

Alcaraz-Ibáñez, M., Paterna, A., Griffiths, M.D. & Sicilia, A. (2020). Examining the role of social physique anxiety on the relationship between physical appearance comparisons and disordered eating symptoms among Spanish emerging adults. *Scandinavian Journal of Psychology*, DOI: 10.1111/sjop.12663

Abstract

The present study extends previous research by examining the moderating/mediating role of social physique anxiety (SPA) on the relationship between physical appearance comparisons (PAC) and symptoms of disordered eating (DE) in adolescent population. A total of 555 emerging adults (59% women) ranging from 18-30 years of age ($M = 21.34$, $SD = 2.80$) were recruited from two public universities from Spain using a non-probabilistic sampling technique. Participants completed a self-reported questionnaire comprising the variables of research interest. Once the effects of sex (i.e., being men or women), age, body mass index, and depressive symptoms were controlled for, the results from bootstrapping cross-sectional regression analyses supported both the moderating and mediating effect of SPA on the relationship between PAC and DE. Sex did not moderate any of these relationships. From these findings it follows that incorporating strategies aimed at decreasing PAC and SPA may contribute to improved prevention efforts aimed at decreasing DE among Spanish emerging adults of both sexes.

Keywords: physical appearance; psychopathology; young adulthood, eating pathology; social comparison

2 1. Introduction

3 Due to their increasing prevalence and associated socioeconomic burden, eating
4 disorders are considered a public health concern worldwide (Crow, 2014; Samnaliev, Noh,
5 Sonnevile, & Austin, 2015; Smink, Van Hoeken, & Hoek, 2012). For instance, previous
6 research conducted in Western countries (Alcaraz-Ibáñez & Sicilia, 2020; Alcaraz-Ibáñez,
7 Sicilia, & Paterna, 2019) has reported high percentages of risk for an eating disorder among
8 emerging adults (i.e., those that, aged between 18 and 30 years, are transitioning from late
9 adolescence to their late twenties; Arnett, Žukauskiene, & Sugimura, 2014). A clear example
10 of the latter is Spain, where risk figures of approximately 20% have been reported for this
11 population. Therefore, it is not surprising that a considerable amount of research has been
12 devoted to explaining the aetiology of eating disorders in both their clinical and sub-clinical
13 forms (i.e., disordered eating, DE) (Farstad, McGeown, & von Ranson, 2016; Lantz, Gaspar,
14 DiTore, Piers, & Schaumberg, 2018; Schaefer & Thompson, 2018).

15 According to the tenets of Cognitive-behavioural models of body image, DE may
16 emerge as a maladaptive strategy to cope with negative body-related cognitions and affects
17 (Cash, 2012). In support of these theoretical proposals, empirical evidence has been found
18 associating body-related cognitive processes such as physical appearance comparison (PAC)
19 to DE (Alcaraz-Ibáñez, 2017; Alcaraz-Ibáñez, Sicilia, Díez-Fernández, & Paterna, 2020;
20 Fitzsimmons-Craft, Harney, Brownstone, Higgins, & Bardone-Cone, 2012; Walker et al.,
21 2015). Similarly, a body-related affective experience such as social physique anxiety (SPA;
22 i.e., the distressed feelings experienced as a result of believing that the own body could be
23 negatively evaluated by others; Hart, Leary, & Rejeski, 1989) has been also consistently
24 associated with DE (Alcaraz-Ibáñez & Sicilia, 2020; Alcaraz-Ibáñez et al., 2020;
25 Fitzsimmons-Craft, Harney, et al., 2012; Lanfranchi, Mañano, Morin, & Therme, 2015).

