for a sample of this size ( $\chi^2(163, n=400)=306.56, p<.001$ ), estimates of model fit also indicated that this model fit the data well in this sample and explained 24% of the variance in IE scores ( $R^2=0.24, p=.001$ ).

[Insert Figure 2 here]

**Figure 2.** Model 1b: Mediation model (n=400) of PC on IE via self-compassion, in a non-CKD sample. Direct effect of PC on IE without mediator shown in brackets. Dotted line indicates untested theoretical path. Estimates shown are  $\beta$ -values.

\* $p<.05$ , \*\*\* $p<.001$

**Table 4***Fit indices for structural equation models*

	KTRs								Comparison group							
	$\chi^2$	$df$	CF	TL	SR	RMS	RMSEA:		$\chi^2$	$df$	CF	TL	SR	RMS	RMSEA:	
							90% CIs								90% CIs	
							Low	Upp							Low	Upp
			I	I	MR	EA	er	er			I	I	MR	EA	er	er
Model 1 - unmediated	255.7	14	0.9	0.9	0.06	0.05	0.04	0.06	269.	14	0.9	0.9	0.05	0.05	0.04	0.06
	2	6	8	8	66				6	8	7					
Model 1 - mediated	282.4	16	0.9	0.9	0.06	0.05	0.04	0.05	306.	16	0.9	0.9	0.05	0.05	0.04	0.06
	8	3	8	8	56				3	8	7					
Model 2	1113.	54	0.9	0.9	0.07	0.05	0.05	0.06	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	82	9	4	3												

CFI = Comparative Fit Index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index; SRMR = Standardized Root Mean Square Residual; RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation

#### 4.4.2 Model 2

A second model was then tested in the KTR group to ascertain the direct and indirect relationships between perfectionism and IE and HRQoL via self-compassion, stress and coping. Model 2a results revealed that PC once again directly suppressed self-compassion ( $\beta = -.66, p < .001$ ), thereby increasing stress ( $\beta = -.78, p < .001$ ) and suppressing coping ( $\beta = .39, p < .001$ ). Increased levels of stress directly decreased levels of IE ( $\beta = -.54, p < .001$ ), physical HRQoL ( $\beta = -.14, p < .01$ ) and mental HRQoL ( $\beta = -.77, p < .001$ ), whilst decreased levels of coping directly led to lower levels of IE ( $\beta = .16, p < .01$ ) and physical HRQoL ( $\beta = .34, p < .001$ ) but not mental HRQoL ( $\beta = .07, p = .07$ ). With the exception of the chi-square test, which was highly significant as expected for a sample of this size ( $\chi^2(549, n=354) = 1113.82, p < .001$ ) the hypothesised model was a good fit to the data. Results showed that the model also explained 37% of the variance in IE scores ( $R^2 = 0.37, p = .001$ ), 63% of the variance in mental HRQoL scores ( $R^2 = 0.63, p = .001$ ) and 17% of the variance in physical HRQoL scores ( $R^2 = 0.17, p = .001$ ). Examination of direct effects found that once again PS did not significantly predict mean self-compassion ( $\beta = .08, p = .09$ ). Results are summarised in Figure 3.

[Insert Figure 3 here]

**Figure 3.** Model 2: SEM ( $n=354$ ) of perfectionism in illness in a KTR sample. Estimates shown are  $\beta$ -values. Dotted lines indicate non-statistically significant paths.

$**p < .01, ***p < .001$

## 5 Discussion

The aim of this study was to explore how perfectionism and self-compassion predict IE and other psychological health outcomes in KTRs and a non-CKD comparison group. To do this, two cross-sectional models of perfectionism in illness were tested; one testing the mediatory effect of self-compassion in the relationship between perfectionism and the health-promoting behaviour of IE, and one larger model which explored the direct and indirect relationships between perfectionism and IE and HRQoL, via self-compassion, coping and stress, showing stepwise theoretical refinement.

The first model tested found that maladaptive perfectionism (PC) significantly predicted lower levels of IE for both KTRs and the comparison group, which is supported by the findings of Iannantuono and Tylka (2012) as well as studies that have found an inverse relationship between perfectionism and other health-related behaviours (Williams and Cropley, 2014; Molnar, Sirois and Methot-Jones, 2016). However, this relationship was fully mediated by self-compassion for both groups, demonstrating that higher levels of this positive self-attitude could help to ameliorate the negative associations between maladaptive perfectionism and health-promoting behaviours like IE, even in clinical populations where the negative effects of perfectionism may be greater (Molnar *et al.*, 2012; Harrison *et al.*, 2015). These results also support the findings of Ong *et al.* (2021), who found

that self-compassion buffers the effect of perfectionism on health outcomes such as quality of life and symptom impairment, as well as studies that have found self-compassion to mediate the relationship between maladaptive perfectionism and other health outcomes such as depression and anxiety (Ferrari *et al.*, 2018; Fletcher *et al.*, 2019) and disordered eating (Bergunde and Dritschel, 2020; Gwira *et al.*, 2021). It is also supported by the findings of studies that have more generally demonstrated a positive association between self-compassion and IE (Carbonneau *et al.*, 2021; Linardon, Tylka and Fuller-Tyszkiewicz, 2021). This model fit the data well in both the KTR and comparison groups, and explained 35% and 24% of the variance in IE scores, respectively.