26 Different mechanisms of influence have been proposed to explain the relationship
27 between PAC/SPA and DE. For instance, findings from a study conducted among young
28 adult women suggest that these variables may exert a synergistic/moderating effect on DE or,
29 in other words, that the positive relationship between one of these two variables and DE may
30 increase in the presence of high levels in the other (Fitzsimmons-Craft, Harney, et al., 2012).
31 Findings from another study conducted among an adolescent sample (aged between 12-17)
32 examined the plausibility of both moderation and mediation effects, but only found support
33 for the latter (Alcaraz-Ibáñez et al., 2020). However, the research conducted by Alcaraz-
34 Ibáñez et al. (2020) was limited to adolescent participants and does not allow the
35 generalization of the mediating effect of SPA on the relationship between PAC and DE to
36 other populations particularly sensitive to experience both body-related concerns and DE. A
37 clear example of the latter would be emerging adults (Shagar, Harris, Boddy, & Donovan,
38 2017). This limitation is important in the light of evidence suggesting that the relationship
39 between subjective experiences of the body and their potential outcomes may not occur
40 equally across all developmental stages (Patalay, Sharpe, & Wolpert, 2015; Sharpe et al.,
41 2017). Providing deeper insight into the influencing mechanisms of PAC and SPA on DE
42 among emerging adults could contribute to a better understanding of the aetiology of this
43 potential disorder and, consequently, improve prevention and intervention efforts aimed at
44 reducing its prevalence in this population group.

45 The present study examined the moderating and mediating role of SPA on the
46 relationship between PAC and DE symptoms in a sample of emerging adults of both sexes.
47 By doing this, the present study extends previous research that addressed this issue in
48 adolescent population (Alcaraz-Ibáñez et al., 2020). On the basis of the results of previous
49 studies (Alcaraz-Ibáñez et al., 2020; Fitzsimmons-Craft, Harney, et al., 2012), it was
50 hypothesized that both PAC and SPA would be positively related to DE symptoms. In

51 addition, the hypothesized relationships were expected to emerge after controlling for several
52 variables of relevance in terms of eating disorders' aetiology such as sex, age, and body mass
53 index (BMI) (Alcaraz-Ibáñez, 2017; Alcaraz-Ibáñez et al., 2020; Ferreiro, Seoane, & Senra,
54 2012; Walker et al., 2015). In view of evidence suggesting that eating pathology may act as
55 mechanism that reduces negative mood that characterizes depression, the effect of depressive
56 symptoms were also controlled for (Puccio, Fuller-Tyszkiewicz, Ong, & Krug, 2016). Given
57 evidence supporting both the moderation (Fitzsimmons-Craft, Harney, et al., 2012) and the
58 mediation mechanisms (Alcaraz-Ibáñez et al., 2020), no specific hypothesis favouring one of
59 these effects was posited. In absence of evidence in support of the dimensionality, reliability,
60 and invariance across sex of the Spanish version of the PACS-R in Spanish emerging adults,
61 examining these issues was considered as a preliminary objective of the present study.

62 **2. Method**

63 **2.1. Participants**

64 Using a non-probabilistic sampling technique, an initial sample of 586 undergraduate
65 students from two public urban area universities from southern Spain were invited to
66 participate in the study. Geographical proximity was the only criterion used in the selection
67 of these two centres. Participants were subsequently excluded if they did not provide their
68 informed consent ($n=12$) or if they were: (a) not emerging adults (Arnett et al., 2014), that is,
69 younger than 18 or older than 30 years of age ($n=14$), or (b) currently diagnosed with a
70 psychiatric disorder ($n=5$). After applying these exclusion criteria, 555 participants (58.9%
71 women; $M_{\text{age}} = 21.34$ years, $SD_{\text{age}} = 2.80$) with a self-reported BMIs that ranged from 15.24
72 to 36.33 kg/m² ($M = 22.97$, $SD = 3.36$) were included in the analyses. The participants
73 identified themselves as being White/Caucasian (92%), Maghrebi (4%), Latin (1%), Black
74 (1%), Asian (1%) and Gypsy (1%).

75 **2.2. Measures**

76 **2.2.1. Physical appearance comparison.** This was assessed using the Spanish
77 translation (Alcaraz-Ibáñez et al., 2020) of the Physical Appearance Comparison Scale-
78 Revised (PACS-R; Schaefer & Thompson, 2014). This instrument comprises 11 items (e.g.
79 “*When I'm out in public, I compare my body size to the body size of others*”) rated on a five-
80 point scale ranging from 0 (*never*) to 4 (*always*), with higher scores representing more
81 frequent engagement in physical appearance comparisons. Evidence in support of the validity
82 and reliability of this instrument’s scores among male and female Spanish adolescents has
83 previously been found (Alcaraz-Ibáñez et al., 2020).

84 **2.2.2. Social physique anxiety.** This was assessed using the Spanish translation
85 (Sáenz-Alvarez, Sicilia, González-Cutre, & Ferriz, 2013) of the Social Physique Anxiety
86 Scale (SPAS; Motl & Conroy, 2000). This instrument comprises seven items (e.g. “*In the*
87 *presence of others, I feel apprehensive about my physique/figure*”) rated on a five-point scale
88 from 1 (*never*) to 5 (*always*), with higher scores representing more frequent experiences of
89 social physique-anxiety. Evidence in support of the validity and reliability of this
90 instrument’s scores among male and female Spanish young adults has previously been found
91 (Alcaraz-Ibáñez & Sicilia, 2020).

92 **2.2.3. Depressive symptoms.** This was assessed with the Spanish version of the
93 Depression sub-scale from the Brief Symptom Inventory-18 (BSI-18; Derogatis, 2000). This
94 instrument comprises six items (e.g., “*Feeling blue*”) that, rated on a five-point scale from 0
95 (*not at all*) to 4 (*extremely*), assess distress experienced over the previous seven days as a
96 result of depressive symptoms such as apathy, sadness, self-deprecation, anhedonia, loss of
97 hope, and suicidal ideation. Evidence in support of the validity and reliability of this
98 instrument’s scores among male and female Spanish young adults has previously been found
99 (Pereda, Forns, & Peró, 2007).

100 **2.2.4. Symptoms of disordered eating.** These were assessed using the Spanish
101 version of the SCOFF questionnaire (Morgan, Reid, & Lacey, 1999), validated among
102 adolescents (Caamaño, Aguiar, López-Otero, & Takkouche, 2002). Scored dichotomously
103 (No = 0, Yes = 1), the five items comprising this instrument reflect some of the key
104 characteristics of anorexia and bulimia nervosa (e.g., loss of eating control or food intrusive
105 thoughts). The instrument has previously been employed to provide a continuous score (i.e.,
106 higher scores suggest an increased risk of DE) among male and female Spanish young adults
107 (Alcaraz-Ibáñez & Sicilia, 2020; Garrido-Miguel et al., 2017).

108 **2.2.5. Demographics.** Participants reported their sex, ethnicity, age, height (in cm),
109 and weight (kg), the latter two being employed to calculate BMI (kg/m^2).

110 **2.3. Procedure**

111 Participants were recruited in classroom settings by one member of the research team.
112 After being briefly informed about the study's contents (body/eating attitudes) and the
113 anonymous nature of their participation, those students who provided their informed consent
114 (98%) completed a paper-and-pencil questionnaire. Two different counterbalanced
115 arrangements were used when presenting the measures included in the questionnaire.
116 Participants were asked to refrain from discussing and sharing their answers. No economic or
117 academic inducement were offered in exchange for participation. After completing the task,
118 the participants were debriefed and thanked. Data were collected from mid-2018 to late 2019.
119 The study was approved by the first author's university ethics committee.

120 **2.4. Statistical analyses**

121 **2.4.1. Preliminary analyses.** First, both the factor structure of the PACS-R and the
122 invariant nature of its scores across sex were examined. Similarly to previous research among
123 Spanish adolescents examining the factor structure and the invariant nature of the PACS-R
124 scores across sex, these issues were examined utilizing exploratory structural equation