The second model tested in this study found that PC indirectly led to lower levels of IE and both physical and mental HRQoL via lower levels of self-compassion, higher levels of stress and lower levels of coping. This is in agreement with the predictions that Molnar et al. (2016) made in the development of the SCCAMPI in terms of perfectionism affecting psychological health outcomes by impairing self-compassion and coping responses and increasing stress. Consequently, alongside explaining the inverse relationship between perfectionism and IE already discussed, this means that the SCCAMPI may serve as an explanatory model for the negative association between perfectionism and quality of life that has been found elsewhere in the literature (Zarbo *et al.*, 2018; Rutter-Eley, James and Jenkins, 2020).

Interestingly, whilst the second model explained a large proportion of the variance in mental HRQoL scores ( $R^2=0.63$ ), mental HRQoL was not significantly associated with coping<sup>4</sup>. Consequently, out of stress and coping, the variance in mental HRQoL scores explained by the model is more likely due to its large inverse relationship with stress (which itself has a large negative relationship with self-compassion). The negative association between stress and HRQoL is well-established in clinical populations (Okwuosa, Onu and Onyedibe, 2023; Scholz, Bierbauer and Lüscher, 2023) but, in this study, stress had a much stronger association with the mental component of HRQoL than the physical, suggesting that it considerably worsens the emotional impact of being a KTR but only has a small relationship with the associated physical limitations. This model was a good fit to the data and in addition to the variance in mental HRQoL scores already discussed, explained 37% of the variance in IE scores and 17% of the variance in physical HRQoL scores.

In addition, these findings showed that adaptive perfectionism (PS) did not have a notable association with any of the main study variables and therefore appeared to contribute little, if anything, to the models tested. The fact that PS was not significantly associated with self-compassion (and only very weakly associated with the other positive dimensions) suggests that, much of the time, even the 'adaptive' dimension of perfectionism may not have a great deal of positive influence on individual health and wellbeing. This supported by Molnar et al. (2016), who state that PS and PC are not distinguished between in the SCCAMPI because both forms of perfectionism are so likely to lead to unfavourable health outcomes if a person is living with the additional stressor of a chronic illness. In

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<sup>4</sup> It is possible that this was due to difficulties with fitting the measurement model for coping; in future, a measure of coping with more than three indicators could be used, or it could be operationalised as an observed variable.

short, whilst there may be some positive elements to perfectionism, it appears that in many cases the psychological risks may outweigh the benefits.

## **5.1 Strengths, limitations and future research directions**

Using SEM, this study has been the first to investigate how perfectionism and self-compassion predict stress, coping, IE and HRQoL in a sample of KTRs. Through a series of models, it has been demonstrated that maladaptive perfectionism (PC) has a pernicious association with psychological health outcomes like IE and HRQoL as it encourages a heightened stress response and maladaptive coping with illness (Flett *et al.*, 2011; Shanmugasegaram *et al.*, 2014). This study has also been the first to show that self-compassion fully mediates the relationship between PC and IE, demonstrating that self-compassion can be a buffer between maladaptive perfectionism and negative psychological health outcomes. Recruitment to the study was very successful in both the KTR and comparison groups, which considerably strengthens the validity of the findings.

One limitation of this study is that it was not possible to draw comparisons between the KTR and comparison groups for either of the models tested, because multigroup analysis detected variance in the measurement model for perfectionism between the groups. This may have been due to random variation within the data or may have been due to an intrinsic difference between the KTR and comparison group participants; however, it is difficult to explicate the differences between the two groups as the comparison group was heterogenous in terms of health conditions (with the only inclusion criteria being that they did not have CKD). In addition, comparisons between the two groups were not possible for Model 2 as the variables of coping and HRQoL could not be administered to the comparison group because the questions assume the respondent is living with illness. Future research that wishes to draw comparisons between a clinical and non-clinical sample may wish to choose different health outcome measures that can be administered to both groups or use measures of quality of life and coping that are not illness-focused.

## **5.2 Conclusion and relevance to research and clinical practice**

In conclusion, this study is the first to test the tenets of the SCCAMPI in a sample of KTRs and demonstrate how perfectionism and self-compassion predict psychological health outcomes for this group and a non-CKD comparison group. This work has shown how consistently negative PC is within both clinical and non-clinical samples but also demonstrated that self-compassion is a crucial self-attitude that can disrupt these negative effects. This is highly relevant to research and practice as it means that any interventions such as Compassion-Focused Therapy or Mindful Self-Compassion training that can attenuate levels of perfectionism and increase levels of self-compassion are likely to lead to improved health outcomes. It would therefore be beneficial for future research to evaluate whether such interventions are effective methods of improving HRQoL and other health outcomes for KTRs and other clinical groups. Furthermore, whilst transplant care often focuses on adherence and physical monitoring, this study shows that psychological processes like perfectionism and self-compassion have downstream effects on adherence-related behaviours and quality of life. Consequently, screening for perfectionism, particularly perfectionistic concerns,



486 in transplant services, could identify patients at risk of poor adjustment and focus  
487 appropriate interventions targeting maladaptive perfectionism as adjuncts to  
488 dietetic and psychological support.

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