125 modelling (ESEM) (Marsh, Morin, Parker & Kaur, 2014) in Mplus 7 (Muthén & Muthén,
126 1998-2015). According to the ordered categorical nature of the variable under consideration,
127 these ESEM models were tested employing the weighted least squares mean- and variance-
128 adjusted (WLSMV) estimation method (Li, 2015). Goodness-of-fit was evaluated using the
129 Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA).
130 Values above .95 or between .90-.95 (CFI) and below .06 or .10 (RMSEA), respectively,
131 indicate excellent or marginally acceptable fit (West, Taylor, & Wu, 2012). In multigroup
132 invariance analyses, statistically significant differences ($p < .05$) between nested models
133 (M0= equivalent factor structure; M1= equivalent factor loadings and item thresholds) in the
134 DIFFTEST implemented in Mplus 7 (Muthén & Muthén, 1998-2015) were considered as
135 indicative of non-invariance. Following this, values of composite reliability (ρ) for the
136 psychometric instruments were obtained using a CFA technique and the weighted least
137 squares mean- and variance-adjusted (WLSMV) estimation method in Mplus 7 (Muthén &
138 Muthén, 1998-2015). This method have been found to provide robust standard errors to the
139 absence of normality with polytomous ordinal data (Li, 2015). Next, plausible composite
140 scores for the assessed constructs were obtained (Asparouhov & Muthén, 2010) using Mplus
141 7, these being employed in subsequent analyses. Missing data (less than 1%) were handled
142 using WLSMV (in the CFA) and Bayesian [is there a word missing here? Shouldn't it be
143 'Bayesian [something]'?) (when estimating the plausible composite scores) estimation
144 methods of Mplus 7. Finally, descriptive statistics, bivariate correlations, and sex differences
145 across study variables were obtained and interpreted in terms of d effect size (Cohen, 1988).

146 **2.4.2. Main analyses.** As proposed in the study to be replicated (Alcaraz-Ibáñez et
147 al., 2020), the relationships of interest were examined using the following PROCESS macro
148 for SPSS models (Hayes, 2013): Model-1 (for examining the effect of the interaction between
149 PAC \times SPA on DE), Model-3 (for examining the effect of the interaction between PAC \times

150 SPA \times Sex on DE), Model-4 (for examining the mediating sequence PAC \rightarrow SPA \rightarrow DE), and
151 Model-59 (for examining the moderating effect of sex on this mediated relationship). In these
152 analyses, the associations under investigation are considered statistically significant when the
153 95% confidence interval (CI) obtained from applying a bias-corrected and accelerated
154 bootstrapping technique does not contain zero. The applied bootstrapping technique does not
155 require meeting assumptions such as homoscedasticity or residual normality (Hayes, 2013).
156 Before conducting the described regression analyses, all continuous variables were
157 standardized. Consequently, regression coefficients (β) are shown in their standardized form.
158 Age, sex, BMI, and depressive symptoms were introduced as covariates.

159 **3. Results**

160 **3.1. Preliminary Analyses**

161 The inter-correlation of the items within the PACS-R ranged from .66 to .86 both in
162 men and women. Item factor loadings for the tested factorial models segmented by sex are
163 shown in Table 1. The results of the ESEM models showed slightly improved goodness-of-fit
164 indices for a two-factor over a one-factor solution (see Table 2). Modification indices
165 suggested that model fit could be improved by correlating the error terms of Items 7 and 9. In
166 light of this finding, and consistent with the proposal by Alcaraz-Ibáñez et al. (2020), a third
167 alternative one-dimensional model in which the error terms of Items 7-9 were allowed to
168 freely correlate was also tested. Goodness-of-fit indices for this third factorial model were
169 shown to be acceptable among the men' and women' subsamples. The results of the
170 DIFFTEST showed significant differences between M0 and M1 between sex groups ($p =$
171 .002). The modification indices values suggested that the model fit could be improved by
172 freeing the constraints across threshold groups 1 and 2 of Item 6. After freeing the constraints
173 associated to these parameters, the DIFFTEST results showed non-significant differences
174 between M0 and M1 ($p = .089$). The percentage of freed parameters (i.e., 5%) was

175 significantly below the 20% maximum proposed as acceptable when examining partial
176 measurement invariance (Dimitrov, 2010).

177 Descriptive statistics, bivariate correlations, composite reliability, and sex differences
178 across study variables are shown in Table 3. As previously reported (Sáenz-Alvarez et al.,
179 2013), a weak factor loading was found (.09 for girls and -.07 for boys) for the only reverse-
180 worded item of the SPAS (Item 5). Therefore, and proceeding similarly to previous studies
181 (Alcaraz-Ibáñez & Sicilia, 2020; Alcaraz-Ibáñez et al., 2020), Item 5 was excluded from
182 further analyses. The scores for depressive symptoms, PAC, SPA, and DE symptoms were
183 below the mid-point of the scales. Age was weakly and negatively correlated with DE
184 symptoms. The remaining variables were moderately-to-strongly correlated with DE
185 symptoms, the sign of these relationships being positive. The aforementioned pattern of
186 correlations was observed both for men and women. Weak-to-small-sized sex differences
187 favouring women were found for all study variables except for the BMI, the latter being a
188 variable in which men showed slightly higher scores than women.

189 **3.2. Main Analyses**

190 The results from the first tested model showed that the interaction between PAC and
191 SPA ($\beta = .037$, $SE = .015$, $95\% CI = .006, .065$) significantly contributed to explaining
192 symptoms DE symptoms ($\Delta R^2 = .002$, $F [1, 547] = 5.560$, $p = .018$). More specifically, the
193 relationship between PAC and DE symptoms was found to be slightly lower at low ($\beta = .175$,
194 $SE = .037$, $95\% CI = .102, .247$) than high ($\beta = .246$, $SE = .035$, $95\% CI = .177, .314$) levels
195 of SPA. Additionally, the results from the second tested model revealed that a triple
196 interaction (i.e., $PAC \times SPA \times Sex$) was not plausible ($\beta = -.030$, $SE = .032$, $95\% CI = -.092$,
197 $.033$). The results from the third tested model showed the relationship between PAC and DE
198 to be positively mediated by SPA (see Table 4). The results from the fourth and final model
199 tested model showed that the relationships under investigation in the mediation model were

200 not moderated by sex. This was the case for the relationships between PAC and SPA ($\beta =$
201 $.026$, $SE = .052$, $95\% CI = -.076, .127$), SPA and DE ($\beta = .029$, $SE = .068$, $95\% CI = -.104,$
202 $.162$), and PAC and DE ($\beta = -.091$, $SE = .060$, $95\% CI = -.224$ to $.042$). Additionally, the CI
203 of the moderated mediation index (i.e., the difference between the indirect effects of PAC on
204 DE via SPA for men and women) included zero ($\beta = .032$, $SE = .052$, $95\% CI = -.069, .132$),
205 suggesting that no moderation by sex of the indirect effect was plausible.

206 **4. Discussion**

207 The present study sought to replicate findings among a sample of adolescents
208 concerning the relationship between PAC, SPA, and DE symptoms reported by Alcaraz-
209 Ibáñez et al. (2020) among a sample of emerging adults. Overall, findings from the present
210 study contribute to literature by providing evidence suggesting that two body-related
211 variables (i.e., PAC and SPA) may play a complementary role in explaining DE symptoms
212 not only among adolescents of both sexes (Alcaraz-Ibáñez et al., 2020) or women in their
213 young adulthood (Fitzsimmons-Craft, Harney, et al., 2012) but also among emerging adults
214 undergraduate students. However, as discussed below, the obtained findings do not provide
215 evidence that clearly supports one of the two potential mechanisms of influence (i.e.,
216 moderation and mediation) against the other.

217 In relation to the mediating effect of SPA on the relationship between PAC and DE,
218 findings from the present study were largely consistent with those from the study replicated
219 (Alcaraz-Ibáñez et al., 2020), in particular, because the presence of this effect on both sexes
220 was clearly supported in both studies. However, these findings slightly differ from those
221 reported by Alcaraz-Ibáñez et al. (2020). More specifically, because while similar in size
222 (i.e., $.037$ vs. $.027$), this interaction effect was found to be statistically significant in the
223 present study but not in the study by Alcaraz-Ibáñez et al. (2020). Furthermore, the findings
224 from the present study were aligned with those supporting this same significant interaction

225 effect among a sample of young women in another study (Fitzsimmons-Craft, Harney, et al.,
226 2012). In addition, the findings here expand on this previous study (Fitzsimmons-Craft,
227 Harney, et al., 2012) by suggesting that the moderating effect of SPA on the relationship
228 between PAC and DE may be also present among undergraduate student men in emerging
229 adulthood. Globally considered, these findings suggest that, and as highlighted by previous
230 research (Alcaraz-Ibáñez & Sicilia, 2020), the potential mental-health related outcomes
231 arising from negative subjective body experiences may occur among individuals of both
232 sexes.

233 Several limitations of the present study merit comment. Firstly, the cross-sectional
234 nature prevented us from establishing causality or the directionality among the examined
235 variables. This is particularly relevant because mediation necessarily implies change over
236 time (Hayes, 2013). Secondly, despite the multifaceted nature of body image-related
237 cognitions and affects (Cash, 2012), those considered in the present study only referred to
238 physical appearance. Furthermore, it has been suggested that considering social comparisons
239 refers not only to physical appearance but, additionally, to behaviours with the potential to
240 modify one's body (e.g., eating or exercise) may incrementally contribute to explain DE
241 (Fitzsimmons-Craft & Bardone-Cone, 2014; Fitzsimmons-Craft, Bardone-Cone, & Harney,
242 2012). The latter may also apply to SPA experiences, in this case, considering not only
243 physical appearance-related ones but also those that refer to other body features such as
244 functionality (Alcaraz-Ibáñez, Sicilia, & Paterna, 2019). Finally, the sample examined in the
245 present study comprised a convenience sample of non-clinical emerging adults. Therefore,
246 generalizing the results obtained to other populations of interest (e.g., those clinically
247 diagnosed with an eating disorder) is not possible.

248 Overall, findings from the present study inform cognitive-behavioural models of body
249 image (Cash, 2012), suggesting that a cognitive process such as PAC and an affective

250 experience such as SPA interactively contribute to the risk of DE among Spanish
251 undergraduate students in emerging adulthood. From these findings it follows that
252 implementing strategies aimed at decreasing PAC and SPA (e.g., implementing public
253 campaigns to raise awareness about the need to adopt a critical view on socially prescribed
254 but largely unrealistic body ideals) may contribute to decreasing the risk of DE among this
255 population. The findings from the present study indicate the need for further prospective
256 research that, extending from adolescence to young adulthood and considering other body
257 features beyond appearance and both healthy/clinical populations, may contribute to enhance
258 the understanding of the role of social comparisons and SPA on eating pathologies.

259

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- 382

1 Table 1

2 *Item Factor Loadings for tested Factorial Models across Sex*

Item	Women (<i>n</i> = 327)				Men (<i>n</i> = 228)			
	2F				2F			
	1F	F1	F2	1Fc	1F	F1	F2	1Fc
1	.91	.95	-.03	.91	.86	.83	.25	.87
2	.94	.95	.00	.94	.89	.84	.28	.89
3	.95	.93	.03	.95	.90	.83	.33	.90
4	.93	.45	.53	.93	.83	.89	.06	.89
5	.87	.26	.64	.88	.87	.84	-.08	.83
6	.84	.25	.63	.85	.87	.88	-.01	.87
7	.92	-.13	1.06	.90	.89	.90	-.10	.86
8	.95	.59	.40	.95	.96	.96	.00	.96
9	.89	.00	.91	.86	.87	.89	-.14	.84
10	.93	.21	.75	.93	.83	.88	-.31	.83
11	.83	.38	.48	.83	.75	.74	.08	.75

3 *Note.* 1F = one-factor; 2F =two-factor. In the model labelled 1Fc, the error terms of Items 7
4 and 9 were allowed to correlate freely, the values of such correlations being $r = .53$ (girls), r
5 = $.45$ (boys). In models labelled 2F (i.e., two-factor ESEM models), the correlations between
6 factors were $r = .86$ (women), $r = .09$ (men).

7

1 Table 2

2 *Goodness-of-fit Indices for Tested Models and Invariance across Sex*

Model	CFI	RMSEA (90% CI)	χ^2	Df	$\Delta\chi^2$ (Δdf)	DIFFTEST p-value
Women 1F	.990	.103 (.088, .117)	195.254	44		
Women 2F	.997	.062 (.044, .081)	77.021	34		
Women 1Fc	.992	.092 (.077, .107)	161.384	43		
Men 1F	.987	.094 (.076, .112)	150.466	44		
Men 2F	.994	.074 (.052, .096)	76.344	34		
Men 1Fc	.989	.086 (.068, .109)	116.054	43		
Women/Men 1Fc (Configural)	.991	.089 (.078, .101)	276.550	86		
Women/Men 1Fc (Invariant FL+T)	.992	.072 (.062, .082)	311.403	128	34.853 (42)	>.001
Women/Men 1Fc (Par-Invariant FL+T)	.992	.072 (.061, .082)	305.518	126	28.968 (40)	.088

3 *Note.* CFI = Comparative Fit Index, RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation,
4 CI = confidence interval, *df* = degrees of freedom, FL+T = Factor loadings and thresholds,
5 2F = two-factor ESEM models, 1Fc = error terms between Items 7 and 9 were allowed to
6 correlate freely, Par = Partially. In the partially invariant model, constraints across threshold
7 1 and 2 of Item 6 were freed.

8 Table 3
 9 *Descriptive Statistics, Correlational Analysis and Sex Differences*

	1	2	3	4	5	6	Women (n = 327)				Men (n = 228)				<i>d</i> (95% CI)
							Range ^a	ρ	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Range ^a	ρ	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	
1. Age	-	.17*	.01	-.15*	-.13*	-.10	18-30	-	21.46	2.68	18-30	-	21.16	2.95	-0.11 (-0.28, 0.06)
2. BMI	-.12*	-	-.07	-.04	.00	.20**	15.24-36.33	-	22.49	3.62	17.92-34.09	-	23.64	2.83	0.35 (0.18, 0.52)
3. Depressive symptoms	-.07	.09	-	.37***	.54***	.55***	0-4	.91	1.11	0.98	0-4	.88	0.82	0.86	-0.31 (-0.48, -0.14)
4. PAC	-.04	.27***	.47***	-	.74***	.65***	0-4	.97	1.38	1.11	0-4	.96	1.06	0.90	-0.31 (-0.48, -0.14)
5. SPA	-.08	.35***	.59***	.79***	-	.79***	1-5	.95	2.52	1.13	1-5	.95	2.02	0.95	-0.47 (-0.64, -0.30)
6. DE symptoms	-.07	.37***	.59***	.78***	.87***	-	0-5	.80	0.97	1.20	0-5	.75	0.75	1.00	-0.20 (-0.37, -0.03)

10 *Note.* BMI= Body mass index; ρ = Composite reliability index; *d* = Cohen’s *d* effect size of difference. To facilitate interpretation, means and standard
 11 deviations for depressive symptoms, physical appearance comparisons (PAC), social physique anxiety (SPA) and symptoms of disordered eating (DE)
 12 correspond to instruments’ mean scores. Correlations were derived from plausible composite latent scores. Correlation values below (above) the diagonal
 13 correspond to girls (boys).

14 ^a Referring to the observed range in the case of age/BMI and the possible range for the remaining variables.

15 **p* < .05; ***p* < .01; ****p* < .001

16 Table 4

17 *Summary of Direct and Indirect Effects of Physical Appearance Comparison on Symptoms of*
18 *Disordered Eating*

Outcomes	Predictors	β	SEB	95% BCA-CI	
				Lower	Upper
SPA $F(5, 549) = 245.899, p < .001,$ $R^2 = .691$	Age	-.055	.024	-.103	-.008
	Sex	-.165	.050	-.103	-.008
	BMI	.125	.025	.077	.174
	Depressive symptoms	.293	.027	.241	.346
	PAC	.613	.027	.560	.666
DE symptoms $F(6, 548) = 304.888, p < .001,$ $R^2 = .769$	Age	-.017	.021	-.059	.024
	Sex	-.018	.044	-.104	.067
	BMI	.141	.022	.098	.184
	Depressive symptoms	.160	.025	.110	.210
	PAC	.217	.033	.153	.281
	SPA	.557	.037	.484	.629
	PAC (indirect effect through SPA)	.341	.027	.293	.399
	PAC (total effect)	.558	.028	.503	.613

19 *Note.* β = standardized estimates, referring to direct effect (unless otherwise stated); *SE* =
20 Standard error; BCA-CI = bias corrected and accelerated confidence interval; BMI = body
21 mass index. PAC = physical appearance comparisons; SPA = social physique anxiety; DE =
22 disordered eating. Results are derived from a 10,000 resample bootstrapping analysis. Except
23 for the effect of both age and sex on DE symptoms, all the presented effects were
24 significantly different from zero at the $p < .05$ level.